Durham E-Theses

Classroom management approaches of primary teachers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: Descriptions and the development of curriculum and instruction with a focus on Islamic education teachers

ALDOSSARI, ALI,TARED,N

How to cite:

Use policy

Durham University

School of Education

Curricular Studies

Classroom management approaches of primary teachers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: Descriptions and the development of curriculum and instruction with a focus on Islamic education teachers

A thesis submitted to the Durham University in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education (Curriculum and Pedagogy Group).

By

ALI TARED ALDOSSARI

2013

i

DECLARATION

This thesis is as a result of my research and has not been submitted for any other degree in any other university.

ABSTRACT

The modern era has witnessed considerable change in the educational environment which in turn has contributed to classroom management problems for teachers. The issue of classroom management, which is one of the most common fears for teachers, has received increased attention in Saudi Arabia recently. However, it remains one of the key challenges at all stages of the education system. This research describes the reality of classroom management approaches practiced by primary teachers of upper classes (boys) with a focus on Islamic education teachers in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. The research provides suggestions for the development of curricula and teaching methods. The questionnaire was the main instrument used supported by observing 31 teachers in order to validate the questionnaire results and have a deeper understand of the research problem. The participants included 547 teachers and 87 educational supervisors. The data were analysed using the SPSS programme. Frequencies, descriptive statistics, inferential statistics (t-test and ANOVA), Factor analysis, reliability analysis, correlation and GLM with two way interaction were used for the analysis. Results indicate that teachers and educational supervisors realise the importance of the role of classroom management approaches on the quality of teaching performance. Although teachers are attempting to be effective across a range of different circumstances there are challenges that hinder the practice of effective classroom management. For example, school buildings, both rented and state-owned, are a major problem that requires to be resolved by the government, as most buildings do not support teaching practice. This is exacerbated by the large size of classes, with up to 40 pupils being taught by one teacher. After drawing the conclusions, suggestions and recommendations are offered for improving the quality of classroom management approaches in Saudi primary schools. From the qualitative data, for example there are a number of suggestions related to classrooms and buildings, to curricula, to teaching aids and technical equipment, to training courses on classroom management, to teachers' motivations in classroom management, to educational supervisors' methods, and to the culture of teacher-pupil-parents relationships. Finally, future research should be conducted on aspects such as the role of the educational supervisor in developing classroom management approaches and the effect of school buildings on classroom management approaches. Furthermore, the effectiveness of the classroom environment on teaching and curriculum performance in the various stages of the education system can be carried out.

DEDICATION

This effort is dedicated to the soul of my dear parents who have not seen the fruit of their support and effort.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

IN THE NAME OF Allah, THE MERCIFUL, THE COMPASSIONATE

First of all, all praise be to God for helping me, granting me good health and providing qualified people and those that have supported and cooperated with me. These people also deserve my sincere thanks.

A very special thank you is due to my primary supervisor, ***Professor Peter Tymms***, The Head of School and Chair of Board of Studies in the School of Education for his support and encouragement, along with his courtesy and politeness. I had the honour to work with him in thesis; he was highly supportive and encouraging. I am grateful to him for his great efforts to complete my thesis. He also helped me with valuable matters that will affect my academic and social life positively. A special thank you is also due to my second supervisor, ***Professor Joe Elliott,*** Principal of The Collingwood College in the School of Education for his direction, valued opinions and comments that contributed significantly to the development of the thesis. I was lucky indeed to be supervised by these two respected professors.

I would also like to express my deep appreciation to my wife, *Sara,* for her patience and support despite her illness at the beginning of this thesis. She influenced me through her challenge and support.

I cannot forget the role of my brothers, sisters and children for their continuous support during my thesis.

Thankfulness is also extended to the government of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, the Ministry of Higher Education and Dammam University for offering me the chance to complete my postgraduate studies.

Thanks also to the Faculty of Education, Durham University which offered me the chance to complete my PhD thesis and benefit from its facilities.

Last but not least I would like to thank all those who helped and advised me whom I have not been able to name.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER VI: DATA ANALYSIS FROM THE RESPONSES TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.0 INTRODUCTION

One of the most significant factors which lead to a successful teaching process is that a teacher possesses good educational classroom management approaches. This may be due to the fact that classroom management is directly related to the teacher's job; it may help him/her reduce the monotony in the education process.

Researchers point out that the issue of classroom management is one of the most common fears facing teachers at the start of their career (Cains & Brown, 1998a; 1998b; Elliott & Stemler, 2008), besides being a major obstacle towards employing new teachers (Whitehead et al., 1999; Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000; Rawlinson et al., 2003) and a source of concern for those employed (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006).

Despite the use of modern technology, Arabic educational literature, including Saudi literature, still reflects an inability to achieve better pupils' performance in the presence of the government high expenditure. Although there have been improvements in teachers' skills, the levels have not reached the internationally-accepted standards. Indeed, there are some educational experts in Saudi Arabia (KSA) who believe that teaching in the past was better than now.

Classroom management is an essential part of the teacher's job; a teacher who does not manage the classroom properly cannot produce effective teaching process. During teaching, a teacher needs to invest time and effort properly, in addition to using the appropriate tools and equipment available, with a view to achieving the required changes in the learners' behaviour

according to their needs, abilities and the area in which they live. Good classroom management also requires strong planning based on suitable approaches to achieve the level of discipline necessary and the coordination between the teacher's role and the needs of the pupils. Classroom management also helps the teachers and pupils cope with different educational situations, make use of the different equipment available. These aspects help to build a classroom environment that will lead to successful teaching, fulfilling the educational aims needed.

Classroom management has received increased attention in Saudi Arabia recently .However, it remains one of the challenges that face both new and experienced teachers at all stages of the education system, whether in lower or upper primary classes or in high schools. This is because classroom management is often highly dependent on the teacher.

Traditional methods prevailed in education in Saudi Arabia for many years based around behavioural rules and principles. Alhamid et al. (2009) refer to the fact that the pupil was thought of as a recipient of knowledge and that the teacher dominates the pupils and the topic. Thus, teachers preferred classroom management approaches that coped with their behavioural method of teaching (Garrett, 2005).

The contested nature of the concepts related to classroom management have resulted in the adoption of different methods and styles; some teachers believe in a management philosophy based on authority and issuing orders, others believe in giving students the chance to participate in the education process, while yet others go to the extent of giving the pupils full freedom to manage the classroom. Many studies, such as Good (1979), Evertson and Emmer (1982), Merrett and Wheldall (1982), Evertson (1989), Ashour (1997), Hemeda (1997) and Tawlba (2000), deal with the teacher from the side of basic teaching efficient refer to classroom management and its importance in achieving the educational aims. Thus, Evertson

and Emmer (1982) stress its importance in achieving the educational aims and consider classroom management a main requirement for effective learning, while Tawlba (2000) considers classroom management at the top of the skills necessary for effective teaching. Ashour (1997) argues that teacher training programmes should concentrate on classroom management skills practically as well as the theoretical aspect. The research of Hemeda (1997) emphasises the effectiveness of classroom management in developing the teacher's performance.

In relation to some studies in Arab countries such as that by Sharaf Aldeen, (2001) from Egypt call for a special syllabus on classroom management to be added to the curriculum of faculty of education students. The study by Alabadi from Jordan (2000) highlights giving more care and attention to classroom management on the part of head teachers and educational supervisors when evaluating teachers. Furthermore, Shokeer from Egypt (1996) recommends developing teachers' standards through specially designed programmes for this purpose.

From the above, the importance of classroom management in achieving a successful teaching process is apparent. It is difficult, if not impossible, to separate the role of the school management from that of classroom management; it is an integrated part of it. This research concentrates on classroom management approaches practised by teachers as it is an essential skill utilized inside the classroom with the pupils.

Because of the importance of classroom management to effective teaching, in addition to the scarcity of studies in this regard in Saudi Arabia, the researcher decided to undertake the research in order to become acquainted with the reality of classroom management approaches. The researcher sheds light on this important topic and provides recommendations that could help develop classroom management approaches and accordingly, development of

curriculum and instruction in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) in a way that matches the desires and aspirations of the officials in charge of the Kingdom.

1.1 THE PROBLEM ADRESSED BY THE RESEARCH

Doyle (1980) believes that a calm atmosphere in classroom creates a suitable environment for carrying out teaching activities and tasks. This was proved through the meta-analysis of the variables that may affect learning in general (Freiberg & Brophy, 1999). The modern era has witnessed many changes in the educational environment which in turn has made classroom management a significant issue to be addressed by both teachers and educational supervisors.

The classroom education process is not confined to helping pupils acquire new habits and information in classroom, but to enable them to make better use of these habits and information in their daily life (Gado, 2008). According to Hemdan (2006), teachers have two main roles in the classroom, educational and non-educational or managerial, with the latter role constituting a core responsibility, as stressed by many other field studies. There is a close relationship between these two aspects, as the basic skills of classroom management and organising the educational environment are instrumental in effective classroom teaching (Shanti & Oda, 2007). Many studies agree that classroom management is a topic of significant importance to teachers and therefore requires to be given due attention, particularly by less experienced teachers (Yost & Mosca, 2002; Burns, 2002). This issue is also likely to be important to parents and pupils, as it can impact directly upon the effectiveness of the educational process and because the allocation of classroom time to solving these kinds of problems reduces the time available for learning (Gado, 2008). It can therefore be argued that classroom management plays an important role in the use of time and facilities to achieve more successful learning outcomes (Algamdi, 1994). Classroom management is both a science and an art (Gado, 2008), demonstrating the character of the

teacher, as well as their ability to apply effective educational methods and foster a positive educational atmosphere that enables pupils to benefit from the school syllabus (Ahmed et al., 2005).

The issue of classroom management as a skill is fundamentally important in the Saudi Arabian context, with analytical studies of Saudi teachers often highlighting problems that can be directly attributed to classroom management (Hasan, 2003). While, economic factors, such as a low standard of living that forces parents to send their children out to work before completing their education, are important, evidence suggests that classroom behaviour may have a more significant impact on pupils' educational success. For example, the dictatorial teacher who teaches through memorisation can be considered an important reason for many children not completing their education. Despite the aim of successful classroom management being to facilitate interaction with pupils, leading to active participation and a lively atmosphere (Ahmed, 2006), the traditional role of Saudi teachers depends mainly on memorisation, resulting in the failure to learn dialogue skills.

Centralization and bureaucracy is argued to be reflected in the widespread domination of autocratic school management in the Saudi education system which impedes change and innovation (Alotibi, 2003). This problem of inflexibility in school management can result in the absence of planning towards classroom management, in turn undermining the required goals. As classroom management is directly affected by school and directorate management, as well as by the wider social system, teachers show less interest in classroom management (Ahmed, 2006).

Another important problem facing education is the lack of school buildings suitable for the provision of education, with many schools relying upon rented buildings that do not meet the necessary specifications (Hasan, 2003). Government school buildings also suffer from many

problems. The Ministry of Education (2007) states that only 40% of government schools are not up to the required standards, needing more classrooms and more sophisticated educational equipment. In the framework of renewing school management and updating the technology to cope with the information age, head teachers should participate in the education process by acting as an educational supervisor whilst maintaining classroom management, organising school work, guiding and developing teachers' performances, visiting classrooms and evaluating teachers (Ahmed, 2006). However, even where the technology is available, its adoption may be complicated by the possibility of hidden resistance to modern educational options from those teachers who prefer more traditional methods (Alhamid et al., 2009).

A further problem is that of the use of physical punishment. Article 57 of the organisational rules in 2000 stipulates that a pupil may not be physically punished or insulted (Ministry of Education, 2000). The rules 'Organising Behaviour and Punctuality' in its second edition in 2007–2008, are laid out in article 25, page 16 which stipulates that non-educational practices should be avoided due to the negative effect on the pupil and his/her school achievement (Ministry of Education, 2008). However, this article is not fully applied by all teachers (Alhamid et al., 2009).

The success of classroom education in general is related directly to the degree to which the teacher succeeds in the classroom management process, which is one of the teacher's main duties. Therefore, having the skills and approaches of classroom management is considered an essential condition to achieve effective learning. Thus, the role of the teacher is no longer confined to transfer information to the pupils as was the case in the past in the KSA. The role now includes planning and organising the educational environment, enhancing pupils' motivations, encouraging them to adopt effective learning strategies, and raise awareness of

team-work. The teacher is considered an educational director, councillor, guide, developer and leader in relation to activities and classroom discussions.

Overall, the need for this research is supported by the following factors:

- The pupil in the primary school spends about 7 hours a day inside the classroom under the supervision of the teacher.

- The complaints of many teachers, administrators, educational supervisors and head teachers about the inefficiency of the teachers in the field of classroom management from the aspects of planning, organising, coordination, directing, communication and time management (Babtain, 1995). The inefficiency results in hidden problems, such as chaos in the classroom, pupils keeping silent and not interacting with the teachers and other pupils and the failure to highlight to pupils the options available in different situations.

- In 2007, Ministry of Education in Saudi issued and certified an ethics charter for the education profession on the subject of classroom management (Ministry of Education, 2007). The fifth act of the charter deals with the relationship between the teacher and the pupil highlighting the need for the teacher to have the essential skills that guarantee the ability of the teacher to correctly direct his/her pupils, understand the needs of the pupils and apply the relevant teaching process.

- Existing research which fuels the beliefs of many educators that emphasises the importance of classroom management and hence the need to ensure the teacher learns the appropriate skills.

Furthermore, the researcher works in the education field as an instructor in the Faculty of curriculum and instruction at a university in the KSA. During the researcher's work, he read many educational research papers, some of them are on classroom management and its approaches. The researcher also has experience in teaching, watching other teachers inside

the classroom and supervising undergraduate students who are preparing to become teachers. During these experiences the researcher became aware of the great need to develop classroom management approaches, curriculum and instruction accordingly which is important in supporting teachers. The researcher firmly believes that understanding the development of the approaches of classroom management requires reviewing the approaches practised in the classroom accordingly.

The reason for choosing the primary school as the research focus is that the researcher believes this stage is fundamental in the education system.

1.2 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

The significance of this study emerges from the fact that the teacher spends most of his/her time in school inside the classroom. Thus, the teacher as an educational leader should be well equipped with classroom management skills in order to teach effectively. Furthermore, this field is very important because classroom management is considered one of the most embarrassing matters for teachers, educational supervisors and even the public especially as the education system develops in the KSA.

The researcher expects this research to:

- Fill the some of the gaps in the scientific research in the field of classroom management in relation to Saudi Arabia, in particular for boys' primary school education.
- Sheds light on the approaches related to classroom management.
- Benefit educational actors in the KSA such as Ministry of Education, school head teachers, educational supervisors and teachers through providing real classroom management approaches besides enhancing and developing positive sides in addition to avoiding negative ones.

- Help the development of the curriculum and instruction based on the results of this research.

1.3 THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This research aims to achieve the following:

- To establish what management approaches are used in classroom activities by the teachers of the upper classes in the primary schools for boys in Riyadh City in the KSA.

- To identify the preferred approaches and trends in classroom management strategies that teachers use in the upper classes of primary school for boys in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

- To identify the relationship between variables such as job, degree of qualifications, years of experience, training programmes in classroom management, the subject taught and educational supervisors of the upper classes in primary schools for boys on the use of approaches in classroom management.

- To present suggestions based on the research to develop and improve classroom management approaches, the curriculum and the education system in Saudi Arabia.

These objectives were chosen partly because classroom management was one of the modern programmes presented by the Educational Training Section at the Training Department, Ministry of Education from its inception in 1994 to 2010. All these matters encourage the need-to-know effect of such programmes focusing on the teacher's performance with regard to classroom management.

The reason for the desire to identify the relationship between the variables mentioned above is that research (Evertson & Harris, 1992) shows that classroom management training programmes should be based mainly on established relationships and should not be

theoretical only but practical and applicable in classrooms. Therefore the relationships become significant in understanding and planning for change.

Further, Huling et al. (2001) emphasise the desirability of having teachers participate in preparing such programmes to achieve direct professional benefits which are reflected in turn on their classroom management performance.

A specific point relating to the different effects of qualifications is that some teachers and supervisors received educational training qualifications while others did not. An interesting question is whether there is a difference in performance or not. This will have relevance to policy.

Although education is supervised mainly by the Ministry of Education centrally, seven educational centres are involved in the supervision process, and it is important to investigate teachers' performance in detail in one of those areas so that it can lay the foundation for comparison with results in other, future studies.

1.4 THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main research question is: What classroom management approaches are used in the upper classes in primary schools (boys) in Riyadh City in the kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) according to teachers and educational supervisors? Based on this question, the research investigates the following sub-questions:

- What management approaches are used during classroom activities in the upper class teachers in boys' primary schools?

- What is the preferred approach of classroom management for teachers in the upper classrooms in the primary stage?

- Are there statistically significance differences between teachers' classroom management in terms of the following variables: degree of qualifications, years of experience, training programme in classroom management, and subject taught?

- Are there any statistical significant differences between teachers and supervisors resulting from the changes in the variables: the job, degree of qualifications, years of experience, training programme in classroom management, and subject taught?

- What are the suggestions of the sample members (teachers and educational supervisors) for developing the approaches of classroom management and accordingly, curriculum and instruction for teachers in the upper classes in boys' primary schools?

1.5 THE RESEARCH BOUNDARIES

The research is constrained geographically to Riyadh City, KSA. It is restricted to the upper classes in public sector boys' primary schools. The sample is limited to teachers and education supervisors with a focus of Islamic education teachers and educational supervisors operating in the geography area and the relevant schools.

Other limitations and difficulties experienced in the research will be highlighted in the concluding chapter.

1.6 OVERVIEW OF THE THESIS

This thesis is divided into nine chapters. The first chapter is an introduction and covers the research problem, and its significance, aims, questions and limits. The chapter ends with a discussion of the terms used in this study. Chapter two presents a background of Saudi Arabia, the location for the research. The chapter highlights the cultural, social, historical, environmental and philosophical context of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) in relation to the research. Thereafter, the principles of the education policy in the Kingdom are discussed, as are a number of education issues. Finally, the status of the education system and the challenges facing education in Saudi Arabia are also considered. Chapter three reviews

the literature in relation to the study on the classroom management. Chapter four tackles the methodology, while chapter five discusses the research design and procedures used in this study.

Chapter six involves the analysis and presentation of the data derived from the main research instrument, the questionnaire, while chapter seven presents an analysis of the data from the observational data, as well as comparing the results of the questionnaire and observation. Chapter eight presents a discussion of the findings of the study. The final chapter is a conclusion summarising the main findings, and discussing the limitations of the study, future research, recommendations and the contributions of the research.

1.7 KEY RESEARCH TERMS

1.7.1 The Primary Stage

General education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has three stages; primary, intermediate and secondary. The primary stage is considered the most important educational stage as it constitutes the fundamental official in K.S.A. This is a 6-year stage and the pupil joins it at the age of six (Aletebi, 2005). The Ministry of Education terms the first three years 'lower classes' and the next three years 'higher classes'.

The curricula in the primary stage concentrate on Islamic education, Arabic, cultural and science subjects. At the end of the year, having passed the exams in the first two terms, the pupil is promoted to the higher class. A pupil who passes the exams in year six is awarded a primary stage completion certificate that qualifies him/her to join the intermediate stage (Ministry of Education, 2010).

This research tackles teachers and educational supervisors of upper classes with a focus on teachers and educational supervisors of Islamic education.

1.7.2 Educational Supervisors

The educational supervisor is one a specialist in the curriculum and teaching methods whose main job is to help teachers professionally by solving any educational problems faced and improve their methods of teaching and directing the educational process effectively. Babtain (1995:106) defines the educational supervisor as "A link between the teacher and the body responsible for him/her professionally. The educational supervisor supervises a particular subject and does his/her best to develop the teacher's teaching and educational skills".

The Ministry of Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia considers that the educational supervisor's participation in developing the educational process is important as his/her role affects the practices of teachers in classrooms. Through the educational supervisor, the study curricula are reconsidered, and school management and pupils' standards improve. In a bid to produce results that are helpful, the researcher wanted the participation of the educational supervisors in order to understand their view on classroom management approaches practiced by primary school teachers of upper classes in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

It was decided to focus especially on the educational supervisor because this is the person appropriately qualified in the field of education to supervise the teachers in his/her own discipline, provide them with information about new trends, encourage them and help them raise their educational and managerial competencies necessary for managing classes properly and effectively (Babtain, 1995)..

Bridges, Groves (1999) and Bridges (1992) stress the fact that incompetent management of a teacher may be traced to supervisors who are not inclined to do their job in respect of evaluating him/her and providing suitable guidance to him/her.

Glatthorn et al., (1997) state that the success of the professional growth programmes depends on the attitudes of the educational supervisors and to what extent they desire to implement them and provide the necessary resources and environment.

The participation of the educational supervisors in this research may be useful because one of the main responsibilities of educational supervisors is to help the teacher develop his abilities and skills, besides choosing the best methods and strategies for classroom management and overcoming class difficulties (Gado, 2008).

It is important to mention here that the duties of the educational supervisors include classroom visits in order to evaluate the teacher's performance and its effect on the pupils. Classroom visits are intended to facilitate co-operative analytical guidance between the educational supervisor and the teacher. It is a significant feature of the practical education activities, especially if it is utilised effectively by the educational supervisor.

Classrooms visits can be helpful as recording and evaluation of the methods and activities used can be made, in order to reconstruct the performance and provide what is needed. This will result in better awareness of the role and responsibility of educational supervisors.

1.7.3 Classroom Management

It is very important to make the concept of classroom management sufficiently clear in order for its impact on the learning process to be understood. There is a direct relationship between the concept of classroom management and various research perspectives since 1960s (Evertson & Harris, 1999). The 1960s marked a change in these concepts. Classroom management was thought of as a discipline or rather a matter of correcting pupils' misbehaviour. On the other hand, many researchers believe that classroom management is far greater than controlling pupils' misbehaviour.

The concepts of classroom management vary. However, in general, classroom management is not confined to managerial sides of class control and discipline, however, also includes the rules, activities and measures provided by the teacher in order to achieve a positive and interactive social atmosphere inside the class, which helps to achieve the aspired educational goals. The success of a teacher in this regard depends on their making use of the managerial classroom abilities of planning, organisation, guidance, follow up, evaluation and time management. Evertson and Weinstein (2006:4) define classroom management as "the actions teachers take to create an environment that supports and facilitates both academic and social-emotional learning. In other words, classroom management has two distinct purposes: 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 ". The definition of classroom management is discussed in the literature review chapter.

CHAPTER II

THE KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA: EDUCATION AND SOME MAIN ELEMENTS ON THE COUNTRY

2.0 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to highlight the contextual background for this study. The chapter looks at the cultural, social, historical, environmental and philosophical aspects of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA). Thereafter, the principles of the education policy are discussed, as are a number of education issues. Finally, the status of the education system and the challenges facing education in Saudi Arabia are also considered.

2.1 GENERAL OVERVIEW

The official name of the country is The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in which the research is carried out. It is one of the largest countries in terms of territory in Asia and the largest in the Arabian Peninsula. To the north and north east, it borders Jordon and Iraq and in the east of the Arabian Peninsula its neighbours are Kuwait, Qatar and Bahrain, while it borders Oman in the south east and Yemen in the south (Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2010).

The kingdom is divided into five main provinces: the central, the northern, the southern, the eastern and the western. The study was carried out in Riyadh City which is the capital of KSA and is situated in the Central Province. The KSA is geographically varied. There are forests in the south, mountains in the west and south west. Deserts cover 50% of the total area (Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2010).

2.1.1 Economy and Population

Hydrocarbons and its derivatives are the main source of income for the KSA. Oil constitutes 90% of the gross domestic product (GDP); and it has the largest oil reserves in the world at 26% of the world's reserves (Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2010). The revenues derived from oil and gas have allowed Saudi Arabia to finance development in many fields, including education.

In 2010, the population in the KSA was 27.5 million with a growth rate of 2.3% yearly which is among the highest in the world (Ministry of Economy and Planning, KSA, 2010). At this rate of growth the population is expected to double in the next five decades adding to already youthful demographics: 65% of the population is below 30 years of age (Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2010). The high birth rate and already youthful population increase the pressure to provide an education system that meets the developmental needs of the country.

2.1.2 Cultural and Social Environment

Islam is the official religion in Saudi Arabia and underpins its constitution and laws (Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2010). Millions of Muslims from all over the world are asked to perform the Omra and Haj, ritual Islamic practices that involve performing prayers in Makah at least once in a life time. The Saudi government considers Islamic education a compulsory subject at all general education stages (Alhamid et al., 2009).

Arabic is the official language which is why the questionnaire in this study was in Arabic. However, English is used widely in business and international relations.

2.2 THE EDUCATION POLICY IN THE KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA

2.2.1 Historical Aspects

In the first education conference in the modern Saudi state held in Makah in 1923, King Abdul Aziz Al Saud urged his people to spread education; this reflected the king's awareness of the education importance for the individual and society (Hakeem, 2007). Following the conference, in 1925, the King issued a decree to establish the General Information Directorate in Makah in 1925 which had as it remit the organisation and supervision of education (Hakeem, 2007). In 1926, a System of the State Fundamental Directions was issued: article 23 states the missions of the General Information Director as follows: Distribution of information, sciences and trades besides spreading libraries, science institutions and supporting the rules and principles of Islam all over the Kingdom of Hejaz (Hakeem,2007).

In 1937, a new law for the Knowledge Directorate stipulated that the General Knowledge Directorate had authority for the supervision for all education with the exception of military education. This changed in 1953 when the Ministry of Knowledge was established with the objective of improving the quality and quantity of education (High Committee on Education Policy, 2002).

Establishing the Ministry of Knowledge in 1953 marked a radical change in the education concepts giving rise to an education methodology to guide and organise education throughout the Kingdom. According to Alhamid et al. (2009), the kingdom's education policy was developed in parallel to that of neighbouring Arab countries, by adopting their curriculum and plans and even books. From the outset the Ministry of Knowledge promoted two main trends. The first was widening the availability of education by all means. The second trend focused on quality because if quality is not considered, the result will be a semi-educated

people that create a future burden on society. According to Alhamid et al. (2009), the Saudi education policy adopted both trends with large numbers of schools opened whilst bearing in mind the need to improve the quality of education offered.

In 1963, the High Committee on Education Policy was established to develop primary education as the main pillar for spreading education. The Committee also was charged with boosting vocational and technical education (High Committee on Education Policy, 2002). Then, in 1970, the KSA issued the Education Policy Document (EPD) as a formal declaration stating the principles of education and its role in preparing the youth for the future by providing them with the necessary facts, concepts, skills, trends and values necessary to achieve progress (Alhamid et al.,2009).

2.2.2 Philosophical Aspects

The education policy comes at the apex of the education system which is derived from society's general philosophy. Decision makers decide what is required from the education system. They attempt to answer the question: What does the society want from education or the education system? This means that the education policy should be derived from a clear education philosophy based on principles drawn from society's general philosophy. This is due to the fact that the state's education policy is not confined to the general guideline principles however should have a group of strong interrelated aims. In this way the education philosophy supported by society's philosophy provides a clear vision and real justifications for education policy. They also provide the comprehensiveness and integration necessary to create an integrated education system that starts with an education philosophy derived from society's general philosophy and ends with drawing education strategies and the resultant education plans, programmes and projects (Alesa, 2008). It can be said that "the education

policy is directly related with the state's general policy, in the sense that it expresses the society's desires and aims from education in general" (Alesa, 2008:11).

The Saudi education system philosophy is based on the principle and teachings of Islam. It aims to embed the principles of Islam in young people. This philosophy is clear in the education policy document issued in 1970; Algamdi (2007) states that this document specifies the passage Saudi education should follow in all stages. It is important to mention that the Saudi education policy expresses in general terms of the need to make the individual aware of God and religion and to satisfy the needs of society. These needs are achieved in all stages of education, plans, administration system and all organs managing education (Alesa, 2008).

2.2.3 Principles

The present education policy was issued in 1970 in a 236-article document that included the general education principles and goals, along with the aims for different education stages (Alesa, 2008). Moreover, Alesa (2008) argues that the general principles of the education policy are derived from the principles which underpin Saudi society. These principles can be summarised under the banners of Islamic, scientific, practical, education for all, lifelong learning, free education, individual respect, traditionalism and modernisation.

It needs mentioning that the document of education policy in Saudi Arabia outlines the basics of education in this country. Although it is supported from specialists and most of the society, yet, some call for developing it every now and then in view of the changes in the society. This is why specialists in general and higher education are always revising and developing it.

2.2.3.1 The Islamic principle

The education policy document highlights this principle in Articles 2, 3, 4 and 5. It stresses that education with all its aims, general trends and the methods should be used in parallel with Islam, the universe and its creator.

2.2.3.2 The scientific principle

The scientific principle is a result of the state's awareness of the need to support and spread science because of the positive effects on the learner, in this way, making him/her a productive member of society. There are many articles in the education policy document that encourage science e.g. Articles 13 and 16.

2.2.3.3 The practical principle

In Islam, work is considered as a social and economic necessity. The education policy document contains many articles that call for education institutions to concentrate on the applied sides of the different sciences and deeply embed the love of work in all students (Articles 15, 58, 59, 101, 157 and 162).

2.2.3.4 The principle of education for all

This principal arises from Islam's appreciation of the importance of science and knowledge in general to help the populace meet their daily needs. Therefore, education is a right for all without distinction, which is stipulated in Article 9.

2.2.3.5 The principle of life-long learning

Life-long education ensures access to learning for individual coping with changing life circumstances. It is highlighted in Articles 125, 126 and 127.

2.2.3.6 The principle of free education

The government of Saudi Arabia is committed to the principle of free education at all stages. It is highlighted in Articles 233, 234 and 235. It is important to mention here that the Saudi government provides monthly pocket money for under graduate students in the university in a bid to encourage education in general.

2.2.3.7 The principle of individual respect

This means acknowledging individuals' rights and freedoms guaranteed by Islam, in addition to providing an atmosphere suitable for integrated characters. It is highlighted in 7, 20, 36, 53, 54, 55 and 56).

2.2.3.8 The principle of traditionalism and modernisation

This means that the education system combines the traditional with the modern as the traditional cannot be ignored and the modern provides a chance to make use of modern achievements in a way that benefits society (Articles 8 and 13).

2.2.4 Political Fundamentals

The education policy document issued in 1970 represents a part of the general developmental policy of the state. Thus, the political drivers of the state's development policy have impacted on education policy. These political fundamentals are represented by five principles:

- The national principle which represents the inner strategic depth.
- The Islamic principle which represents the spiritual strategic depth.
- The Arab principle which represents the Arab strategic depth.
- The Gulf principle which represents the regional strategic depth.
- The international principle which represents the international strategic depth.

2.2.4.1 The national principle

Education has been one of the main functions of the state since the unification of the kingdom in 1932. According to Alhabib (2006) the state has become responsible for managing all education and cultural affairs centrally in order to achieve political, social and economic development and overcome any difficulties that may impede or harm the state's policies which are based on Islam.

According to Alhabib (2006) the 1970 education policy document placed many responsibilities on the state towards the education process. Specifically, the following are the main responsibilities incumbent on the High Committee on Education Policy:

- Draw up the state's general education policy for all regions.

- Decide the education plans and general systems.

- Prioritise the projects of the short, medium and long education plans in relation to the economic and social development plans.

- Coordinate among all education stages and different sectors to achieve the best results.

- Decide a policy for adult education to eradicate of illiteracy.

- Decide the process taken by the education institutions to develop study plans and curricula to achieve the aims of the Saudi society.

- Ratify the decisions that guide education in the kingdom.

- Distribute education services across the Kingdom in terms of the state's policy to make education available for all citizens.

- Ratify the examination regulations prepared by the education institutions in the Kingdom (Alhabib, 2006).

2.2.4.2 The Islamic principle

Islam is an essential component in the education process in the KSA; it is meant to be a source of morality resulting from being loyal to God, the country and the rulers. Islamic education is designed according to modern and developed programmes. The KSA being a member of the Islamic Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (ISESCO) provided a strong impact on developing education in this context.

2.2.4.3 The Arab principle

The KSA plays a vital role in all common Arab issues. It is one of the founding members of the Arab League which reflect a deep belief that Arab countries are integrated and have mutual interests. Under the auspices of the Arab League Arab cultural treaties are promoted, which Saudi Arabia ratifies. In addition, it applies all the decisions and recommendations of the Arab Ministers of Education Conferences. Membership of ISESCO also influences the Arab principle as Arabic is the language of study for all subjects and at all stages unless the use of a foreign language is a necessity.

Furthermore, according to Alhabib (2006) it is important to note that translating sciences and useful information into Arabic is one of the aims of university education.

2.2.4.4 The Gulf Cooperation Council principle

More narrowly, the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) is of major importance to the KSA for a number of reasons. The first is the close family relations among the rulers of the countries (Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, the United Arab Emirates and Yemen). The second is the historical ties between the states. The third is the common language, religion and destiny. The fourth is the need for mutual support in case of external threats, particularly in relation to the hydrocarbon reserves in the area which attracts the attention of external actors.

According to Alhabib (2006) the Kingdom adopts the decisions and recommendations of the GCC Ministers of Education

2.2.4.5 The international principle

The Kingdom's foreign policy is one of co-operation with the international community in order to benefit of the people of the world. As oil exporting country the KSA affects world economy. As a result, the common interests between oil producers and oil consumers are considered through policies which attempt to ensure stability of oil prices. This approach ensures the KSA enjoys the trust of the international community. Furthermore, it plays an active role in the United Nations Organisation. This status explains why the aims of education are affected with what is happening in the world around us.

2.2.5 Summary

Alhamid et al. (2009) list the challenges facing education policy in the KSA as:

- Rapid scientific and technical progress.

- The need of developing the curriculum and instruction periodically.

- Speed of the spread of knowledge and culture.

- Specialisation and a wide range of disciplines.

- Rapid social change.

- Increasing calls for social justice in all its forms.

- Enforcing self-education that enables the individual to acquire different skills that keep him/her in contact with renewed cultural currents.

- Adopting the idea of continuous education.

- Coordinating between the multiple institutions that contribute to the education process.

- Ensuring the availability of modern technology in education.

- Ensuring that technical and practical studies are an essential part of the general education programmes.

It can be mentioned that the KSA spares no effort to develop education in a bid to catch up with the advanced countries in the Western countries. Tackling the issue of the education policy in Saudi Arabia does not mean that it has been achieved in reality but in the contrary, it is a clear vision that imposes great efforts to be applied in a bid to achieving the desired goal.

2.3 EDUCATION ISSUES

The most prominent issues facing politicians and education officials are:

- Balancing the needs and requirements of development
- Implementing compulsory education.
- Ensuring equal opportunities in education.
- The education structure

Each point is discussed below.

2.3.1 Balancing the Needs and Requirements of Development

According to the Ministry of Economy and Planning (2010) the issue of balancing the outputs of the education system against the requirements of labour market it is one of the most important development issues in the KSA. The Ministry argues that the core of this issue is developing the output efficiencies of the education system. Alhakel (2008) argues that one of the bases of education in the Kingdom is to form a connection between all aspects of the overall development plan.

Employing young Saudis, particularly teachers, is still one challenge facing the development plans. This challenge requires greater coordination between training and the education

outputs and the needs of the labour market. As Alganeem et al., (2006) argues the labour market itself has to provide more opportunities in the private sector because of the saturated government system. This requires a study of the needs of the labour market and developing the appropriate curriculum to ensure the students gain the relevant skills (Turkistani, 2004). In an announcement to a local newspaper in 2006, the Minister of the Civil Service argued that the education system was responsible for the unemployment problem because of the failure to produce students with the relevant skills needed for a modern workforce (Alfayez, 2006).

A government report in 2010 reveals that the education system in the KSA suffers incompatibility between the outputs and the needs of the economy and the society in general (Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2010). The report states that:

The K.S.A. recently needs a great number of scientific disciplines and skills which means that the student needs to be equipped with special skills in mathematics, sciences, languages and information technology. This should happen from the early stages where every stage leads to the next. There is a need for changing and restructuring the study curriculum to face the future education and development challenges in a way that makes outputs in coordination with economic and development needs (Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2010).

For these reasons, the fourth strategic aim of the 8th Development Plan stressed the intention of developing human resources with view to increasing its participation needs of the national economy (Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2010). The fourth strategic aim is supported by a fifth strategic aim namely: developing the education and training system in a bid to supply the changing needs of society with information and technology with due interest in spreading culture (Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2010). More specifically, the fifth strategic basis focuses on the education as:

The welfare of man/women is the aim of any development, this aim cannot be achieved unless the individual is well educated, equipped with high human and religious values and after all having confidence in his/her civilisation with an open eye to that of others (Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2010).

2.3.2 Compulsory Education

According to Wibari (2002) in order to eradicate illiteracy and have relevantly qualified citizens for the 21st century education should be compulsory up to the intermediate stage. This creates the foundations to allow individuals to adapt to the changing environment. Although there is a wide spread of general education in the KSA up to the age of twelve, as it is free and there are grants available, it is not compulsory (Dahawi, 2004).

However, in the 10-year education plan issued in 2004, compulsory education for all boys and girls will be applied from 2014. This supports some researchers such as (Alhamid et al., 2009) belief in having legislation that forces parents to enrol their children in school. Furthermore, all children will enjoy free fundamental education with a concentration on girls and children suffering difficult circumstances (Alomran, 2006).

2.3.3 Ensuring Equal Opportunities in Education

The principle of education equal opportunities is included in the 1970 education policy document. For example, Article 10 stipulates that education is the responsibility of every individual and the state is responsible for providing it according to facilities available (Ministry of Education, 1970). In addition, Article 121 stipulates that education in the primary stage is available for every child at the school age (Ministry of Education, 1970). Also, joining the intermediate stage is available to all primary stage graduates (Article 125) and those who finish the intermediate stage can join the secondary stage (Article 128). Of

course every stage has its admission rules to guarantee different needs. It is also important to note that the state provides proper education for children with special needs through varied cultural and training programmes (Article 188).

According to Aletebi (2005), it is possible to argue that the Saudi state works hard to achieve the principle of equal opportunities in education as is evidenced in adopting policies aimed to address the problem of increasing numbers of students. However, the increased demand for education has resulted in a reduction in quality because of increasing class sizes and a shortage of school buildings and effective teachers, and a lack in the use of modern technology.

According to Aletebi (2005) the failure to raise the quality of outputs resulted from adapting traditional teaching methods without the proper use of modern education techniques. Despite the government efforts to cope with the increasing numbers at all educational stages, there is still a resource gap. Therefore, alterative policies may be considered, including reconsidering the existing admission policies but without limiting the numbers. According to Aletebi (2005), this can be achieved through scientific planning that guarantees proper quantity and quality.

The GOMTEEN conference in Thailand 5-9 March 1990 presents the temporary solution for this problem; the participants argued that the education service will continue to be insufficient to meet demand. They proposed that methods, policies and trends should be reconsidered in terms of modern technology and through a wide vision of fundamental education not curtailed by resources, institutional structures and traditional curriculum. This new vision requires providing children and young people with the necessary information and skills that would enable them to face their responsibility and improve their lives. The

participants in the conference highlighted five necessary components to enable the vision to be effective (Yousf, 1990):

- Making fundamental education available for all with equal chances.

- Focusing on learning.

- Widening the scope of fundamental education and its methods.

- Reinforcing the learning environment to face the needs of both the individual and society.

- Supporting participation to realise fundamental education for all.

2.3.4 The Education Structure

The general education system in the KSA follows the type 6-3-3 (6 years primary, 3 years intermediate and 3 years secondary), which is typical in the Arab world (Alsonbol et al., 2008). In addition, there are other types of provision, including pre-school education, technical education, special education, adult education and undergraduate and post-graduate university education (Alsonbol et al., 2008).

Despite the achievements in the education system, there remain significant problems, which is why many decisions and measures have been taken to restructure government bodies supervising education. However, the reform process has no clear comprehensive and strategic vision that tackles the education philosophy and analyses its problems thoroughly. The only serious attempt in this regard was the Comprehensive Education Evaluation Committee formed by Royal Decree on 24 September 1996. The team spent three years on a study that resulted in a document that includes the principles of developing education in the Kingdom in public education. Although this comprehensive report was thoroughly studied and analysed by the responsible education bodies, no clear vision emerged of a new education policy to cope with the society's needs for developments in the 21st century (Alesa, 2008).

2.4 RECENT STRATEGIES FOR DEVELOPING PUBLIC EDUCATION

The KSA has attempted a series of plans in order to adopt comprehensive policies that upgrade the education process in a bid to develop human resources. The most prominent recent plans include:

- The 7th 5-year Plan of the Ministry of Knowledge.

- The 10-year Plan of Ministry of Education.

- The National 10-year Plan of Education for All.

- The 8th Development Plan.

- King Abdullah bin Abdul Aziz Project for developing public Education.

2.4.1 The 7th 5-year Plan of the Ministry of Knowledge

This plan focuses on the student as the main dimensions in the education process. Its objective is to increase the capacity of schools in all stages, with the aim of increasing the number of students registered and graduating. The plan stresses different non-class, social, cultural and technical activities. The plan also aims to develop schools' health programmes, the supervision of education, training progress, and developing curriculum and scholarships (Ministry of Knowledge, 1999).

2.4.2 The 10-year Plan of Ministry of Education:

This plan which covers the period 2004 to 2013 aims at achieving the following:

- Developing the roles and missions of the teacher to enable him or her to use modern technology properly and perform supervision and guidance for the student to use knowledge productively and become a lifelong learner.

- Developing the role of the schools to provide a healthy and enhancing learning environment.

- Structuring a new curriculum on its knowledge and technical sides.

- Developing admission and evaluation systems in all stages.

- Encouraging and activating a parents-schools relationship in the teaching and learning process.

- Achieving and supporting social participation and responsibility in planning, financing and managing education.

- Establishing links among different education levels.

- Creating an active participation of education in all the development processes.

2.4.3 The National 10-year Plan of Education for All

This plan targeted the five age categories—early childhood, fundamental, youth, special needs, and adult education (Ministry of Education, 2004). The plan, which emerged from the 10-year plan referred to in 2.4.2, has two parts: the first part shows the status of the five categories and the second part decides the goals, programmes, missions, requirements and the entities responsible for it.

2.4.4 The 8th Development Plan

This plan has 21 strategic bases, six of which are to do with developing education in the Kingdom, namely:

- Increasing the participation of the national work force and ensuring they have the skills to increase productivity in a bid to replace foreign workers.

- Developing the skills of women and removing obstacles that impede their participation in development activities in terms of the Islamic values.

- Developing the education and training system to have better outputs to fulfil the changing needs of society and the labour market.

32

- Continuing to assist the private sector managing its role in economic and social development and encouraging national and foreign private investment, in addition to improving the competitiveness of national products.

- Establishing a national scientific and technical foundation to enable innovation and develop a data base to support the national economy.

- Encouraging individual and private establishments to participate in voluntary and charity works in the social, education and health fields (The Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2010).

2.4.5 King Abdullah bin Abdul Aziz Project for Developing Public Education

In 2007, King Abdullah bin Abdul Aziz adopted a project plan for comprehensive education development which aims at achieving comprehensive development in all educational sectors in K.S.A such as developing the curriculum, bettering the educational environment and teachers' training. Ghafour, (2007) noted that it is expected to provide classrooms with modern technology equipment which leads to better class atmosphere. The project aims to achieve the following:

- Developing the education curriculum with its broad concept to cope with modern scientific and technical developments and satisfy the students' needs—professional, mental, living and physical.

- Retraining male and female teachers to enable them to perform their teaching and education missions that cope with the developed education curriculum.

- Improving the education environment and prepare it to assimilate technology and digital model of the curriculum so that the class and school may be a high learning incentive.

- Enhancing students' abilities and innovative skills, in addition to encouraging hobbies, satisfying psychological needs and intensifying national and social relations: all of which is achieved through different kinds of non-class activities (Alshemary, 2007).

The project aims to carry out four main programmes that constitute the core of the education process namely:

- Retraining programmes for male and female teachers.

- Developing an education curriculum programme.

- Improving the education environment programme.

- Supporting an activities programme (www.tatweer.edu.sa, 2008).

2.5 THE KEY CHALLENGES FACING PUBLIC EDUCATION

Education systems are a reflection of the social circumstances and the varied political, social and economic conditions in the country in which they exist. No education system can be in isolation of the circumstances (Soliman, 2006). Therefore, it is necessary to study the challenges facing education in the KSA, particularly from inside the education system itself. These challenges can be summarised in four main areas: human resources; financial resources; managerial resources; and technical resources.

2.5.1 Human Resources

Human resources refer to the student, the teacher, the educational supervisor and those people in the administration system. The most important issues related to students are the increasing demands on the education system as a result of developing awareness of its importance and the increasing population. These human resources are a social good if the planning is strong. However, Alhamid et al. (2009) point out that the increase in numbers exceeds the forecasts

of the 5-year plan. They add that the situation is exacerbated by low financial, material and human inputs. This has resulted in over-sized classes which do not have sufficient equipment or teachers. The final result is a low educational output.

In relation to teachers, there has been little additional recruitment of new teachers recently and the existing teachers need training as they lack the fundamental skills for the teaching profession. Many teachers depend on memorisation and repetition as a teaching tool for all subjects even those subjects which need understanding to draw conclusions. This approach is against the modern education role of the teacher which is supposed to offer guidance with the help of modern technology (Alhamid et al., 2009). The skills of teachers may be due to the low standards in faculties of education in which the students are prepared through traditional methods that do not use modern trends. Also, there is a tendency in the system to prefer the traditional teacher who does not innovate (Alhamid et al., 2009).

Alsaeed's (1998) research on practicing scientific thinking methods proved that it is not practiced by school teachers. She argues that there is little innovative thinking, critical thinking is weak and problem solving only marginally better. One reason for not practicing scientific thinking methods or creative critical thinking and problem solving is presumably the absence of training besides ignoring its rules and methods.

Alhamid et al. (2009) argue that this problem might be managed through on-the-job training programmes however in many cases the training focuses on theoretical aspects rather than the practical needs of the teacher. This is supported by Alhassan (2000) who shows that on–the-job training from in Ministry of Education requires new programmes to be developed because the existing ones focus on theoretical aspects more than the practical aspects. Furthermore, trainers lack qualifications and there is insufficient coordination between those responsible for training inside and outside Ministry of Education.

2.5.2 Financial Resources

The most important financial challenge is pupils' draw back, in the sense that they stop going to school. There are two aspects to this: students spend more years in general education than the required limit; and the percentage of failure is high (Ministry of Education, 2004). Alhamid et al. (2009) argues this due to the traditional methods of teaching and not making use of education technology that may makes learning attractive. In addition, the exam and evaluation methods put students off from learning.

The increase in demand, the lack of qualified teachers and the information explosion make it necessary to use modern technology. Alhamid et al. (2009) point out that the reality reflects a shortage of the use technology which is why there are many negative elements in education. Furthermore, the shortage is not only in government schools as highlighted by Omer (1997) who found a low availability of modern teaching aids in both government and rented schools.

School buildings are a further challenge. Ministry of Education, under the pressure of growing increase in students, has been forced to rent buildings with poor specifications that were not designed for use as schools. The 7th Development Plan highlights the high percentage of rented schools about 60% of schools, both for boys or girls, arguing that the steady increase in population will make the problem worse (Ministry of Education, 2004). The Plan for Education for All points out that rented building cannot be developed to suit future changes (Ministry of Education, 2004). The rented school buildings lack engineering, health and education measures. Alzeaber (2000) highlights many problems facing the education system are related to rented buildings. The absence of elements such as space, light and air, as well as over-crowding and the lack of availability of playgrounds, libraries and suitable halls, all lead to low study level (Ministry of Education. 2008). Alhamid et al. (2009)

point out that further problems associated with rented buildings are the lack of space for activities and labs.

2.5.3 Managerial Resources

One of the major issues facing education is the centralisation of its management. Different countries have used different methods and approaches to this issue. Many advanced countries have assigned responsibilities to local representatives including the schools based on the assumption that executive personnel are more able to take proper decisions. In developing countries decentralisation is often enforced in the framework of comprehensive change to central government administration. This approach can lead to either improving the education system or introducing inequality which leads in turn to management corruption (Caillods et al., 2011). However, the education system in the KSA is supervised centrally by the state at all levels, including planning, organising and financing (Mustafa & Omar, 2004). This means a centralisation of decisions in all aspects including buildings, furniture, equipment, recruitment, plans and set books. According to Alhamid et al. (2009) this centralisation causes routine problems that impede the professional growth of the education directorates.

Notably, the general education authorities consider school management bodies as executive bodies (Ministry of Education, 2004). However, school head teachers are weak in some education and administration skills, they resort to bad punishment methods and do not follow up pupils' standards with their teachers (General Directorate for Students Guidance, 1994). In addition, Aldosary (2000) shows that school head teachers run their schools routinely and enforce regulations and rules regardless of the personnel inclinations. Nevertheless, a study by Alerini (2004) argues that in 57 elements out of 82 measured fundamental skills of general education school head teachers are strongly practiced while only three elements are practiced

in a weak form. However, the result of this study may be due to the fact it was the managers that were investigated while other parties such as teachers and supervisors were ignored.

Despite the importance of the school–parent relationship, it is weak (Almehrag, 2001). Most parents do not visit their children's schools even when they were invited. They do not even contact schools by telephone or in writing (Alhamid et al., 2009). On the other hand, schools do not encourage parents to visit them or participate in their activities (Alsaloom, 2006). A study by Mezabri (2002) shows that encouraging the establishment of parent councils is not sufficient. The few councils that are created lack planning and the decisions they take are not considered or adopted by the education authorities. Furthermore, Almehrag (2001) notes that the relationship between primary schools and other local institutions of the society is weak. The teachers' classroom management skills are also weak which is felt as problems of uncontrolled classes especially in higher classes of every education stage. The study of Akharash (2000) shows that teacher - student relationships in class are always autocratic.

2.5.4 School Artistic and Heritage Resources

Pupil evaluation is one measure by which the education process can be assessed. However, the heritage that a school should transfer from a generation to another has increased incredibly which imposes more effort on the student and affects in turn the quality of the education process. In terms of exams, these concentrate on memorisation (Raees, 1999) rather than the higher skills such as application, analysis, structuring and evaluation. Teachers lack the scientific skills in designing, interpreting and analysing exam results and making use of it in guiding the students. In addition, they do not use home exams, open book exams or projects (Alsaloom, 2006).

According to Alhamid et al. (2009), one of the most important issues in education is evaluation of the teacher who is central to developing performance in the sector. The

evaluation of teachers is intended to help them develop their knowledge, character and professionalism. Alghamdi (2000) highlights the unlikely scenario that 99% of teachers are graded excellent and only 1% below excellent. Furthermore, he states that strengths and weaknesses are not assessed and the teacher does know the result unless s/he requests it. The weakness of the evaluation system is underlined by Alfayez (2004) who shows that job performance evaluation for teachers in school management is of medium effectiveness. To sum up, the evaluation for the teacher, the student and the school management does not achieve the expected performance if we considered the government financial support.

As for the supervision of teachers, despite changing the name from inspection to guidance to supervision, it is still practiced traditionally and concentrates on the teacher in class ignoring other factors such as the role of teachers outside of classroom and the relationship with other teachers. Supervision faces many problems such as the lack of training courses and limited numbers of educational supervisors which in turn makes the process less than ideal. In addition, educational supervisors are required to undertake many managerial tasks (Alsaloom, 2006). A study by Alshehri (2004) showed that the role of the educational supervisor in developing primary stage teacher's professionalism is very weak.

One of the important issues is the curriculum. Many separate school subjects concentrate of information with no coordination among them or amongst the teachers teaching them. A single topic may be tackled in different grades which make memorising the core of studying (Arafa, 2002). According to Alsaloom (2006) the curriculum contributes to the lack of technical and scientific skills of the students, which in turn creates a gap between the skills acquired and the needs of universities and employers.

The age of internet and the wide availability of information make censorship or control over information accessibility something impossible in the sense that information will be available

for all (Hopkins & Hevin 2000). This makes it necessary for all efforts to be coordinated to avoid passive effects resulting from the uncontrolled openness of information that may spoil the role of the school.

Korashi (1997) highlights that there are many obstacles that limit the practice of education activities, in particular:

- The separation between the theoretical field and the applied one because teachers do not participate in deciding the aims, plans and programmes of activities.

- The psychological and social aspects are not clear when planning the activities, the age and individual differences are not considered.

- Activities are given little time and are practiced randomly.

- Lack of facilities, equipment and finance.

Schools in general adopt memorisation as the only teaching method; therefore students do not have the ability to self-learn or making use of libraries and sources of knowledge (Alsaloom, 2006).

Students ending the intermediate stage do not understand their abilities and therefore are unable to decide the kind of education suitable for them. They face a problem of deciding their future profession and the needs of society. Thus, a student may choose to study a science without the appropriate background as s/he only consults family or colleagues. As a result, students fail in their studies (Gomlas, 2001).

2.5.5 Summary

The challenges of human resources, financial resources, managerial resources, and technical resources facing the general education system in the KSA are significant. It is necessary to

adopt policies and strategies to help the system overcome these challenges in order that the output meets the requirements of development.

2.6 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, an overview of the Kingdom is presented in terms of the population and the economic, social and cultural conditions. Thereafter, the education policy is discussed: first by setting the historical context; then the philosophical aspects, including the key principles and political fundamentals. Finally, the many challenges facing education in Saudi Arabia were discussed.

CHAPTER III
LITERATURE REVIEW

3.0 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, there are nine main sections: Section 3.1 tackles the concept of classroom management; Section 3.2 the aims of classroom management; Section 3.3, discussion of classroom management as a system; Section 3.4 types of classroom management; Section 3.5 the roles and competencies of classroom management; Section 3.6 problems facing teachers in classroom management; Section 3.7 the role of educational supervisors in developing teachers' classroom management practices; Section 3.8 presents Arab and non-Arab studies relevant to the research; and finally, Section 3.9 a conclusion.

First, classroom management should be clearly defined in order to make its effect on learning understood.

3.1 THE CONCEPT OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

It is very important to make the concept of classroom management clear enough to make its effect on the learning process clearly understood. There is a direct relation between the concept of classroom management and the varied research perspectives since 1960s (Evertson & Harris, 1999). The 1960s marked a change in these concepts. Classroom management was thought as discipline or rather a matter of conducting pupils' misbehaviour. On the other hand many researchers believe that classroom management is something different from controlling pupils' misbehaviour.

There are a number of accepted definitions of classroom management. Managing the classroom does not necessarily mean control and maintaining discipline in classroom through punishment or does it mean following rules that enable teachers to explain a lesson and

transfer information to their students as is the case with a considerable number of teachers in Saudi Arabia. Classroom management is an overall process that includes everything teachers do to organise the pupils, the time, the classroom equipment and teaching aids. The ultimate aim of this process is to support effective teaching of the pupils, making learning better, providing equal chances for pupils and giving them a chance to express themselves as well as increasing interaction with the teacher with due consideration to their individual, social and cultural circumstances (Mullikin, 1982). Other definitions add that classroom management is a varied group of organisational measures used by teachers to organise and coordinate students, create a positive classroom environment that leads to successful and active learning with the least time and effort (Gaber, 2005; Mansi, 2006).

Brophy (1986) believes that there is a direct relationship between effective classroom management and effective curriculum and instruction. In this way, he defines classroom management as the effort exerted by the teacher to create an effective teaching and learning environment. He believes that controlling misbehaviour is just one aspect of effective classroom management and it can be achieved through good planning, curriculum pacing and instruction. Effective classroom management results in more academic involvement and in turn higher performance on achievement tests (Brophy, 1982).

Evertson and Weinstein (2006:4) define classroom management as:

> ''The actions teachers take to create an environment that supports and facilitates both academic and social-emotional learning. In other words, classroom management has two distinct purposes: 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''

Konori and Melaefi (2004:34) define classroom management as "the organised and planned process in which the teacher directs his/her efforts towards leading classroom activities and all behavioural types practiced by the student in a bid to achieve the planned and organised educational aims." Hosnia (2007:18) considers classroom management to be "the teacher's

activity using the material, human and moral means available under his/her disposal properly to achieve the teaching aims with the least effort and time cost." Heje (2008:27) considers classroom management to be "a sub-system of school management which aims at maximising available resources to achieve integrated student personality inside classroom with its broad meaning." This definition is supported by Soad (1994), who states that school management is all the managerial actions done inside and outside between the teacher and his/her pupils. These activities include planning, organisation, guidance, supervision and all interactions providing the psychological and social environment to help ensure that learning occurs.

Hemeda (1997) thinks that the concept of classroom management is not limited to classroom control however it includes the good planning with view to achieving a suitable learning environment, while Ads (2004) claims that it is a group of intermingled actions practiced by a person or persons to achieve certain goals. This supports the view of Malki (2003) that classroom management includes:

Everything done by a teacher in classroom, verbal or non-verbal, this creates a suitable educational atmosphere for both the teacher and the pupils to meet their educational aims. This can ultimately change the behaviour of the learners through what they acquire from knowledge, new concepts and skills that help them face practical life, in addition to equipping them with new positive values and trends that develop and modify their skills and abilities.

Azrak (2005) states that the concept of classroom management indicates the teaching and organisational tasks and procedures done by the teacher during the teaching process in classroom, these include discipline and control measures that help to ensure that students are calm, without fear of punishment, thereby assisting the achievement of the desired educational results. Abdulrahman (2004) stresses the fact that:

Modern trends in classroom management are based on the teacher as an educational leader, who his/her bests to enrich the school curriculum performed by the students besides the use of all human and material resources available in support of the educational process. This is based upon the belief that there should be cooperation between teachers and pupils as well as among the students themselves and the pupils should participate in the decision-making process which results in active participation in classroom.

From these definitions the researcher concludes that classroom management is not confined to managerial side of classroom discipline, however that it also includes the rules, activities and measures provided by the teacher to achieve a positive and interactive social atmosphere inside the classroom which helps to achieve the aspired educational goals. The success of a teacher in this regard depends on making use of the managerial classroom skills of planning, organisation, guidance, evaluation, instructions and time management.

As referred from the suggestions of many researchers, classroom management is one of the most effective factors in learning and teaching and it has a big role in facilitating the teaching and learning process. Effective classroom management approaches are essential for creating effective teaching environment for teachers.

To sum up, most researchers reviewed in this section agree on the concept of classroom management. They all agree with one another that the comprehensive concept of classroom management is not only confined on control but control is only one important component of classroom management.

It is important to adopt the concept of a comprehensive culture for classroom management and not to stick to a limited concept as it is the case with a considerable number of teachers in Saudi Arabia according to the researcher's experience and his discussions with teachers.

3.2 THE AIMS OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Classroom management aims to support the achievement of educational goals; therefore it depends on implementing and practicing the way these goals are set. These educational aims can be summarised as: creating an appropriate classroom environment through the best utilisation of resources, material or human; and organising the efforts of teachers and pupils in an atmosphere of co-operation having in mind the participation of teachers and pupils that leads to a longer time for learning what is controlled by fixed rules resulting in the end in activating what is already learned (Kareem et al., 2003; Ads, 2004).

3.3 CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT AS A SYSTEM

If school management can be considered to be a social process also classroom management is a social process because both deal with channelling human resources in an institutional framework to achieve specific planned goals (Khwldh, 2008). Classroom management as a social process also includes investing, organising and utilising material resources to achieve these goals (Bostan & Taha, 2005).

Systems refer to many elements and functions occurring within certain rules and according to interactions with other systems. A system, therefore, has a time and place aspect that allows information and ideas as input to have an output (Merae, 2004). Kareem et al (2003:26) define systems as a "group of interrelated relationships between the forming parts of something." Any system can be part of another larger system however, also may contain smaller systems. Following this definition the educational system is considered a large system composed of sub-systems such as the primary education systems. These systems are in turn, divided into smaller systems such as the school, while classrooms are still smaller systems that can be easily managed ; in this view classrooms are more easily analysed (Atwi,

2006). The relevance of studying classroom management as a sub-system of a larger one helps to understand its importance to improving the education system in Saudi Arabia.

Classroom management as a system means that having specific inputs that enable specific outputs to be achieved through a network of channels and communications among all active participants in the education system. These outputs are represented as realising achievements and academic results, educational or psychological, in the shape of responsible behaviours from all parts of the educational process (Ibrahem, 2007).

When considering classroom management as a system, it is possible to divide classroom management into three major elements: a group of inputs that give classroom management the degree of effectiveness; the managerial process that is an interaction among all inputs and which gives classroom management its effectiveness in action and performance; and a group of outputs that give classroom teaching and learning its ability to develop outputs according to specific local goals (see Table 3.1).

Figure 3.1: Classroom Management as a System

Inputs	Managerial Process	Outputs	Goal
Educational philosophical Vision Human elements: Teacher-pupil Rules Material equipment Place and space Relationship with school and other classes Methods of running managerial work	1- Planning 2- Organisation 3- Guidance 4- Co ordination 5- Control 6- Recording 7- Class evaluation	Decisions made. Problem solving measures. Technical managerial skills. Teacher-Pupil relationship: Relationships among pupils Morale spirit	Developing classroom teaching and learning and achieving the goals.

Source: Gado, (2008: 85).

Reviewing the analysis of the classroom management system, the inputs and their interaction constitute the two major factors in developing classroom management. Therefore, whatever changes affect them must also result in a change in managment and its type. The managerial result is an outcome of these two factors, which in turn is the decisive factor in developing education and classroom teaching. There is an argument that system analysis can also serve as a meaningful indicator of the results of the educational process, through which any logical solution for a problem is decided. This is even more likely if all practices in classrooms are treated as actions: if done efficiently, these raise the impact of educational actions and also to bettering classroom management.

3.3.1 Factors Affecting Classroom Management

The educational literature identifies many factors and variables that can positively or negatively affect classroom management. These factors include teachers, learners, the teacher-pupil relationship, the teaching environment, school management, the curriculum, rules, society and sanctions.

3.3.1.1 The teacher

The teacher is the most important element in classroom management, playing an essential role in making all other elements function properly. Therefore, the degree of success in classroom management is dependent to a large degree on the status, abilities and carrying out of responsibilities by the teacher. For this reason, a highly professional teacher is capable of managing and controlling his/her classroom. The more their experience accumulates and develops, the more positive will be the relationship with the pupils and the respect for his/her efforts. Being enthusiastic and optimistic has a significant impact in this regard (Manai, 2006).

There are a number of characteristics of the teacher that directly affect his/her managerial method of running the classroom which is related to the pupils' productive behaviours. Thus, a teacher should enjoy a natural desire for teaching within the rules of the teaching profession. S/he should be aware of his/her pupils' abilities and have patience and social interaction skills. A good teacher should be fair and at the same time flexible and have sympathy with his pupils. Furthermore s/he should have an acceptable general appearance (Hemdan, 2003).

The teacher can also potentially be considered responsible for many classroom problems, due to certain practices and behaviours. These include: threatening dictatorial behaviours in the absence of planning and perfection; discrimination and aggression; unjustifiable group punishment due to the absence of classroom rules; writing on the board too excess; and sitting for long periods of time (Katami, 2005; Arefig, 2006; Zaitoon, 2007).

3.3.1.2 The learner

There are many potential reasons for pupils to commit undesirable actions and behaviours that create negative indicators of classroom management. Some of the most common of these reasons are: boredom, either due to the poor selection of classroom activities or the atmosphere; frustration, resulting from the difficulty of activities selected; sensory problems or special needs that have not been given due attention, such as auditory problems or dyslexia; ignorance of classroom etiquette; a desire to attract attention, either of the teacher or peers, through unacceptable behaviour; a desire for revenge, when a pupil feels himself subject to unfair action from his/her teacher or colleagues; and the types of pupils, with their individual needs and differences (Gan, 2004; Arefig, 2006:; Zaitoon, 2007). These needs and differences can arise due to: simple individual differences; the presence of special needs pupils; and the individual social, economic and/or cultural environment of the pupils. It can

sometimes be difficult to control classrooms that are not homogeneous. However, this does not mean having homogenous classes as this does not fit with modern educational trends. Nevertheless, it is important to consider the pupils' level of academic ability, the stage or even the classroom, and the diversity among the pupils and therefore the method of teaching.

3.3.1.3 The teacher-pupil relationship

The teacher-pupil relationship is of considerable importance in successful classroom management and plays a crucial role in influencing the other factors discussed in this section. A teacher with a strong relationship with the pupils makes them more ready to accept any rules and regulations resulting from behavioural violations (Marzano et al., 2003). Based on the results of a study on 68 pupils Sheets (1994) states that 84% of pupils claim that behavioural problems in classroom could not have been mitigated if the teacher-pupil relationship was better. Sheets and Gay (1996) point out that many behavioural problems end in the collapse of the teacher-pupil relationship as many punishable behavioural problems are an expression of the teacher's and pupil's inability to create a mutual acceptable relationship.

Some researchers assume that a teacher-pupil relationship based on 'we and them' is highly exposed to a potential collapse (Plax & Kearney, 1990). An effective teacher-pupil relationship is based on a balance between domination and cooperation. However, this is difficult to achieve because pupils consider a teacher's behaviour is an indicator as to whether or not the teacher offers guidance and whether or not s/he is cooperative (Marzano et al., 2003). Pupils always appreciate their teachers' interest (Combs, 1982). Behaviours that give the pupils a feeling of such interest include speaking informally with them, greeting them outside the school and welcoming them when entering the classroom, particularly when using their first names (Marzano et al., 2003). However, in order to enjoy a good relationship with the pupils it is important for a teacher to enhance his/her classroom management, make the

pupils feel their full control and have the desire and ability to do so. The proper methods of dealing with pupils can enrich and enhance the chances of classroom management success (Alomar, 2006).

3.3.1.4 The teaching environment

This refers to the environment in which the interaction between the teacher and the pupils occurs, including the safety of the pupils and the organisation of the classroom taking into account environmental factors such as light and ventilation. The suitability of the subject being taught should also be considered; for example, the school library is suitable for a reading lesson. As for the organisation, it includes the seating arrangements of the pupils.

Some factors affecting the teaching environment and therefore classroom management include: the design of the school, colours used, location of the classroom, the capacity of the classroom, the number of pupils in the classroom; the space for movement for teachers and pupils; and the availability of the equipment necessary for teaching (Kahtani, 1998; Gan, 2004; Manai, 2006; Zaitoon, 2007).

3.3.1.5 School management

The relationship between classroom management and school management is one of between a part and a whole. Therefore, the latter affects the former positively or negatively through the following factors: the presence or absence of the school head teacher or his/her assistant and their degree of domination in the decision-making process; a high classroom density makes it difficult for teachers to control their classes; the absence or weakness of human relations on both management and parents' councils; and the absence or weakness of educational rules regulating anti-bad behaviour measures (Zaitoon, 2007).

3.3.1.6 The curriculum

The school curriculum in general includes methods of teaching, the set books and system of evaluation (Manai, 2006). The curriculum constitutes the link between the teacher and the learner through which the teacher can manage the classroom properly. If this link is absent or weak, the role of teachers can be negatively affected. In discussions with teachers and educationalists, the researcher found that they claim Ministry of Education not to adhere to the completion of the curriculum which does not consider the number of pupils or the need for many activities. The reality of classroom and the impact of these types of elements should be considered by curriculum designers.

3.3.1.7 Rules

This refers to the range of rules, regulations, rights and responsibilities set by educational authorities to be observed in schools. These rules stress the rights of pupils to be treated fairly and stipulate that they should not to be punished physically. Kareem et al., (2003) mentioned that some studies note that the teacher should concentrate on positive aspects when dealing with pupils; this will be reflected in the learning process in general. Sometimes the teacher uses rules in a way that leads to the rise of many problems, simply because of sudden imposition without suitable educational and psychological preparation.

3.3.1.8 The society

Some problems and misbehaviour exhibited by pupils are due to social reasons, such as problems at home, with local society or the media. The most important of these are: the spread of violence and misbehaviour in society which is mirrored by pupils in the form of insults, bad words, quarrels and blackmail; the passive effect of the media whether fact or fiction on the pupils which is mirrored by their behaviour in class and school; and the lack of

a safe family life due to problems such as divorce, parental disputes, severe treatment and neglect which lead pupils to display undesired behaviours (Zaitoon, 2007).

3.3.1.9 The use of sanctions

Dealing with behavioural problems is not only the teachers' responsibility, any active problem solving programme has two main elements: effective school management and effective classroom management (Marzano et al., 2003). This section is devoted to discussing approaches teachers can apply when pupils do not abide by the agreed rules and regulations. It has been argued by some academics that the use of sanction is useless, and that they may even have opposite effect on pupils' behaviour and achievements (Kohn, 1993; Kohn, 1996). However, Woldkowski (1982) claims that Kohn's research and other researches of the sort lack scientific rigour.

Despite the fact that Kohen and others following the same trend decided some useful points on the improper use of punishment methods and its exaggerated use, yet, the classified refusal to the punishment method does not seem to be supported by scientific research (Marzano et al., 2003).

Nevertheless, other research supports strongly the balanced method that uses varied methods. Stage and Quiroz (1997) show that sanction measures by themselves led to non-cooperative behaviour. In contrast enhancing the accepted behaviour could be attained through the use of rewards. In addition, using an early warning at the outset of the appearance of misbehaviour was found to be productive, as was the use of reward and punishment in parallel with each other. Aletebi (2005) mentions that the traditional style of teaching in Saudi Arabia uses physical punishment with no clear measures on the use of sanctions. Marzano et al (2003) refer to studies that determine a group of sanctions that can be used to achieve balance between positive and negative results. One possible sanction is the response of the teacher,

whether verbally or through movement; drawing attention is one of the specific strategies that are available to determine and respond to unaccepted behaviour before it occurs (Carr & Durand, 1985; Lobitz, 1974). Kaufman and O'Leary (1972) refer to appreciation and reward for positive behaviours, underlining the importance of refraining from rewarding negative behaviours. They argue that this kind of reward should not be used as a kind of bribe, which may be the reason for Kohn (1993, 1996) to reject this approach, calling instead for varied measures according to class circumstances.

3.4 TYPES OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

The type of classroom management refers to the type of behaviour practiced by the individual when guiding or channelling the activity of a group towards a common goal (Kareem et al., 2003). The type practiced by the teacher to manage the members of a classroom is considered by (Alzeood et al., 2008) one of the most important factors that can affect the social and psychological atmosphere prevailing in the classroom, which in turn affects the nature of interaction between the teacher and the pupils. The common classification for the different types of classroom managerial behaviour primarily depends on the method with which a teacher practices the authority given to them. These are classified into three types, dictatorial, democratic and undirected by (Kareem et al., 2003; Alzeood et al., 2008).

3.4.1 Dictatorial Management

The atmosphere prevailing in this type is a dominant one; the teacher forces his/her pupils and exploits his/her position (Alzeood et al., 2008). While this type of management often ensures the flow of work, it has negative effects on the characters of pupils, and in case of the teacher's absence all activities will come to a stop or at least progress very slowly (Kareem et al., 2003).

3.4.2 Democratic Management

This type is focused on the individual and is based on mutual respect. It is highly dependent on persuasion, convincing and making use of material and moral incentives to achieve an effective learning inside and outside the classroom (Kareem et al., 2003). In a prevailing atmosphere of this type, the pupils are more likely to interact with the teacher, with the school and with one another, in recognition of their acceptance of the activities taking place (Ads, 2004). This may improve pupils' performance regardless of the teacher's presence or absence, which is reflected in the learning and teaching process. The pupils respect their teacher. This leads to the development of a more rounded character of the pupil (Mansi. 2006). Importantly, this method requires integrating many of the classroom management elements discussed previously.

3.4.3 Undirected Management

This type refers to the teacher's inability to manage the classroom behaviour. The pupils are free to do whatever they like and the result is a low performance level in all educational activities (Kareem et al., 2003). The real application in classroom management assumes no demarcation lines. A successful teacher has to utilise the appropriate approach for the given situation, being a dictator in certain situations and adopting the non-directed style in other situations, particularly in terms of guidance, when pupils are asked to prepare a work plan to achieve their aims. In a third situation, the teacher may behave democratically when consulting the pupils.

A successful teacher is also able to understand the factors determining the most suitable managerial behaviour. These factors include the number of pupils in classroom and their distribution, the degree of their readiness to work together and the time allotted for achieving the educational activity, and the culture of the school and of the wider society (Kareem et al.,

2003). Therefore it is apparent that classroom management has to be flexible according to the situation, meaning that there is no one consistently ideal behavioural type; the teacher's skill decides the type for the appropriate situation, which makes it necessary for a teacher to know a range of methods and strategies of classroom management.

3.5 ROLES FOR CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

The education process requires many roles to be performed by the teacher; these roles are affected by the prevailing educational thinking. The teacher is no longer a mere carrier of information to his/her pupils, as some people think, and his/her efforts are no longer self-guided but pre-planned. Thus the classroom is no longer a place in which the pupils only listens however is now one where different and varied roles and experiences are presented (Alzeood et al., 2008).

Mosleh and Ads (2000) state that the managerial tasks of the teacher in classroom can be divided into planning, implementing, supervising, following up, and evaluating. These tasks are different from those of the head teacher. Both the teacher and the head teacher have similar tasks and the difference lies in the carrying out of these tasks. This depends on the people with whom they are dealing and the different responsibilities. Alzeood et al. (2008) state the major roles and skills practiced by the teacher in class are:

- Teaching: with sub-roles including planning, carrying out supervision, following up and evaluating.
- Organising the classroom environment for learning in a controlled and disciplined social and psychological atmosphere.
- Guiding pupils' behaviours and learning to guarantee organised class interaction that is followed up through reports on their progress.

Meanwhile, Alshahrani (1995) describes the skills needed for the teacher as skills of planning, carrying out, classroom control and evaluation. A teacher is unlikely to be able to perform their role properly unless conscious of the leading role they need to play, including interactions with pupils inside and outside the classroom, and the practices of many roles through educational activities and situations. This requires educators to understand the nature of their jobs and to have the ability to plan and follow up, suggest substitute suitable decisions and to adhere to educational leadership requirements (Alnaeem, 2000).

Ibraheem and Abdlrazik (2001) state that educationalists in Western countries agree that the current roles of teachers can be broadly categorised as one of three roles:

- The role of the teacher as a model to be followed by the pupils.

- The role of the teacher as a medium of interaction in classroom

- The role of the teacher as a responsible director to achieve learning results using the available resources.

Almeghem (2002) argues the basis of successful classroom management is derived from four factors:

- Organising the learning environment of classroom.

- Good planning and carrying out.

- Clarity of learning.

- The pupils understand the expected behaviour in terms of classroom rules and measures.

Wong and Wong (2001) point out that, regardless of the education stage, the effective methods of classroom management include the following:

- Starting at the proper time.

- Teaching classroom rules and measures.

- Having great positive expectations of the pupils, success.

They also stress that teaching these measures enables pupils to learn the expectations of them, with the result that their performance will improve

The role of the teacher today is different from that of the past. Alabdullah (1997) states that the reason for this may be due to the need for acquiring different skills that exceed the teacher's only role as an information source. The modern role is as an organiser of the educational environment and to encourage pupils to interact. In this way the teacher is a director, counsellor, developer and a leader for activities and classroom discussion. As Shafshak and Alnashif (2000) add that the classroom management process is not only to keep discipline. A teacher performs many such jobs, keeping discipline, providing an encouraging emotional and social learning atmosphere, organising classroom activities and discussions, organising the material environment, providing teaching experience, and submitting work procedures reports.

Classroom management comprises a diverse skill set and responsibilities that depend on strong planning and organisation as well as on making use of the available material resources to achieve the required educational goals. Therefore, a teacher should possess the following skills (Shafshak & Alnashif, 2000):

- Good preparation and planning for the educational tasks and adopting the principles of following up, evaluating and flexibility in providing a clear social atmosphere for classroom education that depends on enhancing the pupils.

- Keeping discipline in classroom to enable self-control on the side of the pupils in an atmosphere of organised human and social interactions inside the classroom.

- Watching and guiding pupils' behaviours in a bid to change abnormal behaviour practices.

- Guarantee having an organised and comfortable environment.

The implementation of these strategies is the teacher's role as the most important element in the educational situation, meaning that in addition to knowing these skills, a teacher should be able to implement them in class situations (Alabadi, 2000).

Cangelosi (1997) claims effective classroom management requires structuring a framework of different concepts that have many jobs and missions, in order to properly organise the pupils and achieve control of classroom problems in a suitable social atmosphere. Based on this, Digiulio (2000) highlights three basic dimensions for positive and effective classroom management:

- The natural dimension which means proper, productive and trusted educational environment.

- The educational dimension which means teaching the pupils in a way that makes the teaching concentrated.

- The managerial dimension which means managing the class easily.

Digiulio also thinks that effective classroom management helps control the classroom, modify the pupil's behaviour and allow them to keep their pride.

Cummings (2000) provides a list of strategies that help the teacher create a positive teaching environment, design classrooms and fulfil the needs of their pupils. These strategies include: developing pupils' self-control by having classroom rules; developing social relations among pupils through knowing their names, making their acquaintances, achieving co-operation with their families and managing conflicts; and time management is a must as it allows longer learning time and allots time for varied activities.

Another contribution is that from McFarland (2000) who suggests that it is necessary to have a comprehensive curriculum plan and use different strategies and methods that reflect the

educational methods for implementing the plan. This can be achieved by organising and arranging the classroom material environment in a way that facilitates pupils' movements and helps to use this environment properly. There should be guidelines for the behaviours expected from the pupils, in addition to a plan to stop the occurrence of systemic problems. It is also important to have clear cut directions before practicing activities, in addition to keeping the pupils interested in the activities with a sense of humour and innovation, while tackling any problems.

From the approaches discussed it is possible to draw up a three broad skills—classroom planning, classroom performance, classroom evaluation—needed for the teacher.

3.5.1 Classroom Planning

Planning means to be ready and well-prepared for each educational step before embarking on it (Kareem et al., 2003). Planning helps a teacher anticipate classroom issues and behaviours and if applied can result in the teacher being able to deal with them before they become uncontrollable (Barnes, 1998). Planning before the start of the school year is a good chance to establish effective classroom management, because the pupils will acquire behaviours and habits from the outset. Educational such as (Alnagem, 1996) believes that good classroom management has two important components: following the established classroom rules and measures; and successfully fulfilling classroom tasks and activities. Ensuring these two goals are met can help a teacher to create a suitable learning atmosphere that helps to achieve the aspired goals

The three basic steps for planning an effective classroom management are: yearly school planning; management during the first few weeks; and developing types of behaviour necessary for implementing discipline all year round (Evertson & Emmer, 1982; Vincent, 1999). These steps are described in greater detail below.

3.5.1.1 Annual planning before the school year commences

This has two elements:

- Organising the physical environment in the classroom providing the optimum circumstances for free movement in the classroom and reducing distraction.

- Having directions for suitable behaviours (i.e. rules and measures). This is done through deciding the expected behaviour types, converting these expectations into rules and measures and deciding the results of abiding by or violating these rules and measures.

3.5.1.2 Management during the first few weeks

The start of the year is extremely important because it is at this point that the teacher establishes the fundamental rules and attempts to ensure that the pupils comply with them, whether or not they are explicitly stated, as demonstrated by their subsequent behaviour. Evertson and Emmer , (1982) suggest the following procedures during the first few weeks: allotting time on the first day of school to discuss behavioural rules in classroom and teaching classroom rules with the same emphasis as any other aims and goals. Moreover, it is important to teach the pupils classroom rules when necessary to establish them as a routine. Many studies, such as Evertson and Emmer (1982), show that the first few weeks play an important role in establishing the way in which pupils react with the teacher and their colleagues for the rest of the school year.

Out of the many previous definitions of classroom management, it can be thought of as a skill of time and resources management. The teacher is a leader who manages all the available resources, whether material or human, in the sense that he/she makes use of the material resources for the benefit of the pupils. As a leader, the teacher should have emergency plans

to be implemented in case of need. Management by objectives is a skill the teacher should have, he/she is supposed to have objectives to be evaluated and changed when needed.

3.5.1.3 Developing behaviours for implementing discipline all year round

There are three important elements for ensuring and maintaining effective classroom management:

- Monitoring the pupils after having the rules established. Any improper behaviour should be discouraged before it develops fully.

- Controlling improper behaviour types and actions. Evertson and Emmer (1982) consider that teachers having good classroom management skills adopt simple methods when dealing with misbehaving pupils: teachers may ask the pupil to change his/her behaviour and urging him/her to do so by maintaining face-to-face contact with the pupil to change his/her behaviour. The class rules and measures should be repeated by asking pupils to determine the right measures and provide them with repeated feedback. Teachers may also try to change activities from time-to-time because misbehaviours appear if activities are boring and repetitious.

- Blaming the pupil in case of violations; this includes much important behaviour. Pupils are quick to notice the contradictions between what a teacher says and does, which makes it crucially important that rules are adhered to from the first day (Evertson & Emmer, 1982; Evertson, 1985). This requires a teacher to anticipate unexpected behaviours before they happen. Other academics, such as Snyder, (1998), Barnes (1998) and Baker et al., (2002) argue that successful classroom management is not a random process, instead requiring planning from the teacher in two main areas: classroom rules and classroom measures.

3.5.1.4 Planning classroom rules

Emmer et al. (2006) state that classroom rules as a general expectations or standards for behaviour that organise the pupils, activities inside and outside class and make them aware of the accepted behaviour. According to Smith and Rivera (1995), Malone and Tietjens (1998), Hemdan (2003), Katami (2005) and Emmer et al. (2006) the important factors and elements that should be noticed while deciding these rules are:

- They should be known from the first day of school and practiced by the pupils and teachers during the first three to four weeks.

- There should not be too many rules in order to avoid confusing the pupils.

- The pupils should be given a chance to decide them.

- There should be no favouritism

- The teacher should not violate these rules.

- Pupils should be reminded of the rules every now and then.

- The results of violations should be clear, logic, reasonable, positive and in harmony with the school general rules.

In most cases, classroom rules indicate unacceptable behaviour indirectly. For example: "You can speak when you are permitted" means not to speak without permission. A number of examples of widely used basic rules are (Emmer et al., 2006):

- A pupil should bring to classroom all items s/he needs. This is important as it shows readiness for the classroom and it makes the pupil know the items s/he is expected to bring to class, such as pens, notebooks, and set books.

- Respect the possessions of others. This includes keeping the room clean, returning borrowed items to their owners and having permission before using other peoples' items.

- Respect for others. This includes listening attentively to the teacher and colleagues, never using bad words, never quarrelling or causing problems.

- To sit down once the bell is rung. This rule includes respect for class time, never speaking while the teacher is explaining the lesson and to continue doing any activity even when guests come into the classroom.

- Following the school rules, both inside and outside the class. It also gives the teacher the chance to discuss any rule with his/her class.

- Never interrupt the teacher or his/her colleagues while talking. This rule includes listening attentively to teachers and colleagues, learning how to ask questions and how to interrupt politely.

3.5.1.5 Planning classroom measures

Classroom measures mean the directions and special orders of many unexpected behaviours needed to perform the education process. This means they lead to the expected special behaviours to achieve a certain job and choosing certain pupils to have certain responsibilities (Shokeer, 1996). This is important, as having clear and specific measures to be followed leads to a more controlled and organised classroom. Therefore the pupils need certain clear instructions for every action they want to do, such as collecting and delivering homework, methods for using equipment or using classroom facilities.

Routines are part of any school day. There are many methods for organising these routines, therefore the teacher needs to employ an easy to understand strategies to deal with each routine in order to establish to effective classroom management (Prosise, 1996).

3.5.1.5.1 General process

Three examples of easy to understand approaches for routines are (Emmer et al., 2006; Prosise, 1996):

- Checking the register and dealing with late comers: a teacher may mark the follow up record without interrupting the lesson, or have a special record for writing down late comers and the reason for being late which can be checked later by the teacher to evaluate the excuse.

- Deciding pupils' expected behaviours when entering the classroom, when moving from room to another or leaving the classroom for any reason such as going to the bathroom, having a drink, taking medication or going to the library.

- Making measures for collecting and delivering homework clear through using a special basket.

- Having a system for pupils who are assigned to help in classroom. These pupils are expected to help in routine works, such as cleaning the board, arranging desks, collecting and delivering homework, keeping the class clean, filling in attendance sheets and end of lesson jobs such as cleaning the class and rearranging teaching items. It is recommended that the teacher changes the roles of the pupils with a view to varying experiences and giving a chance to all pupils to participate and co–operate.

3.5.1.5.2 During the job process

During the job routines include: having procedures to help the pupils concentrate during explanation such as listening and refraining from talking, maintaining attention during class activities and keeping the set books and notebooks on their desks. The teacher also should fix principles of participation and give all pupils a chance to participate (Emmer et al., 2006).

3.5.1.5.3 Special process for pupils at their desks

The teacher should have a clear vision on organising side talks among pupils, asking questions or asking for help or performing individual work while seated.

3.5.1.5.4 Teamwork measures

Teamwork measures can be controlled through distributing tools and items before the start of the classroom, forming groups, assigning the jobs and deciding the rules for talking and contacting the teacher (Emmer et al., 2006).

According to Gado (2008) it has been noticed that certain classroom rules and measures emerge from the general school rules and measures, which can either be part of a standard procedure for a school or implemented directly by a given teacher. Modern education no longer depends on traditional methods because they have weak or negative effects on the types of accepted behaviour; on the other hand, having certain rules and measures can help in this regard. According to some academics, such as Prosise (1996) and Curwin and Mendler (2009), these measures include:

- Pupils should be aware of being responsible for all that they do and accept the resulting effects accordingly, they should have self-control and maintain mutual dignity and respect among pupils and teachers according to the agreed upon rules and measures.

- There should be less noise and disorder in class, the pupils should be trained on suitable behaviours to help achieve educational goals and create a productive and an effective learning environment.

3.5.1.5.5 Time management

A teacher should give due consideration to time management issues when planning for classroom management, as the success of a teacher is often directly related to his/her ability to manage his/her time (Sabti, 2002). Time management means the proper use of time and the facilities available and relates to using present time to reap future benefits (Alagmi, 2003). Time management includes arranging and organising educational work by the teacher and rearranging priorities in a way that enables them to correct any negative professional habits to achieve proper use of his/her time (Esawi, 1999). Highly effective time management depends on planning time and the ability of the teacher to adopt positive measures towards time-wasting factors. Unless these factors are dealt with, time management will be ineffective. This is shown in the following equation: good time planning x positive actions for time wasting factors = effective time management (Alagmi, 2003).

Time management requires allotting time necessary for activities during the day or the week, having in mind all available human and material resources (Heje, 2008). Because time is limited, it should be exploited. A teacher should overcome any factors that waste time including: arriving late for class, noting absences, visits to the classroom, pupils leaving during the lesson or not abiding by class rules, and the teacher leaving the classroom early or dealing with personal matters (Esawi, 1999; Katami, 2005; Manai, 2006).

3.5.2 Classroom Performance

These include a number of sub-skills, the most important of which are: material organisation of the classroom; organising the psychological and social classroom environment; discipline; organising classroom interaction and communication; and using educational technologies.

3.5.2.1 Material organisation of the classroom

The material classroom environment includes two elements: the physical conditions of ventilation, light, temperature, noise, cleanliness, colours, decoration, doors, windows, and so on; and the availability of materials and teaching aids (Zaitoon, 2007; Alzeood et al., 2008). What is meant by organisation is the group of measures taken by the teacher to prepare the class environment for an encouraging teaching and learning process (Fatlawai, 2003). The classroom atmosphere should provide quiet, security and enable an effective educational use of the space.

This can be achieved through organising the furniture in a way that makes the seating of the pupils and the movement of the teacher easy and suitable for the activities practiced considering the material conditions. The classroom should be arranged so that anything such as desks and baskets which hinders movement should be avoided and to guarantee clear and easy vision, because eye contact helps pupils follow the teacher and helps the teacher to manage the classroom. Finally equipment and material should be easily accessible to save time (Gado, 2008). Planning for the classroom and providing an attractive learning atmosphere is one of the most important responsibilities of a teacher in preparation for the school year. S/he can make use of the pupils to help her/him (Ads, 2004).

3.5.2.2 Organising the psychological and social classroom environment

The classroom environment is a social system, which includes the teacher, the pupils and the particular demands of the curriculum; the teacher is responsible for organising this environment in the classroom (Abosenena & Lakani, 2002). The atmosphere is a result of formal and informal human relations and the dynamic interaction between the teacher and the pupils (Morsi, 2004). It aims to create a positive atmosphere of co-operation, respect and

positive relation, thereby helping to ensure that the expected educational goals are achieved with the minimum time and effort (Ads, 2004).

Prosise (1996) stresses the importance of ensuring a feeling of social belonging through creating an atmosphere of friendship and good relationships between the teacher and the pupils. The role of the teacher in managing the classroom psychologically and socially is vital when considering the fulfilment of the pupils' psychological and social needs—the need for security, the need for positive relationships, the need for respect, and the need to belong to the group.

Part of this role is to encourage pupils to perform group and team activities. Pupils should also be encouraged to bear responsibility and adopt leadership roles. Democratic classroom interaction based on trust and affection involves listening to the pupils and accepting their ideas without irony or insulting slow learners (Saad, 2000). In this way, teachers can appreciate the pupils' interests, desires and respect their feelings.

By organising the social environment of the classroom, the teacher can achieve two fundamental educational process requirements:

- Co-operation among the pupils and with their teacher which helps the teacher gets support from the pupils who feel a sense of social belonging in return.
- Increasing the pupil's incentive for the learning and their active participation through organising educational situations and activities (Ashour, 1997; Shanti and Oda, 2007; Alzeood et al., 2008).

3.5.2.3 Discipline

This role means to recognise, pre-empt and deal with undesired behaviour that impedes the learning process. A teacher is expected to formulate measures based on inputs from the pupils

themselves rather than unilaterally impose measures or force pupils to do anything; this approach sets a sense of freedom assisting the learning atmosphere (Alzeood et al., 2008). Therefore, discipline in the classroom is suggestive of a degree of compliance from the pupils in the educational situation, according to the rules and systems applied.

Meanwhile, discipline refers to the process according to which the individual disciplines his/her desires and inclinations and organises his/her behaviour to achieve a certain goal (Saad, 2000). There are two kinds of discipline:

- Inner discipline, which is the ability of the individual to discipline his/her behaviour and bear its results (Eid, 1998). According to Gradat et al. (2005), this is a discipline emerging from the pupils themselves as a result of the teacher's encouragement, not as a result of force, threat or punishment.
- Outer discipline, which is the classroom discipline that is maintained by different methods, such as reward and punishment. This happens when the pupils keep discipline for fear of punishment or out of longing for a reward (Gado, 2008).

A democratic type depends on convincing the pupils and giving them the chance to express themselves (Alzeood et al., 2008). This means that this system does not conflict with the basic concept of democratic management of the classroom however it enhances democracy and eliminates dictatorship: The spirit of democratic management is managed for discipline, and discipline for meaningful targeted learning. On the other hand, dictatorship results from non-participation and non-planning (Gado, 2008).

The first step towards achieving effective classroom management leads to tangible effect in discipline; this is achieved by having a written plan of both routine works and rules of behaviour discipline in classroom. This kind of plan varies from one teacher to another, according for different teaching methods and local conditions (Baron et al, 1992). One of the

most effective methods of classroom discipline is to have a system and avoid problems by creating an effective educational environment. This does not happen accidentally however must instead be planned and channelled from both the teacher and the pupils (Gordon, 2001).

The educational literature indicates that discipline helps the learner think and work in a responsible way with a due understanding of the results of their behaviour. He/she also becomes aware of the necessary information for school and life success and learns the importance of having rules regulating individuals' lives and respect for their privacy. Finally, the learner learns the values established by family and society (Gado, 2008). One of the methods that can be used by the teacher to achieve discipline is to develop the individual inner self- discipline (Mansi, 2006).

Once inner self- discipline is achieved, behavioural problems disappear; this is why inner self- discipline is of primary importance. Many practices can help in this regard. Encouraging pupils to participate in educational situations have positive behavioural effects shown by the pupils bearing responsibility in the running of their classes and making decisions in relation to their own affairs. Furthermore, providing a comfortable educational atmosphere helps to protect students from factors leading to behavioural problems, analyse them and attempt to find solutions for them. In addition, accepting pupils' feelings, opinions and ideas and creating democratic educational environment based on mutual respect and good behaviour also helps achieve inner self- discipline for the pupil. Finally, orders and directions regarding classroom discipline should be directed to persons by name rather than in general in order to make them effective and avoid group punishment because that merely creates protests against the teacher and future practices, besides not achieving good results (Alenzi, 2002; Gradat et al., 2005).

It is possible for this atmosphere to be created by providing chances for the pupils to listen to each other with respect and interest, however without a feeling that this is compulsory. Good results become possible by being flexible and helping the pupils appreciates each person's independent identity (Ads, 2004). However, the quality and degree of discipline differs according to the age of pupils, stage of study, the subject, the activity practiced, the method of leading, the place of study, the time and the number of pupils in class (Gan, 2004).

Classroom management skills are integrated and intermingled measures; therefore having a classroom system includes routine measures performed in every teaching classroom and applying all rules and regulations. It is also important for these skills to be achieved by the teacher through interaction with the pupils and training them in self-management (Katami, 2005).

In general, maintaining classroom discipline depends on the teacher's character, mastery of the subject taught, ability to invest time and maintain pupils' attention through dialogue and discussion.

3.5.2.4 Organising classroom interaction and communication

The educational process is an interaction between the teacher and pupils as well as among the pupils themselves. The core of classroom management depends on effectively managing this interaction process, without which class management loses its effectiveness and dynamics. Planning, organisation, co-ordination and evaluation all depend on the quality of communication and its effectiveness. Therefore, through good communication, information and orders are transmitted (Kareem et al., 2003; Gradat et al., 2005).

A teacher therefore has to perfect the skill of classroom interaction and communication, which emerges from the ability to manage the classroom dynamics. Teachers who do not

possess these skills will be less likely to be able to achieve success in their educational missions. This has been proved by many studies (Hosnia, 2007). In order to achieve this skill properly, a teacher should interact with their pupils following one or both of the following methods:

- Verbal communication: this depends on the teacher's language skills of talking, asking questions and making discussions, etc.
- Non-verbal communication: this includes all messages and meanings transmitted in ways other than the verbal method, such as through mimic and body language (Gordon, 2001; Shanti & Oda, 2007; Heje, 2008).

Verbal interaction between the teacher and the pupils in classroom has different functions in the educational process; therefore, guiding this interaction to achieve the required educational goals necessitates the presence of many abilities and special skills. Effective interaction results from guiding pupil's activities, teaching the syllabus and making other missions and activities relevant to class control (Gado, 2008).

While verbal communication often prevails in the classroom, body language can also provide a significant benefit in communication because a teacher transmits his/her feelings easily in a way that words cannot (Nashawati, 1998; Gordon 2001)

Elliott and Stemler (2008) and Elliott and Place (2012) mention that there are some behaviours that my help teachers willing to better their skills in behaviour management through effective classroom practices. They mention an example of such behaviours is the teacher's use of non-verbal behaviours such as face expressions, eye contact and body language which reflect a state of confidence and professionalism.

It is important to note that an individual who is incapable of participation in educational situations will almost certainly be unable to teach properly (Mohammed, 2004). Therefore

good communication should have varied levels; communication between the teacher and the pupils, between the pupils and their teacher and also communication among the pupils themselves (Mustafa, 1989). It is therefore important to focus on teacher training programmes and to ensure the development of the skills of teachers with regards to human and social interaction with the pupils, not only in classroom however also outside it. This provides opportunities for better relations which are reflected directly in pupils' performances and the school in general. What makes such interactions important is the first impression from the pupils (Shaheen, 2001).

3.5.2.5 Using instructional technologies

Instructional technologies constitute one of the important inputs into the educational and learning process (Alsheikh, 1983). Instructional technologies refer not only to the tools and equipment however also to a method of thinking and problem-solving. It is also an organised planning and evaluation process for all learning and teaching (Brown, Lewis & Harcloard, 1985). In other words, instructional technologies describe anything used by the teacher to perform his/her professional role properly (Falata, 2001). Using the technology in the classroom is one of the main factors contributing to a teacher's success in managing his/her classroom (Emmam, 1997). On the other hand, some researchers think that the use of technology for learning and teaching may help better education; however it is not necessary that the use of technology alone can make the difference. Some of them for example (Higgins, 2003:5) mention: "There is evidence from research that ICT can help pupils to learn and teachers to teach more effectively. However there is not a simple message in such evidence that ICT will make a difference simply by being used. Findings suggest that although ICT can improve learning there are a number of issues that need to be considered if such technology is going to make a difference. Some caution is therefore called for at this broad level of where and how ICT might have an impact. There are two main issues. First is

the modest effect of ICT compared with other researched interventions, second is the almost negligible effect of the provision and use of ICT at a general".

This technology perhaps plays an important role in classroom management in a positive sense. It enriches the classroom time in educational activities with a constructive interaction between the learner and learning elements, as well as providing active participation and saving time and effort (Kareem et al., 2003). Its use increases the pupil's interest and attention, which in turn results in greater learning in new situations (Alagmi, 2003). Computers can be used in class individually or collectively or by the teacher for every class with varied methods to guarantee its effectiveness. However, (Higgins, 2003:14) refers that:

> ''Computers can be used individually, in small or large groups or by the teacher with the whole class. Each approach has been shown to be effective, though there are some differences in approaches and as a result upon outcomes. The difference comes in the way in which the teacher uses the different opportunities to help learners talk and think about their work''.

Considering the point of view of Higgins 2003, it can be summarised the merits of modern technology use in classroom as follows, having in mind that it is difficult to decide these merits definitely.

- Teacher-pupil interaction increases which results in better outputs.

- Raising the standard of education by partially resolving the problem of crowded classes.

- Raising the standard of education by partially resolving the lack of well qualified teachers.

- Raising the standard of education by considering individual differences among pupils.

- Reinforcing the material taught.

- Developing the skills of scientific thinking and creativity.

- Saving time and expenses.

- Benefiting larger number of learners.

- Enhances pupils' interest and satisfying their need for learning.

- In general making use of all the learner's senses. And overcoming his/her shyness. (Alsayed, 2002; Dawood, 2002; Mohammed, 2004; Salama, 2004).

3.5.3 Classroom Evaluation

There are many definitions for the term of classroom evaluation including:

- It is an integrated process in which the aims of a certain educational side are decided and calculating the degree of achieving them (Saaada, 1997).

- It is the process of issuing a judgment on the degree of achieving the educational goals and deciding the impeding factors towards achieving them (Konori & Melaefi, 2004).

- It is a diagnostic and treatment process that aims at deciding the degree of progress achieved by the pupil with view to helping him/her achieve his/her aims in terms of the result of the evaluation process (Alagmi, 2003).

Fields of education evaluation include all aspects of education process, including classroom evaluation, which can be defined as the judgment issued by the teacher on his/her pupils using different evaluation methods (Alkhateeb, 2002). To conclude, the concept of evaluation includes the development and modification of performance as it refers to good and bad sides of the jobs reviewed (Hasan, 2003).

It is clear that teachers' evaluation skills are important for all teaching disciplines, as it has an important effect on educational, methods and activities designed to achieve particular aims; it is also widely considered one of the most important elements for teachers, parents and pupils to diagnose points of weakness and resolve them, as well as to diagnose points of strength and support them. In general, evaluation is essential in developing education and is the starting point for reform (Gamal, 2006).

Evaluation as a diagnostic and treatment process has two essential stages (Gado, 2008):

- The stage of evaluation which depends on measuring and issuing judgment on the results measured.

- The treatment stage which depends on the results of evaluation with view to treatment and avoiding negative aspects.

In order to make the concept of the evaluation process clear, the relation between evaluation, treatment and the learning process should be considered. Effective learning occurs when the desired behavioural changes happen in the knowledge and emotional sides according to the decided educational aims. Certain measures should be taken in order to determine the degree of changes achieved; these measures constitute the evaluation process (Alhessin, 2004).

Evaluation is used to judge progress toward the desired goals. As the fundamental aim of the education process is to make desired changes in the behaviour of pupils, the primary role of evaluation is to determine the degree of success in changing pupils' behaviours according to the aims of the system (Gamal, 2006). Thus, classroom evaluation is not confined to a pupil's academic progress, however includes changes in his/her behaviour and respect for the agreed classroom rules and measures. Evaluation is also directed towards the learning environment, remodelling it and reorganising it. The class management plan should be checked regularly to adopt new methods and techniques if needed (Gaber, 2005). It is also important to note that the efforts directed to stop the occurrence of bad behaviours are more important than efforts directed to treat these misbehaviours, meaning that in this sense, prevention is better than cure.

Classroom evaluation tackles all a teacher's actions in normal or abnormal situations (Ads, 2004). Self-evaluation should be developed for both the teacher and the pupil. Self-evaluation enables an individual to measure his/her success, and understand the reasons for failure and why expectations have not been achieved (Ruben, 1984). This kind of self-evaluation

requires the teacher to set appropriate performance standards for his/her pupils and their activities, record what is achieved, train pupils to evaluate themselves and make use of the results (Gamal, 2006).

The evaluation process is characterised by being continuous during the education process, being comprehensive for all participants in the education process and being linked to the specific outputs and results for learning. By being continuous, evaluation can potentially help a teacher to monitor pupils and detect the difficulties they face with a view to correcting his/her plan according to the aims targeted (Shafshak & Alnashif, 2000). In other words, this evaluation enables the teacher to redirect his/her efforts and his/her pupils' efforts to adopt new plans or to try new methods (Abosenena & Lakani, 2002). This makes it clear that evaluation is a means not an end in itself, in the sense that it is also diagnosis, treats and protects (Alagmi, 2003).

3.6 PROBLEMS FACING THE TEACHER IN CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Problems facing the teacher in his/her classroom vary considerably. They may be educational or managerial, and can also vary in the degree of intensity. Effective management requires the teacher to differentiate the various problems in order to make the right decisions (Gaber, 2005; Emmer et al., 2006; Zaitoon, 2007).

3.6.1 Classification of Problems as Educational or Managerial

Problems facing the teacher in classroom can generally be expected to be educational or managerial. Educational problems arise in relation to achieving direct educational goals such as diagnosing the learner's needs, planning the lesson, the provision of information and asking questions, whereas managerial problems arise in relation to creating suitable conditions for the enhancement of efficient learning. Effective classroom management

depends mainly on recognising the kind of problem in order to select the suitable solution (Gaber, 2005).

3.6.2 Classification of Problems According to Severity

3.6.2.1 Minor problems

Minor problems do not last long and are better ignored because resolving those takes effort and reduces class interaction. These minor problems could include a pupil not paying attention for a short spell or stopping short of doing a job (Gaber, 2005).

3.6.2.2 Simple problems

Simple problems are against classroom rules however do not impede classroom learning or activities. It is recommended not to waste time with these problems except if by ignoring them they will develop; or if they are undertaken by a group of pupils such as leaving the classroom without permission (Zaitoon, 2007).

3.6.2.3 Acute problems with limited effect

These behaviours may stop or impede an activity or conflict with the learning process; e.g. speaking freely or moving in classroom (Gado, 2008).

3.6.2.4 Widespread problems

These include any of the previous problems which become a threat to classroom order or the educational process as a whole; e.g. freely walking around the classroom, frequent comments without permission, noisy group talks ignoring the teacher's directions or dealing with the teacher impolitely (Emmer et al., 2006).

3.6.3 Approaches for Solving Classroom Problems

Education research suggests that the most successful teachers are those who prevent problems from happening rather than waiting for problems to occur and then attempting to resolve them. This can happen through setting rules that anticipate problems (Anderson, 1989:37). According to a number of respected authors, there are many available methods that can be adopted to eliminate problems in class (Brophy, 1982; Hitz & Driscoll, 1989; Shockley & Sevier, 1991; Gott Fredson et al., 1993; Snyder, 1998; Larochelle, 1999; Wong & Wong, 2001; Kher et al., 2000; Chase, 2002). These include:

- Creating positive teacher-pupils relations based on mutual respect, in order to enforce classroom rules, remind pupils about them and to discuss classroom rules the teacher and the pupils.

- Preparing and planning classroom activities to cover the whole period, therefore keeping pupils busy and reducing the time available to create troubles. This includes training pupils to bear the responsibility of their actions which are recorded and documented regularly.

- Decisions should be based on clear aims and should be firm, fair and not prejudiced in applying class rules.

- Vary activities continuously, bearing in mind individual differences and involving all pupils in the activities rather than only concentrating on good pupils.

- Guiding and monitoring more than one pupil at a time and moving from one activity to another easily with view to enforcing and rewarding positive activities.

3.6.3.1 Treatment strategies

3.6.3.1.1 Simple process strategies

Various academics (for example Emmer et al., 2006) have suggested that pupils be encouraged to control themselves by using certain teaching strategies such as ignoring minor misbehaviour if it is not disturbing the lesson, the use of gestures such as putting a finger on the lips to mean not to speak and to approach a misbehaving pupil in a bid to stop his/her action without interrupting the lesson. It is advisable to mention the pupil's name while talking and to use humour to ensure a happy atmosphere. Also, objects that cause distraction should be removed. The pupil should bear the results of his/her actions and realise that his/her behaviour is affecting others and the teacher.

3.6.3.1.2 Mild process strategies

If simple processes are not working, mild punishment may be a solution. This can be achieved through stopping privileges such as sitting next to friends or choosing their favourite activity or changing the pupil's place. The pupil can be forced to undertake unwanted jobs such as cleaning the class or depriving him/her from the break or keeping him/her in classroom for a short time (10-15 minutes) after his/her colleagues have left or dismiss him/her temporary from class. Finally, the pupil may be sent to the head teacher or the pupils' guide to consider the problem.

3.6.3.1.3 Wide range strategies

These strategies are resorted to if the simple and mild strategies do not work. This can be achieved by making punishment clear to the pupil in case of violation and there should be an agreement in the form of a contract signed by the pupil acknowledging the punishment. A follow up record of violations and progress should be maintained.

3.7 THE SUPERVISOR'S ROLE IN DEVELOPING THE TEACHER'S CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Education supervision is not only limited to supervisors however also includes the head teacher, and the teachers themselves. All of these parties can play a role in helping to develop the teacher's skill in a bid to ensure the achievement of the selected educational aims (Alsaud, 1993). The head teacher has a managerial role due to his/her permanent presence, although this role is not supposed to tackle the subjects being taught, especially in primary education in Saudi Arabia. Therefore training programmes for head teachers should be based on managerial skills, enabling the successful development of a school, making the best use of available resources and in compliance with regulations. This role can include helping teachers plan their classroom management effectively, solve problems of classroom management and adopt varied pupils distribution systems according to different educational approaches (Atwi, 2006). The role of the permanent or visiting educational supervisor is to assist the teacher to manage his/her classroom because the teacher's job is not only to teach however also to guarantee the continuation of the learning process which is achieved through classroom management. This is why this type of assistance should be given to those who need it and is particularly important in the case of new teachers (Modanat & Kamal, 2009). Because the teacher is one of the most important elements in the education process, it is important that full support be given to allow him/her to perform his/her mission efficiently.

The educational supervisor and the head teacher bear this responsibility through developing the skills that teachers possess in classroom management as well as with teaching and dealing with pupils educationally; all of which lead to improved performance (Almenaef, 1998). The primary responsibility for the supervision process falls on the supervisor, however the head teacher is also responsible because an effective head teacher should realise the nature of the job being performed by the teachers and that his/her success depends mainly on what teachers

do with pupils in classroom and not on what happens inside his/her office (Ganem, 1996). A supervisor, therefore, has to organise his/her efforts to enhance and coordinate the progress of his/her teachers to understand their role properly (Ramzy, 2001).

Kauffman (1992) outlines three supervision roles for the educational supervisor: to ensure the teacher possesses the basic teaching and classroom management methods; to provide ideas and new suggestions for classroom management and managing change; and to provide support, encouraging the teacher to improve their performance. The educational supervisor also plays an important role in developing the teacher's abilities and his/her managerial skills through encouraging him/her and highlighting points of strength and weakness. Negative or inactive guidance can frustrate and hinder the progress of the teacher.

An educational supervisor should praise any effort of the teacher and prepare a plan for helping him/her besides developing his/her performance and skills (Konori & Melaefi, 2004). This plan should be based on goals that have been thoroughly prepared by the teacher and the supervisor (Danielson, 2008). The supervisor takes responsibility for helping the teacher choose the effective methods and approaches for managing his/her classroom and overcoming any problems (Gaber, 2005). This means that supervisors have to develop their own skills in providing feedback and suggestions. These skills help them guide the teacher, without such skill a teacher may misunderstand his/her guidance (Danielson, 2008).

Ahmed (2006) stresses that poor classroom management can be due to weak methods of supervision. Therefore, before starting to assist teachers, a supervisor has to liaise with them to decide upon the goals required. Most teachers at different stages suffer problems of discipline inside the class; this is why the supervisor's supportive role is vital in this regard. Many teachers quit teaching because they lack the ability to control the class, especially in secondary schools where pupils are adolescents (Modanat & Kamal, 2009).

There are many methods and means to help the teacher develop his/her classroom management skills, the most important of which are for example (Hadhood, 1991; Saaada, 1997; Almenaef, 1998; Kareem et al., 2003; Konori & Melaefi, 2004; Chase, 2002):

- Making sure the teacher knows and realises the aims the educational supervisor wants to achieve; there should be meetings to refresh the teacher's information on class management at the beginning of every school year.

- Arranging classroom visits and training the teachers to help them with their problems and plan to their class management effectively.

- Exchanging class visits among teachers inside and outside school and choosing prominent teachers to perform model lessons to be attended by other teachers to acquire new skills.

- Enriching school libraries with the latest books, magazines, periodicals and research relevant to education and class management in a bid to encourage and develop the teacher, in addition to arranging meetings, seminars, workshops and refreshment discussions.

Encouraging teachers to attend training sessions and education conferences and to conduct studies and research in relation to the problems they face in class (Hadhood, 1991; Saaada, 1997; Almenaef, 1998; Kareem et al., 2003; Konori & Melaefi, 2004; Chase, 2002).

In order to choose a teacher to attend training programmes, the educational supervisor has to evaluate the training programmes and submits suggestions to make them better; then s/he should follow up with the teacher who attended such programmes and evaluate the change in their performance (Ministry of Education, 1987). Joyce and Showers (2002) and Showers (1987) refer that training programme can affect teaching noticeably in classes if it follows certain designs and steps justifying the new method then showing how it can be realised. Teachers should be given a chance to try the new method then having their responses to this

method. Joyce and Showers (2002) stress the importance of teachers coaching on what should be done to better the new method.

In order to achieve proper and effective educational reform teachers should continue with on-the-job training because the education environment is facing new challenges which necessitate knowledge of varied educational and managerial skills (Guntermann, 1993).

Many education researchers show that teachers training programmes, especially those aimed at beginners, should concentrate on classroom management (Evertson & Harris, 1992; Griffin, Priscilla & Bharadwaja, 2001). Robinson (2002) states that such training should depend on facts derived from classrooms and should not only be theoretical in nature. These programmes should then be translated into applicable classroom plans. He also emphasises the role of school management in the professional development of teachers. Teachers should participate in such training programmes because these results in a better understanding of their role in class. Furthermore, contact with other teachers maximises the benefits gained, in addition to enriching the experience and reinforcing their self-confidence (Hulling & Resta, 2001).

It is claimed that as the role of teachers becomes more complicated, new instructions and new methods of approaching the teacher-pupil relation are needed. Chase, (2002) notes that facing modern challenges necessitates deep thinking and group work, based upon critical and analytical studies.

3.8 THE PRACTICE OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

A large number of studies have been conducted on classroom management in many different countries and cultures due to its importance. This section is divided into two parts: a discussion of directly relevant studies in both Arabic and non-Arabic countries; and more

general international studies relating to education supervision and training in developing classroom management for teachers.

3.8.1 Relevant Research

A considerable degree of variation is highlighted in the research on classroom management and the skills necessary for the teacher. These studies have generally sought to provide suggestions to improve classroom management, as a result of the increasing recognition of its importance in the education process.

Evertson and Emmer (1982) studied the most and less active elements in classroom management during the first three weeks of the school year. Their objective was to understand the classroom activities undertaken during the period and therefore to decide the characteristics of each group of teachers. The study was conducted with the participants of 26 51 teachers and in 11 junior high schools. The study reveals differences between the two groups as follows:

- Establishing rules and measures for the class.

- Concentration on certain missions for pupils.

- Distribution of responsibilities among pupils.

- Communication skills with the pupils.

- Organisation skills of educational and guidance activities.

- Preventing problems.

Evertson and Emmer found that the beginning of the school year is the most suitable time for establishing classroom management rules, based on the planning that should precede the beginning of the school year. The study also mentions the need for continuous training for teachers.

The study of Soliman and Adebi (1990), entitled "*Towards a Subjective Tool for Classroom Management in the Intermediate Stage in the State of Bahrain*", was carried out on 235 teachers in 10 intermediate schools in Bahrain. They highlighted five desired specifications for classroom management that are necessary for a successful teacher:

- Controlling the pupil's behaviour.

- The atmosphere of the class and facing the pupils' needs.

- Planning before teaching in class.

- Educational skills in class.

- Class order and organisation.

The study supports the findings of Evertson and Emmer that teachers should enrol in on the job training sessions to address their particular weaknesses.

Manke (1994) looks at how teachers organise time and space in a way that achieves active classroom management in a study entitled "*Teacher organization of Time and Space in the Class as an Aspect of the Construction of Class Power Relationships*". The results show that the organisation of the classroom material environment and the availability of different educational activities significantly influence students' academic achievement in the classroom. In addition, the research notes this impacts significantly on realising high levels of behaviour control and eliminating pressure on teachers and conflict between them and the pupils.

Stephens and Crawley (1994) "*Becoming an Effective Teacher*" looked at the fundamental principles of classroom management and identifies the effective classroom management requirements, viewing the teacher as a classroom director. The most important results are that there are number of elements that a teacher should plan for in their classroom management,

including providing a suitable atmosphere for education and deciding the teaching groups in classroom.

Wragg (1995) in a study entitled "*Classroom Management, the Perspective of Teacher, Pupils and Researcher*" examines the ways in which teachers deal with deviant or disruptive and what strategies they use to achieve behavioural discipline in the classroom. This study uses a descriptive method supplemented by field study instruments, such as observation of 239 lessons, interviewing 60 teachers as well as interviewing430 pupils from 5-12 ages. The aim of the research was to gain a better understand of the reasons leading to deviant or disruptive and to design a watch card in conjunction with certain schools in order to register aggressive behaviours. Among the most important results are the potential inability of teachers to properly understand their pupils and the absence of mutual dialogue between teachers and pupils which can lead to further violence. It is important to note that teachers adopt short term strategies for behaviour discipline which can consume much of the time assigned for the education process.

The study of Babtain (1995) on management problems facing undergraduate trainees in the Faculty of Education, King Saud University was carried out on 215 students, majoring in Arabic, Arts, English, Geography, History or Physical Education. The study reveals that the main problem in class control was that students do not respond or interact with the teacher, which, in turn, limits the teacher's activities.

A study by Mustafa (1996), "*School Control in Lower Classes in the Fundamental Education in Egypt—a field study*", aims to determine what school controls were applied by the teachers and then to present substitutes for them. The results show that the controls used were:

- The use of physical punishment (27.5%).

- Practicing educational activities (26.5%).

- Mutual respect between teachers and pupils (16.3%).

- Pupils' guidance (15.3%).

- Enforcing religious and spiritual values (11.2%).

The study of Ashour (1997) was conducted with students of Yarmulke University, Jordan and concentrated on the concept of practicing fundamental classroom management skills effectively. It used variables such as gender, experience and the education stage. The study focused on students joining a training programme in 1995-1996 and divided the skills into six fields:

- General behaviour.

- Preparation and planning.

- Rules and regulations.

- Classroom interaction and educational activities.

- Guidance.

- Enhancing motivation and evaluation.

These six fields were found to have a direct effect on classroom management. General behaviour is rated first, followed by class interaction and educational activities with guidance rated last. The results show that these skills are highly practiced, with significantly statistical differences for gender, but no statistical difference in relation of years of experience and education stage.

A number of studies determine the fundamental skills for managing educational situations efficiently. One of these studies is by Taan (1998) on the practices of fundamental skills by secondary school teachers for managing educational situations efficiently. The study looked at a sample of 190 teachers who teach the first and second year secondary teachers in Jordon, and found that the fundamental skills of managing educational situations efficiently are:

- Behaviour management.

- Planning the educational situation.

- Classroom activities and interactions.

- School rules and regulations.

- Educational guidance.

- Enhancing and evaluating students' performance.

The research results reveal that secondary school teachers practice the six fundamental skills with the classroom activities and interactions rated first and educational guidance last. Significant statistical differences were found in relation to experience and gender of teachers, while no statistical differences were noted with regards to the variable of experience with other variables. The study recommends making use of modern educational technology in teaching situations.

In a study by Aksoy (1999), entitled "*Classroom Management and Students' Discipline in the Elementary Schools of Ankara, Turkey*", the problems facing teachers in classroom discipline were investigated in terms of their causes and teacher strategies for resolving them. The study reveals that the most common problems were: speaking without permission; neglecting supporting activities; fighting; speaking too much; and, finally, disobeying the teacher. The reasons for classroom discipline problems were said to be teachers being not good example to be followed, family problems, parents neglecting educating their children, negative behaviour from parents, violence in the media and overcrowded classrooms. The most used methods in class discipline were speaking with the pupils, redirecting the attention of the pupil and the physical punishment.

The study of Martin and Yin (1999), "*Beliefs regarding Classroom Management Style: Differences between Urban and Rural Secondary Level Teachers*", aimed to identify the

differences between urban and rural high school teachers in the methods they use in classroom management. Of the sample of 145 teachers from south west America, 73% were Urban teachers. The researchers define classroom management as a multi-sided process, with three main prospects:

- The teaching prospect (Instructional management): the beliefs of the teachers concerning managing and organising teaching missions.

- The personal prospect (people management): what the teachers think of the pupils as individuals and what they do to develop them.

- The discipline prospect (behaviour management): the planned methods to stop bad behaviours and control the undesired ones.

The study reveals significant statistical differences regarding guidance and people management. Rural teachers scored higher marks than urban teachers in instructional management and behaviour management, while urban teachers got higher marks in people management.

The study of Brouwers and Tomic (2000), "*A Longitudinal Study of Teacher Burnout and Perceived Self-Efficacy in Classroom Management*", investigated two groups totalling (558) teachers in 1997 and in 1998, the total of teachers were (243) of (558) teachers (179 males and 64 females) in 1997 and 1998. The study reveals that the sense of self efficiency has an important impact on the character. Teachers who suspect their ability to keep the class controlled do little to resolve the problem and consequently they suffer pressure and passive effects.

"*Student Science Teachers Accounts of a Well-Remembered Event about Classroom Management*" (Zuckerman, 2000) was a study carried out on 36 undergraduate science teachers. The participants were asked to describe a problem in classroom management they

faced and how they responded to it. Their responses were analysed to understand if the focus was on group or individual bad behaviour and to investigate if the teachers supported progress and growth or surrendered. The study reveals that half of the teachers were interested in group participation but less than half tried to support the growth of students or encourage their progress. The study also reveals the need for developing classroom management abilities in order to properly prepare them to be better teachers in future.

The study of Kher, Lacina and Yandell (2000), entitled "*Preservice Teachers' Knowledge of Effective Classroom Management Strategies: Defiant Behavior*", investigated undergraduate teachers. The participants were asked to generate classroom management strategies for supposed problems and then to discuss the effective polices for dealing with two supposed misbehaviours and two effective ones. The study reveals that undergraduate teachers set similar strategies for both. Some of the effective strategies were blaming, involving the principal or parents, and speaking with the two students separately. The ineffective strategies were shouting at the pupils or threatening them. The study shows that those undergraduate teachers ignored any protective strategies against misconduct.

Coffey and Delmont (2000) looked at the daily work of a teacher in the classroom, in their study entitled "*Feminism and the Classroom Teacher, Research, Praxis, and Pedagogy*". Examples of these tasks included achieving discipline, tasks outside the classroom, meetings and preparing the teachers' room in addition to achieving equality and equal opportunities between males and females. The findings included: certain daily tasks inside the classroom were believed to be beneficial for classroom management, and achieving equality and equal opportunities among males and females. There are also certain daily works outside the classroom, such as planning for supervising school activities, preparing the teachers' room and conducting meetings with school management and local society that were also beneficial.

Many studies emphasise classroom management as one of the effective teaching skills a teacher should carry out. Tawlba (2000) investigates the degree of practicing effective teaching principles by 80 teachers delivering computer science in public sector schools in Jordon. The study focused on nine effective teaching principles, including the use of learning resources, classroom management, interaction and classroom evaluation. The study finds that most of these principles are practiced especially the principle of classroom management and interaction, while the least practiced principle was practicing classroom evaluation. The study revealed no significant statistical differences relating to gender, qualifications or experience.

In a study by Hanson (2002) entitled *"Learning while Managing: the Role of Authority in Successful Classroom Management"*, the aim was to determine the most effective methods to manage pupils in urban areas. The study highlights that the less dictatorial a teachers is, the better control they really have. The study also reveals the importance of management in directing the behaviour of pupils.

In a study by Evans et al. (2003) entitled "*Support for pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties (EBD) in mainstream primary school classrooms: a systematic review of the effectiveness of interventions*" the recommended strategies for facing behavioural and emotional difficulties of the pupils were drawn up with reference to previous studies in this field. Class discipline can be modelled through certain behavioural strategies that depend mainly on establishing from the very beginning that bad behaviour from the pupils is to be avoided and that pupils will be evaluated accordingly. The study stresses the fact that researchers and parents have to address this problem jointly.

In a study by Hamelin (2003), *"It Goes without Saying. Non-Verbal Communication Signals as a Tool for Establishing Effective Classroom Management"*, the effect of non-verbal

communication was analyzed. Body language and gestures were found to be helpful in keeping the educational environment productive in the intermediate schools where the study was conducted.

In a bid to decide the relationship between teaching qualifications and experience on one hand and classroom management on the other, Ritter (2003*)* in *"Classroom Management Beliefs and Practices of Middle School Teachers Based on Years of Experience and Teaching Certification"* studied a sample of 97 middle school teachers, some are traditionally newly graduated teachers while some others are traditionally expert teachers. The researcher used the Attitudes and Beliefs about Classroom Control Inventory, classroom observation, interviews with teachers, in addition to group discussion and questionnaire. The outcome proves no effect resulting from certification or level of experience. However, it was clear that experienced teachers expend less effort in controlling their classes than those with less experience or different qualifications.

Another study, by Powell and Tod (2004), entitled "*A systematic review of how theories explain learning behaviour in school contexts*" tackles the school atmosphere and its effect on learning behaviours. Personal and social development was considered, but no social comparisons are made. The study suggested many ways to control the pupils' behaviours and correct them. Some of these suggestions are as follows:

Teaching behaviour and evaluating it by the teachers should be focussed upon. This means not only evaluating existing behaviour; this should be done by all teachers in all the various disciplines in the framework of mutual understanding between the teachers and pupils. Teaching homogeneous groups or classes leads to better results, especially in minor groups that benefit from superior groups. Here, teachers should be encouraged to have a kind of integration in preparing what is presented in class considering what has been taught in

previous stages. An important point to be considered in this regard is that the teachers and the school atmosphere should encourage inter-personal relations (without increasing conflict or competitiveness among individuals) which lead in turn to better results.

There should be standards for measuring and evaluating performance and the degree of progress achieved on the behavioural level not in the educational curriculum. Finally, there should be integration between what is presented at all the different educational stages to guarantee the accumulation of the pupils' experiences.

In a contrastive study on classroom management strategies between teachers of high schools in USA and the Republic of Korea, Shin (2004*) in "A Cross-Cultural Study of teachers' Beliefs and Strategies on Classroom Behaviour Management in Urban American and Korean School Systems"* investigated the differences using different questionnaires for. The study sample included 116 American teachers and 167 Koreans. This study reveals significant statistical cross-cultural differences in classroom management methods in favour of the American teachers.

To decide if there is a difference between beliefs concerning classroom management and application, Gibbes (2004) in *"Attitudes and Beliefs Regarding Classroom Management between Traditionally Certified and Alternatively Certified High School Teachers"* conducted a study on 114 high school teachers using the Attitudes and Beliefs about Classroom Control inventory. The results of two groups across three classroom dimensions were tested using independent t-test. The results reveal no statistical difference between beliefs and applications for traditionally certified teachers and those alternatively certified.

Using the qualitative research method, Garrett (2005*) in "Student and Teacher-Centred Classroom Management: A Case Study of Three Teachers' Beliefs and Practices"* tackled classroom management strategies in terms of student-centred and teacher-centred approaches.

Three teachers applying the student-centred approach were studied to determine the relationship between their classroom management and their instructional approaches. The study reveals that their classroom management was influenced by what they believe in classroom management. Two of them managed their classes in terms of their way of instruction and the third one was not.

The qualitative research methods were used by Foxworthy (2006) in *"Teachers' Beliefs about Classroom Management"* in order to study the effect of teachers' beliefs on classroom management on their teaching. Using interviews and observation in classes, it was revealed that participants believed in prioritisation of students' needs. The study also reveals a change in the teachers' beliefs concerning classroom management as they gained experiences and knowledge.

In the study of Wilson (2006) entitled "*Teacher Perceptions of Classroom Management in Public Elementary Schools*", the aim was to study the perceptions of teachers in the government primary schools in the south of California with regards to the use of classroom management methods, especially in terms of the physical and psychological practices employed to achieve class control. The results are that teachers who said they do not use classroom management methods were using them more than those who said they did. Different variables such as gender, experience and education level affected the use of classroom management methods.

In summary, classroom management has been the focus of research covering many issues in Arab and non-Arab countries. Some studies have stressed the importance of implementing the measures needed from the beginning of the school year. Other studies have assessed the environment of the classroom, which received considerable attention from many researchers, especially the inter-personal relationships between teachers and pupils to enhance motivation.

Other studies focussed on the teacher and the qualities and skills he/she should have, comprising the active side of the educational process. Finally, some studies have considered the background of the pupils, their emotional and behavioural difficulties and their effects on the teaching process, as strategies adopted can enhance the targeted behavioural models.

3.8.2 Education Supervision and Training in Developing Classroom Management for Teachers

Merrett and Wheldall (1982) conducted a study entitled "*Does Teaching Student Teachers about Behaviour Modification Techniques improve their Teaching Performance in the Classroom?*" This study was carried out on a sample of 110 students' teachers in practical teaching, who were divided into two groups (85 in the control group and 25 in the experimental group). The experimental group received a short course on changing their behaviour with a focus on positive social enhancements. They were encouraged to experiment using many behavioural techniques and were given a set of instructions relevant to common behavioural problems and help with direct contact with supervisory tutors. Some of the most interesting and relevant results of the study are:

- The performance of the experimental group was better in managing the lesson.
- The course of changing the behaviour developed skills in enhancing classroom management especially in relation to discipline in class and encouraging the pupils.
- The course helped change the pupils' attitude positively.

The study ensured that interested parents and teachers applied techniques for modifying behaviour. In addition, the behavioural analysis enabled teachers to diagnose problems and provided help in resolving them.

Evertson conducted two studies, the first in 1985 to investigate the effectiveness of a suggested training programme for teachers on classroom management. The study was carried

out using a sample of 102 teachers chosen from different schools in Arkansas. 70 were primary stage teachers who were divided into two groups (35 experimental and 35 control). The other 32 teachers were also divided into 16 experimental and 16 control. The second study was in 1989 and aimed to evaluate the effectiveness of the training programme presented to primary schools teachers. In this study the sample of 29 teachers were divided into two groups (14 experimental and 15 control). Each member needed to have finished training in teaching skills through the effective teaching programme in the state and had also been given a copy of the teacher guide to classroom management (Everston et al., 1981). In the two studies 31 management behaviours were studied in six main domains:

- Teaching management.

- Classroom management.

- Rules and regulations.

- Facing the pupils needs.

- Managing the pupils' behaviour.

- The classroom general atmosphere.

The results of the two studies were that there were significant statistical differences between the experimental and control groups in relation to their classroom management techniques; and that the teachers in the experimental group followed proper classroom management techniques that led to less undesired behaviour as pupils were kept busy with their assigned work. These results support the claim that training on classroom management can lead to better teacher performance and more positive interaction between the pupils and the teacher, especially when the training was controlled by well-qualified trainers.

The study by Afash (1991) looked at the educational competencies teachers need in the on-the-job training programmes, from the perspective of the trainees. The study was carried out using a sample of 121 trainees (70 males and 51 females) in Yarmulke University, Jordan.

The study categorised the competencies into five domains, the most important of which were evaluation, classroom management and guidance. The results were:

- The most important domains for trainees are in order: classroom management, evaluation and guidance.

- The study stresses the dire need for classroom management strategies.

- There were no significant statistical differences related to experience or gender concerning what is needed in this training programme.

Alharthy (1993) examined the effectiveness of the supervisor in developing the skills of social studies teachers in the intermediate stage from the point of view of teachers in Taief educational zone. The study was carried out on a sample of 182 teachers, and found that:

- The supervisors develop the teachers' competency of encouraging pupils to keep discipline and order in class.

- The supervisors significantly develop the teachers' competency of enhancing the pupils' positive behaviour.

- The study revealed the inability of the supervisor to develop other skills such as different methods of evaluation.

- There are no significant statistical differences among teachers concerning the role of the supervisors to develop their competencies.

- The study revealed that the supervisor always uses class visits and sometimes meetings and rarely resorts to guided readings or educational workshops.

The study of Esawi (1999) suggested a training programme on classroom time management for mathematic undergraduates. This study was carried out on a sample of 40 third year undergraduates in Riyadh. The sample was trained in workshops on how to prepare a timed

lesson plan to be followed with view to minimising time wastage during the lesson. The results were:

- There are significant statistical differences after the training in favour of the training.

- There are significant statistical differences in the degree of implementing the timed plan after the training in favour of the training.

- There are significant statistical differences in the method of classroom interaction (the teacher–learner role) after the training in favour of the training where the role of the teacher was reduced in the learning process.

- There are significant statistical differences between the trainee's abilities in overcoming time wasting factors in class after the training where the time lost after the training was less. This shows progress after the time management training.

A number of studies investigate the effect of training on the teacher's method of managing the class. One such studies is by Martin and Shoho (2000) who examine the differences between traditionally trained beginning students teachers and traditionally trained experience teachers and understanding the relationship between the age of the teacher and the method used in managing the classroom. The study was carried out using a sample of 388 participants and proved that experienced teachers were better able to control their classes. The study also proved a statistical relationship between age and person management.

O'Hara (2004), in "*Teaching 3-8, Meeting the Standard for Initial Teacher Training and Induction*", aimed to provide an introduction towards teachers' competencies of classroom management. This study followed the analytical descriptive method through describing the phenomena of the study, collecting and analysing the data in terms of both the social and cultural contexts. The conclusion was that in order to control the pupils in the classroom, there should be good classroom management including effective teaching, the availability of

learning resources, ensuring the pupils are ready and having varied educational activities to invest time properly.

The Ministry of Education in New Zealand (2006) published a report entitled "*Management of Development Programmes in New Zealand*" which aims to understand the remodelling of classrooms with a view to improving the outputs to cope with the labour market requirements. This study followed the analytical descriptive method, in addition to using the questionnaire as a field study tool. The questionnaire sample included heads of education, representatives of civil society, companies, factories, and parents. The information collected from these respondents (not less than 50 individuals) was analysed. Among the results are: the need to develop government educational programmes and direct more finance to improve the educational process; increase the support of civil and non-profit organisations in financing education technology; and ensure the existence of educational programmes to raise the standard of teachers and their classroom management in the framework of life-long training and education.

In summary, studies on the effect of education supervision and training in developing teachers' skills in classroom management reveal that training led to better performance on the condition that it is conducted by well-qualified trainers for both undergraduate teachers and on-the-job training. Studies also highlight the role of supervisors in changing teachers'' conceptions and implementing classroom management approaches.

3.9 CONCLUSION

It is clear from the literature that effective classroom management is a pre-requisite for a successful learning environment. A number of substantive conclusions can be drawn from the literature.

First, classroom management cannot be adequately described in a single dimension but results from a group of interacting processes, measures, management skills and educational behaviours. Powell & Tod (2004), for example stress the variety of behaviours which the teacher needs to master for effective class management. This study and the others reviewed earlier demonstrate that classroom management is an essential part of modern educational practice and that its study should form a part of the pre- and post-graduate training for teachers. It is also clear that a broad range of activities in the classroom leads to fewer teaching difficulties for both the teacher and the pupils, encouraging the formation of a virtuous circle in which teachers can manage more effectively and pupils learn more. The ultimate goal of establishing high quality classroom management skills is to impact on educational outputs in the form of the academic attainment levels, attitudes and behaviours of pupils. As a consequence, this will generate the skills needed for developing an economically vibrant, wider functioning society.

Second, educationalists have established the broad range of necessary actions, approaches and skills which a teacher needs in order to manage his/her class successfully. These measures should not be seen as isolated fixes to problems but are rather as a set of tools which have to be constantly adapted to particular circumstances in changing classes and cultures.

Third, it may be apparent from the first point above, but it can usefully be noted explicitly, that ecologically valid studies, such as Evertson (1985), show that student performance attitudes are directly related to the level of classroom management skills demonstrated by their teacher.

Fourth, a number of studies demonstrate that classroom management training programmes can be effective in raising the performance and skill of teachers in the classroom (Merrett &

Wheldall, 1982; Esawi, 1999; Martin & Shoho, 2000). This encouraging finding is reinforced by studies of the relationship between classroom management and the performance and attitudes of students, which indicate the need for teachers to receive properly, designed programmes that deliver training in classroom management (Evans, Harden, Thomas, & Benefield, 2003; Evertson & Emmer, 1982; Afash, 1991; Zuckerman, 2000; Gibbes, 2004; Garrett, 2005; Foxworthy, 2006).

Fifth, it is important to note that studies of classroom management have not been restricted to studies of a subject area. For example, Alharthy (1993) looked at social studies, Zuckerman (2000) studied science, Tawlba (2000) investigated computer sciences and Esawi (1999) was concerned with mathematics. As a result, a general message can be drawn concerning classroom management across the curriculum although, of course, different approaches are required in different circumstances.

Sixth, studies have also varied in the constructs on which they focussed: some tackled gender and experience (Afash, 1991); some dealt with training and experience (Martin & Shoho, 2000) (Ritter, 2003) or only training (Merrett & Wheldall, 1982); some examined the location of the school (Martin & Yin, 1999); while (Shin, 2004) revealed statistical cross-cultural differences in classroom management methods. Again, the message is that general patterns can be found but that classroom management must be context-sensitive.

There are some particular studies which are of interest in the context of the current investigation. First, the report of Ministry of Education in New Zealand (2006) considers reform programmes designed to develop classroom management and school management across the system as a whole, which in turn leads to better outputs for coping with the labour market requirements. Stephens and Crawley (1994) in the UK concentrate on qualifying programmes for teachers, paying particular attention to the reward and punishment system

that leads to classroom and behavioural control. Meanwhile, Wragg (1995) in the UK identifies the need for long term strategies for improving teaching methods and emphasises the importance of training teachers in appropriate strategies. In support, Evertson (1985) examines on-the-job training programmes available for teachers, emphasising their value. Martin and Yin (1999) concur, calling for the delivery of training courses for new graduate teachers in the field of classroom management. O'Hara (2000) concentrates on future roles of the teacher in classroom management, such as dividing the pupils into small groups in order to achieve more effective teaching and class control. This is supported by the study of Coffey and Delmont (2000), who recommend ensuring equal opportunities for males and females.

Turning now to how the present work aims to contribute to research, the researcher aims ultimately to apply the findings of this thesis to help develop more effective classroom management strategies in Saudi Arabia. This will necessarily involve improving the curriculum, the education system and the outcomes of pupils. These are ambitious aims, which can only be achieved by building on the very extensive work carried out round the world, as summarised above. Crucially, very little research on classroom management has been carried out in Saudi Arabia and an important contribution to the literature is to ascertain the perceptions and practices of teachers and supervisors; what is the present situation and do the general patterns found in other parts of the world hold in Saudi Arabia? What opinions do the teachers and supervisors hold? It is hoped that their points of view as well as the findings of the thesis will be taken into consideration by decision-makers.

The government in Saudi Arabia is focussed on developing education; about one quarter of the budget is devoted to education. The King Abdullah Project for Developing General Education, discussed in chapter 2, needs to be highlighted. It is hoped that the officials concerned with the project can accelerate the process of development by building new schools and providing modern equipment to all schools, allowing Saudi Arabia to keep pace

with advanced countries. A country with such large hydrocarbon revenues should be in a position to do this.

Because the KSA considers Islamic education to be an important basis for education at the primary stage, the majority of participants are teachers and supervisors of Islamic education. It is within this context that this study describes the approach of classroom management of teachers and educational supervisors and provides analyses and conclusions. The timing of this study is important as it coincides with the Saudi Arabian cabinet forming an independent body for the evaluation of general education on 10 September 2012. This study may benefit decision-makers who adopt Islam and its culture in order to avail themselves of more evidence relating to classroom management across the world linked to Saudi Arabian classrooms.

The current study is distinctive in that it focuses on classroom management approaches for boys' schools in the primary stage upper classes in Riyadh, the capital city of Saudi Arabia, and is believed to be the first of its kind. This study also adopts the quantitative and qualitative research methods in classroom management, which have not previously been used by studies in Saudi Arabia.

CHAPTER IV
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.0 INTRODUCTION

Having shed light on the theoretical framework in the previous chapter that introduced the relevant theories for this study, this chapter investigates the methodology used in the study and the methods employed in collecting primary and secondary data.

Research methods are defined as "techniques and procedures used in the process of data gathering" (Cohen et al., 2007:47). Different methods can be used in collecting data such as surveys, observations, interviews, written responses, concentrated groups, drawings, photos, videos and historical documents (Marton, 1988; Marton & Booth, 1997; Harris, 2008). Gass and Mackey (2007) and Gay and Airasian (2003) argue that both methods of collecting data can be used (quantitative and qualitative); they suggest the questionnaire can be used to collect the majority of the data and then a number of qualitative methods such as interviews and observations can be used to clarify ideas and obtain more in-depth interpretations.

In this chapter, the method of the research and instruments are explained showing how data needed for explanation purposes and prediction were collected and used. Cohen et al. (2007:47) mention that research methodology includes the investigation approaches and methods to collect data for "inferences and interpretation, for explanation and prediction" Research methods can be divided into three main categories; quantitative, qualitative and a combination (mixed) of both quantitative and qualitative (Cohen et al, 2007; Creswell, 2008; Bryman, 2008; Denscombe, 2008; Berg, 2009).

To decide which method should be adopted depends mainly on the nature of the study, population and the kind of assumptions and variables of the research, in addition to the

research questions to be answered (Gay & Airasian, 2003; Cohen et al, 2007; Creswell, 2008; Bryman, 2008; Berg, 2009). However, Denscombe (2008:280) argues that this choice may be affected by "career interest, funding opportunities, training and personal skills rather than a purely 'rational' choice based on the respective merits of the available alternatives".

This study used descriptive statistics to describe the reality of classroom management approaches practised by primary upper classroom teachers, out of which the researcher hopes to develop improved methods of teaching and designing the curriculum in Saudi Arabia. According to Wisker (2007) and Gilbert (2008), it is possible for survey research to allow the researcher to collect data on situations, activities and experiences. In other words, survey research can describe populations and their views using samples (May, 2001).

Ary, Jacobs, and Razavieh (1985) note that survey research is very common in social studies to measure and describe the phenomenon being investigated. There is a need for this kind of research when the researcher needs data from a large sample from a population, whereas interview and observation methods are used with restricted numbers. See below (4.4) for an analysis of these issues (Gilbert, 2008).

In order to have a good answers for the questions of this study, it may be useful to use two kinds of approaches namely; quantitative and qualitative methods. This can be done by using the questionnaire as a main instrument for collecting data and then followed by observing a sample of participants from the original research sample. The reason for this is to collect a large amount of data and understand some of the issues in more detailed with a more nuanced approach.

As indicated previously, this study aims to describe the reality of classroom management approaches practiced by a sample of primary school teachers in the KSA. The research also

assesses the teachers' suggestions to develop these approaches in order to improve instruction and the curriculum in the KSA. This can be achieved by answering the following questions:

- What classroom management approaches in the upper classes at the primary level (boys) in Riyadh City in the KSA are used, according to teachers and educational supervisors? Based on this question, the following sub-questions arise:

- What management approaches are used during classroom activities in the upper class teachers in boys' primary schools?

- What is the preferred approach of classroom management for teachers in the upper classrooms in the primary stage?

- Are there statistically significant differences between teachers' classroom management in terms of the following variables: degree of qualifications, years of experience, training programmes in classroom management, and subjects taught?

- Are there any statistically significant differences between supervisors and teachers resulting from the changes in the variables: the job, degree of qualifications, years of experience, training programmes in classroom management, and subject taught?

- What are the suggestions of the sample members (teachers and educational supervisors) for developing approaches to classroom management and thus, curriculum and instruction for teachers in the upper classes in boys' primary schools?

In the following three sections quantitative and qualitative research methods are discussed in general, before highlighting the differences and similarities of the two methods.

4.1 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

Mertens (2009:3) defined quantitative methods as "Research that measures variables in a quantifiable way." Quantitative research often aims to investigate questions deductively

(Guba, 1990; Bell, 2005; Mertens, 2009). The questions are determined with due reference to pre-determined concepts and definitions. Thereafter, the data are collected and analysed statistically. According to the results, the researcher can accept, reject or modify the questions set at the outset (Guba, 1990; Bell, 2005; Mertens, 2009). It is noticed also that the concepts in the quantitative researches are defined to be able to test the assumptions. The researcher should make sure that the measures used are true and reliable through techniques related to reliability and validity. Having done so, data are collected and classified digitally to be analysed statistically to reach the research results.

To sum up, the aim of the quantitative research is often to test the questions set by the researcher. Also it may measure to see whether the assumptions or questions are valid or not. Quantitative method has a series of challenges such as sampling and measuring errors (Tull & Hawkins, 1987).

4.2 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

Qualitative methods often depend on studying data and events. That study involves collecting data through observation, interviews and analysing events, situations, pictures, documents, verbal and non-verbal communications (Smith, 1983; Zikmund, 2000).

Williams (2007:67) defined qualitative methods as "Qualitative methodology is described as an effective method that occurs in natural settings that allows researcher to develop a level of detail from being involved in the actual experience".

Rayan (2006) mentioned that in qualitative research, interviews and observations often are used to collect data. An open–ended questionnaire may be used, as well as diaries, documents, letters and even photographs. In some cases, the case study is used to collect further data. The data collected are analysed and then are sometimes organised in tables, they

may be given computerised codes, and the researcher then analyses the contents of these tables to have certain results (Obaydat et al, 2011). Cohen et al. (2007:461) argue that "there is no single or correct way to analysis and present qualitative data''.

4.3 DIFFERENCES AND SIMILARITIES QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

This section highlights the two different methodologies based on the literature. There are differences and similarities between the quantitative and qualitative methods. Mertens (2009) highlights that the quantitative research is based on measurable variables. Instruments, such as questionnaires often are used to collect data in the quantitative method. The questionnaires are often distributed to a sample that is representative of the population. Thereafter, the collected data are dealt with quantitatively (Obaydat et al, 2011). However, the validity of the results depends on the accuracy of the numeric data (Bryman, 2008). On the other hand, the qualitative method often stresses the interpretation of the phenomenon depending on observations, interviews, dialogues, photos and recordings (Mertens, 2009). Denzin and Lincoln (2000) highlight that the challenge of this kind of research is that it depends on personal experience, autobiography and meetings.

It is clear then that qualitative research could be helpful in describing the phenomenon and understanding it deeply, it interprets different phenomena. For example, (Obaydat et al, 2011) claim that it can answer the questions how? and why? by considering different points of view. It supplies subjective data in place of the non-objective data as it may help to understand more on of the topic. In this way, it is an inductive method in contrast to the quantitative method which concentrates on experimenting and revealing the reasons and results through numerical data and considering the relationship amongst a number of variables. Quantitative research often uses a deductive method according to Bell (2005) and Guba (1990).

One of the important differences is that the differences in aims and methods affect choosing the research samples. Qualitative research aims to obtain information from a small sample of population in contrast to quantitative research which often aims to obtain information from large samples. In other words, it is claimed that qualitative research does not require a sample that is statistically representative of the general population, while quantitative research often does.

Quantitative research often depends mainly on questionnaires that can be distributed directly or through mail or email (Smith, 1983; Zikmund, 2000; Burns, 2000). This type of approach can be achieved in a more time efficient manner and is less costly to collect. In contrast, in qualitative research, observation, interviews and documents often are used. This type of data collection can be time consuming as it takes a lot of time to meet and observe individuals and groups. In terms of data, Mertens (2009) states that the quantitative method collects it numerically while the qualitative method often collects words and photos and mixed method of them collects both of kind data. The similarities between the two methods are that both methods use analytical methods for fixed data designed to generate or test hypotheses, sometimes to generate theory and to test theory and finally to form conclusions.

A challenge to the quantitative research is that the questions should be direct and easily measured and the assumption should be explicit. Another challenge is that the procedures of the research in some cases do not provide sufficiently in-depth information relevant to the research topic (Key, 1997; Huysamen, 1997; Cohen et al., 2007; Bryman, 2008; Alassaf, 2010; Obaydat et al, 2011).

One of the positive outcomes of quantitative methods is that they allow researchers, in most cases, to understand cause and effect as the data reveals the measurements that can provide useful information. Also, the numbers and statistics used in quantitative research may allow

the accessibility of results and evaluations on the topic of the study (Key, 1997; Obaydat et al, 2011). On the other hand, one of the challenges in qualitative research is that this kind of research depends mainly on the presence of the researcher or his/her assistant and the results depend mainly on the interpretations and descriptions of the researcher. With regards to controlling variables, qualitative research uses fewer in most cases (Key, 1997; Obaydat et al, 2011).

On the other hand, one of positive aspects of the qualitative research is that it may provide deep and rich information which in some cases is unexpected. Despite the personal element in the observation and describing the phenomenon, it may provide a wider understanding of the case than does the quantitative method. Also, the qualitative research can use a small sample (Key, 1997; Huysamen, 1997; Cohen et al. 2007; Bryman, 2008).

It is clear from what has been mentioned that there is no perfectly correct or wrong way and that combination of both the quantitative and qualitative methods may help achieve better results. The following section will tackle the methodology of this study in combining both the quantitative and qualitative methods.

4.4 MIXED METHOD DESIGNS OF THE STUDY

The current studies have included both quantitative and qualitative methods, aiming to overcome the possible bias in a single methodology method and to increase the validity of the research (Greene, Caracelli & Graham, 1989). There are many texts that suggest the use of multiple methods in social sciences; for example Rudestam and Newton (2000) and Hussey and Hussey (1997) suggest that it is good to use both quantitative and qualitative methods to collect data. Likewise, Denzin (1978) made it clear that adopting many methods to study the same phenomena is valuable; if the same results are found it increases the validity of the conclusions.

Moreover, the need for using mixed method designs can be linked to specific purposes. Some of the researchers who tackled this topic include Reichardt & Cook, 1979; Madey, 1982; Rossman & Wilson, 1985; Smith & Louis, 1982; Tashakkori & Teddlie (1998) and Greene, Caracelli & Graham, 1989. Greene, Caracelli & Graham (1989) suggest that the purposes of this research method need to be made clear through defining five mixed method concepts, namely:

A mixed method design with triangulation, complementarily mixed method, mixing method for development purposes, mixed method with initiation, and a mixed method with expansion, thus: Triangulation means having a kind of agreement or rather correspondence of the results from different methods. Complementarity, which means elaborating the results of one method whilst considering the results of other methods. Development, meaning making use of the results gained from a study as key points for other following studies. Initiation means detecting any paradox or contradictions in the results.

Finally, expansion is to broaden inquiry by using different methods. In fact, the use of these defined measures is meant to ensure the validity of the results through increasing the depth of results and the scope of inquiry (Greene, Caracelli & Graham, 1989). Figure 4.1 below summarises the purposes of these five mixed method concepts.

In this study, the questionnaire as a quantitative method was used to collect primary data which were analysed and after that the observations made by the researcher were applied as a qualitative method. This is "Development" in Greene et al.'s (1989) terminology. As a result of this procedure, the validity was enhanced. This corresponds to "Complementarily'' in Greene et al.'s (1989) terminology.
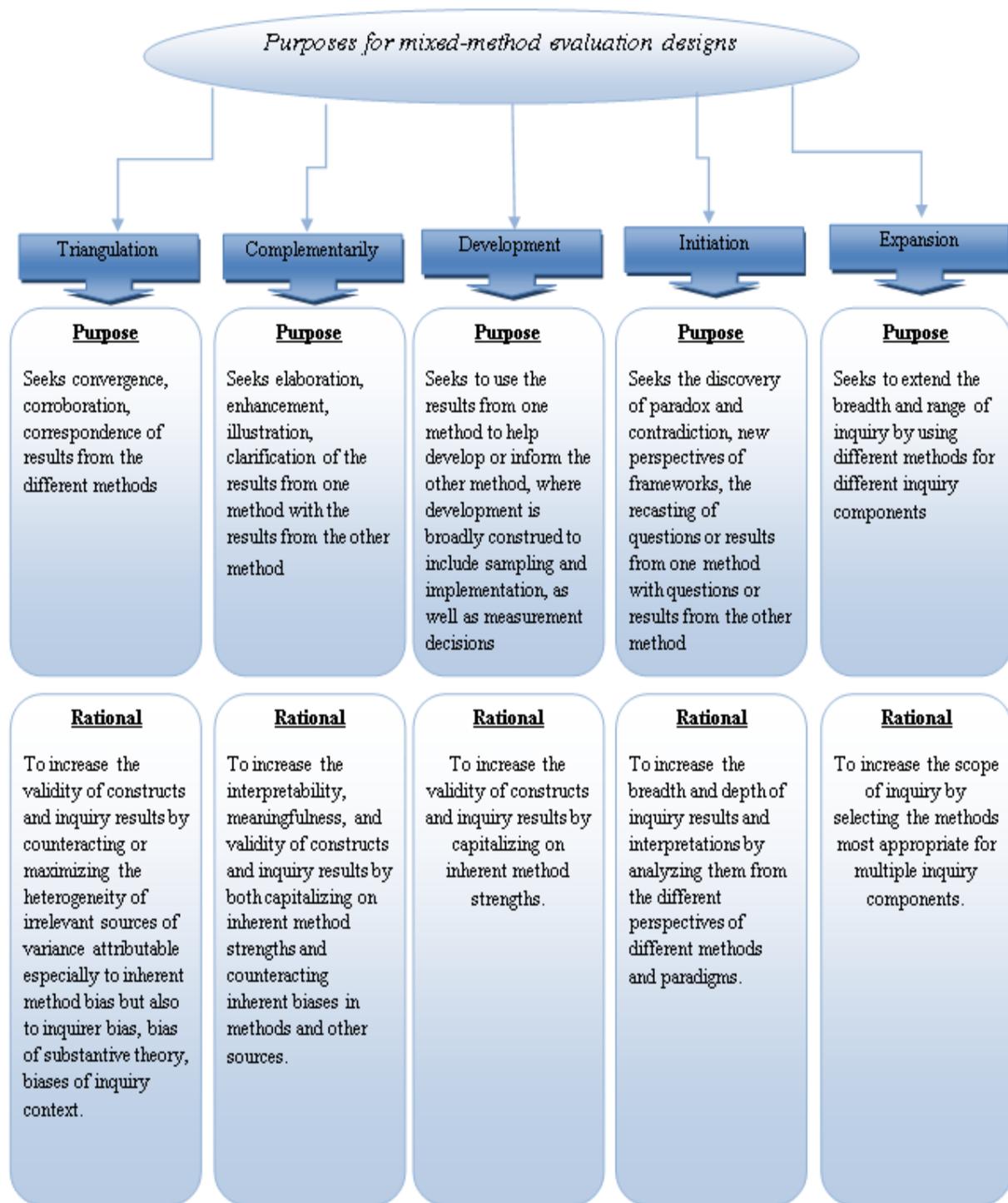
Figure 4.1: Purposes for mixed – method evaluation designs
Source: Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, W. F. (1989 :259)

Importantly the two methods can be integrated into much research, which can enhance their

strengths and mitigate their weaknesses. This is called a mixed methods approach. As defined

by Creswell (2008:62), the mixed method designs are "procedures for collecting, analysing,

and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study". According to Jang et al. (2008), the mixed method approach gives the chance to explain and ensure the validity of the data. In addition, with its flexibility it leads to a better understanding of the issue (Bryman, 2008). However, in some cases, it is not possible to use this mixed method due to different assumptions (Bryman, 2008).

The mixed method was used in this study in order to describe and help understand the approaches teachers practiced in classroom management, to understand the point of view of both teachers and educational supervisors on this issue, and to record their ideas to develop instruction and the curriculum in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA). This was achieved by answering the following questions:

What classroom management approaches in the upper classes in the primary stage (boys) in Riyadh City in the KSA are used according to teachers and educational supervisors? Based on this question, the following sub questions arise:

- What management approaches are used during classroom activities in the upper class teachers in boys' primary schools?

- What is the preferred approach of classroom management for teachers in the upper classrooms in the primary stage?

- Are there statistically significance differences between teachers' classroom management in terms of the following variables: degree of qualifications, years of experience, training programme in classroom management, and subject taught?

- Are there any statistical significant differences between supervisors and teachers resulting from the changes in the variables: the job, degree of qualifications, years of experience, training programme in classroom management, and subject taught?

- What are the suggestions of the sample members (teachers and educational supervisors) for developing the approaches of classroom management and accordingly, curriculum and instruction for teachers in the upper classes in boys' primary schools?

4.5 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Rea and Parker (2005) suggest that researchers should realise that the many methods for collecting data and choosing instruments depends on many factors such as time, cost and volume of population, in addition to the aims of the research, the questions that need answers and the kind of data needed. All this in fact plays a vital role in the decision making process to decide a suitable or more research instruments.

Researchers usually use more than one method as a research instrument, one of these is to have a previous instrument from the literature and develop it with due consideration of the research ethics (Fraenkel & Wallen. 2008).

4.5.1 Questionnaires

Gass and Mackey (2007:148) refer to the concept of questionnaire as: "written instruments that present all participants with the same series of questions or statements, which the participants then react to either through providing written answers, marking Likert-style judgments or selecting options from a series of statements." The questionnaire is considered to be a suitable instrument for collecting data as it gives the chance for asking all respondents (in this case teachers and educational supervisors) the same questions (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003; Gass & Mackey, 2007; Cohen et al., 2007). The questionnaire can be conducted by many ways; for example by mail or email and personal interviews (Aldridge & Levine, 2001; Gay & Airasian, 2003; Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003; Bell, 2005; Cohen et

al 2007; Tymms, 2012). In this study, the researcher went personally to the schools to ensure delivery of the questionnaires and to save time. The questionnaire was attached with a letter explaining it as recommended by Cohen et al. (2007).

Questionnaires have a number of advantages as highlighted by Levin et al. (1989) and Obaydat et al., (2011):

- The low cost and time saving as they can be distributed widely.

- The large degree of unification as the same questions is set for all participants.

- Questionnaires can be completed quickly and to a deadline.

- Because the participants may not be identified they can be free to express their opinions especially on sensitive matters.

- Questionnaires can cover large samples.

However, questionnaires also have a number of disadvantages as highlighted by Alassaf (2010) and Obaydat et al., (2011):

- Some participants refrain from answering all the questions.

- Some participants do not give serious attention to the answers perhaps because the questionnaires are too long.

- Some questions are ambiguous and may be misunderstood, as can be the case with the answers.

- Some participants may be inaccurate.

- Participants vary in their experience and qualifications, therefore, the information they offer can be affected by their background.

Nevertheless, the questionnaire remains a useful instrument for collecting data from large groups, which is why it was adopted as a major instrument for collecting the primary data of this research. The researcher prepared the questionnaires based on the literature on classroom

management approaches which included questionnaires and lists designed by teachers. Thereafter, a questionnaire was specifically designed for this study.

In fact, the choice of the questionnaire method is that it can introduce a larger view besides the view of the researcher that it can enrich data and saves the time of the participants who have not enough time and also gives more freedom in their answers.

4.5.1.1 Construction of the questionnaire

Questionnaires should be constructed based on the research questions (Bryman, 2008). The questions on the questionnaire can vary from close-ended to open-ended depending on the nature of the data to be collected (Gay & Airasian, 2003; Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003; Cohen et al 2007; Bryman, 2008).

Before constructing the questionnaire, the researcher reviewed the literature, which emphasises the importance of the four dimensions—organising objects and materials; organising the role of the teacher and students; class performance; and class evaluation—in class room management (see Table 4.1) and the questionnaire was constructed to focus on these dimensions. As this questionnaire was to be completed by non-native English language speakers, the questions had to be constructed so as to avoid any complexity and ambiguity. The questionnaire was then piloted and the researcher adapted certain questions based on the feedback.

Table 4.1 shows the four dimensions and the research papers which identified their importance.

Dimension	Studies Highlighting the Importance of the Dimensions
Organising objects and materials.	Evertson & Emmer (1982); Brown, Lewis & Harcloard (1985); Soliman & Adebi (1990); Smith & Rivera (1995); Prosise (1996); Shokeer (1996); Malone & Tietjens (1998); Abosenena & Lakani, (2002); Sabti (2002); Alagmi (2003); Hemdan (2003); Katami (2005); Emmer et al. (2006); Zaitoon (2007); Alzeood et al. (2008); Gado (2008); Curwin & Mendler (2009).
Organising the role of the teacher and students.	Evertson & Emmer (1982); Soliman & Adebi (1990); Baron et al. (1992); Stephens & Crawley (1994); Smith & Rivera (1995); Wragg (1995); Prosise (1996); Shokeer (1996); Malone & Tietjens (1998); Gordon (2001); Sabti (2002); Alagmi (2003); Hemdan (2003); Katami (2005); Emmer et al. (2006); Gado (2008); Curwin & Mendler (2009).
Class performance	Ashour (1997);Abosenena & Lakani (2002); Fatlawai (2003); Ads(2004); Zaitoon (2007); Alzeood et al. (2008).
Class evaluation	Ruben (1984); Anderson (1989); Saaada, (1997); Taan (1998); Alkhateeb (2002); Alagmi (2003); Hasan (2003); Alhessin (2004); Konori & Melaefi (2004); Gaber (2005); Gamal (2006); Gado (2008).

Table 4.1: Studies highlighting the importance of the four dimensions

The questionnaire was designed in three parts. The first part contains background data on the individuals of the study samples such as: current job, qualifications, years of experience in current job, training programmes in classroom management, and subject. The second part contains 22 statements with view to understanding the frequency of classroom activities practiced by the teacher in classroom. The 22 statements were designed to describe the following aspects of classroom planning using ordinal scales.

- Organising objects and materials (7 statements).

- Organising the role of the teacher and students (3 statements).

- Class performance (7 statements).

- Class evaluation (5 statements).

The third part contains 27 semantic differentials with view to understanding the type of classroom in terms of the approaches performed by the teacher in classroom. The scale uses five points using an X sign and performed were noted. The result was analysed using a Likert scale of 1 to 5. In this section, the respondents choose from one of two opposing statements based on the idea of 'semantic differentials'. Cohen et al. (2007:326) define a semantic differential as "a semantic differential is a variation of a rating scale which operates by putting an adjective at one end of a scale and its opposite at the other". Cohen et al. (2007), referred to the semantic differential as a useful technique in three aspects namely; evaluative, potency and activity. Here it was related to activity. Moreover, Tymms (2012:234) mentions that semantic differential "can be quite motivating and interesting for respondents as well as easy to analyse".

4.5.1.2 Translation of the questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed in English and then translated into Arabic to be followed by a back translation by somebody else to make sure of its accuracy by comparing with the original. The questionnaire was then read by four other native Arabic speakers in order to receive their comments on the possibility of any ambiguous wording. For further reliability two competent translators from the translation department in King Saud and Imam Mohamed Bin Saud universities were also consulted.

The following sub-section explains validity and reliability issues for constructing this questionnaire.

4.5.1.3 Piloting the questionnaire

Testing the research instrument is another procedure that helps to test the validity and reliability of the questionnaire (Aldridge & Levine, 2001; Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003;

Gay & Airasian, 2003; Bell, 2005; Cohen et al 2007; Bryman, 2008). Cohen et al. (2007) also stress the importance of piloting the questionnaire and editing its content.

The questionnaire was piloted with due care and attention to ensure a reasonable validity. Before starting to pilot the questionnaire it was necessary to get approval from the Research Ethics and Data Protection sub-committee of Durham University; this was received. Thereafter, different groups participated in piloting the questionnaire; these groups were as follows:

- Experts as referred to by Cohen et al. (2007).

- Colleagues as referred to by Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003).

- A sample of the participants in the main study as referred to by Cohen et al. (2007), Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003) and Bryman (2008).

The questionnaire was completed by ten Saudi colleagues studying for the Masters and PhDs in the UK, as they have experience in this field. They were also asked their personal experience on moral issues relevant to Saudi culture in particular. Also, three teachers in Saudi schools contributed to the questionnaire (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003; Cohen et al., 2007; Gass & Mackey, 2007). Due to time and financial matters, a friend of the researcher contacted the three teachers in Saudi Arabia and gave them the researcher's address and phone number stressing that the cost of mailing and phone calls was at the expense of the researcher. The feedback they provided was valuable.

Bryman (2008) believes that that procedure may affect future representations in the sample especially if the chosen group represents part of the main sample, which is why this step is subject to criticism. Aldridge and Levine (2001) criticise the dependence on colleagues for testing the questionnaire because they do not represent the targeted population. However, in

contrast Cohen et al. (2007) suggest consulting experts on questionnaires and this is the procedure followed here.

Gay and Airasian (2003) recommend that those who review the questionnaire answer it to check its validity. Having finished the questionnaire in this pilot study, the individuals in all groups answered questions based on Bell (2005). These included:

- Are there any questions you did not answer?

- Is there any ambiguity in the instructions?

- Was the questionnaire too short, about right, or too long?

- What part or parts of the questionnaire are not clear?

- Can you suggest any more topics that can be added?

- Was the design of the questionnaire reasonable and attractive?

- Do you have any comments you would like to add?

The answers were helpful concerning the degree of comprehensiveness and clarity of the questionnaire.

4.5.1.4 The benefits gained from piloting the questionnaires

The comments of the participants in the pilot stage resulted in a number of benefits. First, by comparing the Arabic and English versions of the questionnaire, there was clarity for the pilot sample; the participants preferred the Arabic version to be used only as it is the mother tongue of the participants. Also, Gass and Mackey (2007) recommend the use of the mother tongue.

The participants also underlined the importance of the letter attached to the questionnaire for clarifying the purpose of the study. They recommended that it be read by the participants in the main study. They, along with the supervisor of the researcher, also suggested providing an example at the start.

The design of the questionnaire was accepted by all the pilot participants. However, they thought that it was not suitable to ask respondents to write 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 to answer the questions as this may create an impression of performance. They suggested using X instead. It was suggested including the name and email of the participant on a voluntary basis in order to help in analysing the results as they could be contacted later for clarification. The participants supported the idea if it was mentioned that the email was included only for research purposes.

4.5.1.5 Validity and reliability of the questionnaire

There are a number of ways to test the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. However, validity is the most important aspect of the questionnaire as reliability is a subset of validity. Validity means that the questionnaire is comprehensive and tackles the issue investigated fairly (Gass & Mackey, 2007). Fraenkel & Wallen (2008:153) define the validity as "the appropriateness, meaningfulness and usefulness of the specific inferences researchers make based on the data they collect".

Thereafter, the external validity of the questionnaire can be achieved through considering the views of academic as to its content and structure (Crowl, 1996; Gay & Airasian 2003; Gass & Mackey, 2007; Cohen et al 2000; Bryman, 2008). To achieve this, the questionnaire was discussed with the academic supervisor who guided this study, two other academic at Durham University during an annual research review and finally with three academic members of the faculty of curriculum and instruction department in Saudi Arabia.

4.5.1.6 The reliability of the questionnaire

To measure the internal reliability of various sections of the questionnaire, the researcher used Cronbach's Alpha coefficient. To shed light on the results of the reliability of the

questionnaire, it is recommended to mention them in the analysis chapter where the reliability was calculated according to scales.

4.5.2 Observation

Observation is one of the methods that can be used effectively to detect and describe problems. Observation is defined as: "intended and guided attention towards a particular individual or group behaviour with view to following up and detecting changes so that the researcher can describe the behaviour only, describing and analysing it or describing and correcting it" (Alassaf, 2010:76). Observation of behaviour is an important and long-established way of collecting data in social sciences; it is helpful to collect information and data difficult to get through other means or when participants refrain to answer (Obaydat et al, 2011). However, although observation has great scientific value, it is rarely used in Arab studies (Qurashi, 2001).

Observation can be unstructured when the researcher has no pre-assumed ideas. The nature of the situation leads to what to be observed. However, observation can also be systematic or structured where the researcher decides what to watch? When? Where? How to record? And how to analyse data? (Suen & Ary, 1989).

In this study the researcher used structured observation for the classroom management approaches of teachers as often it has more reliability and is easier to analyse and compare to other results than unstructured observation (Craig & Metze, 1979; Suen & Ary, 1989). In structured observation, the kind of classroom approaches practiced to be observed is decided with the academic supervisor who guided this study, in addition to choosing the sample and the role of the observer (Quarshi, 2001). Some scholars think that observing more than one person in varied times provides validity and reduces errors (Dane, 1990) and whilst this may be correct in this study it was only possible to use one observer. A list was prepared of

classroom management practices that could be observed to make sure of the results gained from the questionnaire were valid and to see if there were other issues which should have been addressed but were not in the questionnaire.

The observation list was constructed according to the four elements that have 22 statements in the questionnaire which was based on the study literature on classroom management previously referred to in section 4.5.1.1. This was to make the comparison possible between the results of the questionnaire and the observation. The observation was limited to the four items A, B, C and D, excluding E due to some statistical problems in stability referred to in detail in chapter six.

The procedure of observation and how the observation was carried out will be dealt with in the next chapter when tackling the second stage of collecting data (from section 5.3.2 to section 5.3.5).

4.6 CONCLUSION

In this chapter the methods adopted in this study is discussed in order to set out the procedures used to understand the classroom management approaches used by teachers in the primary stage (upper classes) in Riyadh City, in the KSA. The literature on quantitative and qualitative research is reviewed, as is the mixed method of research. The instruments used in collecting data are also discussed in the chapter. These include the questionnaire—how it was designed and how applied—and the observation method and how it was used.

CHAPTER V
RESEARCH DESIGN

5.0 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, a detailed explanation is given of the procedures, steps and strategies used in organising the research. This study aims to describe the reality of classroom management approaches practiced by a sample of primary school teachers in the KSA. The research also assesses the teachers' suggestions to develop these approaches in order to improve instruction and curriculum in the KSA. Therefore, the research design must reflect these objectives. The study used both quantitative and qualitative methods by using a questionnaire and observation.

The research design is the plan or framework to collect data and analyse them (Bryman, 2008). There are many types of design used in educational research. Deciding which type to use depends on many factors, one of which is the kind of method research used (Creswell, 2008). Deciding the problem, choosing the sample, and deciding proper statistical measures are necessary to guarantee accurate results (Cohen et al., 2007; Bryman, 2008). Sometimes the survey methods are used to collect data from a comparatively large sample (Cohen et al., 2007; Gay & Airasian, 2003).

As choosing the sample is important in research design (Cohen et al., 2007; Bryman, 2008), Gay and Airasian (2003) suggest that deciding the size of the population is the primary step in choosing the sample. In the following sections, light will be shed on the research society in this study, the sample and its volume besides the steps followed to collect data.

This was achieved by answering the following questions:

What classroom management approaches in the upper classes in the primary stage (boys) in Riyadh City in the KSA are used according to teachers and educational supervisors? Based on this question, the following sub questions arise:

- What management approaches are used during classroom activities in the upper class teachers in boys' primary schools?

- What is the preferred approach of classroom management for teachers in the upper classrooms in the primary stage?

- Are there statistically significance differences between teachers' classroom management in terms of the following variables: degree of qualifications, years of experience, training programme in classroom management, and subject taught?

- Are there any statistical significant differences between supervisors and teachers resulting from the changes in the variables: the job, degree of qualifications, years of experience, training programme in classroom management, and subject taught?

- What are the suggestions of the sample members (teachers and educational supervisors) for developing the approaches of classroom management and accordingly, curriculum and instruction for teachers in the upper classes in boys' primary schools?

5.1 POPULATION

In education studies, the population may be considered broadly or narrowly (Gay & Airasian, 2003; Bell, 2005; Larson-Hall, 2010). The wide range of population in this study is the 4,880 male teachers who are all primary schools teachers of upper classes and their 150 supervisors for the school year 2010 in Riyadh city, the capital of Saudi Arabia (Ministry of Education, 2010). As mentioned in chapter four which discusses information on the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, it is a big state and society. This is why, the capital city Riyadh was chosen for the

research because of its big population. Also, the educational system in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is a central system; Ministry of Education supervises education. The conditions, rules and culture are almost the same. It is important to mention that schools in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia separate boys and girls. This study concentrates on boys schools for the considerations mentioned in chapter one. This means that teachers and education supervisors in this research are males on whom this study concentrates. Out of this it can be assumed that teachers and educational supervisors in Riyadh city represent the society as a whole in K.S.A.

The data was collected about the targeted population to guide the choice process. The number of schools was decided through classifying primary schools in Riyadh city and arranging the alphabetically according to centres, the selecting the schools from each centre as will be indicated in the following section. There was a meeting with a number of teachers and educational supervisors in Riyadh city at which many topics were discussed with two supervisors in Riyadh directorate on 25 September 2010. Time and expenses considerations affected choosing the sample (Gay & Airasian, 2003; Bell, 2005; Bryman, 2008). A further consideration was the accessibility to the targeted population. The following sections discuss the sample in more detail. There will be a discussion for the society sample of this study which includes male teachers of the upper classes in the primary stage and their educational supervisors.

5.1.1 Location

Riyadh is the capital of the KSA. It is situated in the middle of the country and houses Ministry of Education. The city is divided into seven educational centres, which supervise the schools in their area. There are 341 primary schools in Riyadh distributed across the seven centres (see Table 5.1).

In this research schools in every centre were arranged alphabetically and every fourth school was selected (1, 5, 9 etc.). Thereafter 15 schools were randomly chosen from every centre due to the difficulty of covering all schools in all centres and also due to the centralised education system which is supervised by the Ministry of Education. In a later section, the size of the teachers and educational supervisors sample is discussed. In addition, a detailed description of the number of the sample is found in Chapter Six.

Table 5.1: Number and Percentage of Government Primary Schools in Riyadh City by Educational Centre

Centre	Number of Schools	Percent of Schools
Central	46	13.5
East	47	13.8
North	42	12.3
Rodah	25	7.3
Rwabi	78	22.9
South	42	12.3
West	61	17.9
Total	341	100.00

Source: Ministry of Education, Statistic Department, Riyadh Directorate, 2010:85.

5.1.2 Teachers

The total number of primary school teachers in Riyadh is 10,150 of which 4,880 teach the upper classes who were targeted in this study (Ministry of Education, 2010). The targeted group taught a variety of subjects including religion, Arabic, history, geography, maths, science, English, arts and physical education (Ministry of Education, 2010). Table 5.2 indicates the number of periods taught by the teachers in every stage in the upper classes of the primary school (4, 5, and 6). The aim of this table is showing the number of periods per

week for the teacher. It also highlights that religion and Arabic are the most popular periods. This may be helpful when discussing the results of this research in chapter eight.

Table 5.2: Classes by Subject

Lessons	Classes			
	Fourth	Fifth	Sixth	Total
Religion	10	9	9	28
Arabic	8	8	8	24
Social Sciences	2	2	2	6
Maths	5	5	5	15
Science	2	3	3	8
English	-	-	2	2
Arts	2	2	2	6
Physical Education	2	2	2	6
Total	31	31	33	95

Source: Ministry of Education, Statistic Department, Riyadh Directorate, 2010:54.

5.1.3 Educational Supervisors

Babtain (1995:106) defines the educational supervisor as "A link between the teacher and the body responsible for him professionally. He/She supervises a particular subject and does his best to develop the teacher's teaching and educational skills" The number of supervisors of primary schools (upper classes) in government schools in Riyadh is 150 (Riyadh Directorate, Statistic Department, 2010).

5.1.4 Sampling Procedures

There are two methods for choosing the sample:

- The random method, in which every individual has the same chance of being chosen. In this way the sample represents the population.

- The chosen sample method, in which the researcher chooses a certain group or sub-group from the population (Gay & Airasian, 2003; Cohen et al., 2007; Bryman, 2008).

In this study the simple random strategy was used.

5.1.5 Sample Size

The sample size is defined by Larson-Hall as "The actual people who participate in the experiment" (2010:401). It is usually agreed that the bigger the sample better, which in turn improves the validity of the results and the possibility of generalising them to the whole population (Aldridge & Levine, 2001; Gay & Airasian, 2003; Cohen et al., 2007; Bryman, 2008). However, Crowl (1996) argues that it is not necessary to have a large sample and suggests more care in choosing the samples. This Crowl (1996) and Bryman (2008) argue that is better to obtain a higher level of responses from smaller samples than a lower level of responses in larger samples. Meanwhile, Bryman (2008) stresses the importance of validity in the design of the research rather than in the sample.

The size of the sample is affected by the kind and purpose of the research, the nature and number of the population and methods of data collection (Cohen et al., 2007; Gay & Airasian, 2003). In this case, the number and percentages suggested by Gay and Airasian, (2003) were used to decide the quantity of the sample. Gay and Airasian (2003) suggests between 10% and 20% of the population is relevant for descriptive research. Based on these parameters the study sample was set at 732 teachers and all 150 educational supervisors (inspectors).

The researcher chose the level of 15% as suggested by Gay and Airasian (2003). 732 questionnaires were distributed to teachers in the chosen schools in Riyadh city. The analysable questionnaires returned were 547. Also, 150 questionnaires were distributed to all educational supervisors due to their small number; the analysable questionnaires returned

were 87. The questionnaires received from every centre, teachers and supervisors, are discussed in detail in the data analysis in Chapter Six.

5.2 ACCESSIBILITY AND ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Creswell (2008) and Cohen et al. (2007) refer to the use of humans as persons, institutions and the places where they gather in educational researches, this is why their protection should be considered. Furthermore, carrying out research in schools may cause disturbance and therefore the researcher may find difficulty in obtaining approval to meet the teaching staff (Cohen et al., 2007; Aldridge & Levine, 2001; Gay & Airasian, 2003; Creswell, 2008). Researchers should take these matters into consideration as it is important to get prior approval of the individuals participating in the research (Cohen et al, 2007; Aldridge & Levine, 2001; Gay& Airasian, 2003; Creswell, 2008).

In this study, the proper formal measures were taken as follows: In the UK, approval was received from the Department's Research Ethics and Data-Protection Sub-Committee of Durham University. This sub-committee provides suggestions to guide the researcher towards what should and what should not be done with regards to ethical considerations.

The researcher obtained a letter from his supervisor who guided this study explaining the aim, purpose and period of the research. This letter was submitted to the Cultural Bureau of the Saudi Embassy in London in order to complete the measures of ethical approval of the research. The Cultural Bureau in turn addressed the Riyadh Educational Directorate recommending helping the researcher and facilitating his mission. Accordingly, an approval to enter the schools and distribute the questionnaire was received, and permission was received to observe the teachers. A meeting was arranged with a number of the educational supervisors with a view to explain the purpose of the research and to gain their support for the collection of data. The Riyadh Directorate addressed primary school head teachers and

supervision centres to enable the researcher to distribute the questionnaire to teachers and educational supervisors and observe some teachers.

Having received the approval, the next step was to have the approval of the individual teachers through the head teachers as recommended by Creswell (2008). It was noted in the questionnaire that the personal information about the respondent and their answers were only for scientific research purposes. Following the example of Cohen et al. (2007) the teachers were given the right to not answer any question or to withdraw completely.

5.3 DATA COLLECTION

This section explains the two stages of the procedures used to collect the data through the questionnaires and observations.

5.3.1 Data Collection: Stage I, Questionnaires

In this stage, primary data were collected from Riyadh, from 23 September to 23 December 2010. This covered the first term of the school year following the summer vacation. The educational supervisors recommended starting the data collection in the second week of term, because the first week is always busy receiving the new pupils in what is known as the preparatory week. This follows the recommendation of Cohen et al. (2007), who stress the importance of choosing the most suitable time for completing the questionnaire.

The researcher could not meet the teachers face-to-face due to the regulations followed in Saudi Arabia to avoid wasting their time and therefore head teachers took the responsibility for distributing the questionnaires. Having obtained the formal permissions in September 2010, the researcher distributed the questionnaire and explained the aim of the research to the head teachers, urging them to encourage the teachers to help. It was impractical to send the questionnaire by post, as the teachers are not accustomed to this approach. Out of 732

questionnaire papers for the teachers 547 were received, with 87 returned from 150 distributed to supervisors.

Having collected the data, the researcher used the software, Statistical Package for Social Sciences, (SPSS v19) as it is suitable for data analysis and establishing relations among variables. Two statistics experts, colleague of the researcher in one of the KSA universities were consulted as was the supervisor who supervised this research.

5.3.2 Data Collection: Stage II, Observation

This stage is concerned with collecting data through observation according to the process agreed upon with the supervisor who supervised this study and the committee the researcher met in the first year review. The aim is to have more understanding and validate the results gained from the questionnaire in relation to teachers' practices of classroom management approaches. In line with Robinson (2003) and Cohen et al. (2007), the researcher sees the value of observation as a reality check because the actions of respondents can differ from what they say.

5.3.3 Piloting the Observation

After receiving the approval of the supervisor who supervised this study on the design of the observation, the observation list was checked by five students studying for PhD degrees and three academic from the Faculties of Curriculum and Instruction Department in Saudi universities whose major is teaching methods. The feedback resulted in rephrasing certain statements and changing others. Two teachers were visited to check suitability. Some changes were made for point D where observation was made during 45 minutes instead of 5 minutes as in B and C.

5.3.4 Observation Sample

The teachers' answers to the questionnaire were classified as high, middle, and low for each scale. It was agreed with the supervisor who supervised this study to observe three teachers from each category, according to the results of the questionnaire.

As mentioned in the research method literature, it is difficult in the qualitative method to choose a large sample especially in the observation instrument; therefore it was possible to observe 31 teachers.

5.3.5 Conducting the Observation

Following the research ethics, the researcher obtained the approval of Riyadh Educational Directorate to apply the observation in classes. The approval was then submitted to the schools. The researcher met the teachers to be observed to obtain their approval and explain the purpose of the research to them, stressing that results are for scientific research purposes only and personal data will not be disclosed to anyone other than the researcher.

After collecting the data in the second stage, two colleague experts in statistics at a KSA and the UK University were consulted on the best methods of analysing data. They agreed with the supervisor who supervised this study to use the software, SPSS to process and help analyse the results.

5.4 DIFFICULTIES AND RESTRICTIONS

This study, as the case with any research, faced a number of obstacles, including time and cost restrictions, the lack of contact with the respondents and the need to exclude girls' schools from the research. Although the sample size is scientifically accepted, it could have been expanded to survey most primary schools in Riyadh. However, this was not possible because of the time and costs involved; the researcher was involved in distributing the

questionnaire and collecting the data. The questionnaire was a paper version not electronic and the use of a mail service was impractical.

Second, although the researcher wanted to meet the teachers to explain the questionnaire directly to them, this was not permitted because of Saudi regulations which aim at keeping the teachers' time. Yet, the researcher is not convinced as his presence in class is just for observing with no interruption at all during the lesson.

Thus, the explanation was given by the head teachers, along with the attached letter and the questionnaire. However, it appears that a number of teachers found difficulty understanding some of the questions, especially in the second part. This may be because it was a new approach to them which was based on semantic differential or they did not take the questionnaire seriously enough or they completed it in a hurry. It should be noted that some teachers suffer frustration resulting from an unsuitable classroom environment in rented school buildings or crowding of students in classes. These expected issues might have led to them ignoring the second part of the questionnaire.

Third, the focus of the research excluded girls' schools because of the difficulty of contacting and observing female teachers for cultural reasons.

5.5 CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the procedures and strategies followed, such as the research population, the research sample, including the geographic area of the research are highlighted. Also, the ethics to be applied to field research, the two stages of collecting data and the difficulties and restrictions that faced the researcher are discussed. Finally, this chapter mentioned the statistical analyses used.

CHAPTER VI

DATA ANALYSIS FROM THE RESPONSES TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

6.0 INTRODUCTION

As discussed in chapter four, the questionnaire is used as the main instrument, validate by observation, for the research. Both aspects were specifically designed to gather the data for the research. Data from the questionnaire were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS v19), with the statistics results supported by observing teachers in the classroom. The questionnaire consists of three parts. The first part gathers general data on the individuals in the study samples such as: current job role, qualifications, years of experience in current job, location of school; training programmes in classroom management; and subject taught. The second part contains 22 statements with a view to establishing the frequency of classroom activities practiced by the teacher in classroom including: organising objects and material; organising the role of the teacher and students; class performance; and class evaluation. The third part has 27 statements with a view to understanding the type of classroom approach teachers follow. In this section, the respondents choose from one of two opposing statements based on the idea of semantic differentials (see Chapter 4).

This study aims to describe classroom management approaches practised by primary teachers of upper classes in Riyadh city in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) and to provide suggestions on how to develop instruction and curriculum based on feedback from teachers and educational supervisors. In this context, this chapter analyses the results collected by the questionnaire. The analysis presented in this chapter is shown the diagram below:

6.0.1 Types of and Reasons for Statistical Analysis Used for the Charts

Frequencies: To display simple counts and percentage for categorical or ordinal data.

Descriptive Statistics: To have a feel for the distribution of the data and to display certain summary statistics, such as average, standard deviation, and number of cases.

Inferential Statistics (t-test and ANOVA): To establish if there are any statistical significant differences between questionnaire statements and current job role.

Factor Analysis: To confirm the researcher's groupings of questionnaire items and to create scales for further analyses.
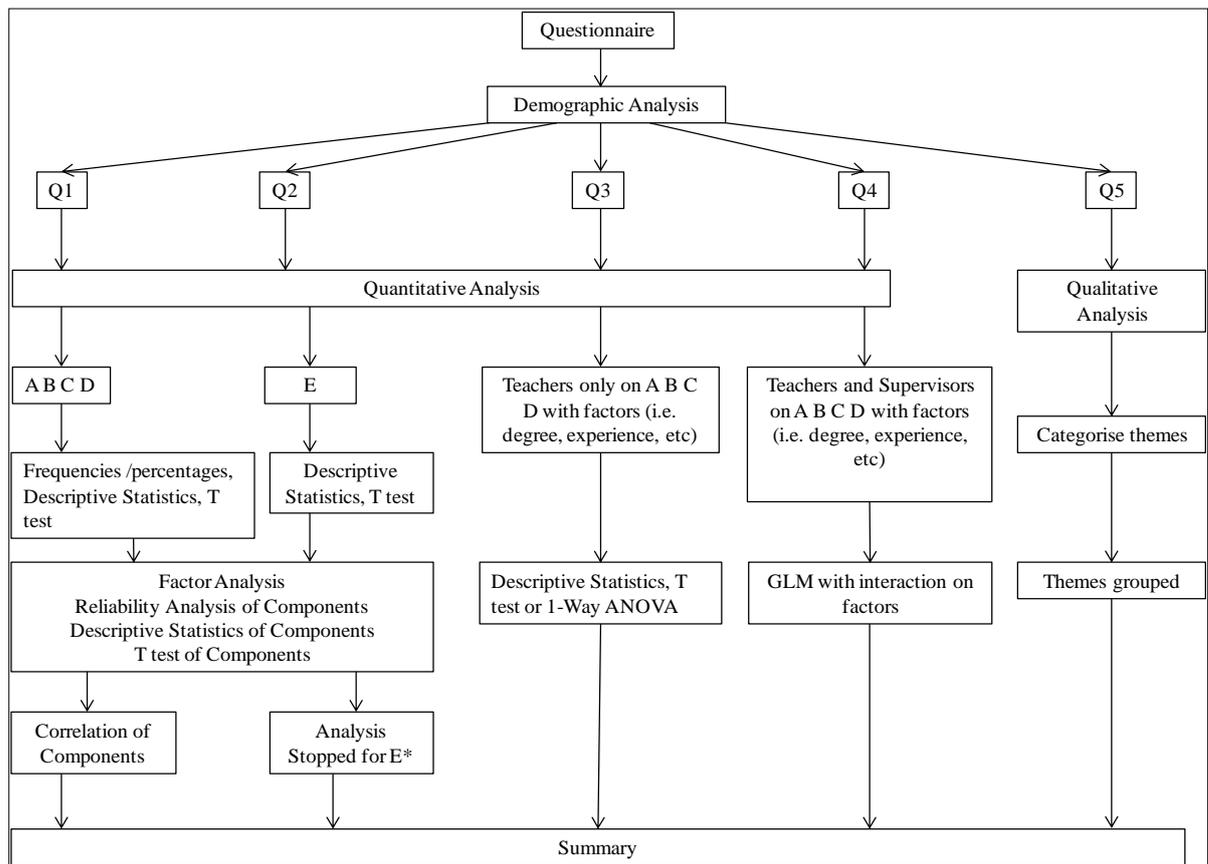
Figure 6.0: Statistical Analysis Used

Reliability Analysis: To establish the reliability of the researcher's questionnaire and the scales created.

Correlation: To establish if there is any correlation between scales created.

GLM with Two Way Interaction: To establish if there are statistical significant differences on created scales and factors.

*No further analysis was performed for E in term of teachers only with factors or teachers and educational supervisors with factors because the three components extracted account for only 31% of the variance of the 27 semantic differentials in E.

In this chapter, the results of the questionnaire will be shown in six sections following the introduction as follows:

Section 6.1 presents an overview of the first part of the questionnaire (demographic analysis).Section 6.2 answers the first research question discussing frequency of classroom management through four elements: (A) organising objects and material, (B) organising the role of the teacher and students, (C) class performance, and (D) class evaluation. Every element is discussed in detail and includes frequency and percentage, mean standard error of mean and sample size and inferential statistics. Section 6.3 presents the results answering the second research question (third section of the questionnaire: Preferred approach of classroom management). Section 6.4 presents the results answering the third research question related to individual differences among teachers; qualifications, years of experience, training programs in classroom management, and subject taught. Section 6.5 presents the results answering the fourth research question related to the degree of differences among teachers and supervisors; qualifications, years of experience, training programs in classroom management, and subject taught. Finally, section 6.6 presents the results of the fifth open question that includes the method of collecting data and analysable answers and then categorised into groups.

6.0.2 Research Questions

- What management approaches are used during classroom activities in the upper class teachers in boys' primary schools?

- What is the preferred approach of classroom management for teachers in the upper classrooms in the primary stage?

- Are there statistically significance differences between teachers' classroom management in terms of the following variables: degree of qualifications, years of experience, training programme in classroom management, and subject taught?

- Are there any statistical significant differences between supervisors and teachers resulting from the changes in the variables: the job, degree of qualifications, years of experience, training programme in classroom management, and subject taught?

- What are the suggestions of the sample members (teachers and educational supervisors) for developing the approaches of classroom management and accordingly, curriculum and instruction for teachers in the upper classes in boys' primary schools?

A: organising objects and material, B: organising the role of the teacher and students, C: class performance, D: class evaluation and E: Preferred strategies for classroom management (see 4.5.2).

It appears that a number of teachers found difficulty understanding some of the questions, especially in the second part. This may be because it was a new approach to them which was based on semantic differential or they did not take the questionnaire seriously enough or they completed it in a hurry. It should be noted that some teachers suffer frustration resulting from an unsuitable classroom environment in rented school buildings or crowding of students in

classes. These expected issues might have led to them ignoring the second part of the questionnaire.

Despite careful arrangements, such as piloting the questionnaire and making necessary arrangements, as is the case in any research unexpected results or unusual dispersions in the answers may occur. This was noticed in the second part of the questionnaire; where there were unexpected patterns were found. It is assumed that this arose because of a misunderstanding of the format of the questions (semantic differential). The educational and moral system of research in Saudi Arabia does not allow contact with teachers to explain the aims of the research to which they are subject. Thus, it is left to the head teacher to explain it to the teachers. A number of teachers highlighted this fact, while others stated that a number of questions were not understood.

6.1 DEMOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS

The first section of the questionnaires provides the demographic details of the respondents including: current job role; degree of qualifications; years of experience in current job; location of school; completion of training programmes in classroom management; and subject taught. The description of the respondents in terms of demographics is presented in this section.

6.1.1 Current Job Role

Both teachers and educational supervisors took part in this survey. Of the 634 respondents, 547 (86.3%) were teachers and 87 (13.7%) were educational supervisors.

6.1.2 Degree of qualifications

In terms of qualification 548 (88.5%) respondents were graduates with an educational degree, while 71 (11.5%) were graduates with a non-educational degree. Cross tabulation of the

current job role with qualifications reveals that the proportions of teachers and educational supervisors who are university graduates with/without an educational degree are similar: The proportion of teachers who are university graduates with an educational degree is 88.6% and the corresponding figure for supervisors is 88.2%. Conversely, only 11.4% of teachers are graduates with no educational study and the corresponding figure for supervisors is 11.8%. Indeed, the Chi-square test indicates that there is no statistically significant association between the variables with Chi-square value of 0.008, degree of freedom (df) of 1 and p value of 0.93 (>0.05) (see Table 6.1).

Table 6.1: Cross Tabulation of Current Job Role with Qualifications

			Qualifications		
			University graduate & educational degree	University graduate & non-educational degree	Total
Current job role	Teacher	Count	473	61	534
		% within Current job role	88.6	11.4	100.0
	Supervisor	Count	75	10	85
		% within Current job role	88.2	11.8	100.0
Total		Count	548	71	619
		% within Current job role	88.5	11.5	100.0

Note: Chi-square = 0.008, df = 1, and p = 0.93

6.1.3 Years of Experience in Current Job

The majority of the respondents 370 (nearly 60%) have 11 years or over of experience, while 152 (24.5%) have 6 to 10 years of experience and 98 (15.8%) have 5 years or less experience. Cross tabulation of current job role with years of experience reveals an association between these two variables (see Table 6.2). The Chi-square test indicates that there is a statistically significant association between the variables with a Chi-square value of 11.02, df of 2 and p value of 0.004 (<0.05).

Table 6.2: Cross Tabulation of Current Job Role with Experience

			Years of experience in current job role			
			5 years or less	6 to 10 years	11 years & over	Total
Current job role	Teacher	Count	90	139	304	533
		% within Current job role	16.9	26.1	57.0	100.0
	Supervisor	Count	8	13	66	87
		% within Current job role	9.2	14.9	75.9	100.0
Total		Count	98	152	370	620
		% within Current job role	15.8	24.5	59.7	100.0

Note: Chi-square = 11.02, df = 2, and p = 0.004

A higher proportion of educational supervisors (nearly 76%) has 11 years or over of experience compared to only 57% of teachers with the same degree of experience. A higher proportion of teachers were found in the categories "up to an including 5 years" and "6 to 10 years" of experience than supervisors, 16.9% vs 9.2% and 26.1% vs 14.9% respectively.

6.1.4 Location of School

The location of the schools of the respondents is shown in Table 6.3. The most common location (almost one-third) of the schools is Rwabi. The next highest location is West, followed by East with 17.9% and 16.6% respectively. For more details see the table

Table 6.3: Distribution of Location of School

Area		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Rwabi	197	31.1
	West	112	17.7
	East	104	16.4
	Central	100	15.8
	South	67	10.6
	North	39	6.2
	Rodah	8	1.3
Missing	System	7	1.1
Total		**634**	**100.0**

6.1.5 Training Programmes in Classroom Management

Nearly half (49.5%) of the respondents have received training programmes in classroom management. Cross tabulation of current job role with training programme reveals an association between these two variables (see Table 6.4). The Chi-square test indicates that there is a statistically significant association between the variables with a Chi-square value of 37.66, df of 1 and p value of 0.001 (<0.05). A higher proportion of educational supervisors (over 80%) have attended training programmes in classroom management than teachers (44.6%).

Table 6.4: Cross Tabulation of Current Job Role with Training Programmes in Classroom Management

			Training programmes in classroom management		
			Received training programmes in classroom management	Received no training programmes in classroom management	Total
Current job role	Teacher	Count	239	297	536
		% within Current job role	44.6	55.4	100.0
	Supervisor	Count	69	17	86
		% within Current job role	80.2	19.8	100.0
Total		Count	308	314	622
		% within Current job role	49.5	50.5	100.0

Note: Chi-square = 37.66, df = 1, and p = 0.001

6.1.6 Subject Taught

Nearly half of the respondents' subjects taught were religion (49.8%). The next highest was Arabic language (19.6%), followed by mathematics (15.5%) (see Table 6.5).

Table 6.5: Distribution of Subjects Taught

Subject	Frequency	Percent
Religion	316	49.8
Arabic Language	124	19.6
Mathematics	98	15.5
History and Geography	46	7.3
Science	38	6.0
English Language	7	1.1
Other	5	0.8
Total	**634**	**100.0**

Cross tabulation of current job role with subject reveals an association between these two variables (see Table 6.6). The Chi-square test indicates that there is a statistically significant association between the current job role and subject taught with a Chi-square value of 10.68, df of 4 and p value of 0.030 (<0.05). A higher proportion of teachers (52.3%) taught religion than did supervisors at only 34.5%. The proportions for Arabic language are 18.5% vs 26.4%; mathematics 14.6% vs 20.7%; history and geography 7.3% vs 6.9%; and English language, science and other 7.3% vs 11.5% respectively. Note that English language, science and other have been combined into a single category in this analysis.

Table 6.6: Cross Tabulation of Current Job Role with Subject Taught

			Subject					
			Religion	Arabic Language	Mathematics	English Language, Science and Other	History and Geography	Total
Current job role	Teacher	Count	286	101	80	40	40	547
		% within Current job	52.3	18.5	14.6	7.3	7.3	100.0
	Supervisor	Count	30	23	18	10	6	87
		% within Current job	34.5	26.4	20.7	11.5	6.9	100.0
Total		Count	316	124	98	50	46	634
		% within Current job	49.8	19.6	15.5	7.9	7.3	100.0

Note: Chi-square = 10.68, df = 4, and p = 0.030

6.2 FREQUENCY OF CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

The first research question is: What management approaches are used during classroom activities in the upper class teachers in boys' primary schools? In this section, the four

sections— (A) organising objects and material, (B) organising the role of the teacher and students, (C) class performance, and (D) class evaluation—in the questionnaire are analysed.

6.2.1 Organising Objects and Materials

Seven questions were asked in the section on Organising objects and materials. Participants were asked to give their perceptions on an ordinal scale ranging from 1 to 8 where 1 = Never or Almost Never, 2 = Once a term, 3 = Once a month, 4 = Once a fortnight, 5 = Once or twice a week, 6 = Three or four times a week, 7 = Every day, and 8 = Several times a day.

6.2.1.1 Frequencies and percentages

Table 6.7 shows the frequency and percentage of each answer given by teachers and educational supervisors in response to the questions in section A. 'Organising Objects and Materials'.

For statement A1 '**Arranging students' desks for learning in class'** the modal response was *everyday* for teachers at 22.3% while for educational supervisors the modal response was *once a term* at 18.4%. Note that educational supervisors were indicating how often they thought that teachers were arranging students' desks. The least selected answer from teachers was *never or almost never* at only 4.4%, while for educational supervisors the least selected answer was *three or four times a week* at only 4.6%. A higher proportion of educational supervisors 16.1% think that teachers re-arrange desks in class *once a month* while only 10.7% of the teachers said they do it *once a month*. A higher proportion of teachers (9.8%) said they do it three to *four times a week* and only 4.6% of educational supervisors think that teachers do it *three to four times a week*. Nearly 15% of educational supervisors think that teachers do it *several times a day*, while just over 10% of teachers said they do it *several times a day*.

For statement A2 **'Preparing the teaching apparatus in class'** the modal response was *everyday* for both teachers and supervisors with 28.4% and 21.8% respectively. Only 7.5% of the teachers said they do this *several times a day* while a slightly higher percent (9.2%) of supervisors think teachers do it *several times a day*. Interestingly slightly higher percentages (12.6%) of supervisors think that teachers *never or almost never* do it compared to 12.1% of teachers who chose this answer. A higher proportion of supervisors (18.4%) think that teachers do it *once a term* while 9.5% of teachers said they do it *once a term*. A slightly higher proportion of teachers said they do it *once a month* and 9.2% of supervisors think they do it *once a month*. Nearly 13% of educational supervisors think that teachers do it *once a fortnight* while 12.5% of teachers said they do it *once a fortnight*.

For statement A3 **'Preparing teaching aids prior to class'** the modal response of the teachers (29.4%) was to say that they do it *every day* and the modal response of the educational supervisors (19.5%) was to say that teachers do it just *once a fortnight*. The corresponding percent of supervisors who think that teachers do it *every day* is just 17.2%. 7.4% of teachers said they *never or almost never* do it while 4.6% of educational supervisors think that teachers *never or almost never* do it. A higher proportion of supervisors (10.3%) think that teachers do it *once a term* while a lower proportion of teachers (8.5%) said they do it *once a term*. Similarly a higher proportion of educational supervisors (14.9%) think that teachers do it *once a month* while 9.3% of teachers said they do it *once a month*. Generally the answers from educational supervisors seems to be spread out across all the eight choices while that for teachers seem to be concentrated on *once or twice a week* and *every day*.

For statement A4 **'Preparing lesson plan. (Aims, objectives)'** only 1.1% of teachers said they *never or almost never* do it and no educational supervisor thinks that teacher *never or almost never*. A higher proportion of educational supervisors (11.5%) think that teachers do it *once a term* while only 7.9% of teachers said that they do it *once a term*. A far higher

proportion of educational supervisors (9.2%) think that teachers do it *once a month* while only 2.4% of teachers said they do it *once a month*. Similarly, 11.5% of educational supervisors think that teachers do it *once a fortnight* while only 6.8% of teachers said they do it *once a fortnight*. The highest proportions of teachers said that they it *every day* and the highest proportion of educational supervisors also think that teachers do it *every day*. However a higher proportion of teachers 45.3% than educational supervisors 34.5% said *every day*. The next highest is 21.8% of teachers who said they prepare lesson plan *once or twice a week*. However, only 14.9% of educational supervisors think teachers prepare lesson plan *once or twice a week*. A higher proportion of educational supervisors (10.3%) think that teachers do it *several times a day* while only 4.8% of teachers said they do it *several times a day*. Generally, it seems that teachers make the effort to prepare lesson plan. The educational supervisors seem to agree even though the percent is less.

Table 6.7: Frequencies and Percentages for the Seven Statements in the Section Organising Objects and Materials

Item	Statement	Current Job Role	Count / %	Never or almost never	Once a term	Once a month	Once a fortnight	Once or twice a week	Three or four times per week	Every day	Several times a day	Chi-square	p-value
A1	Arranging students' desks for learning in class	Teacher	count	24	66	58	71	94	53	121	56	11.852	0.106
			%	4.4	12.2	10.7	13.1	17.3	9.8	22.3	10.3		
		Supervisor	count	6	16	14	8	13	4	13	13		
			%	6.9	18.4	16.1	9.2	14.9	4.6	14.9	14.9		
A2	Preparing the teaching apparatus in class	Teacher	count	65	51	52	67	65	43	152	40	9.018	0.251
			%	12.1	9.5	9.7	12.5	12.1	8.0	28.4	7.5		
		Supervisor	count	11	16	8	13	8	4	19	8		
			%	12.6	18.4	9.2	14.9	9.2	4.6	21.8	9.2		
A3	Preparing teaching aids prior to class	Teacher	count	40	46	50	67	90	42	159	46	13.192	0.068
			%	7.4	8.5	9.3	12.4	16.7	7.8	29.4	8.5		
		Supervisor	count	4	9	13	17	10	10	15	9		
			%	4.6	10.3	14.9	19.5	11.5	11.5	17.2	10.3		
A4	Preparing lesson plan. (aims, objectives)	Teacher	count	6	43	13	37	118	53	245	26	22.651	0.002
			%	1.1	7.9	2.4	6.8	21.8	9.8	45.3	4.8		
		Supervisor	count	0	10	8	10	13	7	30	9		
			%	.0	11.5	9.2	11.5	14.9	8.0	34.5	10.3		
A5	Prepare the time allocation of the lesson	Teacher	count	19	26	14	25	50	48	303	46	20.578	0.004
			%	3.6	4.9	2.6	4.7	9.4	9.0	57.1	8.7		
		Supervisor	count	1	6	7	10	12	5	36	9		
			%	1.2	7.0	8.1	11.6	14.0	5.8	41.9	10.5		
A6	Putting the teaching aids in the proper place in class	Teacher	count	29	30	15	29	36	43	290	65	34.208	0.001
			%	5.4	5.6	2.8	5.4	6.7	8.0	54.0	12.1		
		Supervisor	count	5	3	13	8	8	6	30	13		
			%	5.8	3.5	15.1	9.3	9.3	7.0	34.9	15.1		
A7	Preparing alternative material for contingency	Teacher	count	147	57	86	58	51	44	54	42	9.119	0.244
			%	27.3	10.6	16.0	10.8	9.5	8.2	10.0	7.8		
		Supervisor	count	15	10	16	15	11	3	9	8		
			%	17.2	11.5	18.4	17.2	12.6	3.4	10.3	9.2		
Overall	All statement	Teacher	count	11	45	31	66	102	67	203	22	19.547	0.007
			%	2.0	8.2	5.7	12.1	18.6	12.2	37.1	4.0		
		Supervisor	count	0	7	14	16	11	10	24	5		
			%	.0	8.0	16.1	18.4	12.6	11.5	27.6	5.7		

For statement A5 **'Prepare the time allocation of the lesson'** for both teachers and educational supervisors the answer chosen is concentrated on everyday where 57.1% of teachers said they do it *every day* and 41.9% of educational supervisors agreed that teachers do it *every day*. This is the first statement where more half of all the teachers chose the same answer from the available choices. Again the proportion of teachers who do it is higher than the proportion of the opinion of educational supervisors. However 3.6% of teachers said they *never or almost never* do it and only 1.2% of educational supervisors agreed. Nearly 11% of educational supervisors think teachers do it *several times a day* and nearly 9% of teachers said they do it *several times a day*.

For statement A6 **'Putting the teaching aids in the proper place in class'** 54.0% of teachers said they do it *every day*, however only 34.9% of educational supervisors think teachers do it *every day*. This is the second statement where more than half of all the teachers said they do it *every day*. Again the proportion of teachers who do it is higher than the proportion of the opinion educational supervisors. However 5.4% of teachers said they *never or almost never* do it and a slightly higher 5.8% of educational supervisors said they think teachers *never or almost never do it*. Just over 15% of supervisors think teachers do it *several times a day* and just over 11% of teachers said they do it *several times a day*.

For statement A7 **'Preparing alternative material for contingency'** the commonest response of teachers (27.3%) was to say they *never or almost never* do it. Only 17.2% of educational supervisors think teachers *never or almost never* do it. About 9% of educational supervisors think teachers do it *several times a day* and about 8% of teachers said they do it *several times a day*. Just over 10% of teachers said they do it *every day*. The educational supervisors agreed as just over 10% said that they think that teachers do it *every day*.

6.2.1.2 Mean, standard error of mean, and sample size

The frequencies described above do not provide an easily perceived picture of the data but table 6.8 shows the mean, standard error of the mean and number of participants who answered each of the seven questions. The results are also presented in Figure 6.2. For both teachers and supervisors the largest average value was item A5 **'Prepare the time allocation of the lesson'** with average values of 6.10 and 5.67 respectively. For both teachers and educational supervisors the lowest average value was item A7 **'Preparing alternative material for contingency'** with average values of 3.68 and 3.94 respectively. The standard error of the mean is higher for all seven statements for educational supervisors than for teachers. This is not surprising as the sample size for supervisors (87) is much smaller than that for teachers (547). The largest and lowest standard errors of the mean for supervisors are 0.254 for item A2 and 0.202 for item A5 respectively. The corresponding figures for teachers are 0.101 for item A7 and 0.073 for item A4 respectively.

Table 6.8: Mean, Standard Error of Mean, and Sample Size for Organising Objects and Materials

| | | Current Job Role | | | | | |
| | | Teacher | | | Supervisor | | |
Item	Statement	Mean	Std. Error of Mean	N	Mean	Std. Error of Mean	N
A1	Arranging students' desks for learning in class	4.97	0.089	543	4.55	0.248	87
A2	Preparing the teaching apparatus in class	4.78	0.098	535	4.37	0.254	87
A3	Preparing teaching aids prior to class	5.06	0.091	540	4.78	0.220	87
A4	Preparing lesson plan. (aims, objectives)	5.75	0.073	541	5.44	0.208	87
A5	Prepare the time allocation of the lesson	6.10	0.077	531	5.67	0.202	86
A6	Putting the teaching aids in the proper place in class	6.03	0.084	537	5.49	0.231	86
A7	Preparing alternative material for contingency	3.68	0.101	539	3.94	0.238	87

Figure 6.2 shows that the same general pattern can be seen for both teachers and educational supervisors and includes the 95% Confidence Interval of the means. 95% CI means that we are 95% sure that the true estimate of the items' means will fall within the interval. A confidence interval is therefore an estimated range of values with a given high probability of

covering the true population value. For example for A4 **'Preparing lesson plan (Aims and objectives)'**, A5 **'Prepare the time allocation of the lesson'** and A6 **'Putting the teaching aids in the proper place in class'** each have high averages for teachers and supervisors. Also A7 **'Preparing alternative material for contingency'** has the lowest average for teachers and supervisors. A1 **'Arranging students' desks for learning in class'**, A2 **'Preparing the teaching apparatus in class'** and A3 **'Preparing teaching aids prior to class'** have similar values for both teachers and educational supervisors.
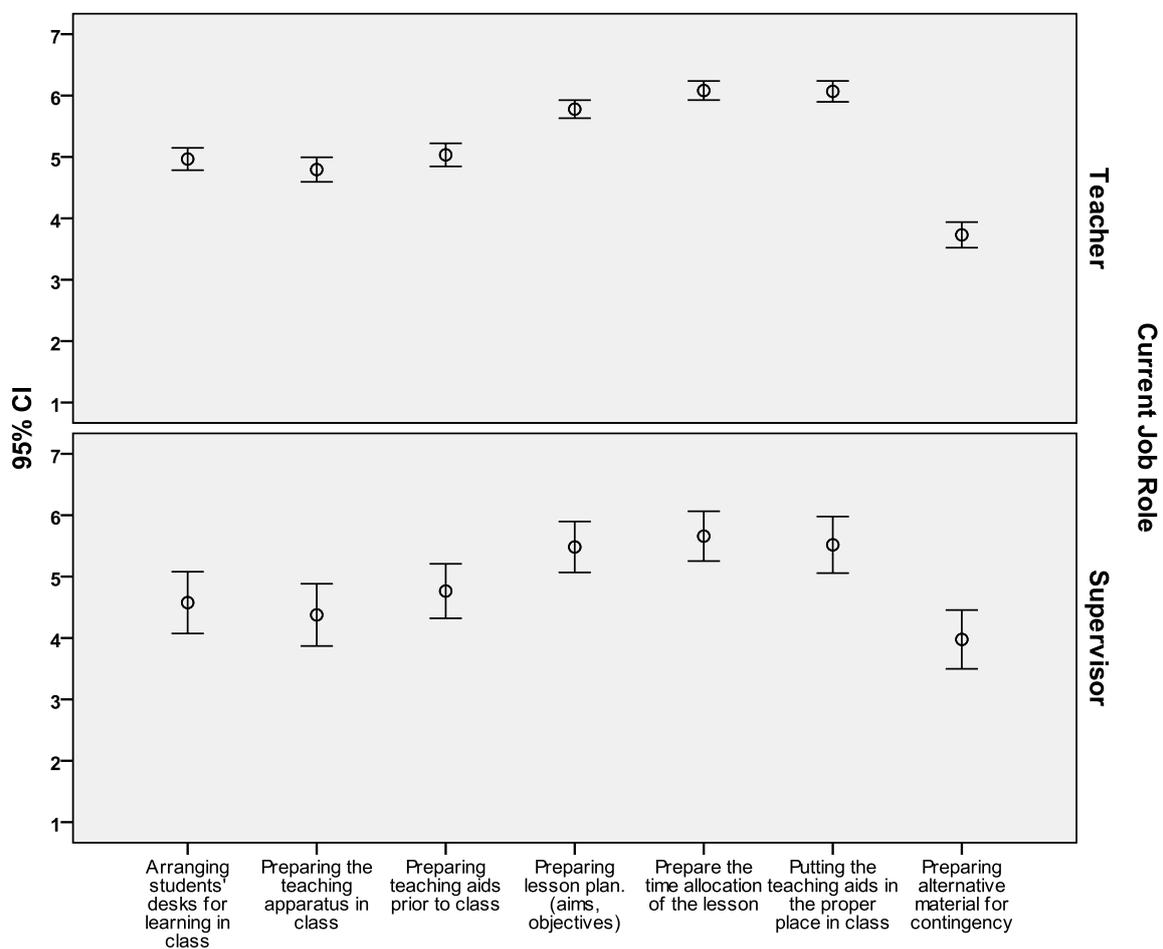
Figure 6.2: Mean and 95% CI of Standard Error of Mean for Organising Materials and Objects

6.2.1.3 Inferential statistics

Although the patterns for teachers and educational supervisors were closely aligned it is still useful to test the differences between the responses of two groups. Not all of the variables were normally distributed and a conservative approach using a non-parametric test was chosen. The results from inferential statistics for all the seven statements are shown on Table 6.9. Looking at the first statement, the mean rank for teachers was 320.01 while for educational supervisors it was 287.37. Thus, the mean rank for teachers is higher than that for educational supervisors, which indicates that teachers report that they more frequently encourage students to arrange their desk for learning in class than educational supervisors think they do. However, a non-parametric independent samples test (Mann-Whitney U) indicates that there is no statistical significant difference between the mean ranks with a Mann-Whitney U value of 21173.50 and p value of 0.116 (>0.05).

As multiple-comparison was made, a Bonferroni correction was applied in order to reduce the possibility of finding a significant difference where actually none existed. The Bonferroni correction is a multiple-comparison correction used when several dependent or independent statistical tests are being performed simultaneously; for example, in this case there were seven comparisons undertaken between teachers and supervisors, i.e. one for each statement.

In all cases but one A7 **'Preparing alternative material for contingency'** the educational supervisors thought that the teachers were doing things less frequently than the teachers themselves reported. However, in order to avoid spurious positives, the alpha value needs to be lowered to take account of the number of comparisons being performed. In this case the alpha used to make decision is set at 0.05/7 which equals 0.007. After the application of the Bonferroni correction, none of the seven statements show any significant difference as the p values are all greater than 0.007 (Table 6.9).

Table 6.9: Comparison between Teachers and Supervisors for Organising Materials and Objects

Item	Statement	Current Job Role	N	Mean Rank	Mann-Whitney U	P-value
A1	Arranging students' desks for learning in class	Teacher	543	320.01	21173.50	0.116
		Supervisor	87	287.37		
A2	Preparing the teaching apparatus in class	Teacher	535	315.62	21068.00	0.150
		Supervisor	87	286.16		
A3	Preparing teaching aids prior to class	Teacher	540	317.76	21462.00	0.189
		Supervisor	87	290.69		
A4	Preparing lesson plan. (aims, objectives)	Teacher	541	317.69	21809.00	0.249
		Supervisor	87	294.68		
A5	Prepare the time allocation of the lesson	Teacher	531	314.42	19956.50	0.040
		Supervisor	86	275.55		
A6	Putting the teaching aids in the proper place in class	Teacher	537	317.61	20076.50	0.036
		Supervisor	86	276.95		
A7	Preparing alternative material for contingency	Teacher	539	309.99	21553.00	0.220
		Supervisor	87	335.26		

6.2.2 Organising the Role of Teachers and Students

Three questions were asked in the section on organising the role of teachers and students. Participants were asked to give their perceptions on an ordinal scale ranging from 1 to 8 where 1 = Never or Almost Never, 2 = Once a term, 3 = Once a month, 4 = Once a fortnight, 5 = Once or twice a week, 6 = Three or four times a week, 7 = Every day, and 8 = Several times a day.

6.2.2.1 Frequencies and percentages

This section focuses on the three statements in section B, Organising Teachers' and Students' Roles. Table 6.10 shows the frequency and percentage of each answer.

25 teachers (4.6%) said they *never or almost never* do B1 **'Organising classroom discussion among students'** while only 2 educational supervisors (2.3%) thought that teachers *never or almost never* do B1. Twelve teachers (2.2%) do B1 *once a term*, while four educational supervisors (4.6%) think so. Thirty three teachers (6.1%) reported doing B1 *once a month* while a higher proportion of educational supervisors (13.8%) think teachers do it *once a*

month. Fifty five teachers (10.1%) report doing B1 *once a fortnight* while 11 educational supervisors (12.6%) think teachers do it *once a fortnight*. Sixty three teachers (11.6%) said they do B1 *once or twice a week* while only 6 educational supervisors (nearly 7%) think they do it *once or twice a week*. Fifty seven teachers (10.5%) said they do B1 *three or four times per week* while seven educational supervisors (8.0%) think teachers do it *three or four times per week*. The greatest proportion of teachers 41.0% said they do B1 *every day* and the greatest proportion of educational supervisors (32.2%) also think that teachers do B1 *every day*. Fourteen percent of teachers said they do it *several times a day* while a higher proportion of educational supervisors (19.5%) think that teachers do it *several times a day*.

Table 6.10: Frequencies and Percent for the Three Statements under Organising Teachers' and Students' Roles

Item	Statement	Current Job Role	Count / Percent	Never or almost never	Once a term	Once a month	Once a fortnight	Once or twice a week	Three or four times per week	Every day	Several times a day
B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	Teacher	Count	25	12	33	55	63	57	223	76
			%	4.6	2.2	6.1	10.1	11.6	10.5	41.0	14.0
		Supervisor	Count	2	4	12	11	6	7	28	17
			%	2.3	4.6	13.8	12.6	6.9	8.0	32.2	19.5
B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	Teacher	Count	19	19	47	57	83	64	180	77
			%	3.5	3.5	8.6	10.4	15.2	11.7	33.0	14.1
		Supervisor	Count	2	6	12	14	11	8	21	13
			%	2.3	6.9	13.8	16.1	12.6	9.2	24.1	14.9
B3	Discussion of class rules	Teacher	Count	31	72	86	71	80	54	99	50
			%	5.7	13.3	15.8	13.1	14.7	9.9	18.2	9.2
		Supervisor	Count	12	18	17	7	10	4	7	12
			%	13.8	20.7	19.5	8.0	11.5	4.6	8.0	13.8

For statement B2 **'Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher'** nineteen teachers (3.5%) said they *never or almost never* do it while only 2 supervisors (2.3%) thought that teachers *never or almost never* do it. Also, nineteen teachers (3.5%) do it *once a term*, while six supervisors (6.9%) think so. Forty seven teachers (8.6%) reported doing it *once a month* while a higher proportion of supervisors (13.8%) think teachers do it *once a month*. Fifty seven teachers (10.4%) report doing it *once a fortnight* while 14 supervisors (16.1%) think teachers do it *once a fortnight*. Eighty three teachers (15.2%) said they do it *once or twice a week* while 11 supervisors (12.6%) think teachers do it *once a*

month. Sixty four teachers (11.7%) said they do it *three or four times per week* while eight supervisors (9.2%) think teachers do it *three or four times per week*. The highest proportion of teachers 33.0% said they do it *every day* and the highest proportion of supervisors (24.1%) also think that teachers do it *every day*. Seventy seven teachers (14.1%) said they do it *several times a day* while a slightly higher proportion of supervisors (14.9%) think that teachers do it *several times a day*.

For statement B3 **'Discussion of class rules'** thirty one teachers (5.7%) said they *never or almost never* do it while a higher proportion of supervisors (13.8%) think that teachers *never or almost never* do it. Seventy two teachers (13.3%) do it *once a term* while a higher proportion of supervisors (20.7%) think teachers do it *once a term*. Eighty six teachers (15.8%) reported doing it *once a month* while a higher proportion of supervisors (19.5%) think teachers do it *once a month*. Seventy one teachers (13.1%) report doing it *once a fortnight* while only 7 supervisors (8.0%) think teachers do it *once a fortnight*. Eighty teachers (14.7%) said they do it *once or twice a week* while 10 supervisors (11.5%) think teachers do it *once a month*. Fifty four teachers (nearly 10%) said they do it *three or four times per week* while only four supervisors (4.6%) think teachers do it *three or four times per week*. Ninety nine teachers (18.2%) said they do it *every day* while only 7 supervisors (8.0%) think that teachers do it *every day*. Fifty teachers (9.2%) said they do it *several times a day* while a higher proportion of supervisors (13.8%) think that teachers do it *several times a day*.

6.2.2.2 Mean, standard error of mean, and sample size

Table 6.11 shows the mean, standard error of the mean and number of participants who answered each of the three questions. The results are also presented in Figure 6.2. For both teachers and supervisors the largest average value was item B1 **'Organising classroom discussion among students'** with average values of 5.87 and 5.68 respectively. For both

teachers and supervisors the lowest average value was item B3 **'Discussion of class rules'** with average values of 4.67 and 3.98 respectively. As with the seven statements under organising objects and materials, the standard error of the mean is higher for all three statements for supervisors than for teachers. The largest and lowest standard errors of the mean for supervisors are 0.253 for item B3 and 0.216 for item B2 respectively. The corresponding figures for teachers are 0.090 for item B3 and 0.081 for both items B1 and B2 respectively.

Table 6.11: Mean, Standard Error of the Mean, and Sample Size for Organising Teachers and Students' Roles

Item	Statement	Current Job Role					
		Teacher			Supervisor		
		Mean	Std. Error of Mean	N	Mean	Std. Error of Mean	N
B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	5.87	0.081	544	5.68	0.219	87
B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	5.68	0.081	546	5.29	0.216	87
B3	Discussion of class rules	4.67	0.090	543	3.98	0.253	87

Figure 6.3 shows that the same general pattern can be seen for both teachers and supervisors. For example for B1 **'Organising classroom discussion among students'**, both teachers and supervisors have their highest average for this item. Similarly teachers and supervisors have their lowest average on statement B3 **'Discussion of class rules'**.
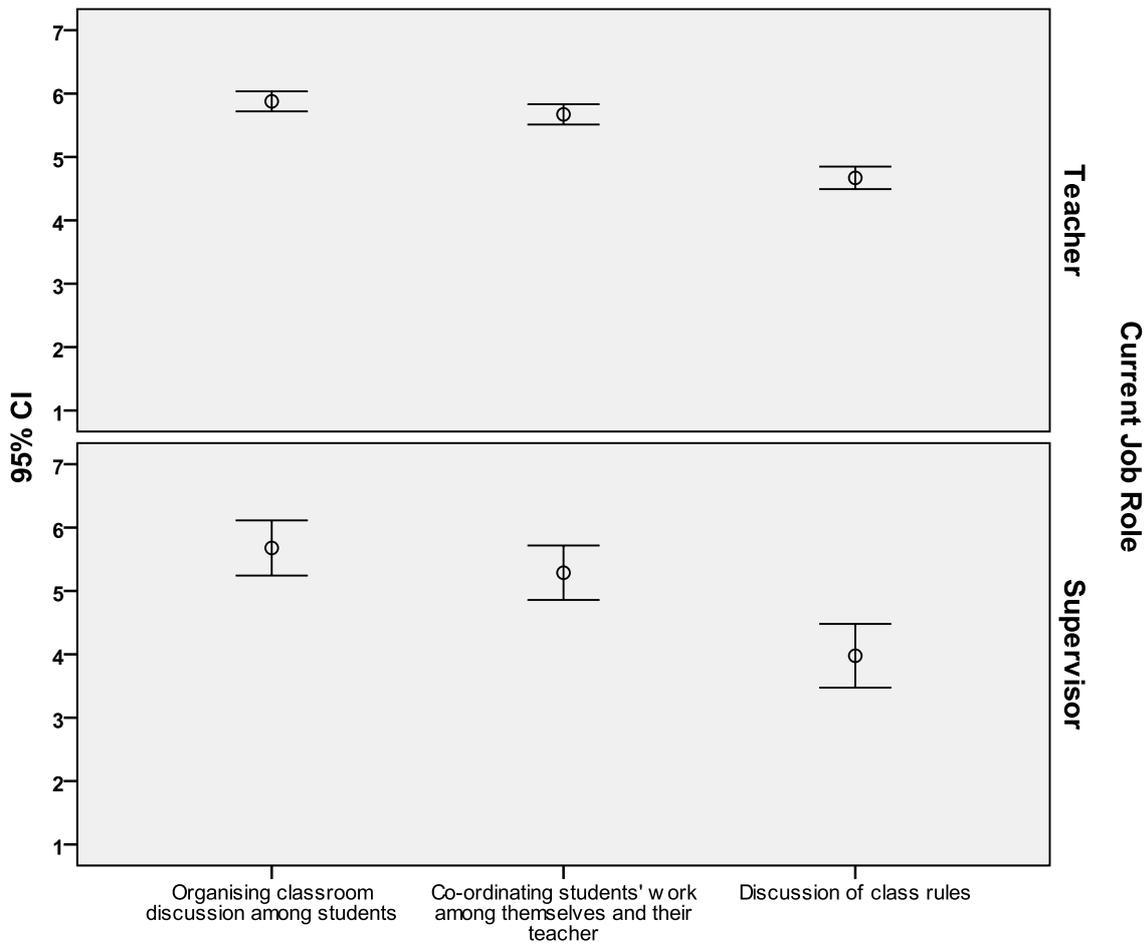
Figure 6.3: Mean and 95% CI of Standard Error of Mean for Organising Teachers and Students' Roles.

6.2.2.3 Inferential statistics

The results from the inferential statistics for all the three statements are shown in Table 6.12.

For statement B1 **'Organising classroom discussion among students'** the mean rank for teachers is 317.40 while that for educational supervisors is 307.24 indicating that teachers report that they more frequently organise classroom discussion among students than the supervisors think they do. However, the non-parametric independent samples test (Mann-Whitney U) indicates that there is no statistical significant difference between the mean ranks with a Mann-Whitney U value of 22902.00 and p value of 0.617 (>0.05).

In all cases the educational supervisors thought that the teachers were doing things less frequently than the teachers themselves reported. However, after a Bonferroni correction, the alpha level for significant difference is reduced to 0.017, only B3 shows a significant difference (p = 0.005) between teachers and educational supervisors.

Table 6.12: Comparison between Teachers and Supervisors for Organising Teachers and Students' Role

Item	Statement	Current Job Role	N	Mean Rank	Mann-Whitney U	P-value
B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	Teacher	544	317.40	22902.00	0.617
		Supervisor	87	307.24		
B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	Teacher	546	321.77	21148.00	0.093
		Supervisor	87	287.08		
B3	Discussion of class rules	Teacher	543	323.58	19234.00	0.005
		Supervisor	87	265.08		

6.2.3 Classroom Performance

Seven questions were asked in the section on classroom performance. Participants were asked to give their perceptions on an ordinal scale ranging from 1 to 8 where 1 = Never or Almost Never, 2 = Once a term, 3 = Once a month, 4 = Once a fortnight, 5 = Once or twice a week, 6 = Three or four times a week, 7 = Every day, and 8 = Several times a day.

6.2.3.1 Frequencies and percentages

Table 6.13 shows the frequency and percentage of each response given by teachers and educational supervisors in response to the seven statements in section C, Classroom Performance. 10 teachers (1.8%) said they *never or almost never* (C1) **'Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students'** while only 3 supervisors (3.4%) thought that teachers *never or almost never* do C1. Nineteen teachers (3.5%) do C1 *once a term*, while seven supervisors (8.0%) think so. Thirty two teachers (5.9%) reported doing C1 *once a month* while a higher proportion of supervisors (12.6%) think teachers do it

once a month. Twenty nine teachers (5.4%) report doing C1 *once a fortnight* while 6 supervisors (6.9%) think teachers do it *once a fortnight.* Thirty seven teachers (6.8%) said they do C1 *once or twice a week* while a higher proportion of supervisors (over 17%) think teachers do it *once or twice a week.* Fifty two teachers (9.6%) said they do C1 *three or four times per week* while 8 supervisors (9.2%) think teachers do it *three or four times per week.* The vast majority of teachers (nearly 46%) said they do C1 *every day* also the majority of educational supervisors (24.1%) also think that teachers do C1 *every day.* Twenty one percent of teachers said they do it *several times a day* while a slightly lower proportion of supervisors (18.4%) think that teachers do it *several times a day.*

Five teachers (0.9%) said they *never or almost never* do C2 **'Making sure that I am visible to all students'** while only one supervisor (1.1%) thought that teachers *never or almost never* do C2. Eight teachers (1.5%) do C2 *once a term* while three supervisors (3.4%) think teachers do it *once a term.* Twelve teachers (2.2%) reported doing C2 *once a month* while a higher proportion of supervisors (4.6%) think teachers do it *once a month.* Eleven teachers (2.0%) reported doing C2 *once a fortnight* while a higher proportion of supervisors (5.7%) think teachers do it *once a fortnight.* Nineteen teachers (3.5%) said they do C2 *once or twice a week* while a higher proportion of supervisors (5.7%) think teachers do it *once or twice a week.* Twenty two teachers (4.0%) said they do C2 *three or four times per week* while 8 supervisors (9.2%) think teachers do it *three or four times per week.* The vast majority of teachers (over 66%) said they do C2 *every day* also the majority of supervisors (just over 47%) also think that teachers do C2 *every day.* Just over 19% of teachers said they do it *several times a day* while a higher proportion of supervisors (23.0%) think that teachers do it *several times a day.*

Table 6.13: Frequencies and Percentages for Classroom Performance

Item	Statement	Current Job Role	Count / %	Never or almost never	Once a term	Once a month	Once a fortnight	Once or twice a week	Three or four times per week	Every day	Several times a day
C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	Teacher	Count	10	19	32	29	37	52	249	114
			%	1.8	3.5	5.9	5.4	6.8	9.6	45.9	21.0
		Supervisor	Count	3	7	11	6	15	8	21	16
			%	3.4	8.0	12.6	6.9	17.2	9.2	24.1	18.4
C2	Making sure that I am visible to all students	Teacher	Count	5	8	12	11	19	22	363	104
			%	.9	1.5	2.2	2.0	3.5	4.0	66.7	19.1
		Supervisor	Count	1	3	4	5	5	8	41	20
			%	1.1	3.4	4.6	5.7	5.7	9.2	47.1	23.0
C3	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	Teacher	Count	14	6	16	16	39	59	295	98
			%	2.6	1.1	2.9	2.9	7.2	10.9	54.3	18.0
		Supervisor	Count	3	3	5	9	7	13	29	18
			%	3.4	3.4	5.7	10.3	8.0	14.9	33.3	20.7
C4	Respecting students' ideas in class	Teacher	Count	7	4	11	15	20	42	316	129
			%	1.3	.7	2.0	2.8	3.7	7.7	58.1	23.7
		Supervisor	Count	1	2	8	10	6	4	34	22
			%	1.1	2.3	9.2	11.5	6.9	4.6	39.1	25.3
C5	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	Teacher	Count	7	6	12	12	23	34	315	133
			%	1.3	1.1	2.2	2.2	4.2	6.3	58.1	24.5
		Supervisor	Count	2	4	6	6	11	4	28	25
			%	2.3	4.7	7.0	7.0	12.8	4.7	32.6	29.1
C6	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	Teacher	Count	6	6	11	13	15	36	327	126
			%	1.1	1.1	2.0	2.4	2.8	6.7	60.6	23.3
		Supervisor	Count	0	6	3	4	10	6	29	28
			%	.0	7.0	3.5	4.7	11.6	7.0	33.7	32.6
C7	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	Teacher	Count	36	13	24	30	51	60	213	110
			%	6.7	2.4	4.5	5.6	9.5	11.2	39.7	20.5
		Supervisor	Count	10	3	8	10	9	7	19	20
			%	11.6	3.5	9.3	11.6	10.5	8.1	22.1	23.3

Fourteen teachers (2.6%) said they *never or almost never* do C3 **'Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class'** while only three supervisors (3.4%) thought that teachers *never or almost never* do C3. Six teachers (1.1%) do C3 *once a term* while three supervisors (3.4%) think teachers do it *once a term*. Sixteen teachers (2.9%) reported doing C3 *once a month* while a higher proportion of supervisors (5.7%) think teachers do it *once a month*. Sixteen teachers again (2.9%) report doing C3 *once a fortnight* while a higher proportion of supervisors (10.3%) think teachers do it *once a fortnight*.

Thirty nine teachers (7.2%) said they do C3 **'Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class'** *once or twice a week* while a slightly higher proportion of supervisors (8.0%) think teachers do it *once or twice a week*. Fifty nine teachers (nearly 11%) said they do C3 *three or four times per week* while a higher proportion of supervisors (nearly 15%) think teachers do it *three or four times per week*. The majority of teachers (just over 54%) said they do C3 *every day* also the majority of supervisors (just over 33%) also think that teachers do C3 *every day*. Eighteen present of teachers said they do it *several times a day* while a higher proportion of supervisors (20.7%) think that teachers do it *several times a day*.

Seven teachers (1.3%) said they *never or almost never* do C4 **'Respecting students' ideas in class'** while only one supervisor (1.1%) thought that teachers *never or almost never* do C4. Four teachers (0.7%) do C4 *once a term* while two supervisors (2.3%) think teachers do it *once a term*. Eleven teachers (2.0%) reported doing C4 *once a month* while a higher proportion of supervisors (9.2%) think teachers do it *once a month*. Fifteen teachers (2.8%) report doing C4 *once a fortnight* while a higher proportion of supervisors (11.5%) think teachers do it *once a fortnight*. Twenty teachers (3.7%) said they do C4 *once or twice a week* while a higher proportion of supervisors (6.9%) think teachers do it *once or twice a week*. Forty two teachers (7.7%) said they do C4 *three or four times per week* while only 4 supervisors (4.6%) think teachers do it *three or four times per week*. The vast majority of

162

teachers (just over 58%) said they do C4 *every day* also the majority of supervisors (just over 39%) also think that teachers do C4 *every day*. Nearly 24% of teachers said they do it *several times a day* while a slightly higher proportion of supervisors (25.3%) think that teachers do it *several times a day*.

For statement C5 **'Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly'**, seven teachers (1.3%) said they *never or almost never* do it while only two supervisors (2.3%) thought that teachers *never or almost never* do it. Six teachers (1.1%) do C5 *once a term* while a higher proportion of supervisors (4.7%) think teachers do it *once a term*. Twelve teachers (2.2%) reported doing C5 *once a month* while a higher proportion of supervisors (7.0%) think teachers do it *once a month*. Also twelve teachers (2.2%) report doing C5 *once a fortnight* while a higher proportion of supervisors (7.0%) think teachers do it *once a fortnight*. Twenty three teachers (4.3%) said they do C5 *once or twice a week* while a higher proportion of supervisors (12.8%) think teachers do it *once or twice a week*. Thirty four teachers (6.3%) said they do C5 *three or four times per week* while only 4 supervisors (4.7%) think teachers do it *three or four times per week*. The vast majority of teachers (just over 58%) said they do C5 *every day* also the majority of supervisors (nearly 33%) also think that teachers do C5 *every day*. Nearly a quarter of teachers said they do it *several times a day* while a higher proportion of supervisors (just over 29%) think that teachers do it *several times a day*.

For statement C6 **'Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class'**, six teachers (1.1%) said they *never or almost never* do it while no supervisors (0%) thought that teachers *never or almost never* do it. Six teachers (1.1%) do C6 *once a term* while a higher proportion of supervisors (7.0%) think teachers do it *once a term*. Eleven teachers (2.0%) reported doing C6 *once a month* while three supervisors (3.5%) think teachers do it *once a month*. Thirteen teachers (2.4%) report doing C6 *once a fortnight* while a higher proportion of supervisors (4.7%) think teachers do it *once a fortnight*. Fifteen teachers (2.8%) said they do C6 *once or*

163

twice a week while a higher proportion of supervisors (11.6%) think teachers do it *once or twice a week*. Thirty six teachers (6.7%) said they do C6 *three or four times per week* while 6 supervisors (7%) think teachers do it *three or four times per week*. The vast majority of teachers (nearly 61%) said they do C6 *every day* also the majority of supervisors (nearly 34%) also think that teachers do C6 *every day*. Just over 23% of teachers said they do it *several times a day* while a higher proportion of supervisors (nearly 33%) think that teachers do it *several times a day*.

For statement C7 **'Anticipating class problems before they happen'**, thirty six teachers (6.7%) said they *never or almost never* do it while a higher proportion of supervisors (11.6%) thought that teachers *never or almost never* do it. Thirteen teachers (2.4%) do C7 *once a term* while 3 supervisors (3.5%) think teachers do it *once a term*. Twenty four teachers (4.5%) reported doing C7 *once a month* while a higher proportion of supervisors (9.3%) think teachers do it *once a month*. Thirty teachers (5.6%) report doing C7 *once a fortnight* while a higher proportion of supervisors (11.6%) think teachers do it *once a fortnight*. Fifty one teachers (9.5%) said they do C7 *once or twice a week* while 9 supervisors (10.5%) think teachers do it *once or twice a week*. Sixty teachers (11.2%) said they do C7 *three or four times per week* while 7 supervisors (8.1%) think teachers do it *three or four times per week*. The majority of teachers (nearly 40%) said they do C7 *every day* while only 19 supervisors (just over 22%) also think that teachers do C7 *every day*. Nearly 21% of teachers said they do it *several times a day* while a slightly higher proportion of supervisors (23%) think that teachers do it *several times a day*.

6.2.3.2 Mean, standard error of mean, and sample size

Table 6.14 shows the mean, standard error of the mean and number of participants who answered each of the seven questions. The results are also presented in Figure 6.4. For

teachers the largest average value was item C6 **'Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class'** with an average value of 6.84 while the lowest average was C7 **'Anticipating class problems before they happen in class'** with a value of 6.03. For supervisors the largest average value was item C2 **'Making sure that I am visible to all students'** with average value of 6.43 while the lowest average was C7 **'Anticipating class problems before they happen in class'** with a value of 5.35. As with the seven statements under organising objects and materials, the standard error of the mean is higher for all seven statements for supervisors than for teachers. The largest and lowest standard errors of the mean for supervisors are 0.257 for item C7 and 0.179 for C2 respectively. The corresponding figures for teachers are 0.086 for item C7 and 0.054 for item C2 respectively.

Table 6.14: Mean, Standard Error of the Mean, and Sample Size for Classroom Performance

Item	Statement	Current Job Role					
		Teacher			Supervisor		
		Mean	Std. Error of Mean	N	Mean	Std. Error of Mean	N
C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	6.30	0.075	542	5.43	0.226	87
C2	Making sure that I am visible to all students	6.80	0.054	544	6.43	0.179	87
C3	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	6.51	0.065	543	5.98	0.204	87
C4	Respecting students' ideas in class	6.81	0.055	544	6.17	0.198	87
C5	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	6.81	0.057	542	6.13	0.212	86
C6	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	6.84	0.055	540	6.40	0.195	86
C7	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	6.03	0.086	537	5.35	0.257	86

Figure 6.4 shows that the same general pattern for both teachers and supervisors.
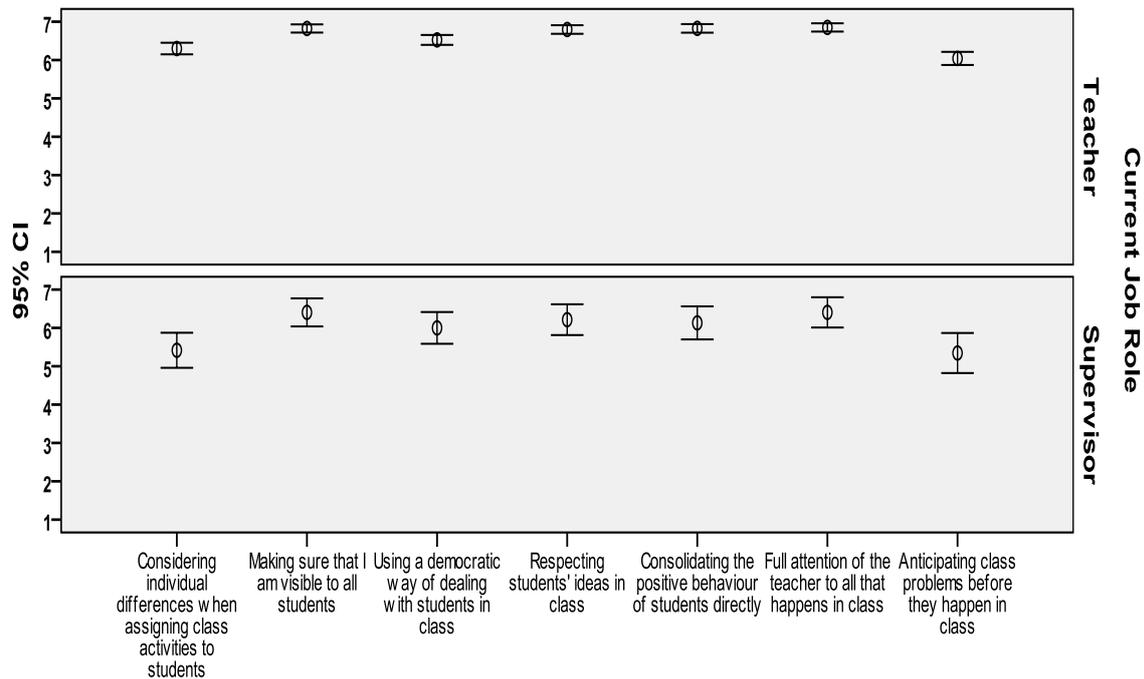
Figure 6.4: Mean and 95% CI of Standard Error of Mean for Classroom Performance

6.2.3.3 Inferential statistics

The results from inferential statistics for all the seven statements are shown on Table 6.15. For statement C1 **'Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students'** the mean rank for teachers is 325.13 while that for supervisors is 251.87 indicating that teachers reported that they more frequently consider individual differences when assigning class activities to students than the supervisors think they do. Furthermore, the non-parametric independent sample test (Mann-Whitney U) indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the mean ranks with a Mann-Whitney U value of 18084.50 and p value of 0.001 (<0.007) following Bonferroni correction. In all cases the supervisors thought that the teachers were doing things less frequently than the teachers themselves reported. However, only C1 shows a significant difference between teachers and supervisors.

Table 6.15: Comparison between Teachers and Supervisors for Classroom Performance

Item	Statement	Current Job Role	N	Mean Rank	Mann-Whitney U	P-value
C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	Teacher	542	325.13	18084.50	0.001
		Supervisor	87	251.87		
C2	Making sure that I am visible to all students	Teacher	544	320.07	21452.00	0.101
		Supervisor	87	290.57		
C3	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	Teacher	543	321.81	20194.50	0.019
		Supervisor	87	276.12		
C4	Respecting students' ideas in class	Teacher	544	322.13	20329.50	0.019
		Supervisor	87	277.67		
C5	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	Teacher	542	320.38	20118.00	0.024
		Supervisor	86	277.43		
C6	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	Teacher	540	316.33	21694.00	0.274
		Supervisor	86	295.76		
C7	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	Teacher	537	318.04	19849.50	0.031
		Supervisor	86	274.31		

6.2.4 Class Evaluation

Five questions were asked in the section on classroom performance. Participants were asked to give their perceptions on an ordinal scale ranging from 1 to 8 where 1 = Never or Almost Never, 2 = Once a term, 3 = Once a month, 4 = Once a fortnight, 5 = Once or twice a week, 6 = Three or four times a week, 7 = Every day, and 8 = Several times a day.

6.2.4.1 Frequencies and percentages

Table 6.16 shows the frequency and percentage of each answer given by teachers and educational supervisors in response to the questions in section D 'Class Evaluation'.

For statement D1 **'Evaluating the learning environment in class regularly**', thirty two teachers (nearly 6%) said they *never or almost never* do it while a higher proportion of supervisors (9.3%) think that teachers *never or almost never* do it. Thirty four teachers (6.3%) do D1 *once a term* while a higher proportion of supervisors (14.0%) think teachers do it *once a term*. Fifty three teachers (nearly 10%) reported doing D1 *once a month* while a

higher proportion of supervisors (just over 15%) think teachers do it *once a month*. Thirty four teachers (6.3%) reported doing D1 *once a fortnight* while a lower proportion of supervisors (3.5%) think teachers do it *once a fortnight*. Eighty three teachers (over 15%) said they do D1 *once or twice a week* while a slightly higher proportion of supervisors (16.3%) think teachers do it *once or twice a week*. Seventy nine teachers (nearly 15%) said they do D1 *three or four times per week* while 11 supervisors (12.8%) think teachers do it *three or four times per week*. The majority of teachers (26.8%) said they do D1 *every day* while only 14 supervisors (16.3%) think that teachers do D1 *every day*. Just over 15% of teachers said they do it *several times a day* while a lower proportion of supervisors (12.8%) think that teachers do it *several times a day*.

Only 8 teachers (1.5%) said they *never or almost never* do practice D2 **'Determining points of weakness and strength of the students'** while a higher proportion of supervisors (2.3%) think that teachers *never or almost never* do it. Seventeen teachers (3.1%) do D2 *once a term* while a higher proportion of supervisors (9.2%) think teachers do it *once a term*. Forty seven teachers (8.6%) reported doing D2 *once a month* while a higher proportion of supervisors (17.2%) think teachers do it *once a month*. Fifty one teachers (9.3%) report doing D2 *once a fortnight* while a higher proportion of supervisors (nearly 15%) think teachers do it *once a fortnight*. Seventy one teachers (13%) said they do D2 *once or twice a week* while roughly the same proportion of supervisors (13%) thinks teachers do it *once or twice a week*. Eighty one teachers (nearly 15%) said they do D2 *three or four times per week* while 10 supervisors (11.5%) think teachers do it *three or four times per week*. About a third of teachers (just over 34%) said they do D2 *every day* while only 15 supervisors (17.2%) think that teachers do D2 *every day*. Nearly 16% of teachers said they do it *several times a day* while 13 of supervisors (nearly 15%) think that teachers do it *several times a day*.

Table 6.16: Frequencies and Percentages for Class Evaluation

Item	Statement	Current Job Role	Count / %	Never or almost never	Once a term	Once a month	Once a fortnight	Once or twice a week	Three or four times per week	Every day	Several times a day
D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class regularly	Teacher	Count	32	34	53	34	83	79	145	82
			%	5.9	6.3	9.8	6.3	15.3	14.6	26.8	15.1
		Supervisor	Count	8	12	13	3	14	11	14	11
			%	9.3	14.0	15.1	3.5	16.3	12.8	16.3	12.8
D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	Teacher	Count	8	17	47	51	71	81	186	85
			%	1.5	3.1	8.6	9.3	13.0	14.8	34.1	15.6
		Supervisor	Count	2	8	15	13	11	10	15	13
			%	2.3	9.2	17.2	14.9	12.6	11.5	17.2	14.9
D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	Teacher	Count	9	20	34	38	74	72	208	88
			%	1.7	3.7	6.3	7.0	13.6	13.3	38.3	16.2
		Supervisor	Count	7	5	14	7	12	10	17	14
			%	8.1	5.8	16.3	8.1	14.0	11.6	19.8	16.3
D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	Teacher	Count	10	11	26	42	64	67	211	113
			%	1.8	2.0	4.8	7.7	11.8	12.3	38.8	20.8
		Supervisor	Count	6	5	7	13	7	10	21	18
			%	6.9	5.7	8.0	14.9	8.0	11.5	24.1	20.7
D5	Treating weakness resulting from class evaluation	Teacher	Count	12	18	44	58	86	95	148	86
			%	2.2	3.3	8.0	10.6	15.7	17.4	27.1	15.7
		Supervisor	Count	3	8	7	18	9	13	16	13
			%	3.4	9.2	8.0	20.7	10.3	14.9	18.4	14.9

For statement D3 **'Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation'**, nine teachers (1.7%) said they *never or almost never* do it while a higher proportion of supervisors (just over 8%) think that teachers *never or almost never* do it. Twenty teachers (3.7%) do D3 *once a term* while a higher proportion of supervisors (5.8%) think teachers do it *once a term*. Thirty four teachers (6.3%) reported doing D3 *once a month* while a higher proportion of supervisors (16.3%) think teachers do it *once a month*.

Thirty eight teachers (7.0%) report doing D3 *once a fortnight* while 7 supervisors (8.1%) think teachers do it *once a fortnight*. Seventy four teachers (nearly 14%) said they do D3 *once or twice a week* while 12 supervisors (14%) think teachers do it *once or twice a week*. Seventy two teachers (over 13%) said they do D3 *three or four times per week* while 10 supervisors (11.6%) think teachers do it *three or four times per week*. Just over a third of teachers (over 38%) said they do D3 *every day* while only 17 supervisors (nearly 20%) think that teachers do D3 *every day*. Just over 16% of teachers said they do it *several times a day* while also 16% of supervisors think that teachers do it *several times a day*.

Ten teachers (1.8%) said they *never or almost never* do D4 **'Treating behavioural problems educationally'** while a higher proportion of supervisors (nearly 7%) think that teachers *never or almost never* do it. Eleven teachers (2.0%) do D4 *once a term* while a higher proportion of supervisors (5.7%) think teachers do it *once a term*. Twenty six teachers (just under 5%) reported doing D4 *once a month* while a higher proportion of supervisors (8.0%) think teachers do it *once a month*. Forty two teachers (7.7%) report doing D4 *once a fortnight* while a higher proportion of supervisors (nearly 15%) think teachers do it *once a fortnight*. Sixty four teachers (just under 12%) said they do D4 *once or twice a week* while a lower proportion of supervisors (8.0%) think teachers do it *once or twice a week*. Sixty seven teachers (12.3%) said they do D4 *three or four times per week* while 10 supervisors (11.5%) think teachers do it *three or four times per week*. The most common results from teachers

(nearly 39%) were to say they do D4 *every day* while 21 supervisors (24.1%) think that teachers do D4 *every day*. Nearly 21% of teachers said they do it *several times a day* while also a similar proportion of supervisors think that teachers do it *several times a day*.

Twelve teachers (2.2%) said they *never or almost never* do D5 **'Treating weakness resulting from class evaluation'** while a higher proportion of supervisors (3.4%) think that teachers *never or almost never* do it. Eighteen teachers (3.3%) do D5 *once a term* while a higher proportion of supervisors (over 9%) think teachers do it *once a term*. Forty four teachers (8.0%) reported doing D5 *once a month* while a similar proportion of supervisors also think teachers do it *once a month*. Fifty eight (10.6%) reported doing D5 *once a fortnight* while a higher proportion of supervisors (nearly 21%) think teachers do it *once a fortnight*. Eighty six teachers (nearly 16%) said they do D5 *once or twice a week* while a lower proportion of supervisors (10.3%) think teachers do it *once or twice a week*. Ninety five teachers (17.4%) said they do D5 *three or four times per week* while 13 supervisors (nearly 15%) think teachers do it *three or four times per week*. The majority of teachers (just over 27%) said they do D5 *every day* while 16 supervisors (18.4%) think that teachers do D5 *every day*. Nearly 16% of teachers said they do it *several times a day* while also a similar proportion of supervisors (15%) think that teachers do it *several times a day*.

6.2.4.2 Mean, standard error of mean, and sample size

Table 6.17 shows the mean, standard error of the mean and number of participants who answered each of the five questions. The results are also presented in Figure 6.5. For both teachers and supervisors the largest average value was item D4 **'Treating behavioural problems educationally'** with averages value of 6.22 and 5.46 respectively. Similarly, for both job roles, item with the lowest average was D1 **'Evaluating the learning environment in class regularly'** with average values of 5.45 and 4.71 respectively. As with organising

objects and materials, organising teachers' and students' roles and classroom performance the standard error of the mean is higher for all five statements for supervisors than for teachers. The largest and lowest standard errors of the mean for supervisors are 0.241 for item D3 and 0.218 for item D5 respectively. The corresponding figures for teachers are 0.090 for item D1 and 0.072 for item D4 respectively.

Table 6.17: Mean, Standard Error of the Mean, and Sample Size for Class Evaluation

Item	Statement	Teacher Mean	Teacher Std. Error of Mean	Teacher N	Supervisor Mean	Supervisor Std. Error of Mean	Supervisor N
D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class regularly	5.45	0.090	542	4.71	0.248	86
D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	5.88	0.075	546	5.05	0.221	87
D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	6.01	0.075	543	5.09	0.241	86
D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	6.22	0.072	544	5.46	0.237	87
D5	Treating weakness resulting from class evaluation	5.73	0.077	547	5.18	0.218	87
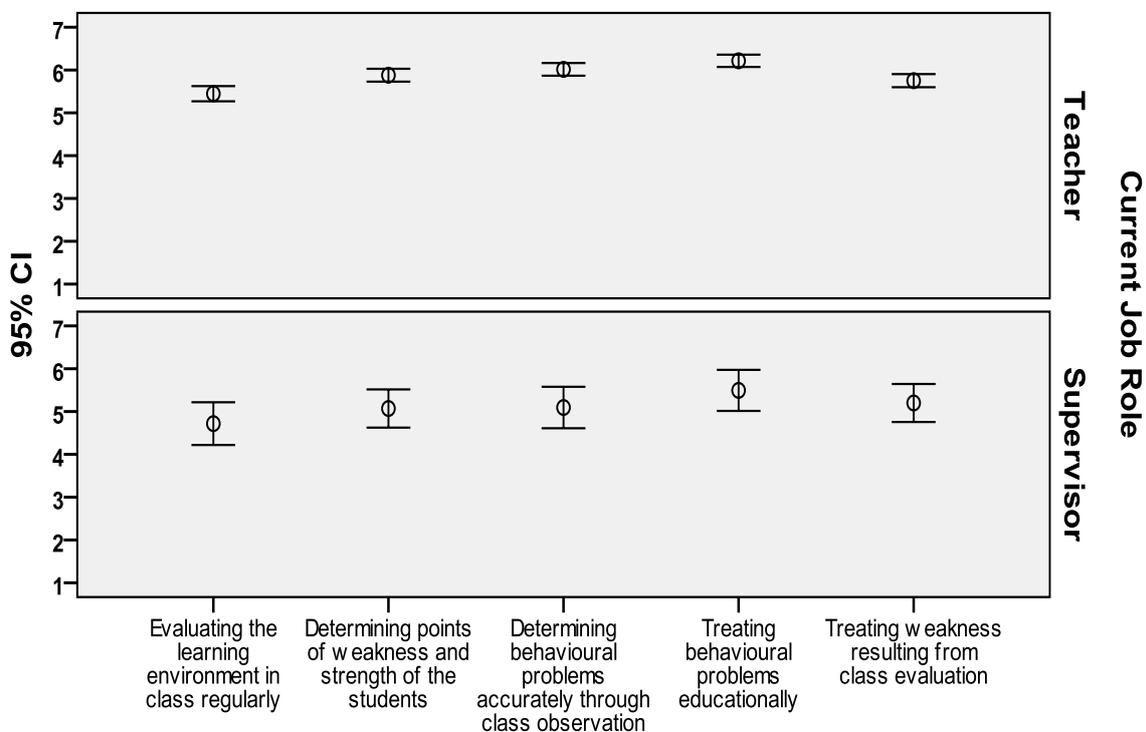
Figure 6.5: Mean and 95% CI of Standard Error of Mean for Class Evaluation (note earlier comment about the scale)

As with the sections organising objects and materials, organising teachers' and students' roles and classroom performance, figure 6.5 shows that the same general pattern can be seen for both teachers and supervisors.

6.2.4.3 Inferential statistics

The results from inferential statistics for all the seven statements are shown in Table 6.18. For statement D1 **'Evaluating the learning environment in class regularly'** the mean rank for teachers is 322.42 while that for supervisors is 264.62 indicating that teachers report that they more frequently consider evaluating the learning environment than the supervisors think they do. Furthermore, non-parametric independent samples test (Mann-Whitney U) indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the mean ranks with a Mann-Whitney U value of 19016.00 and p value of 0.005 (<0.007) following Bonferroni correction. In all cases the supervisors thought that the teachers were doing things less frequently than the teachers themselves reported. Significant differences were seen between teachers and supervisors in all statements but one D5 **'Treating weakness resulting from class evaluation'**.

Table 6.18: Comparison between Teachers and Supervisors for Class Evaluation

Item	Statement	Current Job Role	N	Mean Rank	Mann-Whitney U	P-value
D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class regularly	Teacher	542	322.42	19016.00	0.005
		Supervisor	86	264.62		
D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	Teacher	546	327.00	18289.00	0.001
		Supervisor	87	254.22		
D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	Teacher	543	324.73	18063.50	0.001
		Supervisor	86	253.54		
D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	Teacher	544	323.56	19552.00	0.007
		Supervisor	87	268.74		
D5	Treating weakness resulting from class evaluation	Teacher	547	324.12	20174.50	0.020
		Supervisor	87	275.89		

6.2.5 Factor Analysis: Frequency of Classroom Activities

According to Coakes and Steed (2001), the aim of using Factor Analysis is to limit a large number of variables to a low number of factors that make the data summary process easier.

Factor analysis is used here to determine the essential constructs or factors which underlie the responses collected from a large number of questionnaire items. In other words factor analysis is used to allocate the elements into groups that may help in further analysis by creating scales. Further, factor analysis helped to ensure that the elements of the questionnaire formed a coherent whole.

The process of factor analysis necessitates two important tests: the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. Also, Coakes and Steed (2001) mention that the result of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and the Bartlett's test should be the same or higher than 0.60.

The determinant of the matrix was 0.00004, the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was 0.90 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant p=0.001 (<0.05). These indicate that a satisfactory factor analysis can proceed. The factor analysis of the 22 statements is shown on Table 6.19. Four components were extracted to see if they agree with the questionnaire designed by the researcher. The first component groups all the statements relating to Organising objects and materials together; the second component groups all the statements relating to Organising teachers' and students' roles together; the third component groups all the statements relating to class performance together; and the final component groups all statements relating to class evaluation. The results confirmed the original groupings of the statements by the researcher in the questionnaire. The four components extracted after Varimax rotation account for over 58% of the variance of the 22 statements. It is important to note that in Table 6.19, a score of less than 0.3 has been suppressed in order to make the table

easy to read and interpret. '**Prepare the time allocation of the lesson'** shown a loading of 0.325 on component 3 but it has the highest loading on component 1 so it a better fit in component 1 than 3. Similarly '**Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation'** has a loading of 0.339 on component 3 and 0.712 on component 4, it is a better fit in component 4 because of the higher loading than 3.

Table 6.19: Factor Analysis

Statement	Component			
	1	2	3	4
Arranging students' desks for learning in class	0.529			
Preparing the teaching apparatus in class	0.733			
Preparing teaching aids prior to class	0.675			
Preparing lesson plan (aims, objectives)	0.622			
Prepare the time allocation of the lesson	0.597		0.325	
Putting the teaching aids in the proper place in class	0.573			
Preparing alternative material for contingency	0.510	0.353		
Organising classroom discussion among students		0.784		
Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher		0.834		
Discussion of class rules		0.742		
Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students			0.555	
Making sure that I am visible to all students			0.752	
Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class			0.689	
Respecting students' ideas in class			0.802	
Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly			0.771	
Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class			0.746	
Anticipating class problems before they happen in class				0.535
Evaluating the learning environment in class regularly				0.665
Determining points of weakness and strength of the students				0.756
Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation			0.339	0.712
Treating behavioural problems educationally				0.484
Treating weakness resulting from class evaluation				0.725

6.2.5.1 Reliability analysis of the extracted components

As discussed in chapter 4 a research instrument is considered reliable if similar results can be obtained when the tests are reapplied (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2003; Alduhayan & Ezat, 2002) and the fact that the factor analysis produced a similar pattern to the original design is

encouraging. To measure the reliability of the various sections of the questionnaire, the researcher used Cronbach's Alpha coefficient; the results of the four extracted components are shown in Table 6.20. Cronbach's Alpha can have a minimum value of zero and a maximum value of 1. The higher the value is the more reliable the test, although very high values can be problematic.

The results are reasonable, ranging from a minimum of 0.78 for component 1 (organising objects and materials) to a maximum of 0.86 for component 4 (class evaluation). The Cronbach's Alphas for each component are sufficiently high to conclude that the scales are reliable (internally consistent). Furthermore, if items are deleted, the Cronbach's Alphas do not change significantly as shown on Table 6.21 except for component 2. If the item '**Anticipating class item before they happened in class'** is deleted from the component, the Cronbach's Alpha increases to 0.87 (Table 6.21) compared to its original value of 0.85 (Table 6.20). This is a very slight change and it was decided to retain all items in the scale as this gives it more breadth.

Table 6.20: Cronbach's Alpha for the 4 Extracted Components

Component	Cronbach's Alpha
1	0.78
2	0.81
3	0.85
4	0.86

It is important to mention that certain researchers, such as Alassaf (2010) and Obaydat et al (2011), consider that the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient should be 0.80 or more in order to guarantee reliability, whereas others, such as Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), believe that the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient may be lower at 0.70 or above. Cohen et al. (2007:506) argue the Alpha coefficient can be considered as "> 0.90 very highly reliable, 0.80-0.90 highly reliable, 0.70-0.79 reliable, and 0.60-0.69 marginally/minimally reliable".

Table 6.21: Item-Total Statistics

Components / Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Component 1: Organising Objects and Materials				
Arranging students' desks for learning in class	31.24	69.704	0.445	0.763
Preparing the teaching apparatus in class	31.41	63.888	0.565	0.738
Preparing teaching aids prior to class	31.15	65.351	0.580	0.735
Preparing lesson plan. (aims, objectives)	30.41	73.19	0.469	0.759
Prepare the time allocation of the lesson	30.13	71.052	0.517	0.75
Putting the teaching aids in the proper place in class	30.16	68.696	0.526	0.747
Preparing alternative material for contingency	32.38	67.303	0.441	0.767
Component 2: Organising Teachers' and Students' Roles				
Organizing classroom discussion among students	10.19	12.999	0.660	0.726
Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	10.42	12.219	0.728	0.655
Discussion of class rules	11.47	12.278	0.579	0.818
Component 3: Class Performance				
Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	39.39	47.518	0.532	0.841
Making sure that I am visible to all students	38.81	50.05	0.671	0.82
Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	39.12	47.988	0.637	0.822
Respecting students' ideas in class	38.86	48.104	0.729	0.811
Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	38.84	47.593	0.741	0.809
Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	38.78	49.296	0.694	0.817
Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	39.63	48.198	0.414	0.868
Component 4: Class Evaluation				
Evaluating the learning environment in class regularly	23.45	36.648	0.628	0.847
Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	23.03	38.301	0.697	0.826
Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	22.91	37.487	0.734	0.817
Treating behavioural problems educationally	22.68	39.65	0.650	0.838
Treating weakness resulting from class evaluation	23.12	38.196	0.695	0.827

Table 6.22: Mean, Standard Error of Mean, Standard Deviation and Sample Size for the Four Scales

	Current Job Role							
	Teacher				Supervisor			
Scales*	Mean	Std. Error of Mean	Std. Deviation	N	Mean	Std. Error of Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Organising Objects and Materials	0.015	0.045	0.985	471	-0.087	0.122	1.089	80
Organising Teacher and Students, Role	0.007	0.047	1.013	471	-0.043	0.104	0.927	80
Class Performance	0.054	0.043	0.931	471	-0.316	0.145	1.297	80
Class Evaluation	0.053	0.044	0.965	471	-0.312	0.128	1.143	80

* Scales were generated using regression technique. These are standardised scales.

For the four factors extracted, four scales were created using the regression method. This method was chosen because it is robust and uses knowledge of existing variables. SPSS has three ways for computing factor scales, regression is one of them. The other two are Bartlett

and Anderson-Rubin. Further analysis was performed on the created scales. Descriptive statistics for the four scales showing means, standard error of mean and sample size for both teachers and supervisors are shown in Table 6.22.

Table 6.23: Comparison between Teachers and Supervisors for the Four Scales

Scales	Current job role	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	p-value	Effect Size
Organising Objects and Materials	Teacher	471	0.015	0.985	0.045	0.85	0.398	0.185
	Supervisor	80	-0.087	1.089	0.122			
Organising Teacher and Students, Role	Teacher	471	0.007	1.013	0.047	0.42	0.677	0.052
	Supervisor	80	-0.043	0.927	0.104			
Class Performance	Teacher	471	0.054	0.931	0.043	2.45	0.016	0.332
	Supervisor	80	-0.316	1.297	0.145			
Class Evaluation	Teacher	471	0.053	0.965	0.044	2.70	0.008	0.347
	Supervisor	80	-0.312	1.143	0.128			

6.2.5.2 Correlation

The correlation between each of the four factors is as shown on table 6.24 very small because factors analysis selects factors such that there is little or no correlation between the factors – There is a negative and significant correlation (at 5% level) between Class performance and Organising Objects and Materials. That is as Class performance increases, Organising Objects and Materials decreases and vice versa. A plausible explanation for this is that as more time is spend on teaching pupils to increase their performance less time is available on Organising Objects and Materials. However the correlation is very small with a value of -0.14. This is not a cause and effect relationship. The smallest correlation is 0.03 which is not significant at the 5% level between Class Evaluation and Organising Objects and Materials. Within a factor, the correlation between the items is very high which is why those items are grouped in that factor.

Table 6-24: Correlation between the Scales

	Organising Objects and Materials	Organising Teacher and Students, Role	Class Performance	Class Evaluation
Organising Objects and Materials	1.00			
Organising Teacher and Students, Role	0.04	1.00		
Class Performance	-0.14*	-0.09*	1.00	
Class Evaluation	0.03	0.05	-0.13*	1.00

*Significant at the 5% level

6.3 PREFERRED APPROACH OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

This section analyses the results from the third part of the questionnaire, which was designed based on the semantic differentials (see Chapter 4). The analysis seeks to answer the second research question: What is the preferred approach of classroom management for teachers in the upper classrooms in the primary stage?

The questionnaire is designed to understand the types of classroom approaches preferred by teachers. Teachers were asked how they manage their classroom using 27 semantic differentials. For details of these semantic differentials see the questionnaire in Appendices. The opinions of supervisors about teachers were also solicited on the 27 semantic differentials. The views of teachers and supervisors were collected using a 5-point scale stretching from one statement to the other.

6.3.1 Mean, Standard Deviation and Sample Size

Table 6.24 shows the average, standard deviation and sample size for each statement for both teachers and supervisors. For teachers the average ranges from a minimum of 1.28 with a standard deviation of 0.78 (E5 **'Pupils leave the class only with permission'**) to a maximum of 4.28 with a standard deviation of 1.29 for statement E13 **'I do not call pupils by their names in class'**. For supervisors the average ranges from a minimum of 1.69 with a standard deviation of 1.02 for statement E5 **'Pupils leave the class only with permission'** to a

maximum of 3.78 with a standard deviation of 1.14 for E6 **'I use the internet in class respectively'**. It is interesting to note that both teachers and supervisors have their lowest average value on statement E5. Generally the supervisors' average is closer to the neutral mid-point than the teachers' average value. See table 6.24 for details of the other statements.

Table 6.24: Mean, Standard Deviation and Sample Size for Preferred Approach of Classroom Management

Question	Statement	Current Job Role	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
E1	The class is quiet. / The class is noisy	Teacher	1.98	1.15	486
		Supervisor	1.96	0.76	83
E2	Pupils sit where they decide. / Pupils sit where I decide.	Teacher	2.97	1.64	486
		Supervisor	2.54	1.29	83
E3	Pupils move in class only with permission. / Pupils are free to move around in class.	Teacher	1.78	1.16	486
		Supervisor	2.02	0.99	83
E4	Pupils are free to speak in class. / Pupils speak in class only with permission.	Teacher	1.95	1.15	486
		Supervisor	2.22	1.02	83
E5	Pupils leave the class only with permission. / Pupils are free to leave the class whenever they like.	Teacher	1.28	0.78	486
		Supervisor	1.69	1.02	83
E6	I use the internet in class. / I use the chalk board in class.	Teacher	4.13	1.29	486
		Supervisor	3.78	1.14	83
E7	Pupils can only use the set book in class. / Pupils can bring more references into class if they want.	Teacher	1.95	1.37	486
		Supervisor	2.46	1.32	83
E8	I reward good behaviour. / I punish bad behaviour.	Teacher	1.88	1.25	486
		Supervisor	2.31	1.15	83
E9	I do not decorate the class. / I decorate the class.*	Teacher	3.19	1.59	486
		Supervisor	2.93	1.22	83
E10	I train my pupils to be responsible for class control and discipline. / I am responsible for class control and discipline.	Teacher	2.05	1.33	486
		Supervisor	2.88	1.27	83
E11	I record the bad behaviour of the pupils in class. / I do not record the bad behaviour of the pupils in class.	Teacher	2.20	1.36	486
		Supervisor	2.51	1.15	83
E12	The pupils are allowed to ask questions at any time during the lesson. / The pupils are only allowed to ask questions at the end of the lesson.	Teacher	2.30	1.50	486
		Supervisor	2.60	1.23	83
E13	I do not call pupils by their names in class. / I call pupils by their names in class.	Teacher	4.28	1.29	486
		Supervisor	3.45	1.35	83
E14	I always move while giving explanations in class. / I stand in front of the students while explaining matters in class.	Teacher	1.86	1.30	486
		Supervisor	2.35	1.12	83
E15	I always punish a naughty pupil promptly. / I try to deal with naughty pupils without confrontations.*	Teacher	3.18	1.54	486
		Supervisor	2.93	1.17	83
E16	I use polite funny remarks while giving explanations in class. / I am strict and serious while giving explanations in class.	Teacher	2.06	1.34	486
		Supervisor	2.54	1.14	83
E17	I give homework for the students during class. / Pupils choose their homework at the end of the class.	Teacher	1.79	1.10	486
		Supervisor	2.24	0.98	83
E18	I ask the pupils to manage their presence and absence process themselves. / I manage the presence and absence of the pupils myself.	Teacher	3.74	1.51	486
		Supervisor	3.28	1.39	83
E19	The communication channel in class is from the teacher to the pupil. / The communication channel in class is from the teacher to the pupil and pupil to	Teacher	3.42	1.55	486
		Supervisor	3.01	1.25	83
E20	My major responsibility in class is to help the pupils to develop themselves. / My major responsibility in class is to transfer knowledge to the pupils.	Teacher	2.19	1.38	486
		Supervisor	2.77	1.26	83
E21	My aim in class is to finish the curriculum on time. / My aim in class is to help the pupil to understand the curriculum .*	Teacher	3.68	1.50	486
		Supervisor	2.61	1.38	83
E22	In class, I focus on how the pupils learn. / In class, I focus on what the pupils learn.	Teacher	2.36	1.47	486
		Supervisor	2.67	1.23	83
E23	In class, I concentrate on the cognitive side. / In class, I concentrate on the skills side.*	Teacher	3.21	1.49	486
		Supervisor	2.53	1.29	83
E24	I conduct class tests to determine the degree of the pupils' progress. / I conduct class tests to determine the success or failure of the pupils.	Teacher	2.06	1.30	486
		Supervisor	2.65	1.20	83
E25	I use the exercises in the set books in class. / I ask the pupils to bring their own books.	Teacher	2.00	1.29	486
		Supervisor	2.48	1.23	83
E26	I teach outside the curriculum if the pupils ask questions outside the curriculum. / I keep strictly to the curriculum.	Teacher	2.43	1.48	486
		Supervisor	2.90	1.11	83
E27	My aim in class is to make the pupils acquire the content in quantity. / My aim in class is to encourage pupils to make as much progress as possible.*	Teacher	3.51	1.49	486
		Supervisor	2.96	1.19	83

* Teachers and Supervisors selected opposing statements. See questionnaire in Appendix xx for other statements.

6.3.2 Profile Analysis

Figure 6.6 shows two profile plots for teachers and supervisors for the 27 statements under classroom preferred approaches. As the profile is similar for teachers and supervisors for all 27 statements we can say that overall there is no difference between the two groups. However, for individual statement there were differences between teachers and supervisors. As the profile plot is not parallel, it can be concluded that there is group interaction.

In the figure, it should be noted that 3 is *not sure* or *neutral*, therefore the respondent is equally drawn by the two opposing statements. As is to be expected, for both teachers and supervisors, some statements got a score below 3 while others statements got score above 3. For some statements, supervisors' scores are less than teachers' scores or vice versa. Based on the findings, the research will now draw up a description of an average classroom to better understand a typical classroom as perceived by the teachers and the supervisors.

6.3.3 Description of an Average Classroom by Teachers

Taking the average responses teachers perceive their classrooms to be calm and quiet places where pupils themselves choose where they would like to sit and where they can move freely within the classroom but pupils must ask permission to leave the classroom. Classrooms have wall displays relating to current topics and also show examples that encourage pupils to work to their full potential. Teachers walk around the classroom during the lesson and use pupils' first name when speaking to them. Pupils use set books in class and homework is given. The teacher uses exercises from these books to conduct tests to determine the pupils' progress.

The teacher takes a register at the beginning of all sessions to monitor pupils' attendance and punctuality. The communication channel in the classroom is from both teachers to pupil and pupil to pupil. Pupils are allowed to ask questions at any time during the lesson to ensure

complete understanding, allowing pupils to develop and reach their full potential. Teachers take into consideration each pupils' different skills and learning style. Teachers are more likely to use chalk than the internet in class.

The teacher disciplines pupils in a non-confrontational way, reminding them of class rules. Respect for their teacher, other pupils and also property belonging to others is essential to a calm working environment and good behaviour is always encouraged and rewarded. The aim of the teacher is to ensure that pupils are working to the best of their ability and to encourage them to make as much progress as possible.

6.3.4 Description of an Average Classroom by Supervisors

Taking the average responses from supervisors it can be seen that the description of an average classroom by supervisors is very similar to the description by teachers. However, there are a number of disparities. For instance, with an average of 3.19 teachers said that they use wall displays associated with the topic being while supervisors, with an average of 2.93, do not agree with this opinion. With an average of 3.18 teachers said that they always try to deal with naughty pupils without confrontations while with an average of 2.93 supervisors opinion is that teachers punish naughty pupil promptly. With an average of 3.68, teachers said their aim in class is to help the pupil to understand the curriculum while with an average of 2.61, supervisors opinion is that teachers aim is to finish the curriculum on time. With an average of 3.21 teachers said that in class they concentrate on building pupils' skills while with an average of 2.53 supervisors' opinion is that in class teachers concentrate on the cognitive side. Teachers also said that in class their aim is to encourage pupils to make as much progress as possible while supervisors' opinion is that in class teachers aim is to make pupils acquire the content in quantity. The average values are 3.51 and 2.96 for teachers and supervisors respectively.
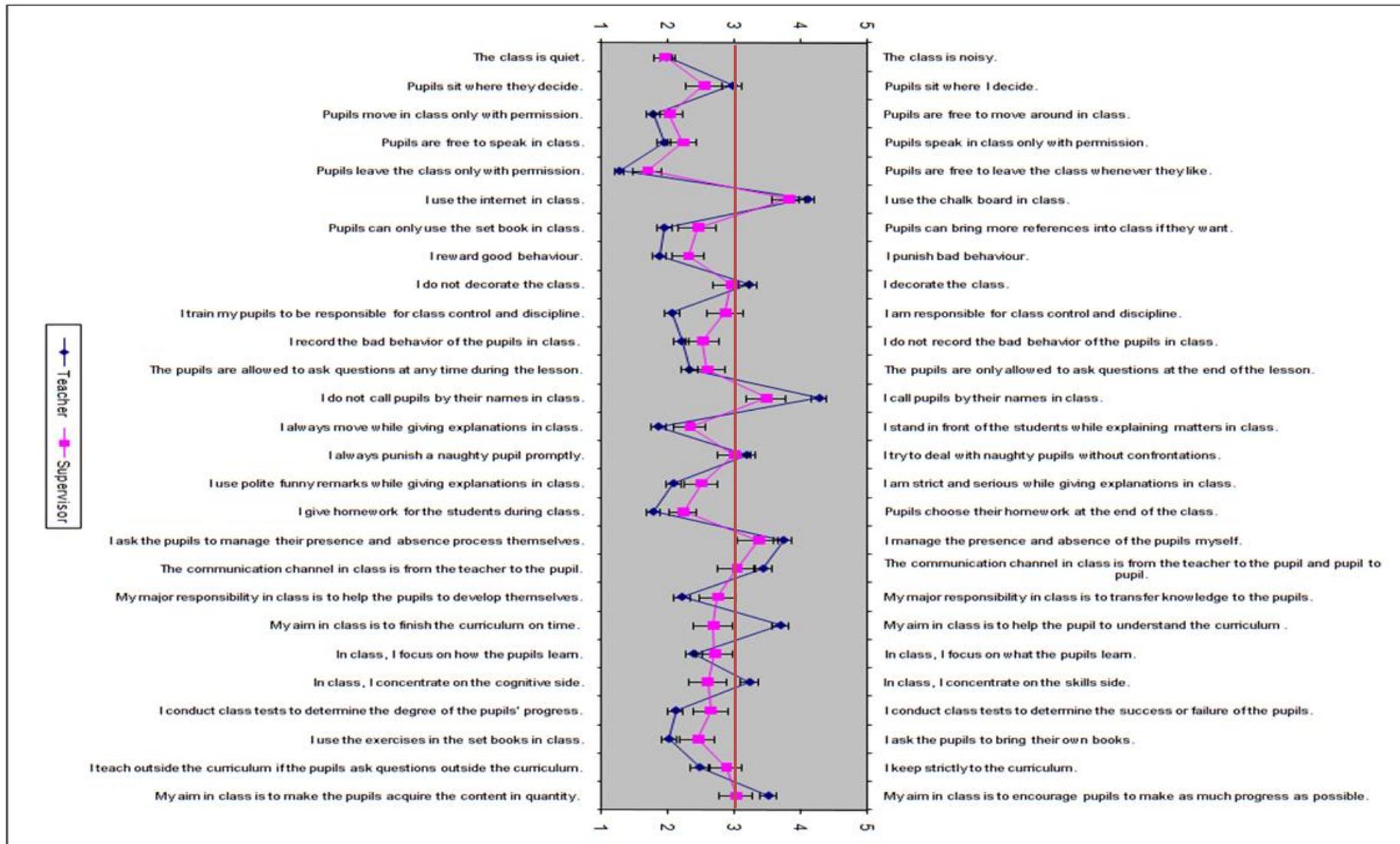
Figure 6.6: Plot for Teachers' and Supervisors' Profiles on Statements under Preferred Classroom Type.

6.3.5 Comparison of Statements between Teachers and Supervisors

Table 6.25: Comparison of Statements between Teachers and Supervisors

Question	Statement	Current Job Role	N	Mean Rank	Mann-Whitney U	p-value*
E1	The class is quiet. / The class is noisy	Teacher	543	312.25	21854.00	6.301
		Supervisor	87	335.80		
E2	Pupils sit where they decide. / Pupils sit where I decide.	Teacher	544	321.42	20716.50	1.458
		Supervisor	87	282.12		
E3	Pupils move in class only with permission. / Pupils are free to move around in class.	Teacher	542	306.07	18737.50	0.018
		Supervisor	87	370.63		
E4	Pupils are free to speak in class. / Pupils speak in class only with permission.	Teacher	541	305.71	18775.50	0.058
		Supervisor	86	366.18		
E5	Pupils leave the class only with permission. / Pupils are free to leave the class whenever they like.	Teacher	543	304.78	17801.50	0.001
		Supervisor	87	382.39		
E6	I use the internet in class. / I use the chalk board in class.	Teacher	531	317.77	18704.50	0.045
		Supervisor	87	258.99		
E7	Pupils can only use the set book in class. / Pupils can bring more references into class if they want.	Teacher	540	302.49	17275.50	0.001
		Supervisor	87	385.43		
E8	I reward good behaviour. / I punish bad behaviour.	Teacher	544	304.99	17676.00	0.001
		Supervisor	87	384.83		
E9	I do not decorate the class. / I decorate the class.*	Teacher	538	317.62	20919.00	2.764
		Supervisor	87	284.45		
E10	I train my pupils to be responsible for class control and discipline. / I am responsible for class control and discipline.	Teacher	543	299.11	14722.00	0.001
		Supervisor	87	417.78		
E11	I record the bad behaviour of the pupils in class. / I do not record the bad behaviour of the pupils in class.	Teacher	546	308.68	19206.00	0.073
		Supervisor	87	369.24		
E12	The pupils are allowed to ask questions at any time during the lesson. / The pupils are only allowed to ask questions at the end of the lesson.	Teacher	544	307.85	19231.50	0.243
		Supervisor	85	360.75		
E13	I do not call pupils by their names in class. / I call pupils by their names in class.	Teacher	543	331.75	14796.50	0.001
		Supervisor	87	214.07		
E14	I always move while giving explanations in class. / I stand in front of the students while explaining matters in class.	Teacher	546	304.52	16937.00	0.001
		Supervisor	87	395.32		
E15	I always punish a naughty pupil promptly. / I try to deal with naughty pupils without confrontations.*	Teacher	543	319.06	21685.00	5.620
		Supervisor	87	293.25		
E16	I use polite funny remarks while giving explanations in class. / I am strict and serious while giving explanations in class.	Teacher	546	306.41	17971.50	0.003
		Supervisor	87	383.43		
E17	I give homework for the students during class. / Pupils choose their homework at the end of the class.	Teacher	543	302.42	16518.00	0.001
		Supervisor	87	397.14		
E18	I ask the pupils to manage their presence and absence process themselves. / I manage the presence and absence of the pupils myself.	Teacher	538	320.49	19371.00	0.163
		Supervisor	87	266.66		
E19	The communication channel in class is from the teacher to the pupil. / The communication channel in class is from the teacher to the pupil and	Teacher	544	323.53	19568.50	0.197
		Supervisor	87	268.93		
E20	My major responsibility in class is to help the pupils to develop themselves. / My major responsibility in class is to transfer knowledge	Teacher	542	303.87	17542.00	0.002
		Supervisor	87	384.37		
E21	My aim in class is to finish the curriculum on time. / My aim in class is to help the pupil to understand the curriculum .*	Teacher	546	333.34	14829.50	0.001
		Supervisor	87	214.45		
E22	In class, I focus on how the pupils learn. / In class, I focus on what the pupils learn.	Teacher	545	309.06	19651.00	0.333
		Supervisor	86	360.00		
E23	In class, I concentrate on the cognitive side. / In class, I concentrate on the skills side.*	Teacher	542	325.70	17779.50	0.004
		Supervisor	87	248.36		
E24	I conduct class tests to determine the degree of the pupils' progress. / I conduct class tests to determine the success or failure of the pupils.	Teacher	544	304.39	17346.00	0.001
		Supervisor	87	388.62		
E25	I use the exercises in the set books in class. / I ask the pupils to bring their own books.	Teacher	542	304.80	18046.00	0.005
		Supervisor	87	378.57		
E26	I teach outside the curriculum if the pupils ask questions outside the curriculum. / I keep strictly to the curriculum.	Teacher	547	308.60	18925.50	0.042
		Supervisor	87	373.47		
E27	My aim in class is to make the pupils acquire the content in quantity. / My aim in class is to encourage pupils to make as much progress as	Teacher	545	325.89	18592.50	0.023
		Supervisor	87	257.71		

* Bonferroni correction applied to p values.

Although the differences between the two groups have been highlight, the statistical significance of these differences has not been tested. Table 6.25 shows the comparison between teachers and supervisors on each statement. Figure 6.6, and Tables 6.24 and 6.25 should be examine together to fully understand the differences and similarities between the responses of teachers and supervisors. Out of the 27 statements, 17 showed statistically significant differences between teachers and supervisors. For 12 of these 17 statements both teachers and supervisors average values were below 3 (the neutral point); 2 statements were above the neutral point and for 3 statements they held opposing views (i.e. on the opposite side of the neutral point). The overall average for all 27 statements for teachers and supervisors is 2.58 and 2.64 respectively. There was no statistically significant differences on the overall averages with a t value of 1.34 and a p value of 0.181 (>0.05).

In preceding section we have analysed the 27 statements by looking at some descriptive statistics that helped us to describe a typical classroom from the perspective of teachers and supervisors. We also examine the statements individually and overall to see if there are differences between teachers and supervisors. In the next section we try to create scales using factor analysis from the 27 statements.

6.3.6 Factors Analysis

The determinant of the matrix was 0.011, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.78 and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant p=0.001 (<0.05). These indicate that satisfactory factor analysis can proceed. The cut off loading for statements was set at 0.25 compared to the previous factor analysis were the cut off was 0.3. If we used the same cut off of 0.3 the first two statements did not have any loading on any of the 3 component, a decision was made to reduce the loading to 0.25. Table 6.26 highlights which items are included in each of the three extracted components. However, these three

components explain just over 31% of the variance in the 27 statements. Nevertheless, it is still possible to form scales. Component 1 can be seen as containing items that relate to content focused teaching, the items in component 2 relate to pupil focussed teaching, and those in component 3 to orderly classroom.

Table 6.26: Extracted Components

Statements	Components		
	1	2	3
Pupils sit where they decide.	0.259		
I use the internet in class.	0.288		
I do not decorate the class.	0.475		
I do not call pupils by their names in class.	0.654		
I always punish a naughty pupil promptly.	0.500		
I ask the pupils to manage their presence and absence process themselves.	0.426		
The communication channel in class is from the teacher to the pupil.	0.626		
My aim in class is to finish the curriculum on time.	0.725		
In class, I concentrate on the cognitive side.	0.641		
My aim in class is to make the pupils acquire the content in quantity.	0.603		
I reward good behaviour.		0.442	
I train my pupils to be responsible for class control and discipline.		0.589	
I record the bad behaviour of the pupils in class.		0.405	
The pupils are allowed to ask questions at any time during the lesson.		0.431	
I always move while giving explanations in class.		0.462	
I use polite funny remarks while giving explanations in class.		0.598	
My major responsibility in class is to help the pupils to develop themselves.		0.600	
In class, I focus on how the pupils learn.		0.347	
I conduct class tests to determine the degree of the pupils' progress.		0.565	
I use the exercises in the set books in class.		0.431	
I teach outside the curriculum if the pupils ask questions outside the curriculum.		0.519	
The class is quiet.			0.441
Pupils move in class only with permission.			0.622
Pupils are free to speak in class.			0.536
Pupils leave the class only with permission.			0.530
Pupils can only use the set book in class.			0.569
I give homework for the students during class.			0.561

6.3.6.1 Reliability analysis of the three extracted components

The Cronbach's Alphas of the extracted components are 0.73, 0.65 and 0.53 for components 1, 2 and 3 respectively. If items are deleted, the Cronbach's Alpha does not change significantly (see Table 6.27).

Table 6.27: Item-Total Statistics

Components / Items	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Component 1:				
Pupils sit where they decide.	31.67	55.368	0.195	0.736
I use the internet in class.	30.49	56.678	0.221	0.727
I do not decorate the class.	31.39	52.546	0.347	0.710
I do not call pupils by their names in class.	30.40	51.029	0.515	0.685
I always punish a naughty pupil promptly.	31.40	53.053	0.336	0.712
I ask the pupils to manage their presence and absence process themselves.	30.88	52.993	0.337	0.712
The communication channel in class is from the teacher to the pupil.	31.19	50.645	0.450	0.693
My aim in class is to finish the curriculum on time.	31.02	48.572	0.553	0.676
In class, I concentrate on the cognitive side.	31.44	50.842	0.456	0.693
My aim in class is to make the pupils acquire the content in quantity.	31.13	50.772	0.466	0.691
Component 2:				
I reward good behaviour.	22.35	51.487	0.275	0.709
I train my pupils to be responsible for class control and discipline.	22.11	47.982	0.438	0.686
I record the bad behaviour of the pupils in class.	22.04	50.156	0.316	0.704
The pupils are allowed to ask questions at any time during the lesson.	21.94	50.214	0.270	0.712
I always move while giving explanations in class.	22.37	50.016	0.348	0.699
I use polite funny remarks while giving explanations in class.	22.15	47.761	0.454	0.683
My major responsibility in class is to help the pupils to develop themselves.	22.01	47.595	0.447	0.684
In class, I focus on how the pupils learn.	21.88	49.992	0.287	0.709
I conduct class tests to determine the degree of the pupils' progress.	22.11	47.683	0.467	0.682
I use the exercises in the set books in class.	22.21	49.470	0.369	0.696
I teach outside the curriculum if the pupils ask questions outside the curriculum.	21.77	49.236	0.328	0.703
Component 3:				
The class is quiet.	8.97	11.442	0.340	0.556
Pupils move in class only with permission.	9.13	10.606	0.445	0.510
Pupils are free to speak in class.	8.97	10.983	0.390	0.534
Pupils leave the class only with permission.	9.61	12.509	0.357	0.558
Pupils can only use the set book in class.	8.93	11.296	0.219	0.620
I give homework for the students during class.	9.09	11.644	0.319	0.564

As the Cronbach's Alphas are reasonable, it is now possible to look at the three scales formed and determine if the views of teachers and supervisors are similar or different. Descriptive statistics for the three scales showing mean, standard error of mean and sample size for both teachers and supervisors are shown in Table 6.28.

For all three scales the views of teachers and supervisors were significantly different at the 5% level. Thus, although teachers believe that they provide content focused teaching the supervisors do not appear to agree. However, supervisors are of the opinion that teachers provide greater pupil focused teaching and operate orderly classrooms to a greater degree than do the teachers themselves. These findings are presented in Table 6.29, along with the

effect sizes. Negative value of effect size indicates that on average the score for supervisors are higher than that for teachers.

Table 6.28: Mean, Standard Error of Mean, Standard Deviation and Sample Size for Teachers and Supervisors for the Three Scales Formed

	Current Job Role							
	Teacher				Supervisor			
Scales	Mean	Std. Error of Mean	Std. Deviation	N	Mean	Std. Error of Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Content focused teaching	0.094	0.045	0.991	486	-.548	0.096	0.874	83
Pupil focused teaching	-0.085	0.044	0.967	486	.500	0.115	1.050	83
Orderly classroom	-0.059	0.045	1.002	486	.343	0.101	0.922	83

Table 6.29: Comparison between Teachers and Supervisors for the Three Scales

Scales	Current Job Role	N	Mean Rank	Mann-Whitney U	p-value	Effect Size
Content focused teaching	Teacher	486	302.44	11691.00	0.001	0.636
	Supervisor	83	182.86			
Pupil focused teaching	Teacher	486	270.93	13329.00	0.001	-0.581
	Supervisor	83	367.41			
Orderly classroom	Teacher	486	274.24	14941.00	0.001	-0.418
	Supervisor	83	347.99			

Table 6.30: Extracted Components from E

Components	Cronbach's Alpha
1	0.733
2	0.652
3	0.532

In preceding sections we have analysed the 27 statements by looking at some descriptive statistics that helped us to describe a typical classroom from the perspective of teachers and supervisors. We also examine the statements individually and overall to see if there are differences between teachers and supervisors. In the last section we tried to create scales using factor analysis from the 27 statements. Three factors were extracted and together they account for only 31% of the variance of the 27 statements. Because the three extracted factors accounts for only 31% of the variance of the 27 statements is not appropriate to carry out any

further analysis on the scales extracted using statements in E. In the next few section the researcher concentrate on the scales extracted using A, B, C and D because the components extracted accounts for 68% of the variance in the statement unlike the scales in e that accounts for only 31%.

6.4 DATA ANALYSIS IN RELATION TO THE THIRD RESEARCH QUESTION

This section looks at the data from the questionnaire that helps answer the third research question: Are there statistically significance differences between teachers' classroom management in terms of the following variables: degree of qualifications, years of experience, training programme in classroom management, and subject taught?

To answer this question, the scales from the questionnaire will be used. The reason for this is the high number of questions and data makes the individual analysis inefficient. By concentrating on the scales the spurious problems of statistically significant results will be reduced and a more focused set of results will be generated. A total of four scales were formed one each from A, B, C and D. For the scales formed from the questions see section 6.2.5. The analysis of the four scales for each demographic factor is presented in the following sections.

Dreder (2005) and Pallant (2001) argue that detecting the statistically significant differences among study groups may not be sufficient as it ignores the aspect of the effect of size and therefore how to account for it. Furthermore, Asyad (1988) emphasises the fact that the statistical significance is an essential but not sufficient condition on which to make a correct educational decision.

According to Coe (2004:81) the type of effect sizes which is based on means "focus mainly on the standardised mean difference, i.e. the difference between the mean values for two

groups, divided by an estimate of the population standard deviation". According to Balckheor (2000) and Coe (2004) the pooled standard deviation is recommended to achieve the best estimate of standard deviation as the result will be more accurate than in case of using estimate standard deviation. Thus, effect size is calculated using the following formula

Effect Size = ((Mean of Group1)–(Mean of Group2))/Pooled Standard Deviation

To understand the interpretation of values of standardized mean difference, Cohen (1988) considers that: Small effect = 0.2, Medium effect = 0.5, Large effect = 0.8.

In two of the four scales (class performance and class evaluation) the views of teachers and educational supervisors were significantly different at the 5% level, while for the other there was no statistically significant difference. The effect sizes of 0.33 (class performance) and 0.35 (class evaluation) indicate that the average teacher score is higher than the average supervisor score by 33% and 35% (Table 6.23). For Organising Objects and Materials the effect size was 0.18 and for Organising Teachers and students role it was only 0.05.

6.4.1 Degree of qualifications

The descriptive statistics of the four scales according to qualifications are shown in Table 6.31. For graduates with an educational degree the maximum average was 0.111 and the minimum was minus 0.02. For graduates without an educational degree the corresponding figures are 0.191 and minus 0.366. The data are represented in Figure 6.7, which highlights that graduates with an educational degree have a higher average than graduates without an educational degree on all the scales except on Organising Objects and Materials. However, for most of the scales there is no statistically significant difference except for Class Performance in which graduates with an educational degree have a statistically significant higher average of 0.111 than graduates without an educational degree with an average of

minus 0.366, with t = 2.447 and p = 0.018 (<0.05)). The effect size is 0.433. After applying

Bonferroni correction p=0.072 (>0.05).

Table 6.31: Descriptive Statistics of Scales by Qualifications

Item	Scales	Qualifications	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	p value	Effect Size
A	Organising Objects and Materials	University graduate & educational degree	407	-0.020	0.973	0.048	-1.455	0.146	-0.212
		University graduate & non-educational degree	51	0.191	1.019	0.143			
B	Organising Teacher and Students, Role	University graduate & educational degree	407	0.023	1.010	0.050	1.188	0.235	0.172
		University graduate & non-educational degree	51	-0.157	1.074	0.150			
C	Class Performance	University graduate & educational degree	407	0.111	0.844	0.042	2.447	0.018	0.433
		University graduate & non-educational degree	51	-0.366	1.359	0.190			
D	Class Evaluation	University graduate & educational degree	407	0.069	0.955	0.047	0.103	0.918	0.015
		University graduate & non-educational degree	51	0.054	0.985	0.138			
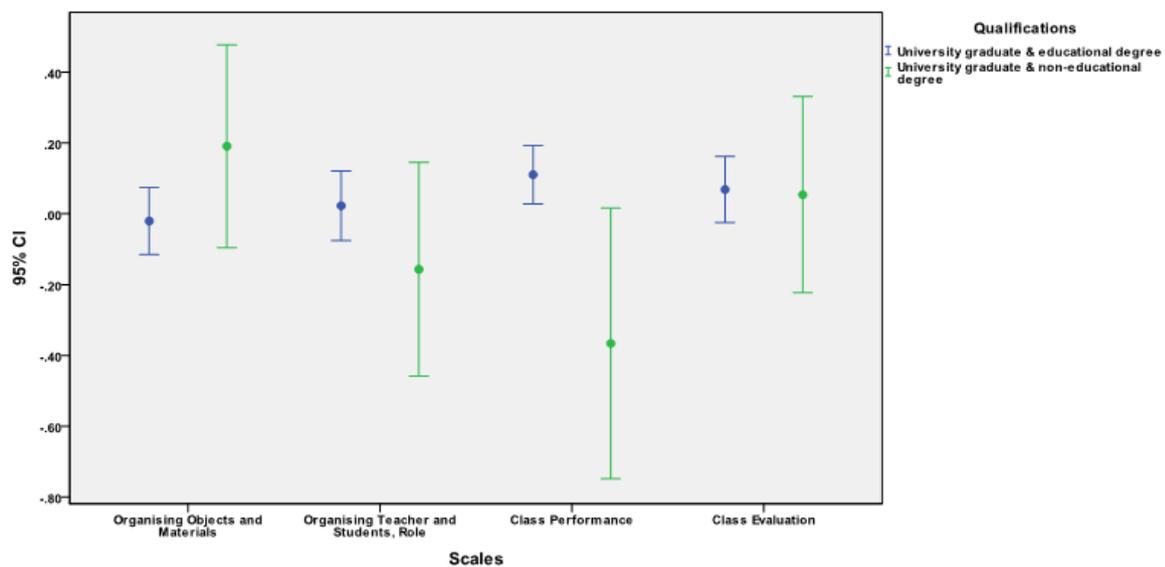
Figure 6.7: Mean and 95% CI of Standard Error of Mean for Scales by Qualifications

6.4.2 Years of Experience

The descriptive statistics of the four scales according to years of experience are shown in

Table 6.32, while Figure 6.8 shows 95% CI of the mean for all four scales. On the four scales,

the maximum average value for teachers with 5 years or less of experience is 0.20 for Class

performance while their minimum average value is minus 0.287 for Organising Objects and

Materials. The corresponding figures for teachers with over to 10 years' experience are 0.101

for Class Evaluation and minus 0.041 for Organising Object and Materials. For teachers with

11 years and over of experience the maximum average value of 0.159 on Organising Object

and Materials and minimum average value of 0.009 on Organising Teachers and Students' Roles.

To find out if there is a statistical significant difference on scales by years of experience One-way ANOVA was used because there are three groups in years of experience. For the scales B, C and D there was no statistically significant difference according to years of experience with p values of 0.922, 0.261 and 0.697 respectively. However, for the scale Organising Objects and Materials there is statistically significant difference according to years of experience with an F value of 7.143 and p value of 0.001 (<0.05).

To pinpoint where the difference lies, further analysis using Tukey multiple comparison test was performed. This indicates that teachers with 11 years and over of experience have a significantly higher average than teachers with 5 years or less of experience ($p = 0.001$ (<0.05)) with an effect size of 0.464. There was no difference between teachers with 6 to 10 years and 11 years and over experience $p = 0.155$ (>0.05) with an effect size of 0.205 or between 5 years or less and 6 to 10 years' experience $p=0.177$ (>0.05) with an effect size of 0.250 (Table 6.33).

Table 6.32: Descriptive Statistics of Scales by Years of Experience

Item	Statement	Experience in years	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	p value
A	Organising Objects and Materials	5 years or less	84	-0.287	0.977	7.143	0.001
		6 to10 years	116	-0.041	0.998		
		11 years & over	259	0.159	0.948		
B	Organising Teacher and Students, Role	5 years or less	84	0.021	1.016	0.081	0.922
		6 to10 years	116	-0.031	1.054		
		11 years & over	259	0.009	1.007		
C	Class Performance	5 years or less	84	0.200	0.814	1.346	0.261
		6 to10 years	116	0.030	0.938		
		11 years & over	259	0.010	0.971		
D	Class Evaluation	5 years or less	84	0.090	1.024	0.361	0.697
		6 to10 years	116	0.101	0.940		
		11 years & over	259	0.019	0.968		
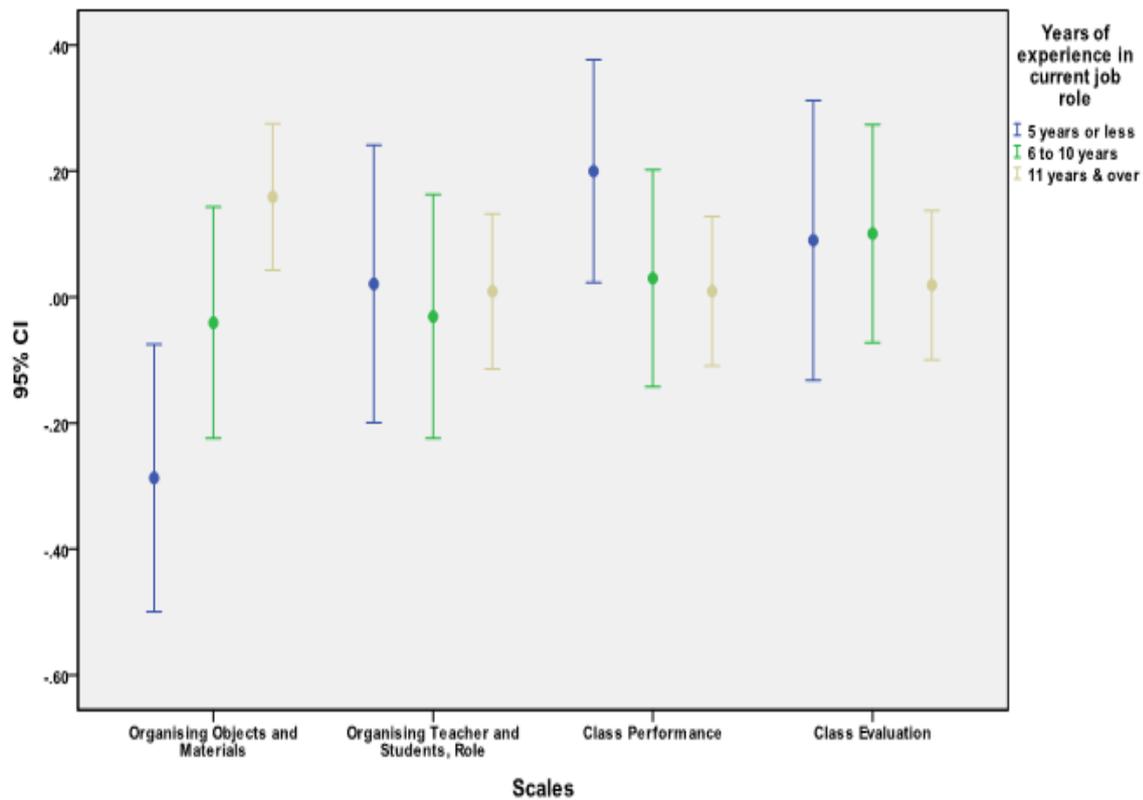
Figure 6.8: Mean and 95% CI of Standard Error of Mean for Scales by Years of Experience

Table 6.33: Multiple Comparisons for Organising Objects and Materials according to Years of Experience

Years of experience in current job role (I)	Years of experience in current job role (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	p value	Effect Size
5 years or less	6 to 10 years	-0.246	0.138	0.177	-0.250
	11 years & over	-0.446	0.121	0.001	-0.464
6 to 10 years	5 years or less	0.246	0.138	0.177	-0.250
	11 years & over	-0.200	0.108	0.155	-0.205
11 years & over	5 years or less	0.446	0.121	0.001	-0.464
	6 to 10 years	0.200	0.108	0.155	-0.205

6.4.3 Experience of Training Programmes in Classroom Management

Table 6.34 shows the descriptive statistics of those respondents that have received training in classroom management and those who have not. Those who have received training have their maximum average value of 0.145 on Class Evaluation and their minimum average value of 0.048 on Class Performance. For those with no training on classroom management their

maximum average value was 0.073 for Classroom Performance and minimum average value of minus 0.048 on Organising Teachers' and Students' Roles. Figure 6.9 show the average with 95% CI of all the four scales. Generally teachers who have received training in Classroom Management have a higher average across most of the scales except for Class Performance. However across the four scales, no statistically significant difference was found between those with training and those without training: for A, $t = 0.808$, $p = 0.419$ (>0.05), effect size=0.075; for B, $t = 1.351$, $p = 0.177$ (>0.05), effect size=0.126; for C, $t =$ minus 0.292, $p = 0.770$ (>0.05), effect size=0.028 ; and for D, $t = 1.950$, $p = 0.052$ (>0.05), effect size=0.182.

Table 6.34: Descriptive Statistics of Scales by Training Programmes in Classroom Management

Item	Statement	Training programmes in classroom management	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	p value	Effect Size
A	Organising Objects and Materials	Received training programmes in classroom management	210	0.058	0.890	0.061	0.808	0.419	0.075
		Received NO training programmes in classroom management	251	-0.014	1.041	0.066			
B	Organising Teacher and Students, Role	Received training programmes in classroom management	210	0.079	0.925	0.064	1.351	0.177	0.126
		Received NO training programmes in classroom management	251	-0.048	1.084	0.068			
C	Class Performance	Received training programmes in classroom management	210	0.048	0.857	0.059	-0.292	0.770	-0.028
		Received NO training programmes in classroom management	251	0.073	0.982	0.062			
D	Class Evaluation	Received training programmes in classroom management	210	0.145	0.846	0.058	1.950	0.052	0.182
		Received NO training programmes in classroom management	251	-0.028	1.050	0.066			
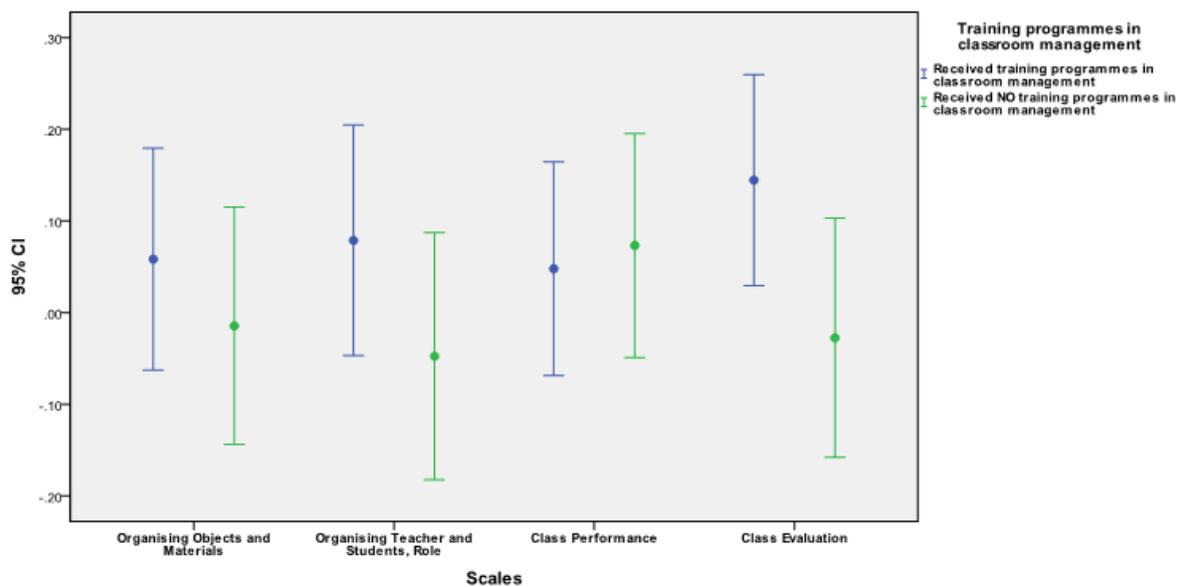
Figure 6.9: Mean and 95% CI of Standard Error of Mean for Scales by Training Programmes in Classroom Management

6.4.4 Subject Taught

Table 6.35: Descriptive Statistics of Scales by Subject

Item	Statement	Subject	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	F	p value
A	Organising Objects and Materials	Religion	247	0.037	0.955	0.061	0.345	0.913
		Arabic Language	87	0.012	1.071	0.115		
		Mathematics	68	-0.052	0.898	0.109		
		English Language	5	-0.126	1.507	0.674		
		History and Geography	33	0.114	1.080	0.188		
		Science	27	-0.024	1.042	0.200		
		other	4	-0.518	0.779	0.389		
B	Organising Teacher and Students, Role	Religion	247	-0.036	1.006	0.064	0.761	0.601
		Arabic Language	87	0.021	1.080	0.116		
		Mathematics	68	0.124	1.063	0.129		
		English Language	5	-0.068	0.951	0.425		
		History and Geography	33	0.248	0.966	0.168		
		Science	27	-0.218	0.819	0.158		
		other	4	0.023	0.651	0.325		
C	Class Performance	Religion	247	0.010	1.011	0.064	0.858	0.526
		Arabic Language	87	0.002	1.036	0.111		
		Mathematics	68	0.282	0.542	0.066		
		English Language	5	0.176	0.501	0.224		
		History and Geography	33	0.046	0.723	0.126		
		Science	27	0.059	0.721	0.139		
		other	4	-0.155	1.706	0.853		
D	Class Evaluation	Religion	247	0.060	0.940	0.060	2.071	0.055
		Arabic Language	87	-0.042	1.091	0.117		
		Mathematics	68	-0.025	0.950	0.115		
		English Language	5	0.168	0.750	0.335		
		History and Geography	33	0.498	0.855	0.149		
		Science	27	0.070	0.795	0.153		
		other	4	-0.896	1.142	0.571		

Descriptive statistics of the four scales by subject is shown in Table 6.35, while Figure 6.10 shows 95% CI of standard error of mean for the four scales by subject taught. For respondents who taught religion the maximum average value of 0.06 was for Class Evaluation and the minimum average value of minus 0.036 was for Organising Teachers' and Students' Roles. For respondents who taught Arabic language the maximum average (0.021) was for Organising Teachers' and Students' Roles and the minimum average value of minus 0.042 for Class Evaluation.
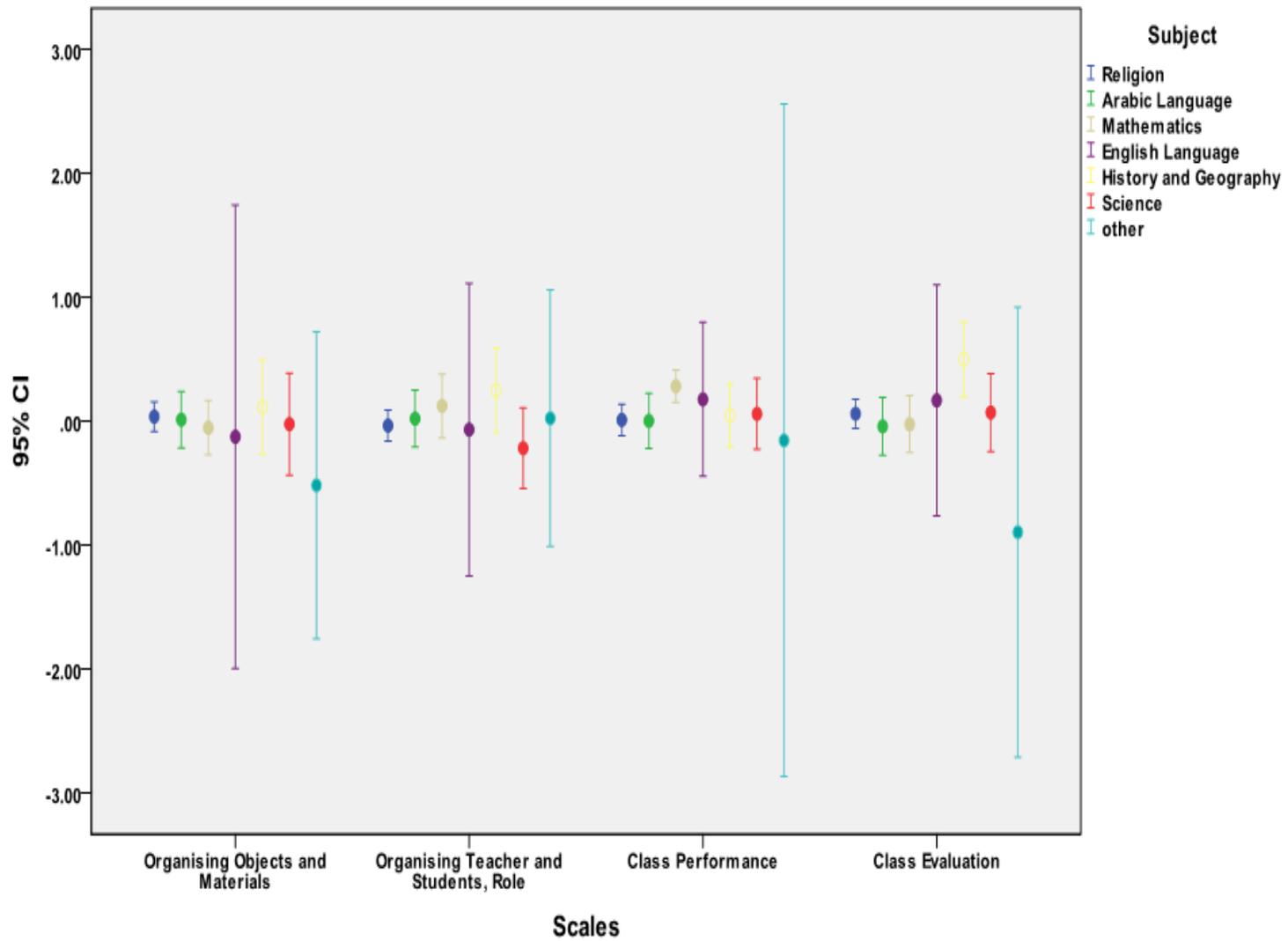
Figure 6.10: Mean and 95% CI of Standard Error of Mean for Scales by Subject

For mathematics, the maximum average value of 0.282 was for Class Performance and the minimum value for Organising Objects and Materials with an average of minus 0.052.The results also indicate that none of the four scales is statistically significantly different by subject: for A, $F = 0.345$, $p = 0.913$ (>0.05); for B, $F = 0.761$, $p = 0.601$ (>0.05); for C, $F =$ minus 0.858, $p = 0.526$ (>0.05); and for D, $F = 2.071$, $p = 0.055$ (>0.05)

6.4.5 Location of School

Table 6.36: Descriptive Statistics of Scales by Location of School

Item	Statement	Location of School	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	F	p Value
A	Organising Objects and Materials	North	20	-0.097	0.895	0.200	0.5	0.808
		South	53	-0.074	1.020	0.140		
		West	82	0.023	0.902	0.100		
		East	93	-0.002	0.976	0.101		
		Central	84	-0.021	0.964	0.105		
		Rwabi	127	0.101	1.054	0.093		
		Rodah	6	0.463	1.171	0.478		
B	Organising Teacher and Students, Role	North	20	0.050	0.910	0.203	0.137	0.991
		South	53	0.075	0.837	0.115		
		West	82	-0.058	1.160	0.128		
		East	93	0.015	0.975	0.101		
		Central	84	0.004	1.054	0.115		
		Rwabi	127	-0.025	1.021	0.091		
		Rodah	6	0.144	0.573	0.234		
C	Class Performance	North	20	-0.247	1.300	0.291	1.514	0.172
		South	53	-0.067	0.998	0.137		
		West	82	-0.068	0.993	0.110		
		East	93	0.253	0.647	0.067		
		Central	84	0.115	0.929	0.101		
		Rwabi	127	0.031	0.993	0.088		
		Rodah	6	0.138	0.402	0.164		
D	Class Evaluation	North	20	-0.143	1.142	0.255	0.376	0.894
		South	53	0.031	1.115	0.153		
		West	82	0.107	1.007	0.111		
		East	93	-0.019	0.981	0.102		
		Central	84	0.057	0.939	0.103		
		Rwabi	127	0.123	0.888	0.079		
		Rodah	6	0.103	0.367	0.150		
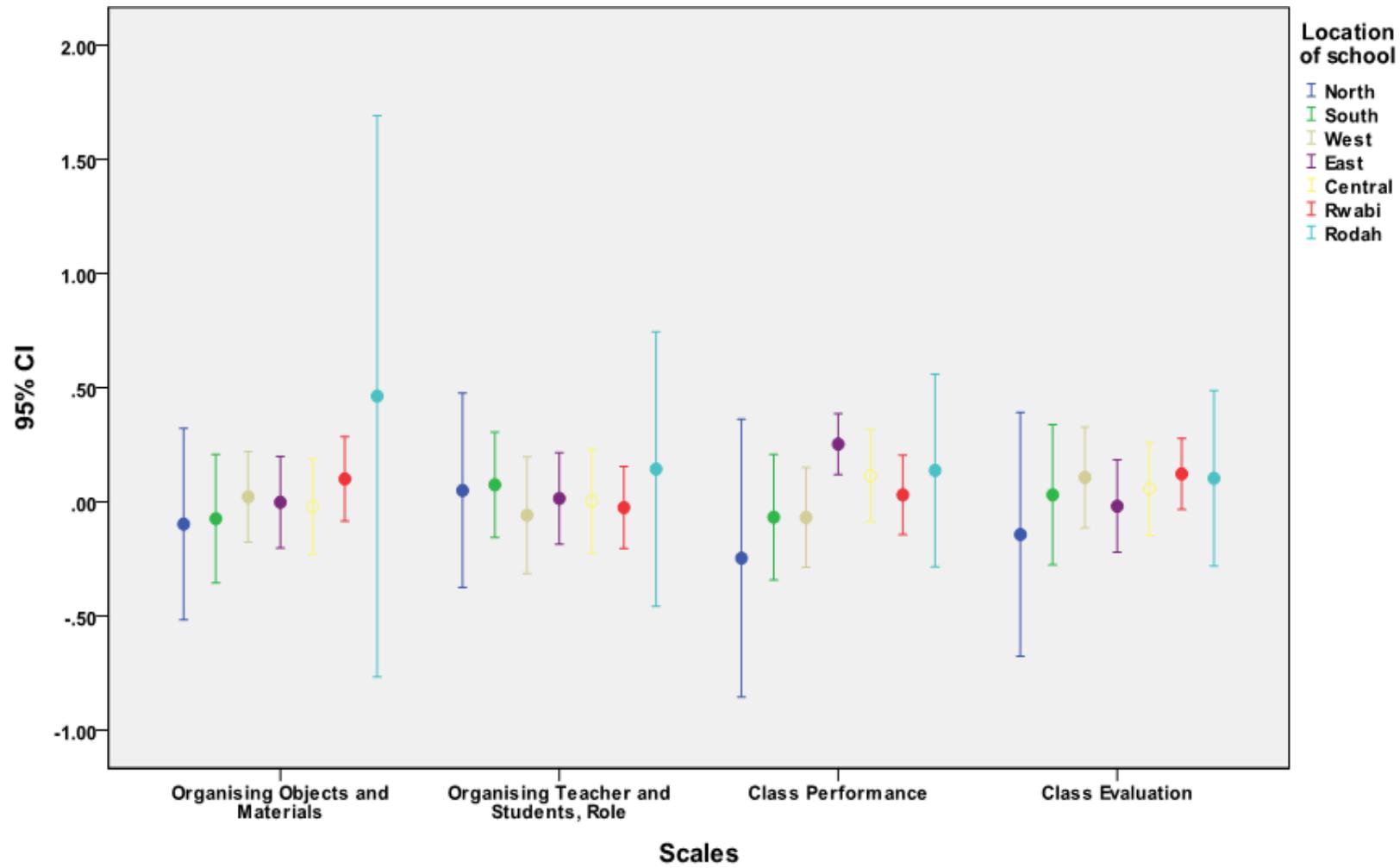
Figure 6.11: Mean and 95% CI of Standard Error of Mean for Scales by Location of School.

Descriptive statistics according to the location of the respondents is shown in Table 6.36, while Figure 6.11 shows 95% CI of standard error of mean for the four scales by location. As with subject taught, there was no statistically significant difference according to location. The p values are all greater than 0.05. For example the F value for Class Performance is 1.54 with a p value of 0.172 (>0.05).

6.5 DATA ANALYSIS IN RELATION TO THE FOURTH RESEARCH QUESTION

This section uses the data to answer the fourth research question, namely: Are there any statistical significant differences between teachers and educational supervisors resulting from the changes in the variables: the job, degree of qualifications, years of experience, training programme in classroom management, and subject taught?

In order to answer the question the researcher used scales that were previously developed and interactions were assessed using Two-Way ANOVA.

6.5.1 Organising Objects and Materials

The results of the Two-Way ANOVA for the scale Organising Objects and Materials are shown in Table 6.37. None of the main effects or two-way interactions is significant. For example the main effect of job with an F value of 0.873 and p value of 0.740 (<0.05) has no effect on Organising Objects and Materials. This conclusion is the same to the one on table 6.23. Similarly the interaction effect of job and qualification has no effect. Table 6.37also show eta squared (under column effect size) for each factor and two-way interactions. Cohen also offers a conversion table for eta squared (η^2) where 0.0099 constitutes a small effect, 0.0588 a medium effect and 0.1379 a large effect. Following the cut-off values from Cohen it is clear that most of the effect sizes are small except for school with a medium effect size of 0.013.

Table 6.37: Main and Two Way Interaction Effects of Factors on Organising Objects and Materials

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p value	Effect Size
Corrected Model	25.602	32	.800	.826	.740	.053
Intercept	1.147	1	1.147	1.184	.277	.002
Job	.846	1	.846	.873	.350	.002
Qualification	.011	1	.011	.011	.916	.000
Experience	4.082	2	2.041	2.107	.123	.009
School	6.110	6	1.018	1.051	.391	.013
Programmes	.533	1	.533	.550	.459	.001
Subject	4.233	6	.705	.728	.627	.009
Job*Qualification	.216	1	.216	.223	.637	.000
Job*Experience	.228	2	.114	.118	.889	.000
Job*School	4.600	5	.920	.950	.448	.010
Job*Programmes	.676	1	.676	.698	.404	.001
Job*Subject	3.008	6	.501	.518	.795	.006
Error	460.090	475	.969			
Total	485.800	508				
Corrected Total	485.691	507				

6.5.2 Organising Teacher' and Students' Roles

The results of the Two-Way ANOVA tests for Organising Teachers' and Students' Roles are shown in Table 6.38 None of the main effects is significant for example there is no significant difference on this scale with current job role just as we saw on table 6.23; and just one of the two-way interactions is significant, namely the interaction between job and training programme with an F value of 4.179 and p value of 0.041 (<0.05).

Table 6.38: Main and Two Way Interaction Effects of Factors on Organising Teachers' and Students' Roles

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p value	Effect Size
Corrected Model	19.036	32	.595	.578	.970	.038
Intercept	.222	1	.222	.215	.643	.000
Job	.522	1	.522	.507	.477	.001
Qualification	2.259	1	2.259	2.197	.139	.005
Experience	.952	2	.476	.463	.630	.002
School	2.055	6	.342	.333	.920	.004
Programmes	1.209	1	1.209	1.176	.279	.002
Subject	1.003	6	.167	.163	.986	.002
Job*Qualification	.870	1	.870	.846	.358	.002
Job*Experience	.738	2	.369	.359	.699	.002
Job*School	1.693	5	.339	.329	.895	.003
Job*Programmes	4.298	1	4.298	4.179	.041	.009
Job*Subject	2.056	6	.343	.333	.919	.004
Error	488.530	475	1.028			
Total	507.601	508				
Corrected Total	507.566	507				

6.5.2.1. Job and training programme interaction

Figure 6.12 shows the interaction plot between job and training programme. Teachers who have received training in Classroom Management have a higher estimated marginal mean than supervisors who have received training in Classroom Management. The effect size of 0.009 for the interaction is very small according to Cohen. The estimated marginal mean is similar for both teachers and supervisors who have not received any training in Classroom Management.
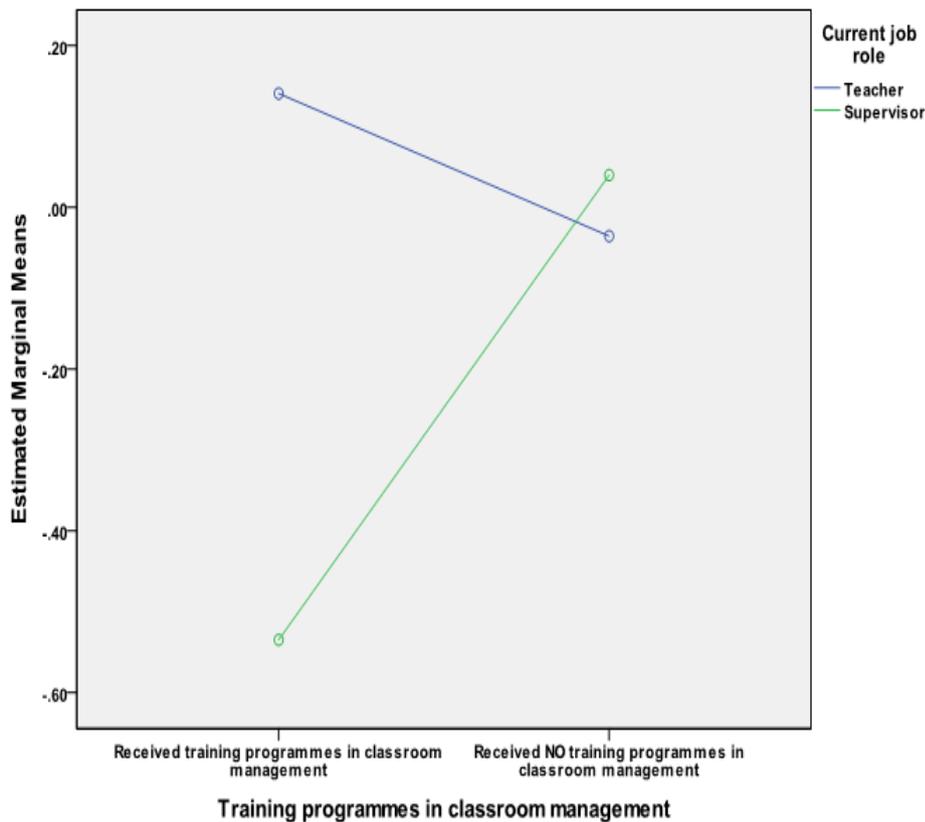
Figure 6.12: Job and Programme Interaction on Organising Teachers' and Students' Roles

6.5.3 Class Performance

The results of the Two-Way ANOVA for Class Performance are shown in Table 6.39. The table indicates that there are no statistically significant differences on the main factors of job, experience, and subject on Class Performance with F values of 0.041, 1.014, and 1.716 and associated p values of 0.840, 0.364 and 0.115 (all > 0.05) respectively. It worth pointing out that the finding here between current job role and class performance does not agree with the finding on table 6.23. This could be due to the present of other variables in the model. However, there are statically significant effects on the factors of qualification, school, and training programme with F values of 4.389, 2.541, and 8.022 and associated p values of 0.037, 0.020 and 0.005 (all < 0.05) respectively.

In terms of two-way effects, there are statistically significant interaction effects between job and each of school, training programme and subject taught with F values of 3.914, 6.744 and 2.695 with associated p values of 0.002, 0.010 and 0.014 (all < 0.05). To better understand the interaction effects the estimated marginal means are plotted in the three cases.

Table 6.39: Main and Two Way Interaction Effects of Factors on Class Performance

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p value	Effect Size
Corrected Model	62.735	32	1.960	2.074	.001	.123
Intercept	1.377	1	1.377	1.456	.228	.003
Job	.038	1	.038	.041	.840	.000
Qualification	4.150	1	4.150	4.389	.037	.009
Experience	1.917	2	.958	1.014	.364	.004
School	14.413	6	2.402	2.541	.020	.031
Programmes	7.584	1	7.584	8.022	.005	.017
Subject	9.736	6	1.623	1.716	.115	.021
Job*Qualification	.003	1	.003	.003	.955	.000
Job*Experience	.943	2	.471	.499	.608	.002
Job*School	18.501	5	3.700	3.914	.002	.040
Job*Programmes	6.376	1	6.376	6.744	.010	.014
Job*Subject	15.286	6	2.548	2.695	.014	.033
Error	449.106	475	.945			
Total	511.857	508				
Corrected Total	511.841	507				

6.5.3.1 Job and school interaction

Figure 6.13 shows the plot of the interaction effect between job and school location. The main feature of the plot is that in the East supervisors have a lower estimated marginal mean than teachers. For the remaining regions the estimated marginal means for teachers and supervisors are very similar. The effect size of 0.040 for the interaction between job and school is about medium according to Cohen.
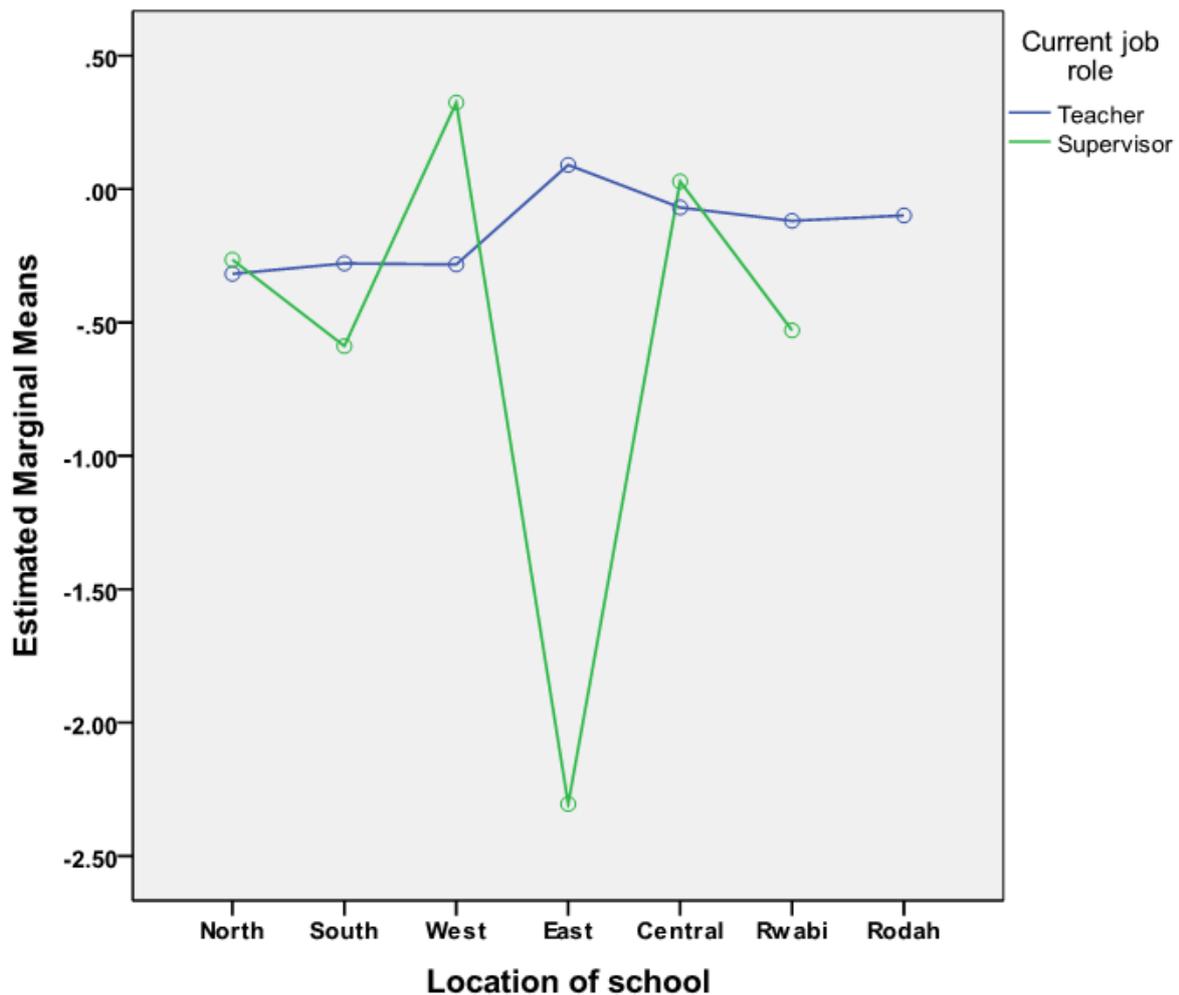
Figure 6.13: Job and School Interaction on Class Performance

6.5.3.2 Job and training programmes interaction

Figure 6.14 shows the plot of the interaction effect between job and training programmes. The main feature of the plot is that teachers who have received training in classroom management have a higher estimated marginal mean than supervisors who have received similar training. However, teachers who have received no training in classroom management have a lower estimated marginal mean than supervisors who have also not received any training classroom management. Again, the effect size of the interaction between job and programmes of 0.014 is small according to Cohen.
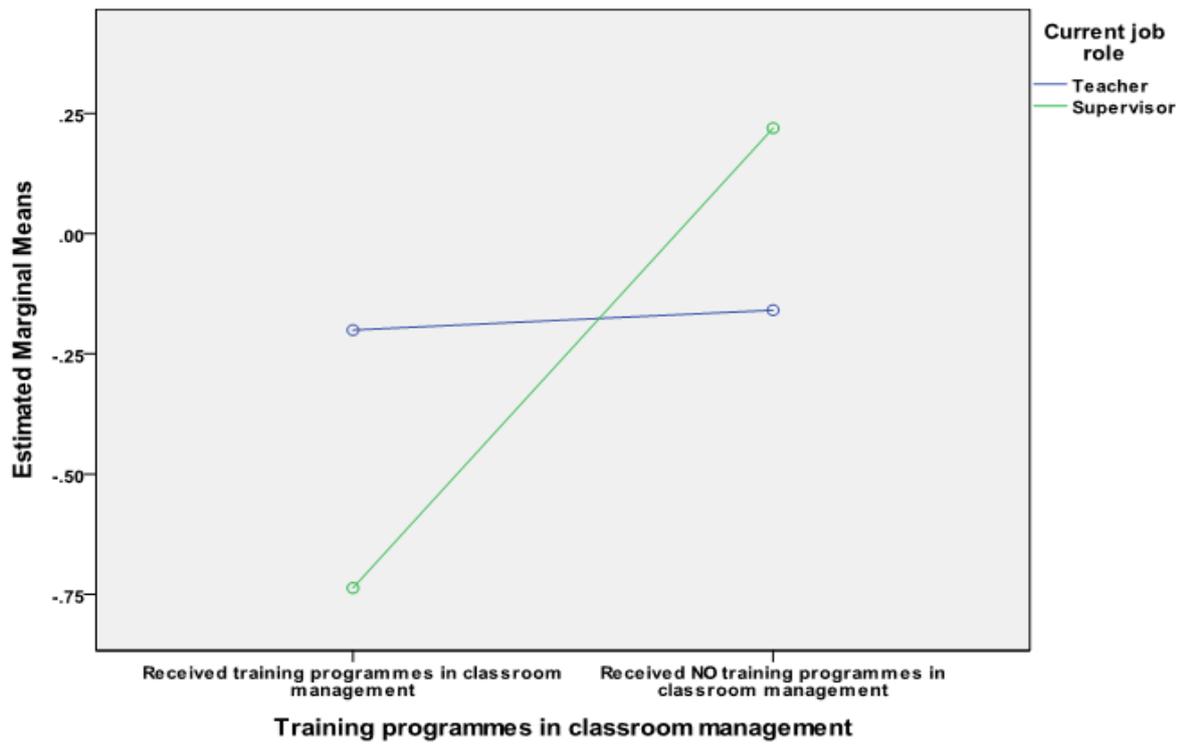
Figure 6.14: Job and Programmes Interaction on Class Performance

6.5.3.3 Job and subject interaction
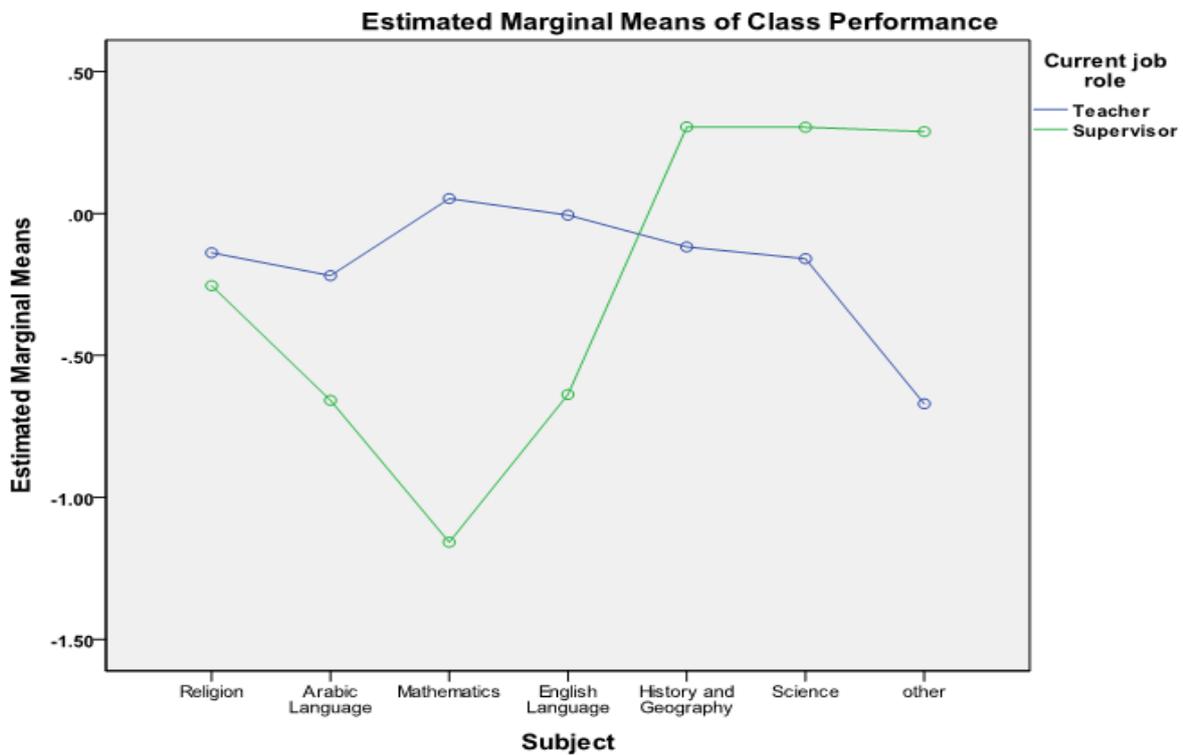
Figure 6.15: Job and Subject Interaction on Class Performance

Figure 6.15 shows the plot of the interaction effect between job and subject taught. The main feature of the plot is that for mathematics, religion, Arabic language and English language teachers the estimated marginal mean is higher than the estimated marginal mean for their equivalent supervisors while the reverse is true for history and geography, science and other. As with the two previous interactions, the effect size of the interaction between job and subject of 0.033 is about medium according to Cohen. .

6.5.4 Class Evaluation

The results of the Two-Way ANOVA for Class Evaluation are shown in Table 6.40. The table indicates that out of the 6 factors, only the main effect of experience on Class Evaluation is statistically significant with an F value of 3.249 and p value of 0.040 (<0.05). There is no statistically significant difference between class evaluation and current job role. This finding is different from the one on table 6.23 probably due to the other variables in the model. **Table 6.40 Main and Two-Way Interaction Effects of Factors on Class Evaluation**

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p value	Effect Size
Corrected Model	46.095	32	1.440	1.475	.048	.090
Intercept	1.370	1	1.370	1.403	.237	.003
Job	2.774	1	2.774	2.840	.093	.006
Qualification	.710	1	.710	.727	.394	.002
Experience	6.346	2	3.173	3.249	.040	.013
School	1.579	6	.263	.269	.951	.003
Programmes	.488	1	.488	.499	.480	.001
Subject	4.471	6	.745	.763	.599	.010
Job*Qualification	.880	1	.880	.901	.343	.002
Job*Experience	10.513	2	5.256	5.382	.005	.022
Job*School	1.180	5	.236	.242	.944	.003
Job*Programmes	.145	1	.145	.149	.700	.000
Job*Subject	9.651	6	1.608	1.647	.132	.020
Error	463.937	475	.977			
Total	510.087	508				
Corrected Total	510.032	507				
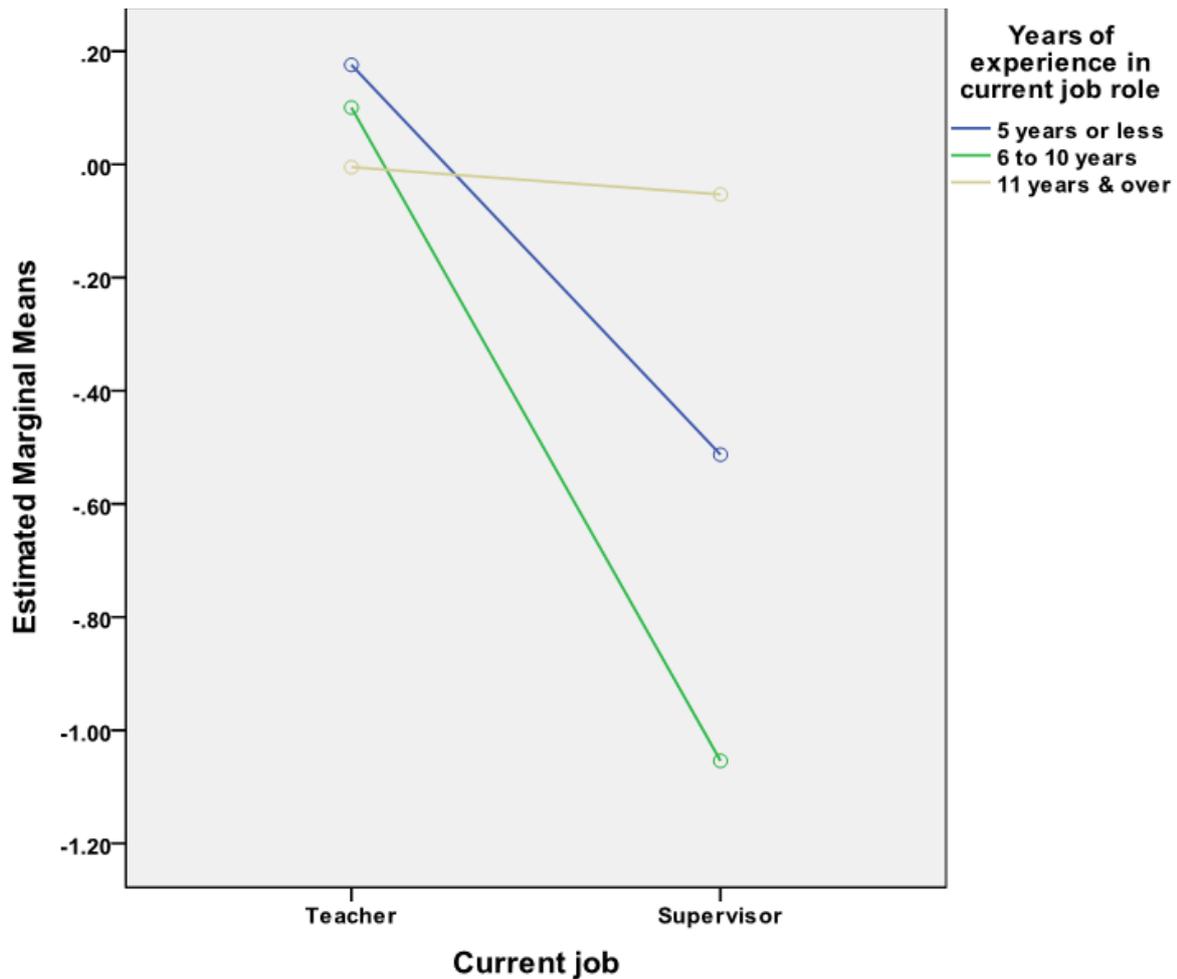
Figure 6.16 Job and Programme Interaction on Class Evaluation

All the two-way interactions except one are not statistically significant. Only the interaction between job and experience is statistically significant with an F value of 5.382 and p value of 0.005 (<0.05). To better understand the interaction effect the estimated marginal means are plotted in Figure 6.16 Teachers with 5 or less years' experience have a higher estimated marginal mean than supervisors with the same years of experience. This pattern is repeated for 10 years of experience where teachers have a higher estimated marginal means than supervisors. For 11 years and over the estimated marginal means are similar for both teachers and supervisors. The effect size for the significant main effect of experience and the interaction effect between job and experience are very small with values of 0.013 and 0.022 respectively and are both small according to Cohen..

6.6 DATA ANALYSIS IN RELATION TO THE FIFTH RESEARCH QUESTION

This section uses the data to answer the fifth research question, namely: What are the suggestions of the sample members (teachers and educational supervisors) for developing the approaches of classroom management and accordingly, curriculum and instruction for teachers in the upper classes in boys' primary schools? The relevant question in the questionnaire was open and therefore, unlike previous questions did not rely on any scale. This was because the aim was to give the opportunity to the respondents to give their opinion on the development of management approaches to help improve education in Saudi Arabia. As was expected, most of the suggestions were repeated. These can be displayed without the need to use any particular statistical technique. Instead the results obtained from participants in the questionnaire. The method of analysing data in this research question was through collecting clear and analysable answers and then classified into main groups and finally the comments will be added.

The points of view were collected by the researcher then grouped into seven general themes:

- Suggestions related to classrooms and buildings.

- Suggestions related to curricula.

- Suggestions related to teaching aids and technical equipment.

- Suggestions related to training courses on classroom management.

- Suggestions related to teachers' incentives (motivations) in classroom management.

- Suggestions related to educational supervisors approaches.

- Suggestions related to the culture of teacher-pupil-parents relationship.

6.6.1 Suggestions Related to Classrooms and School Buildings

The participants referred to many suggestions related to this theme, for example:

- ID50 ''to move freely in classroom, the number of pupils should be reasonable in relation to classroom area''.

- ID73 ''cooperative learning sometimes helps a lot in classroom management through groups, but in reality I can't perform this because the classroom is not suitable or equipped for this''.

- ID88 ''I have a 24-years teaching experience. The quality of school buildings and classes makes me frustrated; therefore Ministry of Education should modernise classes to catch up with modern countries''.

- ID120 ''I think the role of school management needs to be activated to make the classroom attractive and encourage the teacher and pupil to teach and learn''.

- ID420 ''I like to change the style of desks every now and then to change the classroom atmosphere but due to the inappropriate class area and over crowdedness I often use one style for desks arrangement. I hope Ministry of Education considers this''.

- ID30 ''I have 15-years teaching experience, yet, the educational supervisor never consulted me whether the class atmosphere is suitable for creation or not. Ministry of Education should consult teachers on the obstacles facing teacher in classroom management''.

- ID605 ''to be frank, the number of pupils per classroom is a problem that should be addressed and solved by Ministry of Education''.

It is clear from these points of view that the problem of overcrowded classrooms should be addressed. The statements all convey a message saying that classrooms, buildings and the surrounding environment should be sufficient to assist the effectiveness of classroom management.

6.6.2 Suggestions Related to Curricula

Concerning this theme, the participants recommended some suggestions, for example:

- ID56 ''the educational supervisor asks me to finish the curriculum despite its length especially when individual differences between pupils are considered. I hope this point is considered for it is important in my classroom management effectiveness''.

- ID97 ''School curricula have been developed recently, but I have not received any relevant training courses. I need training courses to help me develop my classroom management performance''.

- ID346 ''One of the points my educational supervisor evaluates me upon is to finish the curriculum in a fixed time which causes a lot of pressure that may affect my role in classroom management''.

- ID401 ''I think that having another teacher in classroom helps a lot in effective classroom management and in teaching''.

- ID251 ''I think recent developed curricula need much effort from the teachers because they need many activities and in turn a co teacher to help in classroom management''.

- ID103 ''The Ministry of Education decides and introduces curricula ignoring our points of view, because curricula play a role in successful of classroom management''.

- ID614 ''I have a 25-years supervising experience, the recently developed curricula are suitable for combining the cognitive and skill sides but the teachers were shocked at receiving no training. This in fact forces them to follow the traditional approaches of teaching and in turn the traditional classroom management approaches''.

The participants mentioned that having good classroom management necessitates a balance between quantity and quality when preparing, evaluating and developing curricula. In

addition, the teachers' points of view should be considered during the process. The suggestions also mentioned that full concentration on the knowledge side should not be at the expense of skills when preparing, evaluating and developing curricula.

6.6.3 Suggestions Related to Teaching Aids and Technical Equipment

The participants in this theme made a number of suggestions that may help develop the classroom management approaches practiced by teachers, for example:

- ID389 ''the school does not provide teaching aids that help in managing the classroom and I bring teaching aids myself. Therefore, we need the support of the school and Ministry of Education with regards to providing teaching aids and technical equipment''.

- ID259 ''I wish classrooms to be equipped one day with modern technical equipment that may help in teaching and classroom management''.

- ID134 ''I have been teaching in a rented school building. I ordered a long time ago a computer for every classroom to help improve class management but I received no answer, in the end I brought my own laptop to my classrooms''.

- ID264 ''When I use educational technology in classroom, I notice that the pupils are involved and attracted which in turn helps me manage the class. The pupils feel bored when one method is repeated. We have to vary the educational equipment used while managing the classroom''.

- ID49 ''School administration requires effective classroom management and, in turn, we need modern and well educationally equipped classroom to help us''.

- ID625 ''I have 10-years' experience in educational supervision. I noticed that most teachers bring and use their own teaching aids. It is high time to provide integrated

classrooms with modern technological teaching aids that strengthen the teaching chances and help change classroom management approaches''.

It can be noticed that the participants realize the need for and the importance of such teaching aids and technical equipment in assisting their classroom management and they have appealed to the Ministry of Education and school administrations to provide technological teaching aids in classrooms.

6.6.4 Suggestions Related to Training Courses on Classroom Management

The participants made suggestions that may help develop the theme of training courses on classroom management, for example:

- ID 223 ''I have considerable theoretical information on classroom management, but I need training to practice it''.

- ID 166 ''I joined many training courses on classroom management but they were theoretical not practical. We need amalgamation between the two sides''.

- ID 315 ''I think teachers need training courses on classroom management to be organised not only by educational supervisors but also by educational experts from abroad''.

- ID 23 ''I taught for ten years during which I received no invitation to attend any training course on classroom management from the educational supervision centre''.

- ID 61 ''I attended two training courses on classroom management, I tried to apply them but I did not succeed. I think teachers need such courses to be practical''.

- ID 126 ''I attended three training courses on classroom management run by an educational supervisor. I think the trainer should be well chosen to see the difference''.

- ID 627 ''I spent five years as an educational supervisor, I was asked to arrange courses on classroom management which is not my interest. I hope specialization or major is considered by my colleagues in the educational supervision''.

- ID 602 ''As an educational supervisor, I do my best to have training courses on classroom management and others related to teaching in developed countries in order to benefit from such courses in my job and provide the teachers I supervise with the experience needed but to tell the truth it is difficult to have these training courses''.

- ID 267 ''a large number of my colleague teachers suffer a lot from the teaching responsibilities and burdens. We want the Ministry of Education to make these burdens less to help us benefit from the training courses offered especially classroom management''.

- ID 151 ''I need translated references and workshops on modern approaches on classroom management''.

It is clear that the participants believe that they need training courses on classroom management. Furthermore, they stress the importance of practice and the practical sides with due attention to choosing the trainer. The participants look forward to making use of modern approaches on classroom management adopted from advanced countries, as well as the need for translated references and sending some teachers and educational supervisors abroad.

6.6.5 Suggestions Related to Teachers' Incentives in Classroom Management

Some participants think that incentives are helpful in promoting the effectiveness of classroom management, for example:

- ID47 ''I received a Thank You Letter' from the Educational Supervision Centre because I was good at my classroom management; this, in fact, was an incentive to do my best''.

- ID610 ''the educational supervisor admired my classroom management and decided to promote me as a supervisor to help other teachers benefit from my experience. I recommend Ministry of Education arrange workshops for brilliant teachers to train other teachers''.

Some participants stressed money incentives to teachers in a bid to promote teachers' commitment to classroom management.

6.6.6 Suggestions Related to Educational Supervisors' Methods

The participants put forward suggestions that may help develop the methods used by educational supervisors with regards to classroom management, for example:

- ID266 ''When the educational supervisor visits me in classroom, I have a feeling that he is evaluating my performance not to develop my skills. We need to develop the relationship between teachers and educational supervisors''.

- ID354 ''the educational supervisor does not show my points of weakness but he only he gives a general written opinion. I need to discuss many issues with him after classroom visits''.

- ID444 ''I have 30-years teaching experience during which I was not invited by the educational supervisor to visit any brilliant teachers. My colleagues wish to have such visits''.

- ID210 ''Teachers need workshops with colleagues and educational supervisors to develop our classroom management skills. We need educational supervisors to provide us with the new research into classroom management to develop ourselves; they should not only evaluate''.

It is clear from the answers that the role of the educational supervisor needs to be more comprehensive not restricted to evaluation but to assist in the development of teachers' skills

in relation to their classroom management. This could be achieved through the provision of the latest research and workshops that could help overcome barriers and highlight points of strength through dialogue and flexible constructive discussion.

6.6.7 Suggestions Related to the Culture of the Teacher-Pupil-Parent Relationship

The participants gave some suggestions with regards to developing the culture of teacher-pupil-parent relationship, for example:

- ID603 ''during my supervising visits for teachers, I noticed the teachers needed to be closer with the pupils and change the traditional type approach''.

- ID535 ''I try to stress the importance of dialogue with the pupil but the traditional style approaches is prevailing. The Ministry of Education should consider this issue''.

- ID323 ''I need to have contacts with parents to discuss some difficulties with some pupils and also parents meetings should be activated''.

- ID112 ''for traditional considerations, sometimes parents do not accept or interact with the advice offered''.

The importance of the teacher-pupil-parent relationship is clear in the participant's suggestions. This culture should receive proper attention at the expense of the traditional approaches that consider the pupil to be a mere recipient.

6.7 SUMMARY

In this chapter, a detailed analysis of the main study instrument—the questionnaire—was presented. The questionnaire was in three parts, which helped were used to structure this chapter. The first part of the questionnaire contains demographic data, which were analysed outset of the chapter.

The second part of the questionnaire concerns the frequency of classroom activities and contained 22 statements on the classroom planning including: Organising objects and material; Organising the role of the teachers and the pupils; class performance and class evaluation. An analysis of the second part of the questionnaire was undertaken in order to answer the first research question that was designed to understand the reality of classroom activities practised by boys' upper classes teachers in Saudi Arabia. The analysis of each statement in the questionnaire was presented followed by a factor analysis before the reliability of the questionnaire was calculated.

Thereafter, the analysis of the third part of the questionnaire that contained 27 statements that were designed to understand to the kind of class approaches the teacher practises. It was based on the idea of semantic differentials. The analysis of the third research question was based on the degree of significant statistical differences among teachers according to variables such as degree qualifications, years of experience, training programme in classroom management, subject and location of school. This part also used the factor analysis and assessed the reliability of the data.

Next, the results of the fourth research question on the degree of significant statistical differences among the study sample of teachers and educational supervisors according to the various variables was presented. Finally, the description of the open question on suggestions to improve the education curriculum and instruction in Saudi Arabia was presented as a qualitative description.

CHAPTER VII

DATA ANALYSIS FROM THE OBSERVATION

7.0 INTRODUCTION

The teachers selected for observation were based on two criteria: results from the quantitative data analysis which highlighted the aspects that required further in-depth study and on a ranking derived from certain metrics. For each of the four major areas of study i.e. Preparation and Organising; Group Work; Classroom Management; and Evaluation and Taking Action some teachers were selected based on low, middle and high responses received. This methodology was adopted because it covers all possible responses and different views / perceptions from the teachers. This may also help to reduce bias from the questionnaire data.

The metrics were:

1. **Preparing and Organising**, which included seven items:

   - A1 'Arranging students' desks for learning in class';

   - A2 'Preparing the teaching apparatus in class';

   - A3 'Preparing teaching aids prior to class';

   - A4 'Preparing lesson plan. (Aims, objectives)';

   - A5 'Prepare the time allocation of the lesson';

   - A6 'Putting the teaching aids in the proper place in class'; and

   - A7 'Preparing alternative material for contingency'.

2. *Group Work*, which included three items:

   - B1 'Organising classroom discussion among students';

   - B2 'Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher'; and

   - B3 'Discussion of class rules'.

3. ***Classroom Management***, which included seven items:

- C1 'Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students';

- C2 'Making sure that I am visible to all students';

- C3 'Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class';

- C4 'Respecting students' ideas in class';

- C5 'Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly';

- C6 'Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class'; and

- C7 'Anticipating class problems before they happen in class'.

4. ***Evaluating and Taking Action***, which included four items:

- D1 'Evaluating the learning environment in class regularly';

- D2 'Determining points of weakness and strength of the students';

- D3 'Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation'; and

- D4 'Treating behavioural problems educationally'.

For each metric, the average of the item response was calculated. All the teachers who took part in the questionnaire survey were then ranked based on the calculated averages. Teachers for observation were then selected from each of the three ranks. The distribution of the 31 teachers chosen from the three levels and according metric is shown in Table 7.1. Note teacher ID 533 appears in all metrics (i.e. A, B, C & D), teacher ID 51 appears in two of the metrics (C & D) and teacher ID 537 also appears in two of the metrics (B & D). Therefore in total there is 31 unique teachers' ID.

Table 7.1: Distribution of Teachers by Level

A: Preparing and Organising		
Level	**Teacher ID**	
Lowest	8	150	137
Middle	6	18	52
Highest	172	59	533

B: Group Work		
Level	**Teacher ID**	
Lowest	169	240	322
Middle	348	353	364
Highest	525	533	537

C: Classroom Management		
Level	**Teacher ID**	
Lowest	51	95	430
Middle	383	392	412
Highest	495	510	533

D: Evaluation and Taking Action		
Level	**Teacher ID**	
Lowest	51	37	477
Middle	177	188	191
Highest	531	533	537
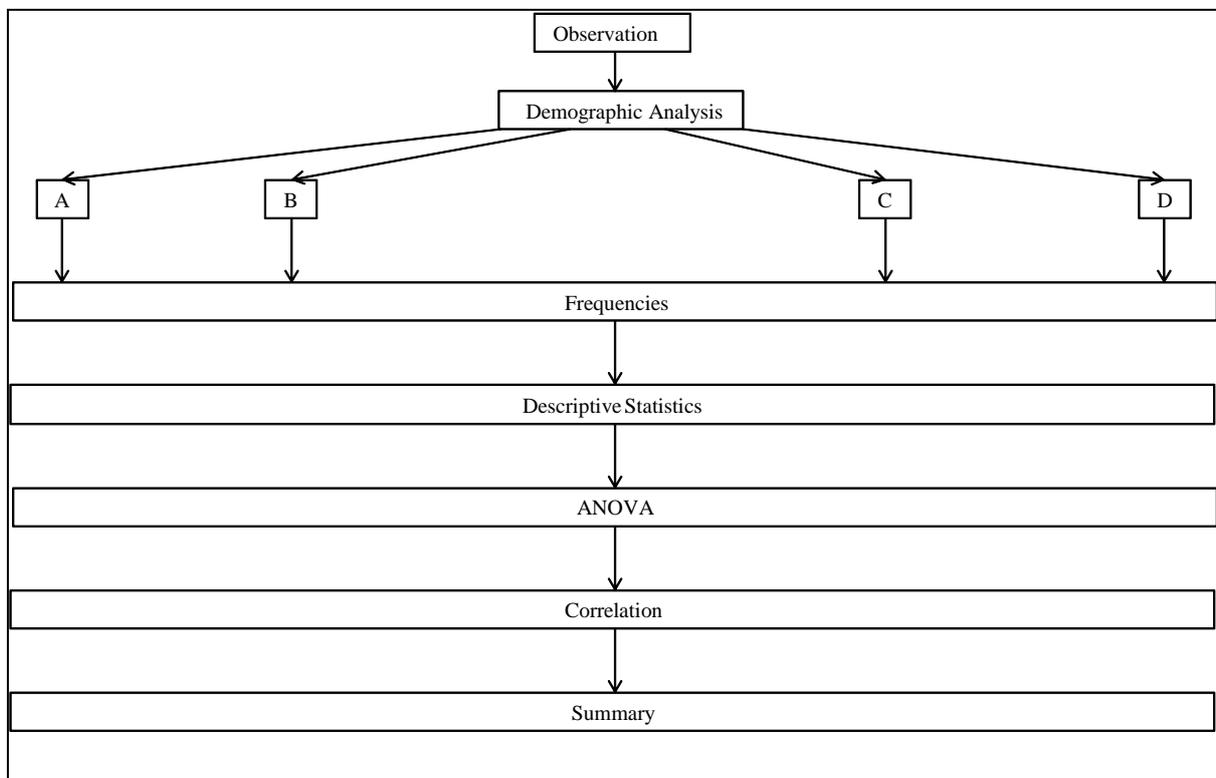
Figure 7.1: Plan of Chapter

Figure 7.1 show the analytical plan for this chapter. Statistical methods used and reasons and symbols are the same as for figure 6.1 in chapter 6.

7.1 GENERAL INFORMATION

7.1.1 School Building Type

The school buildings, in which the teachers selected worked, were either rented or owned by the public. Out of the 31 schools chosen, 17 (54.8%) were rented and the rest were publicly-owned. There was no similar question in the questionnaire to enable comparison to with the full sample.

7.1.2 Number of Pupils in Classroom

Table 7.2 shows the descriptive statistics related to the number of pupils in the observed classrooms by category of teacher. The smallest class size had only 17 pupils while the largest had 40 pupils. The average class size was 25.16 pupils with a 95% confidence interval of 22.78-27.54. The median class size was 22 pupils. There was no significant difference between the average class size of high, middle and low ranking teachers with a p value of 0.960 (>0.05). There was no similar question in the questionnaire to enable comparison to with the full sample. **Table 7.2: Descriptive Statistics of Number of Pupils in the Classroo**

Category of Teachers	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Low	11	25.18	6.940	2.092	20.52	29.84	18	40
Middle	12	25.50	6.516	1.881	21.36	29.64	18	35
High	8	24.63	6.696	2.367	19.03	30.22	17	35
Total	31	25.16	6.497	1.167	22.78	27.54	17	40

Figure 7.2 is a histogram showing the distribution of class size. This distribution is bimodal with a mean of about 20 in the first group and of about 32 in the second group. There seems

to be smaller class size with about 20 pupils on average and a larger class size with about 32 pupils on average.
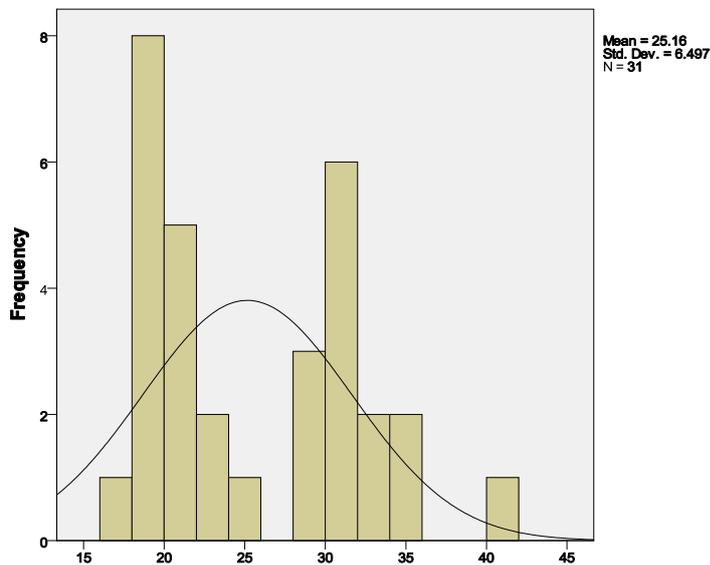
Figure 7.2: Number of Pupils in Classroom

7.1.3 Date and Time of Observation

All the observations took place within a 14-day period starting on 11 September and ending on 28 September 2011 during the morning from 07:15 am to 11:45 am (local time). Each observation lasted for 45 minutes.

7.1.4 Subject

The distribution of the subjects taught observed are shown in Table 7.3. The most popular subject taught during observation was religion (41.9%) followed by Arabic language (25.85%). This is the same as for the full sample where the most popular subject was also religion (53.2%) and also followed by Arabic language (18.8%).

Table 7.3: Distribution of Observed Subject Taught

Subject	Observation		Full Sample	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
Religion	13	41.9	286	53.2
Arabic Language	8	25.8	101	18.8
History and Geography	5	16.1	40	7.4
Mathematics	3	9.7	80	14.9
Science	2	6.5	31	5.8
Total	31	100	538	100.0

7.2 OBSERVATION DATA

This section provides an analysis of each of the four dimensions based on the data collected through the observations.

7.2.1 Preparing and Organising

In this section, three teachers each were chosen to be observed from the high, middle and low ranking groups in relation to statements shown in Table 7.4. The researcher used the following codes when observing the seven items under the dimensions preparing and organising: 1 = Never observed; 2 = Not sure; 3 = Yes observed; and 4 = Several times.

Table 7.4: Frequencies of the Observed Statements under Preparing and Organising

Item	Statement	Not observed	Not sure	Yes observed	Several times
A1	Arranging students' desks for learning in class	2	0	7	0
A2	Preparing the teaching apparatus in class	5	0	4	0
A3	Preparing teaching aids prior to class	6	0	3	0
A4	Preparing lesson plan. (aims, objectives)	0	0	9	0
A5	Prepare the time allocation of the lesson	1	0	8	0
A6	Putting the teaching aids in the proper place in class	6	0	3	0
A7	Preparing alternative material for contingency	9	0	0	0

Out of the nine teachers, two did not arrange students' desks for learning in class while the majority did. Five teachers did not prepare the teaching apparatus in class while four did. Six teachers did not prepare teaching aids prior to class while only three did. All nine teachers

prepared lesson plan with aims and objectives before the lesson started. Eight teachers prepare the time allocation of lesson but one teacher did not. Two-thirds of teachers were not observed putting the teaching aids in the proper place in class while one-third did. Not a single teacher was observed preparing alternative material for contingency. The researcher did not observe a single item being done several times by the teachers.

7.2.1.1 Mean, Standard Error of Mean, and Sample Size

Table 7.5 displays the mean, standard error of the mean and sample size for the teachers observed. The mean ranges from a minimum of 1.00 (not seen) for item A7 **'Preparing alternative material for contingency'** in which the researcher did not observe any teacher doing this to a maximum of 3.00 (seen once) for item A4 **'Preparing lesson plan. (Aims, objectives)'** in which the researcher observed that all the teachers did this. The standard error ranges from a minimum of 0.00 for item A4 and A7 to a maximum of 0.35 for A32. Figure 7.3shows the variation of standard errors across the seven statements. Note that A4 and A7 have a standard error of 0.00.

Table 7.5: Mean, Standard Error of Mean, and Sample Size for Observed Teachers under Preparing and Organising

Item	Statement	Mean	Std. Error of Mean	N
A1	Arranging students' desks for learning in class	2.56	0.29	9
A2	Preparing the teaching apparatus in class	1.89	0.35	9
A3	Preparing teaching aids prior to class	1.67	0.33	9
A4	Preparing lesson plan. (aims, objectives)	3.00	0.00	9
A5	Prepare the time allocation of the lesson	2.78	0.22	9
A6	Putting the teaching aids in the proper place in class	1.67	0.33	9
A7	Preparing alternative material for contingency	1.00	0.00	9
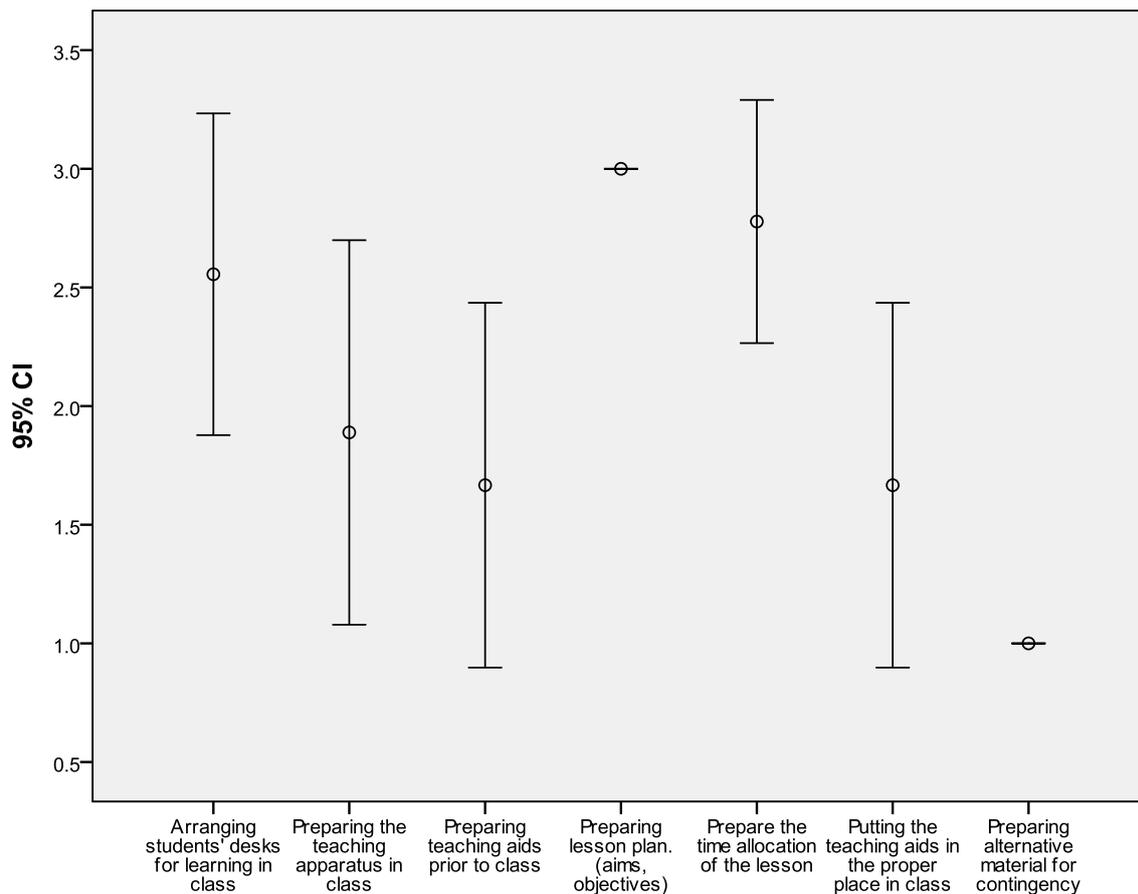
Figure 7.3: Mean and 95% CI of Mean and Standard Error of Mean for Observed Teachers under Preparing and Organising

7.2.2 Group Work

The researcher observed nine teachers in relation to the three statements under group work. These teachers were different from those observed under the dimensions preparing and organising, in order to obtain a different perspective of teachers' practice in the classroom. Observations were made every five minutes in relation to each statement for a total duration of 45 minutes. The percentage and counts of teachers observed within each 5 minutes interval are shown in Table 7.6.

None of the teachers were seen doing items B1 **'Organising classroom discussion among students'** or B2 **'Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher'** and only one third of the teachers were seen doing item B3 **'Using the class rules'** in the first five minutes of starting the lesson. In the first 10 minutes, the same pattern was observed as in the

first 5 minutes. In the first 15 minutes the researcher observed all three tasks were performed by the teachers and one teacher did item B2 several times. Between 20-40 minutes, the researcher observed that all three tasks were performed by some teachers but in the last 5 minutes the frequency of observations appears to tail off. Figures 7.4 and 7.5 are graphical presentations of the results.

Table 7.6: Frequencies of the Observed Statements under Group Work

Time in minutes	Item	Statement	Not observed	Not sure	Yes observed	Several times
5	B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	9	0	0	0
	B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	9	0	0	0
	B3	Using the class rules	3	0	6	0
10	B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	9	0	0	0
	B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	9	0	0	0
	B3	Using the class rules	3	0	6	0
15	B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	6	0	3	0
	B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	3	0	5	1
	B3	Using the class rules	5	0	4	0
20	B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	3	0	6	0
	B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	2	0	7	0
	B3	Using the class rules	4	0	5	0
25	B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	1	0	8	0
	B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	1	0	7	1
	B3	Using the class rules	4	0	5	0
30	B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	1	0	8	0
	B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	1	0	8	0
	B3	Using the class rules	2	0	7	0
35	B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	2	0	7	0
	B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	2	0	7	0
	B3	Using the class rules	4	0	5	0
40	B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	4	0	5	0
	B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	4	0	5	0
	B3	Using the class rules	6	0	3	0
45	B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	9	0	0	0
	B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	9	0	0	0
	B3	Using the class rules	7	0	2	0

Taking the average percentage for teachers observed doing a particular task gives an overall ranking of tasks observed by the researcher over the 45-minute period. Table 7.7 displays the results. The number one task that the researcher observed was B3 **'Using the class rules'** with an average of 2.12 in each of the five minute intervals. The next most observed task was B2 **'Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher'** with an average of 2.04, while the lowest was B1 **'Organising classroom discussion among students'** with an average of 1.91.
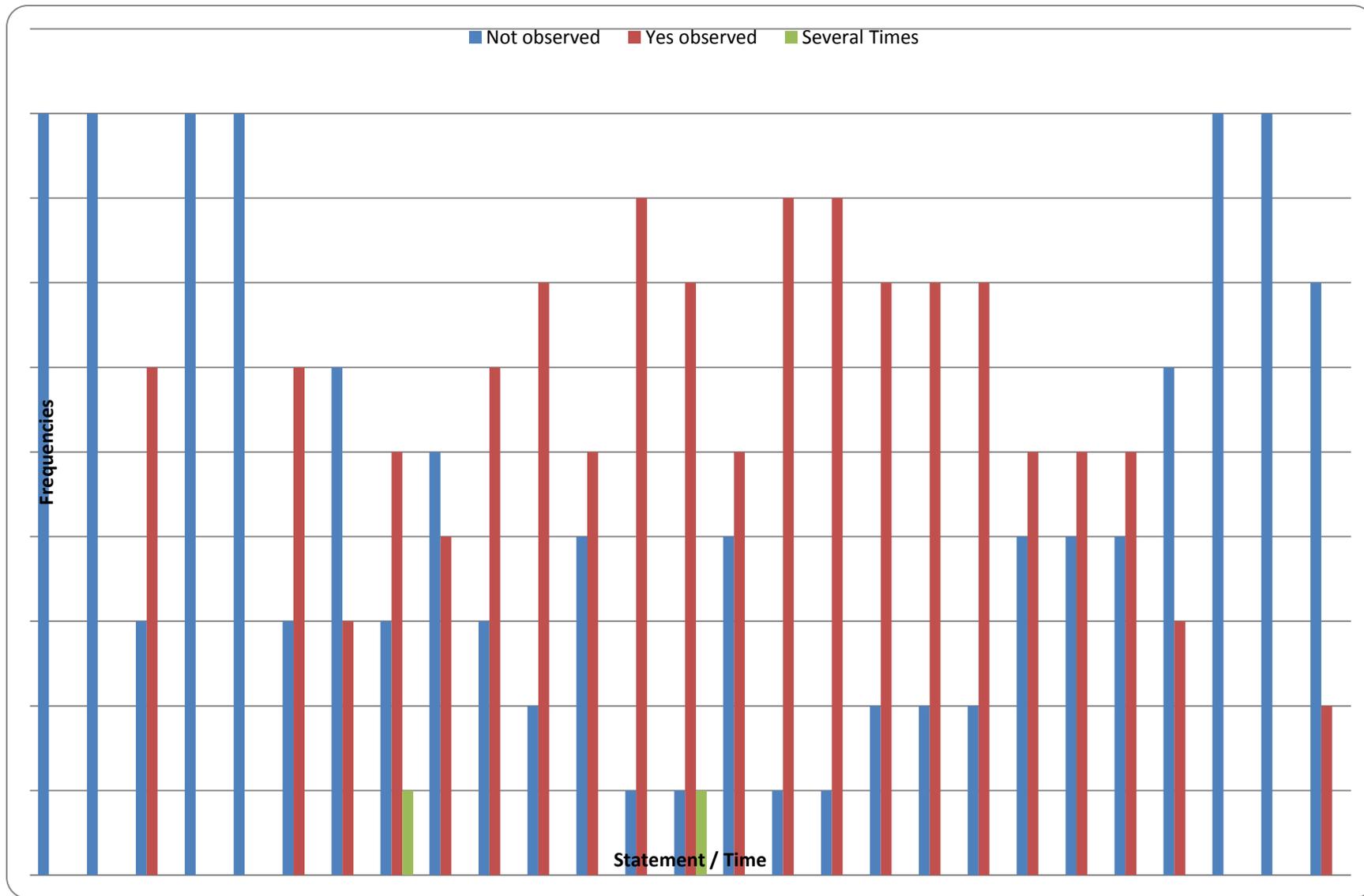
Figure 7.4: Frequencies of the Observed Statements under Group Work
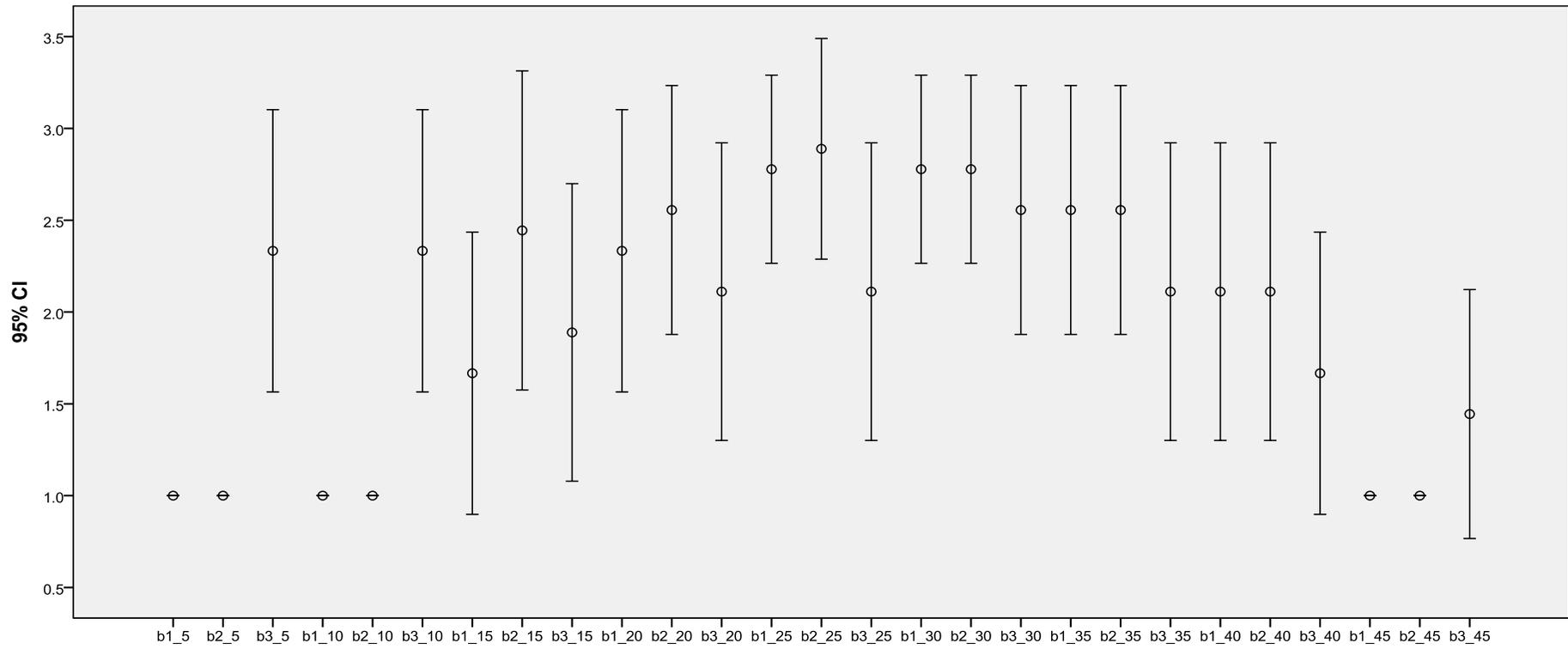
Figure 7.5: Mean and 95% CI of Mean and Standard Error of Mean for Observed Teachers under Group Work for each 5 Minute Segment in the 45 Minute Period

Table 7.7: Average of Observed Task under Group Work

Item	Statement	Average	Rank
B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	1.91	3
B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	2.04	2
B3	Using the class rules	2.12	1

7.2.3 Classroom Management

The researcher observed a different nine teachers in relation to the seven statements under classroom management. As in Group Work, observation for each statement was made in five minutes segments during the 45 minute lesson (see Table 7.8). Furthermore, for the purposes of clarity only the frequency is shown (see Figures 7.6 and 7.7).

In the first five minutes, five of the seven tasks were observed by the researcher; these were C2 **'Making sure the teacher was visible to all students'** (8 teachers), C3 **'Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class'** (4 teachers), C4 **'Respecting students' ideas in class'** (2 teachers), C5 **'Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly'** (2 teachers) and C6 **'Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class'** (8 teachers). In the rest of the lesson the researcher observed all tasks being done at least by one teacher.

The average for the seven statements for the 45 minutes period is shown in Table 7.9. The highest observations by the researcher were C6 **'Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class'** with an average of 2.35. With an average of 2.32, the second most commonly observed task was C2 **'Making sure the teacher was visible to all students'**. The third most observed task was C3 **'Using democratic way of dealing with students in class'** with an average of 2.21. With averages of 2.14 and 2.01, C4 **'Respecting students' ideas in class'** and **C5 Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly'** came fourth and fifth respectively. With averages of just 1.70 and 1.62, C7 **'Anticipating class problem before they happen in class'** and C1 **'Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students'** respectively were the two least observed tasks.

Table 7.8: Frequencies of the Observed Statements under Classroom Management

Time in Minutes	Item	Statement	Not Observe	Not Sure	Yes Observe	Several Times
5	C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	7	2	0	0
	C2	Making sure that teacher is visible to all students	0	1	8	0
	C3	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	3	2	4	0
	C4	Respecting students' ideas in class	3	4	2	0
	C5	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	6	1	2	0
	C6	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	0	1	8	0
	C7	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	2	7	0	0
10	C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	8	0	1	0
	C2	Making sure that teacher is visible to all students	1	1	7	0
	C3	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	3	1	5	0
	C4	Respecting students' ideas in class	3	2	4	0
	C5	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	4	1	4	0
	C6	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	0	1	8	0
	C7	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	4	3	2	0
15	C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	7	0	2	0
	C2	Making sure that teacher is visible to all students	3	1	5	0
	C3	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	3	1	5	0
	C4	Respecting students' ideas in class	2	1	6	0
	C5	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	2	1	6	0
	C6	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	1	1	7	0
	C7	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	5	2	2	0
20	C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	6	0	3	0
	C2	Making sure that teacher is visible to all students	4	1	4	0
	C3	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	2	1	6	0
	C4	Respecting students' ideas in class	2	1	6	0
	C5	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	2	1	6	0
	C6	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	4	0	5	0
	C7	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	6	0	3	0
25	C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	3	1	5	0
	C2	Making sure that teacher is visible to all students	4	1	4	0
	C3	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	5	1	3	0
	C4	Respecting students' ideas in class	7	0	2	0
	C5	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	7	0	2	0
	C6	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	6	0	3	0
	C7	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	5	1	3	0
30	C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	4	1	4	0
	C2	Making sure that teacher is visible to all students	1	1	7	0
	C3	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	3	1	5	0
	C4	Respecting students' ideas in class	3	0	6	0
	C5	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	3	0	6	0
	C6	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	5	0	4	0
	C7	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	6	0	3	0
35	C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	6	0	3	0
	C2	Making sure that teacher is visible to all students	2	1	6	0
	C3	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	2	1	6	0
	C4	Respecting students' ideas in class	2	1	6	0
	C5	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	2	1	6	0
	C6	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	4	1	4	0
	C7	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	7	1	1	0
40	C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	6	0	3	0
	C2	Making sure that teacher is visible to all students	4	1	4	0
	C3	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	3	1	5	0
	C4	Respecting students' ideas in class	3	1	5	0
	C5	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	4	1	4	0
	C6	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	0	1	8	0
	C7	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	3	2	4	0
45	C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	7	0	2	0
	C2	Making sure that teacher is visible to all students	4	1	4	0
	C3	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	3	1	5	0
	C4	Respecting students' ideas in class	5	0	4	0
	C5	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	7	0	2	0
	C6	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	4	0	5	0
	C7	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	6	1	2	0

230
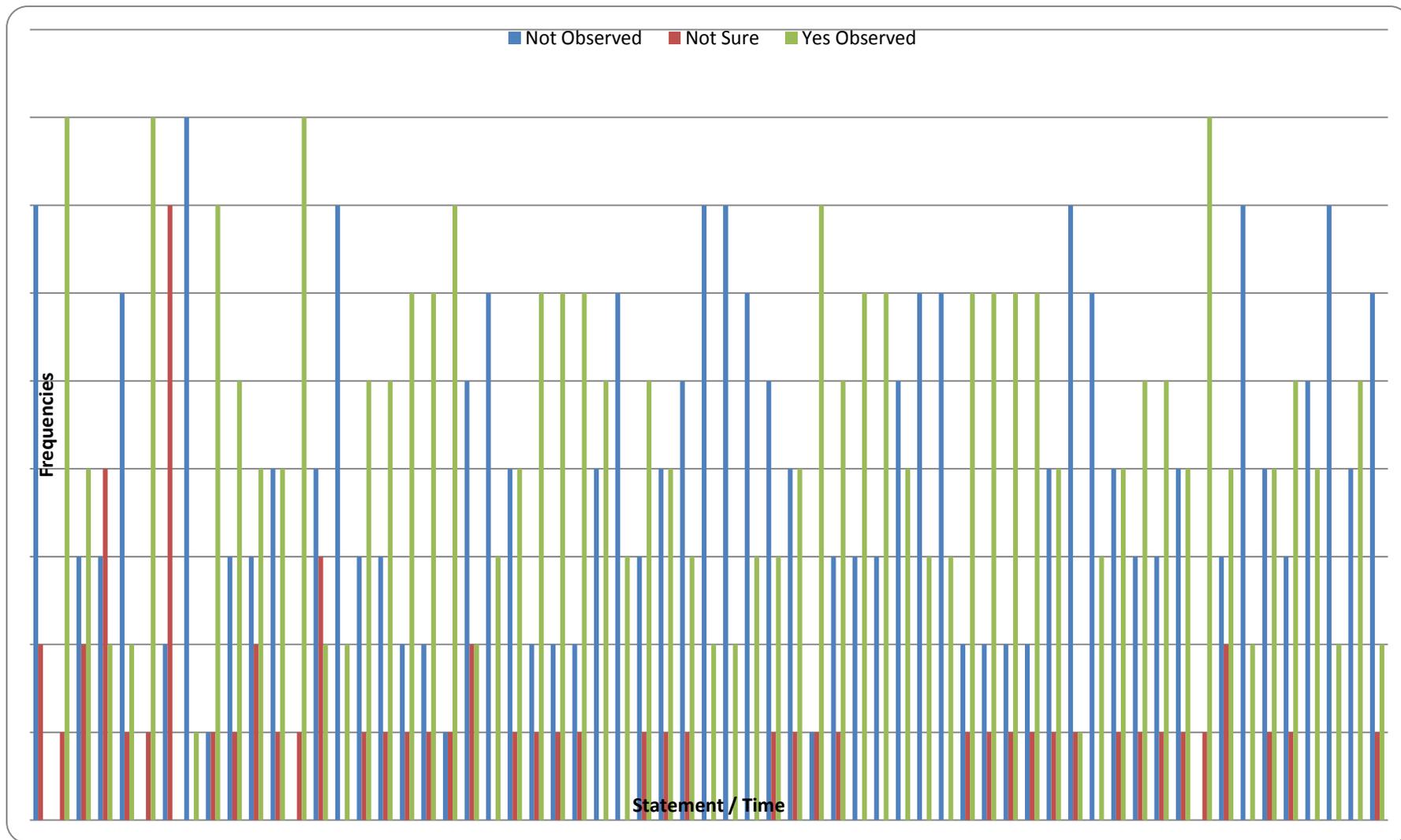
Figure 7.6: Frequencies of the Observed Statements under Classroom Management
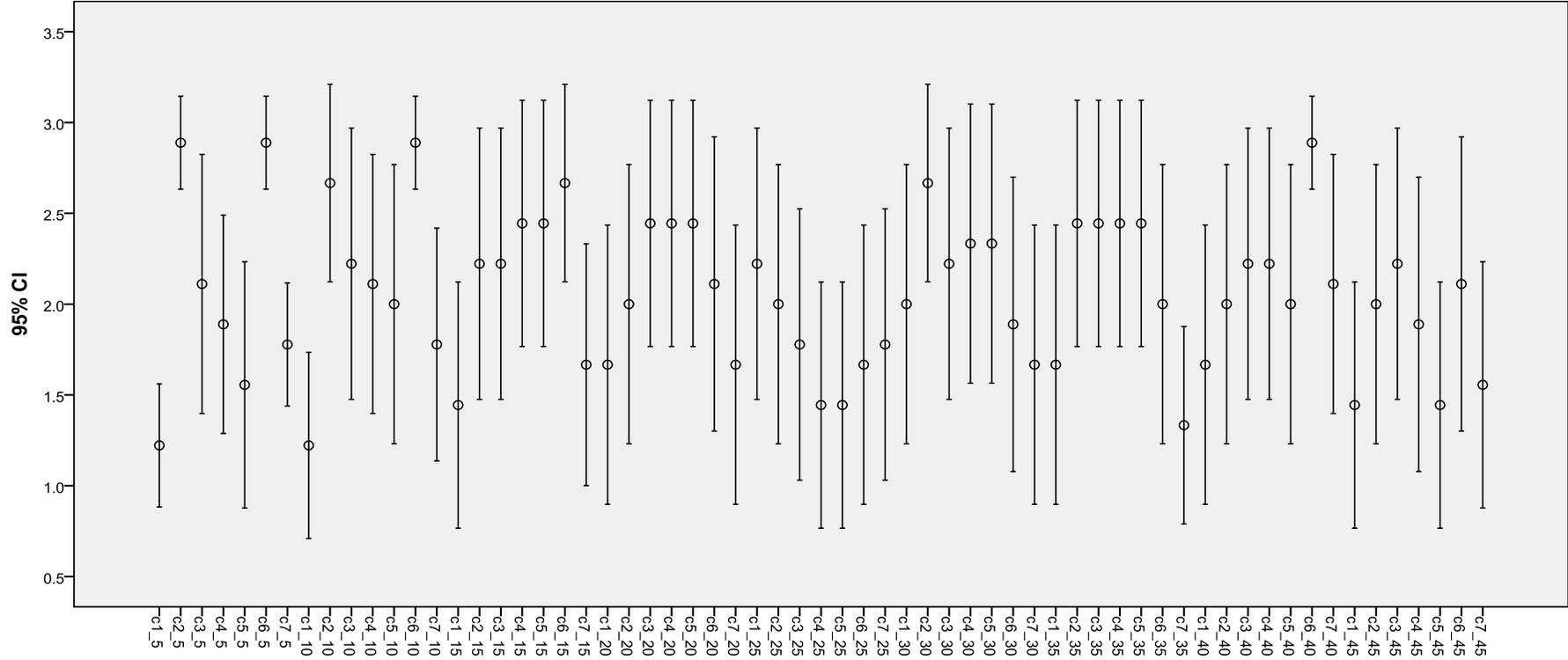
Figure 7.7: Mean and 95% CI of Mean and Standard Error of Mean for Observed Teachers under Classroom Management for each 5 Minute Segment in the 45 Minute Period

Table 7.9: Average of Observed Task under Classroom Management

Item	Statement	Average	Rank
C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	1.62	7
C2	Making sure that teacher is visible to all students	2.32	2
C3	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	2.21	3
C4	Respecting students' ideas in class	2.14	4
C5	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	2.01	5
C6	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	2.35	1
C7	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	1.70	6

7.2.4 Evaluating and Taking Action

A further nine different teachers were chosen to be observed in relation to the four statements concerning the dimension evaluating and taking action. As in the section on Group Work, observation for each statement was made in five minutes segments during the 45 minute lesson. The results are shown in Table 7.10 and Figures 7.8 and 7.9.

During the first five minutes two teachers were observed doing D1 **'Evaluating the learning environment in class regularly'**, three doing D2 **'Determining points of weakness and strength of the students'**, none doing D3 **'Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation'** and two doing D4 **'Treating behavioural problems accurately through class observation'**. In the second five minute segment four, three, four, and four teachers were observed doing D1, D2, D3 and D4 respectively. The researcher did not observe a single item being done on more than one occasion.

Table 7.11 shows the mean, standard error of the mean and sample size of the teachers observed. The mean ranges from a minimum of 2.01 for D4 **'Treating behavioural problems accurately through class observation'** to a maximum of 2.14 for D1 **'Evaluating the learning environment in class regularly'**. The standard error ranges from a minimum of 0.205 for D3 **'Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation'**

233

to a maximum of 0.239 for D2 **'Determining points of weakness and strength of the students'**. Figure 7.10 shows the mean and standard error of the mean.

Table 7.10: Frequencies of the Observed Statements under Evaluating and Taking Action

Time in Minutes	Item	Statement	Not Observed	Not Sure	Yes Observed	Several Times
5	D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class	7	0	2	0
	D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	6	0	3	0
	D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	9	0	0	0
	D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	7	0	2	0
10	D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class	5	0	4	0
	D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	6	0	3	0
	D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	5	0	4	0
	D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	5	0	4	0
15	D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class	3	0	6	0
	D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	4	0	5	0
	D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	4	0	5	0
	D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	3	0	6	0
20	D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class	4	0	5	0
	D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	3	0	6	0
	D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	5	0	4	0
	D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	5	0	4	0
25	D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class	3	0	6	0
	D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	6	0	3	0
	D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	1	0	8	0
	D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	4	0	5	0
30	D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class	4	0	5	0
	D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	4	0	5	0
	D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	3	0	6	0
	D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	3	0	6	0
35	D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class	3	0	6	0
	D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	3	0	6	0
	D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	3	0	6	0
	D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	3	0	6	0
40	D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class	4	0	5	0
	D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	3	0	6	0
	D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	6	0	3	0
	D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	4	0	5	0
45	D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class	2	0	7	0
	D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	3	0	6	0
	D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	2	0	7	0
	D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	6	0	3	0
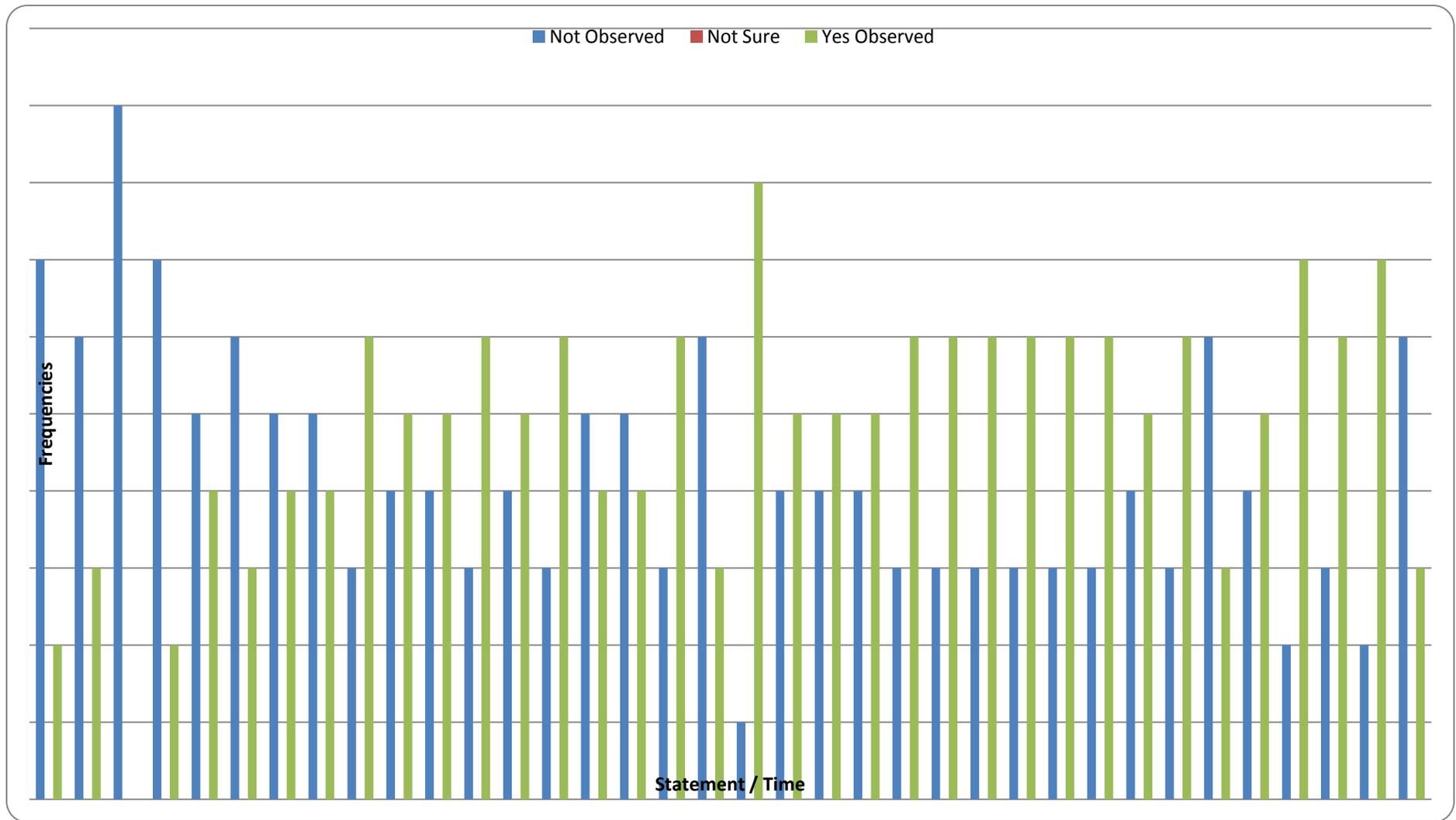
Figure 7.8: Frequencies of Observed Statement under Evaluating and Taking Action
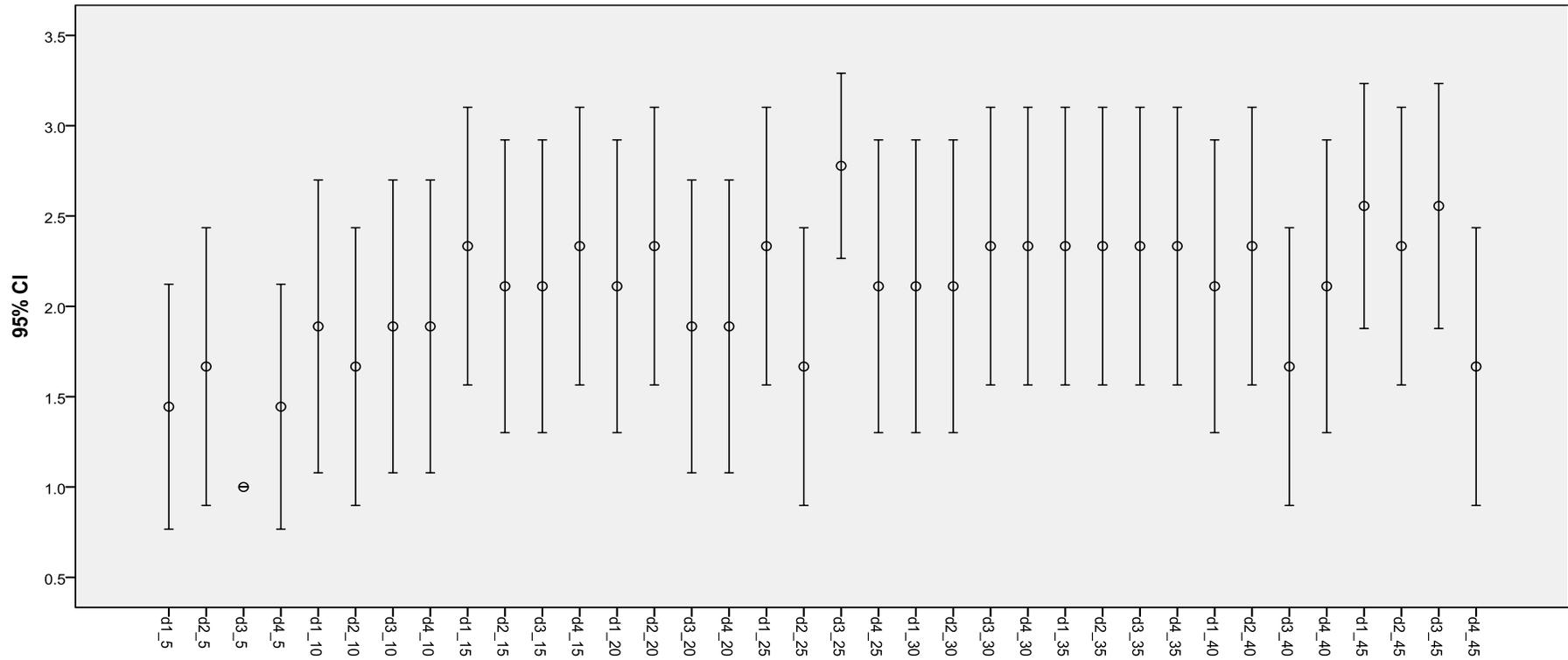
Figure 7.9: Mean and 95% CI of Mean and Standard Error of Mean for Observed Teachers under Evaluating and Taking Action for each 5 Minute Segment in the 45 Minute Period

Table 7.11: Mean, Standard Error of Mean, and Sample Size for Observed Teachers under Evaluating and Taking Action

Item	Statement	Mean	Std. Error of Mean	N
D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class	2.14	0.23	9
D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	2.06	0.24	9
D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	2.06	0.21	9
D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	2.01	0.21	9
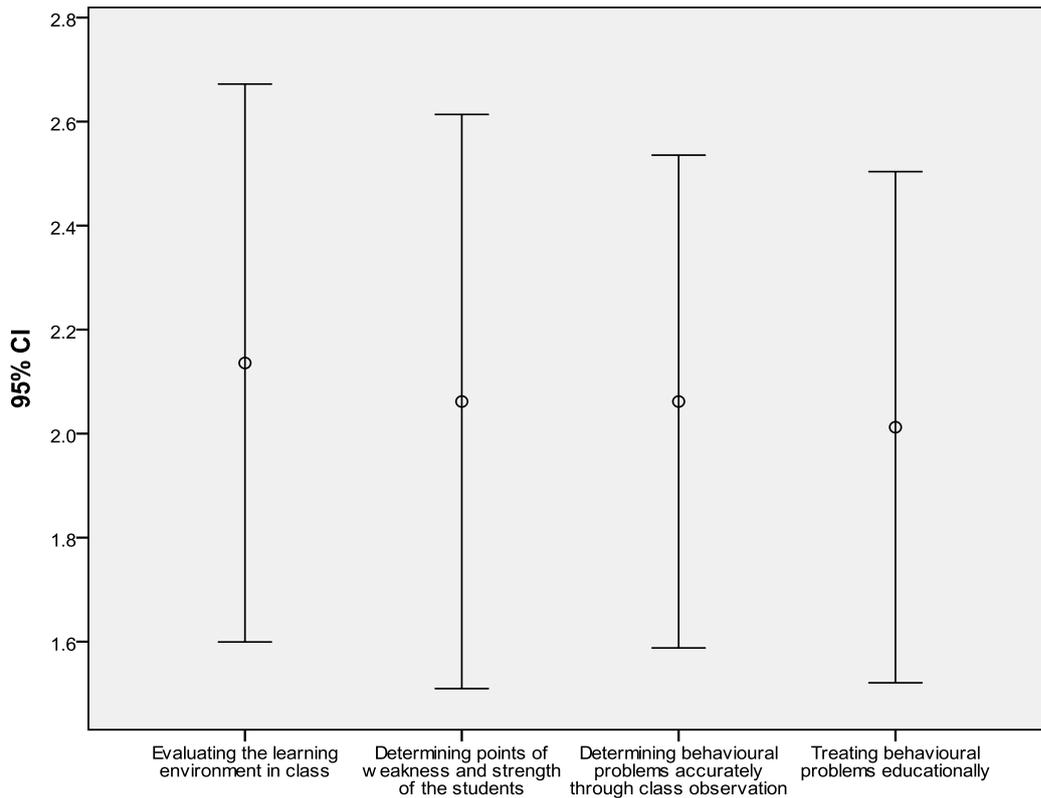
Figure 7.10: Mean and 95% CI of Mean and Standard Error of Mean for Observed Teachers under Evaluating and Taking Action

7.3 ANALYSING THE RESULTS OF THE OBSERVATIONS BY LEVEL OF TEACHER

In the previous section, the data obtained from the observation was recorded for each of the four dimensions concerned. This section focuses on the analysis of the results in the four dimensions, concentrating on the similarities and differences between the three groups of teachers (low, middle and high).

7.3.1 Preparing and Organising

The researcher observed the nine teachers over a 45 minute period in relation to the seven items under preparing and organising. Table 7.12 displays the frequency of the seven observed items under preparing and organising. For item A1 **'Arranging students' desks for learning in class'** all teachers classified as high and middle were engaged in this item. Only one teacher from the low category was observed to be engaged in this item. For item A2 **'Preparing the teaching apparatus in class'** two in each of the high and medium category teachers were observed doing this task but none of the low teachers were. The pattern is similar for the remaining items with high and middle category teachers being more pro-active than low category teacher in undertaking the tasks. The exception is item A7 **'Preparing the teaching apparatus in class'** for which the researcher did not observe any teacher doing the task irrespective of their level.

Table 7.12: Frequency Distribution of Observed Teachers according to Category of Teachers for Preparing and Organising

Category of Teachers	Observation	Arranging students' desks for learning in class (A1)	Preparing the teaching apparatus in class (A2)	Preparing teaching aids prior to class (A3)	Preparing lesson plan. (aims, objectives) (A4)	Prepare the time allocation of the lesson (A5)	Putting the teaching aids in the proper place in class (A6)	Preparing alternative material for contingency (A7)
Low	Not observed	2	3	3	0	1	3	3
	Not sure	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Yes observed	1	0	0	3	2	0	0
Middle	Not observed	0	1	3	0	0	3	3
	Not sure	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Yes observed	3	2	0	3	3	0	0
High	Not observed	0	1	0	0	0	0	3
	Not sure	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Yes observed	3	2	3	3	3	3	0

These results are confirmed by the data displayed in Table 7.13 which shows the average of the seven items under preparing and organising where Seen = 3, Not Sure = 2 and Not Seen = 1. Overall, teachers classified high and middle have a higher average than teachers classified as low except for item A7 **'Preparing the teaching apparatus in class'**. For instance, for item A1 the average value for both high and middle category teachers was 3 while that for the low category teacher was only 1.67. For the remaining items, high and middle teachers have

consistently higher average than the low teachers. However, One-Way ANOVA analyses did not show any statistically significant difference across the categories for any of the seven items. The p values are all greater than 0.05 as shown in the bottom row of Table 7.13.

Table 7.13: Average and ANOVA of Observed Teachers according to Category for Preparing and Organising

Category of Teachers	Arranging students' desks for learning in class (A1)	Preparing the teaching apparatus in class (A2)	Preparing teaching aids prior to class (A3)	Preparing lesson plan. (aims, objectives) (A4)	Prepare the time allocation of the lesson (A5)	Putting the teaching aids in the proper place in class (A6)	Preparing alternative material for contingency (A7)
Low	1.67	1.00	1.00	3.00	2.33	1.00	1.00
Middle	3.00	2.33	1.00	3.00	3.00	1.00	1.00
High	3.00	2.33	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	1.00
p value	0.079	0.216	0.332	0.422	0.456	0.56	0.889

The combined results for preparing and organising were calculated by taking the average of the seven items for each category of teacher. The combined scores for teachers according to category were 2.62 for the high category, 2.05 for the middle category and 1.57 for the low category. Figure 7.11 shows the average with 95% CI.

Table 7.14: Combined Results according to Level for Preparing and Organising

Category of Teachers	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	F	p value
Low	1.57	3	0.29		
Middle	2.05	3	0.16	18.20	0.003
High	2.62	3	0.16		

One-Way ANOVA analysis shows that there is a statistically significant difference across these averages with an f value of 18.20 and p value of 0.003 (<0.05). To pin-point where the differences lie, a post hoc multiple comparison test using Tukey was conducted. The results of the multiple comparisons test are shown on Table 7.15. From the multiple comparisons test the average value for high teachers of 2.62 is significantly different from the average value of 2.05 for middle teachers with a p value of 0.038 (<0.05). Similarly the average value for high teachers of 2.62 is significantly different from the average value of 1.57 for low teachers with

a p value of 0.002 (<0.05). However, the difference between the averages of middle teachers (2.05) and that of low teachers (1.57) did not reach significant at the 5% level with a p value of 0.075.
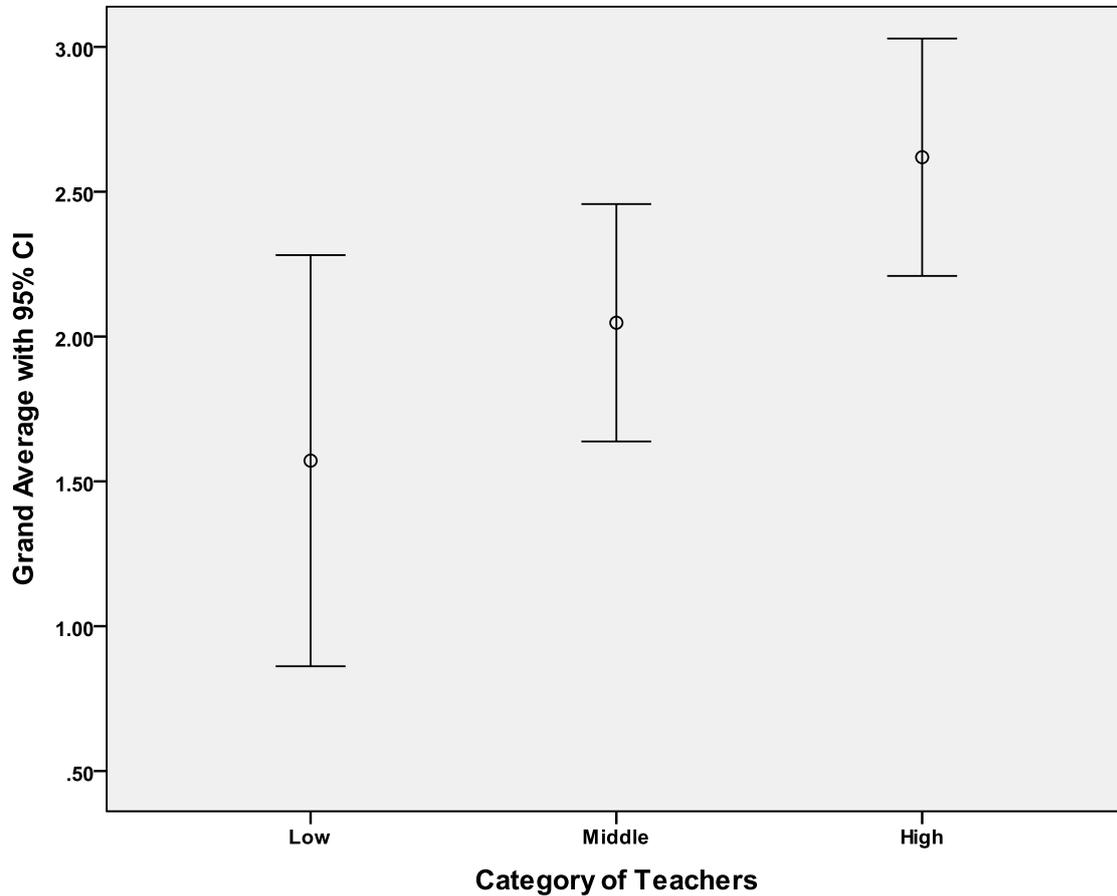
Figure 7.11: Combined results with 95% CI for Preparing and Organising

Table 7.15: Multiple Comparisons of Combined Results according to Level for Preparation and Organisation

Category of Teachers (I)	Category of Teachers (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p value	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
Low	Middle	-0.48	0.075	-1.01	0.06
	High	-1.05	0.002	-1.58	-0.51
Middle	Low	0.48	0.075	-0.06	1.01
	High	-0.57	0.038	-1.10	-0.04
High	Low	1.05	0.002	0.51	1.58
	Middle	0.57	0.038	0.04	1.10

7.3.2 Group Work

The frequency distribution of the teachers according to level on each of the statement is presented in Table 7.16. Thus, for the statement B1 '**Organising classroom discussion among students'** not one teacher was observed doing it irrespective teacher's level.

The researcher calculated the average for each item over the 45-minute period (Table 7.17). For item B1 **'Organising classroom discussion among students'** the averages of teachers classified as high, middle and low are 2.19, 2.11 and 1.44 respectively. One way ANOVA analyses shows that there is a statistically significant difference between the means ($p = 0.002 < 0.05$). To pin point where the difference lie, the Tukey comparison test shows that there is a statistically significant difference between high and low categories teachers ($p = 0.002(<0.05)$) and between middle and low teachers ($p = 0.004\ (<0.05)$). However, there is no significant difference between high and middle teachers ($p = 0.819\ (>0.05)$). A similar pattern is seen for B2 **'Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher'**. There was no statistically significant difference for B3 **'Using the class rules'** ($p=0.096\ >0.05$). See Table 7.18 for the multiple comparison test results.

The researcher also calculated the overall average for Group Work as 2.28 for high category, 2.28 for middle category and 1.44 for low category teachers (see final column of Table 7.17). There is a statistically significant difference between the means ($p = 0.005\ (<0.05)$). The Tukey comparison test shows that there is a difference between high and low category teachers ($p = 0.008 <0.05$) and between middle and low teachers ($p = 0.008 <0.05$). However, there is no difference between high and middle category teachers ($p = 1.00\ >0.05$). Figure 7.12 is an error bar plot of the overall means by category of teachers. The mean for the high and middle category teachers was the same but the 95% CI for high category teachers is bigger than that for middle category teachers.

241

Table 7.16: Frequency Distribution of Observed Teachers according to Category of Teachers for Group Work Items

Time in Minutes	Items	Statements	Low				Middle				High			
			Not observed	Not sure	Yes observed	Several times	Not observed	Not sure	Yes observed	Several times	Not observed	Not sure	Yes observed	Several times
5	B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0
	B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0
	B3	Using the class rules	1	0	2	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	2	0
10	B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0
	B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0
	B3	Using the class rules	1	0	2	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	2	0
15	B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	0	2	0
	B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	2	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	2	1
	B3	Using the class rules	3	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	2	0
20	B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	2	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	2	0	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
	B3	Using the class rules	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	1	0	2	0
25	B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
	B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	2	1
	B3	Using the class rules	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	1	0	2	0
30	B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
	B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
	B3	Using the class rules	2	0	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
35	B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	2	0	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
	B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	2	0	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
	B3	Using the class rules	3	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
40	B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	1	0	2	0
	B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	1	0	2	0
	B3	Using the class rules	3	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	2	0	1	0
45	B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0
	B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0
	B3	Using the class rules	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	2	0	1	0

Table 7.17: Average and ANOVA of Observed Teachers for Group Work

Category of Teachers	Organising classroom discussion among students (B1)	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher (B2)	Using the class rules (B3)	Average Group Work
Low	1.44	1.52	1.37	1.44
Middle	2.11	2.26	2.48	2.28
High	2.19	2.33	2.33	2.28
p value	0.002	0.002	0.096	0.005

Table 7.18: Multiple Comparisons of Average according to Category of Teachers for Group Work

Items	Statements	Category of Teachers (I)	Category of Teachers (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p value	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
B1	Organising classroom discussion among students	Low	Middle	-0.67	0.004	-1.04	-0.30
			High	-0.74	0.002	-1.11	-0.37
		Middle	Low	0.67	0.004	0.30	1.04
			High	-0.07	0.819	-0.45	0.30
		High	Low	0.74	0.002	0.37	1.11
			Middle	0.07	0.819	-0.30	0.45
B2	Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher	Low	Middle	-0.74	0.004	-1.16	-0.33
			High	-0.81	0.002	-1.23	-0.40
		Middle	Low	0.74	0.004	0.33	1.16
			High	-0.07	0.851	-0.49	0.34
		High	Low	0.81	0.002	0.40	1.23
			Middle	0.07	0.851	-0.34	0.49
Average	Group Work	Low	Middle	-0.84	0.008	-1.39	-0.29
			High	-0.84	0.008	-1.39	-0.29
		Middle	Low	0.84	0.008	0.29	1.39
			High	0.00	1.000	-0.55	0.55
		High	Low	0.84	0.008	0.29	1.39
			Middle	0.00	1.000	-0.55	0.55

Note that item B3 is not included in the table because there was not statistically significant difference across the categories.

243
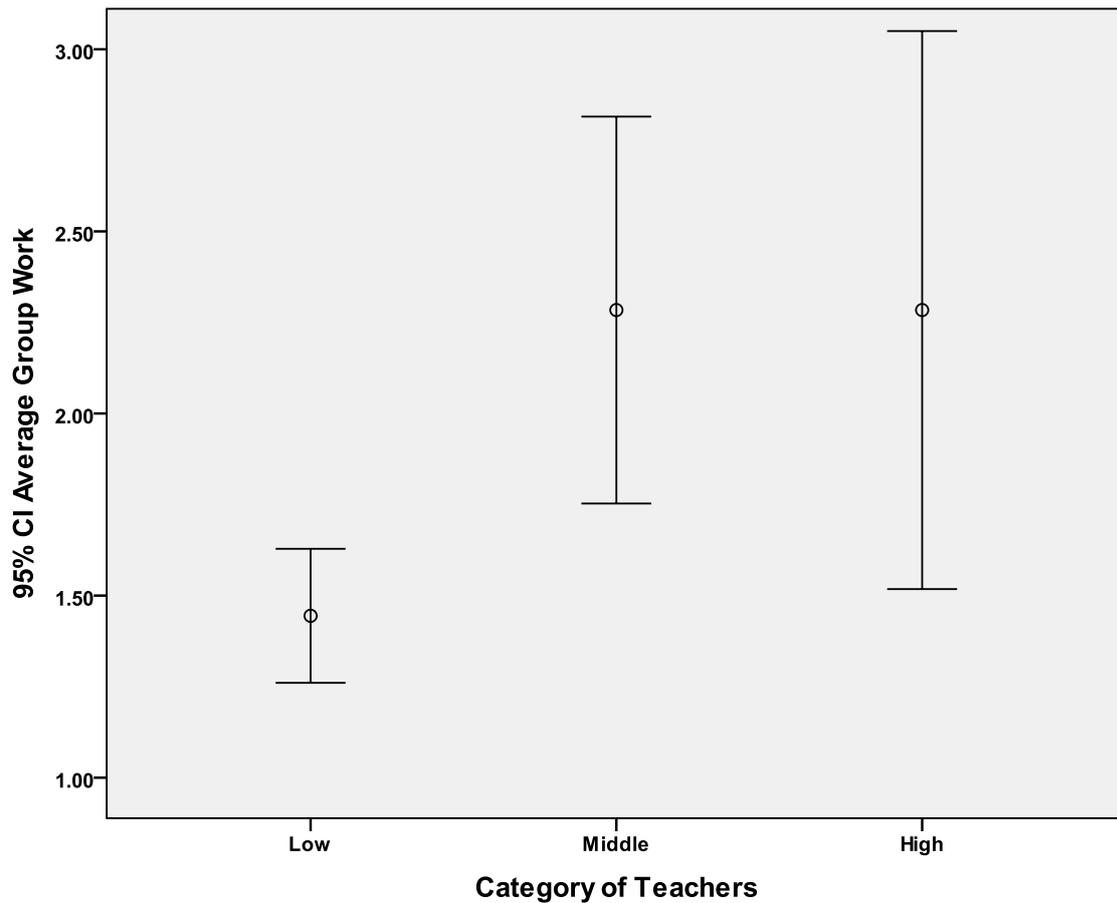
Figure 7.12: Overall with 95% CI of Group Work

7.3.3 Classroom Management

The frequency distributing according to teacher's level for each of the statement under classroom management is shown on table 7.19. For the statement C1 '**Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students'** none of the teachers classified as low was observed by the researchers doing this; two of the teachers classified as middle did not do it and the researcher was not sure about the third teachers. Similarly two of the teachers classified as high did not do it and the researcher was not sure about the third teachers.

244

Table 7.19: Frequency Distribution of Observed Teachers according to Category of Teachers for Classroom Management Items

Time in Minutes	Items	Statements	Low				Middle				High			
			Not observed	Not sure	Yes observed	Several times	Not observed	Not sure	Yes observed	Several times	Not observed	Not sure	Yes observed	Several times
5	C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	3	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	2	1	0	0
	C2	Making sure that teacher is visible to all students	0	1	2	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
	C3	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	2	1	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	1	2	0
	C4	Respecting students' ideas in class	2	1	0	0	0	2	1	0	1	1	1	0
	C5	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	3	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	2	0	1	0
	C6	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	0	1	2	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
	C7	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	2	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0	0
10	C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0
	C2	Making sure that teacher is visible to all students	1	1	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
	C3	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	2	1	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	C4	Respecting students' ideas in class	2	1	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	1	2	0
	C5	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	2	1	0	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	2	0
	C6	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	0	1	2	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
	C7	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	2	1	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	2	1	0
15	C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	2	0
	C2	Making sure that teacher is visible to all students	2	1	0	0	0	0	3	0	1	0	2	0
	C3	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	2	1	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	C4	Respecting students' ideas in class	1	1	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	C5	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	1	1	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	C6	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	0	1	2	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	C7	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	2	1	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	1	1	0
20	C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	0	2	0
	C2	Making sure that teacher is visible to all students	2	1	0	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	2	0
	C3	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	1	1	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	C4	Respecting students' ideas in class	1	1	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	C5	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	1	1	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	C6	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	2	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	2	0
	C7	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	3	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	2	0	1	0
25	C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	1	1	1	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	3	0
	C2	Making sure that teacher is visible to all students	2	1	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	3	0
	C3	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	2	1	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	0	2	0
	C4	Respecting students' ideas in class	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	2	0	1	0
	C5	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	2	0	1	0
	C6	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	3	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	2	0	1	0
	C7	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	3	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	1	1	1	0
30	C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	2	1	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	3	0
	C2	Making sure that teacher is visible to all students	0	1	2	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	C3	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	2	1	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	C4	Respecting students' ideas in class	2	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	C5	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	2	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	C6	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	2	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	2	0	1	0
	C7	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	2	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	2	0	1	0
35	C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	0	2	0
	C2	Making sure that teacher is visible to all students	1	1	1	0	0	0	3	0	1	0	2	0
	C3	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	1	1	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	C4	Respecting students' ideas in class	1	1	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	C5	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	1	1	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	C6	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	1	1	1	0	2	0	1	0	1	0	2	0
	C7	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	2	1	0	0
40	C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	0	2	0
	C2	Making sure that teacher is visible to all students	2	1	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	3	0
	C3	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	2	1	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	C4	Respecting students' ideas in class	2	1	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	C5	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	2	1	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	3	0
	C6	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	0	1	2	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
	C7	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	1	1	1	0	1	0	2	0	1	1	1	0
45	C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	2	0
	C2	Making sure that teacher is visible to all students	2	1	0	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	2	0
	C3	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class	2	1	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	C4	Respecting students' ideas in class	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	3	0
	C5	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	2	0	1	0
	C6	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class	2	0	1	0	0	0	3	0	2	0	1	0
	C7	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	1	1	0

The average was calculated for each of the seven items under Classroom Management (Table 7.20). For item C1 **'Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students'** the averages of teachers classified as high, middle and low are 2.30, 1.41 and 1.15 respectively. One way ANOVA analyses shows that there is a statistically significant difference between the means (p = 0.040 (<0.05)). To pin-point where the difference lies in item C1 **'Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students'**, multiple comparison test using Tukey was performed. The results are presented on Table 7.22.

245

The statistically significance difference was between high and low category teachers (p = 0.041 (<0.05)). There were no statistically significant differences between high and middle category teachers (p = 0.102 (>0.05)) or between low and middle category teachers (p = 0.756 (>0.05)).

Table 7.20: Average and ANOVA of Observed Teachers for Classroom Management

Category of Teachers	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students (C1)	Making sure that teacher is visible to all students (C2)	Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class (C3)	Respecting students' ideas in class (C4)	Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly (C5)	Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class (C6)	Anticipating class problems before they happen in class (C7)
Low	1.15	1.78	1.48	1.52	1.48	2.07	1.30
Middle	1.41	2.48	2.26	2.19	2.07	2.56	1.93
High	2.30	2.70	2.89	2.70	2.48	2.41	1.89
p value	0.040	0.076	0.122	0.110	0.175	0.370	0.239

Table 7.21: Combined Results according to Category of Teachers for Classroom Management

Category of Teachers	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	p value
Low	3	1.54	0.08		
Middle	3	2.13	0.52	6.639	0.030
High	3	2.48	0.18		

Table 7.22: Multiple Comparisons of Average according to Category of Teachers for Classroom Management

Items	Statements	Category of Teachers (I)	Category of Teachers (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p value	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
C1	Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students	Low	Middle	-0.26	0.756	-1.35	0.83
			High	-1.15	0.041	-2.24	-0.06
		Middle	Low	0.26	0.756	-0.83	1.35
			High	-0.89	0.102	-1.98	0.20
		High	Low	1.15	0.041	0.06	2.24
			Middle	0.89	0.102	-0.20	1.98
Average	Classroom Management	Low	Middle	-0.59	0.141	-1.39	0.21
			High	-0.94	0.026	-1.74	-0.14
		Middle	Low	0.59	0.141	-0.21	1.39
			High	-0.35	0.418	-1.16	0.45
		High	Low	0.94	0.026	0.14	1.74
			Middle	0.35	0.418	-0.45	1.16

Note that items C2 to C7 are not included in the table because there are not statistically significant differences across the categories

For items C2 **'Making sure that I am visible to all students'**, C3 **'Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class'**, C4 **'Respecting students' ideas in class'** and C5

'Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly' the average is higher for high category teachers, lower for middle category teacher, and lower still for low category teachers. For items C6 **'Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class'** and C7 **'Anticipating class problems before they happen in class'** middle category teachers have the highest average, followed by high category teachers and finally low category teachers. However, there is no statistically significant difference for any of the C2 to C7 items across the category of teachers (all $p > 0.05$).
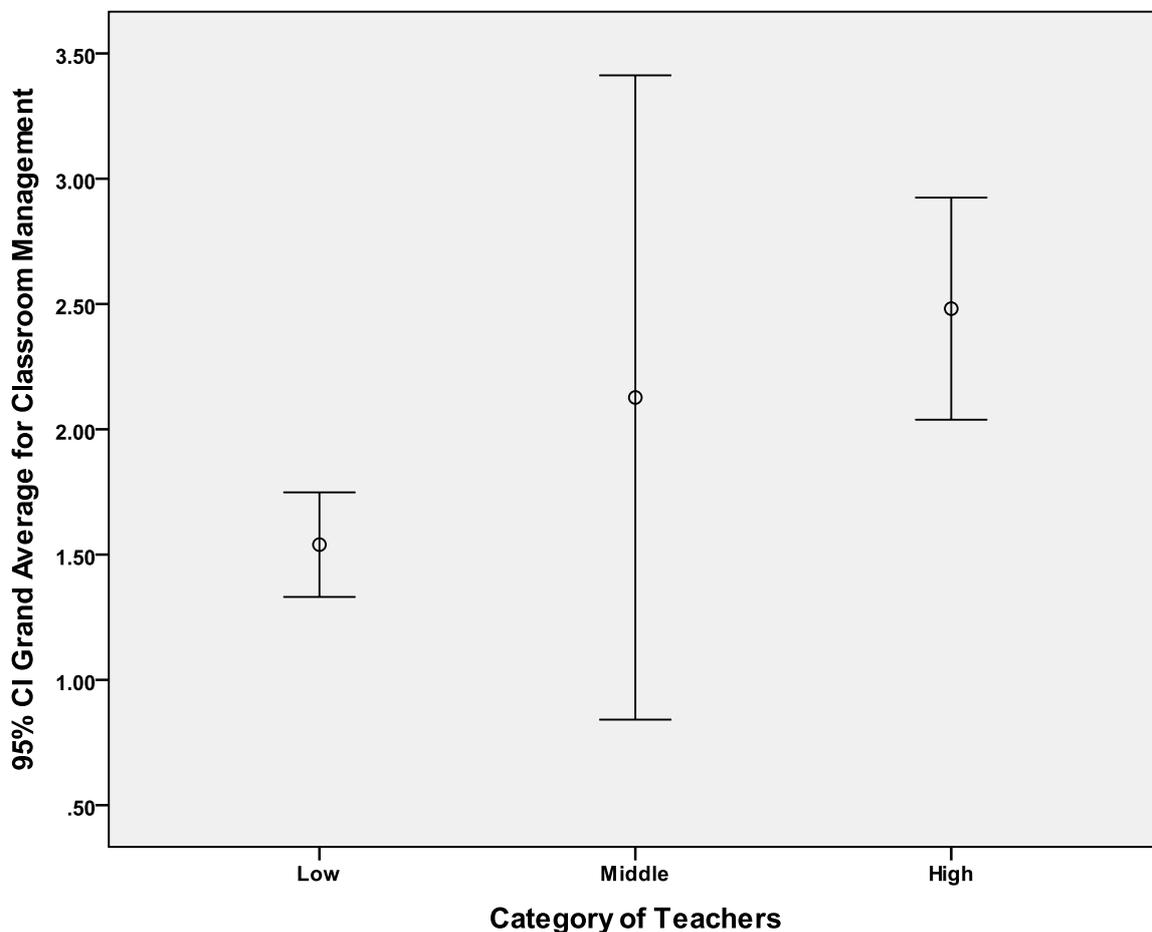
Figure 7.13: Combined Results with 95% CI for Classroom Management

The combined results for Classroom Management were calculated by taking the average of the seven items for each of the category of teachers. The results are shown in Table 7.21. The combined result for teachers in the high category was 2.48, for those in the middle category it was 2.13 and for those in the low category it was 1.54. Figure 7.13 shows the average with 95%

CI. One-Way ANOVA analysis shows that there is a statistically significant difference across these averages with an F statistics of 6.639 and p value of 0.030 (<0.05) (Table 7.21). The combined scores show a similar pattern to the C1 item, in that there is a statistically significant difference between high and low category teachers ($p = 0.026$ (<0.05)) but no statistically significant difference between high and middle category teachers ($p = 0.418$ (>0.05)) or between low and middle category teachers ($p = 0.141$ (>0.05)).

7.3.4 Evaluating and Taking Action

The frequency distribution on each of the statements under evaluation and taking action according to the level of the teachers is shown on table 7.23. For the statement D1 '**Evaluating the learning environment in class**' of the three teachers classified as low only one was observing doing it; of the three teachers classified as middle only none was observed doing it; and of the three teachers classified as high only one was observed doing it.

Table 7.24 shows the average for the four items under evaluating and taking action. Teachers classified as high and middle have a higher average than teachers classified as low for all four items. Furthermore, One-Way ANOVA analyses show statistically significant differences across all four items. The p values in each case are smaller than 0.05.

In order to pin-point where the differences lie in each of the items a post hoc test using Tukey was performed. The results of the test are show on table 7.25. For item D1 '**Evaluating the learning environment in class regularly'**, there is a statistically significant difference between high and low category teachers ($p = 0.001$ (<0.05)), there is also a statistically significant difference between middle and low category teachers ($p = 0.007$ (<0.05)), but there is no statistically significant difference between high and middle category teachers ($p = 0.184$ (>0.05)).

Table 7.23: Frequency Distribution of Observed Teachers according to Category Evaluating and Taking Action

Time in Minutes	Item	Statement	Category of Teachers											
			Low				Middle				High			
			Not Observed	Not Sure	Yes Observed	Several Times	Not Observed	Not Sure	Yes Observed	Several Times	Not Observed	Not Sure	Yes Observed	Several Times
5	D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class	2	0	1	0	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0
	D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	2	0	1	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	2	0
	D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0
	D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	2	0	1	0	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0
10	D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class	2	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	1	0	2	0
	D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	0	2	0
	D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	3	0
	D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	3	0
15	D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class	2	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	2	0	1	0	0	0	3	0	2	0	1	0
	D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	3	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
20	D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class	3	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
	D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	3	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	2	0
	D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	3	0
25	D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
	D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	0	2	0
	D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
	D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	3	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
30	D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class	3	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	3	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
	D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	2	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
35	D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
	D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
	D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
	D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
40	D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class	3	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
	D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	3	0	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	0	2	0
	D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	2	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	0	0	3	0
45	D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class	2	0	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
	D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	3	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	3	0
	D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	1	0	2	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	0
	D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	2	0	1	0	2	0	1	0	2	0	1	0

This pattern is repeated for items D2 '**Determining points of weakness and strength of the students'** and D3 '**Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation'**. For item D4 '**Treating behavioural problems educationally'** all three multiple comparisons are statistically significantly different: high vs low (p = 0.001 (<0.05); high vs middle (p = 0.024 (<0.05)) and low vs middle (p = 0.015 (<0.05)). In all 3 situations, the mean of high > middle > low, as expected.

Table 7.24: Average and ANOVA of Observed Teachers according to Category for Evaluating and Taking Action

Category of Teachers	Evaluating the learning environment in class (D1)	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students (D2)	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation (D3)	Treating behavioural problems educationally (D4)	Average Evaluating and Taking Action
Low	1.30	1.15	1.30	1.30	1.26
Middle	2.33	2.41	2.26	2.04	2.26
High	2.78	2.63	2.63	2.70	2.69
p value	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001

The researcher calculated the overall mean for evaluating and taking action by taking the average of the four items for each of the teachers according to category. The result is shown on last column of Table 7.24. The overall for teachers according to category is 2.69, 2.26 and 1.26 for teachers classified as high, middle and low respectively. Figure 7.14 shows the average with 95% CI. One-Way ANOVA analysis highlights that there is a statistically significant difference across these averages with p value of 0.001 (<0.05). The pattern seen in item D4 is repeated in the overall average for Evaluating and Taking Action, where the mean of high category teachers is significantly different from the mean of middle category teachers (p = 0.028 (<0.05)); the mean of high category teachers is significantly different from the mean of low category teachers (p = 0.001 (<0.05)); and the mean of middle category teachers is significantly different from the mean of low category teachers (p=0.001 (<0.05).

Table 7.25: Multiple Comparisons of Average according to Category of Teachers for Evaluating and Taking Action

Items	Statements	Category of Teachers (I)	Category of Teachers (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p value	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
D1	Evaluating the learning environment in class	Low	Middle	-1.04	0.007	-1.71	-0.37
			High	-1.48	0.001	-2.15	-0.81
		Middle	Low	1.04	0.007	0.37	1.71
			High	-0.44	0.184	-1.11	0.22
		High	Low	1.48	0.001	0.81	2.15
			Middle	0.44	0.184	-0.22	1.11
D2	Determining points of weakness and strength of the students	Low	Middle	-1.26	0.001	-1.82	-0.70
			High	-1.48	0.001	-2.04	-0.92
		Middle	Low	1.26	0.001	0.70	1.82
			High	-0.22	0.483	-0.78	0.33
		High	Low	1.48	0.001	0.92	2.04
			Middle	0.22	0.483	-0.33	0.78
D3	Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation	Low	Middle	-0.96	0.002	-1.42	-0.51
			High	-1.33	0.001	-1.79	-0.88
		Middle	Low	0.96	0.002	0.51	1.42
			High	-0.37	0.102	-0.82	0.08
		High	Low	1.33	0.001	0.88	1.79
			Middle	0.37	0.102	-0.08	0.82
D4	Treating behavioural problems educationally	Low	Middle	-0.74	0.015	-1.30	-0.18
			High	-1.41	0.001	-1.96	-0.85
		Middle	Low	0.74	0.015	0.18	1.30
			High	-0.67	0.024	-1.22	-0.11
		High	Low	1.41	0.001	0.85	1.96
			Middle	0.67	0.024	0.11	1.22
Average	Evaluating and Taking Action	Low	Middle	-1.00	0.001	-1.37	-0.63
			High	-1.43	0.001	-1.79	-1.06
		Middle	Low	1.00	0.001	0.63	1.37
			High	-0.43	0.028	-0.79	-0.06
		High	Low	1.43	0.001	1.06	1.79
			Middle	0.43	0.028	0.06	0.79
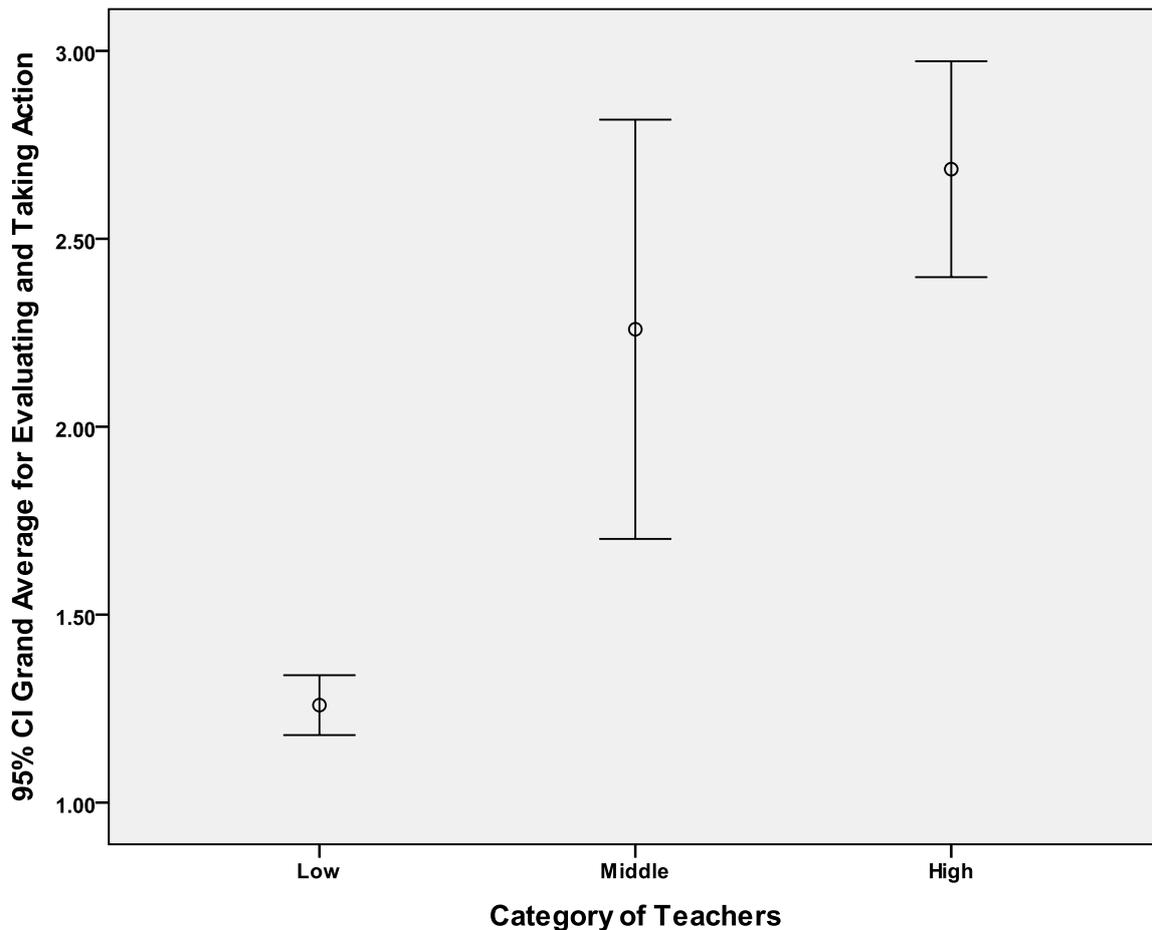
Figure 7.14: Overall with 95% CI of Evaluating and Taking Action

7.4 COMPARISON OF THE RESULTS FROM THE OBSERVATION AND THE QUESTIONNAIRES

7.4.1 Preparing and Organising

In this section the researcher compares the questionnaire data to the observation data for the nine teachers that were observed. In the preceding sections ANOVA was used to pin-point the statistically significant differences across the three categories of teachers. This was reassuring but in order to link the questionnaire and observation data directly irrespective of teacher's category correlation is more appropriate.

The scatter plot for the observation data and the questionnaire data is shown in Figure 7.15 for Preparing and Organising. There is a linear and very strong positive relationship between the two. The correlation coefficient between the observation and questionnaire data is 0.927 and the p value is 0.001 (<0.01). There is a statistically significant, positive and linear relationship between the observation and questionnaire data. This indicates that there is strong agreement between the observation data and the questionnaire data.
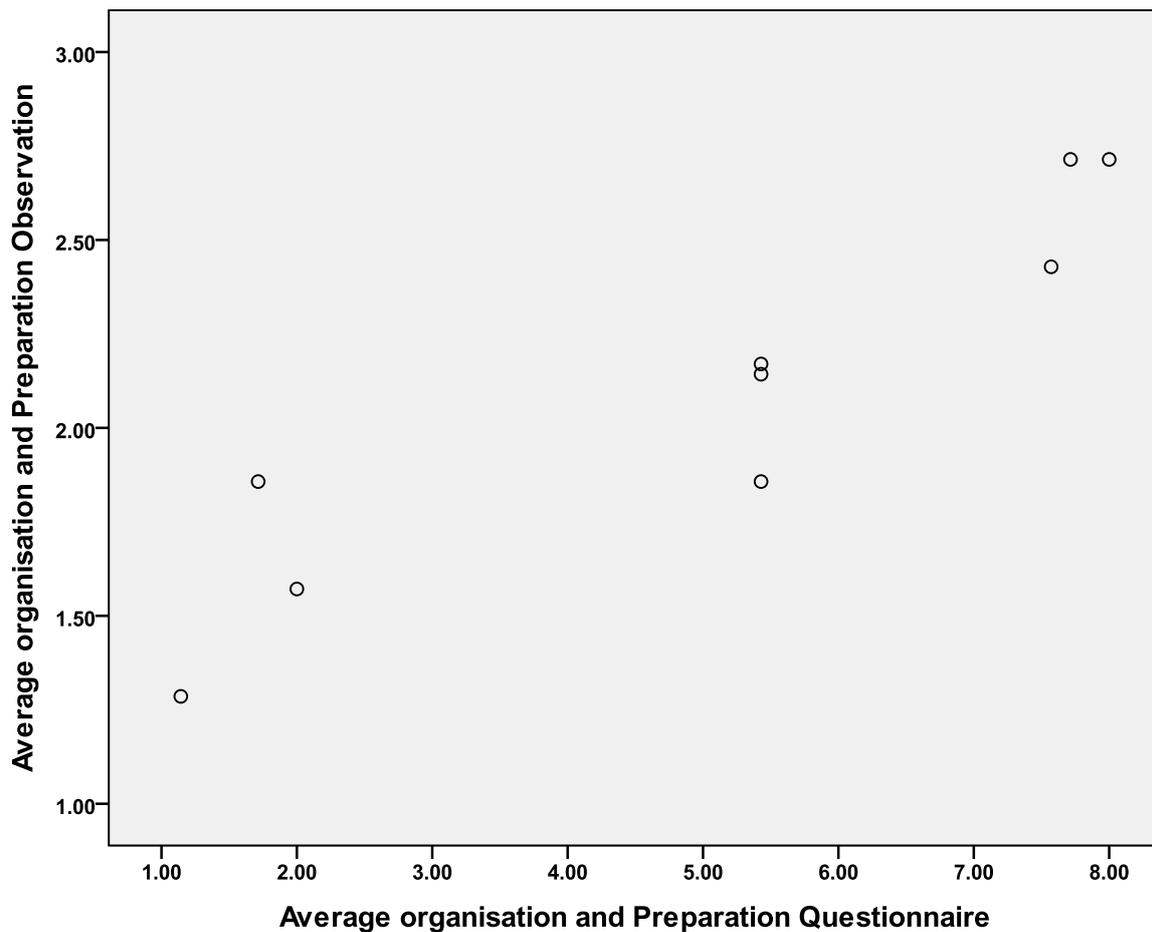
Correlation coefficient r = 0.927 and p = 0.001

Figure 7.15: Scatter Plot Average of Preparing and Organising between Observation and Questionnaire Data

7.4.2 Group Work

The researcher carried out a similar exercise for Group Work as was done for Preparing and Organising. The scatter plot for the observation data and the questionnaire data for Group

Work is shown on Figure 7.16. Again, there is a linear and strong positive relationship between the observation data and the questionnaire data for Group Work. The correlation coefficient between the observation and questionnaire data is 0.860 and the p value is 0.003 (<0.01). This further indicates that there is a strong agreement between the findings from the observation data and the questionnaire data.
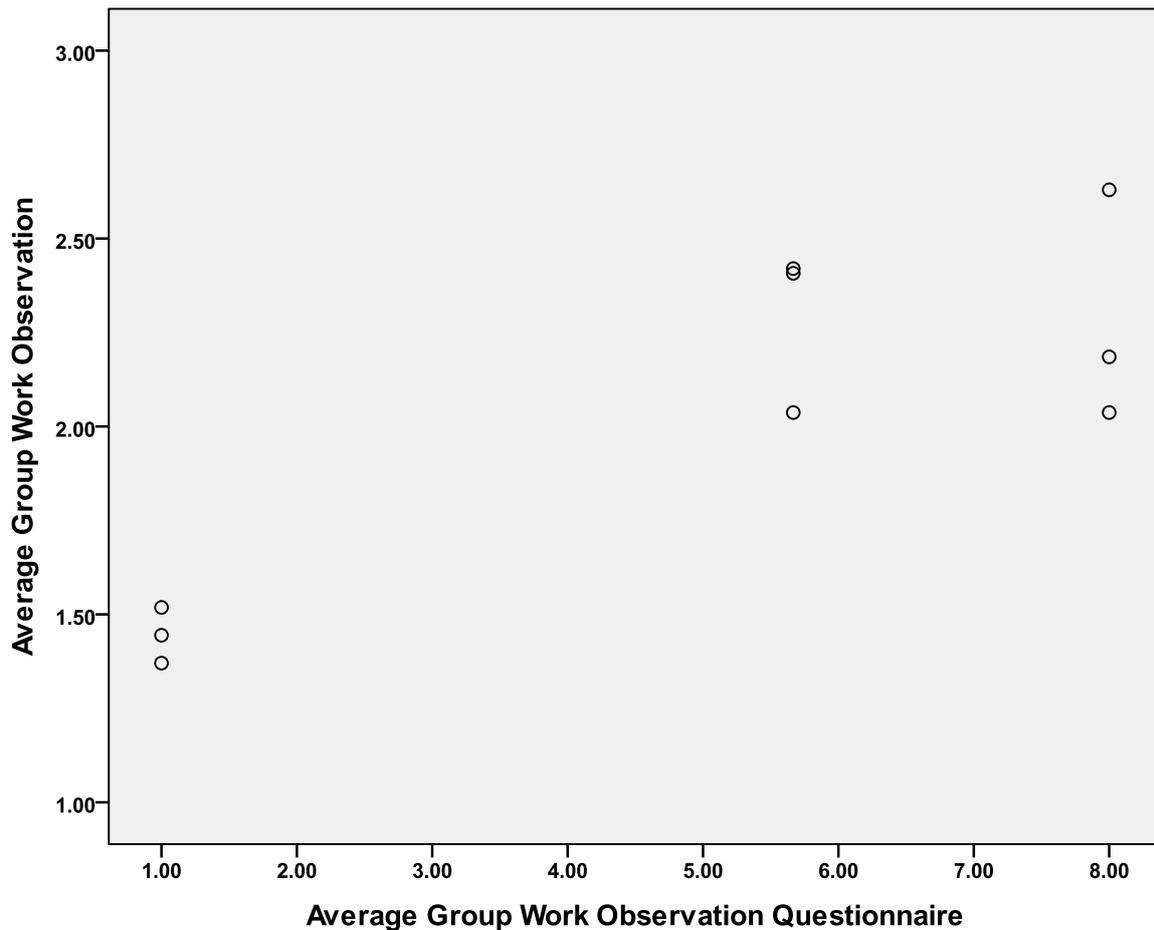
Correlation coefficient r = 0.860 and p = 0.003

Figure 7.16: Scatter Plot Average of Group Work between Observation and Questionnaire Data

7.4.3 Classroom Management

The researcher carried out a similar exercise for Classroom Management as was done for Preparing and Organising. The scatter plot for the observation and the questionnaire data for Classroom Management is shown in Figure 7.17. Again, there is a linear and strong positive

relationship between the observation data and the questionnaire data for Classroom Management. The correlation coefficient between the observation and questionnaire data is 0.814 and the p value is 0.008 (<0.01). There is a statistically significant, positive and linear relationship between the observation and questionnaire data for Classroom Management just as there was for Preparation and Organisation and for Group Work. This further indicates that there is a strong agreement between the findings from the observation and the questionnaire data.
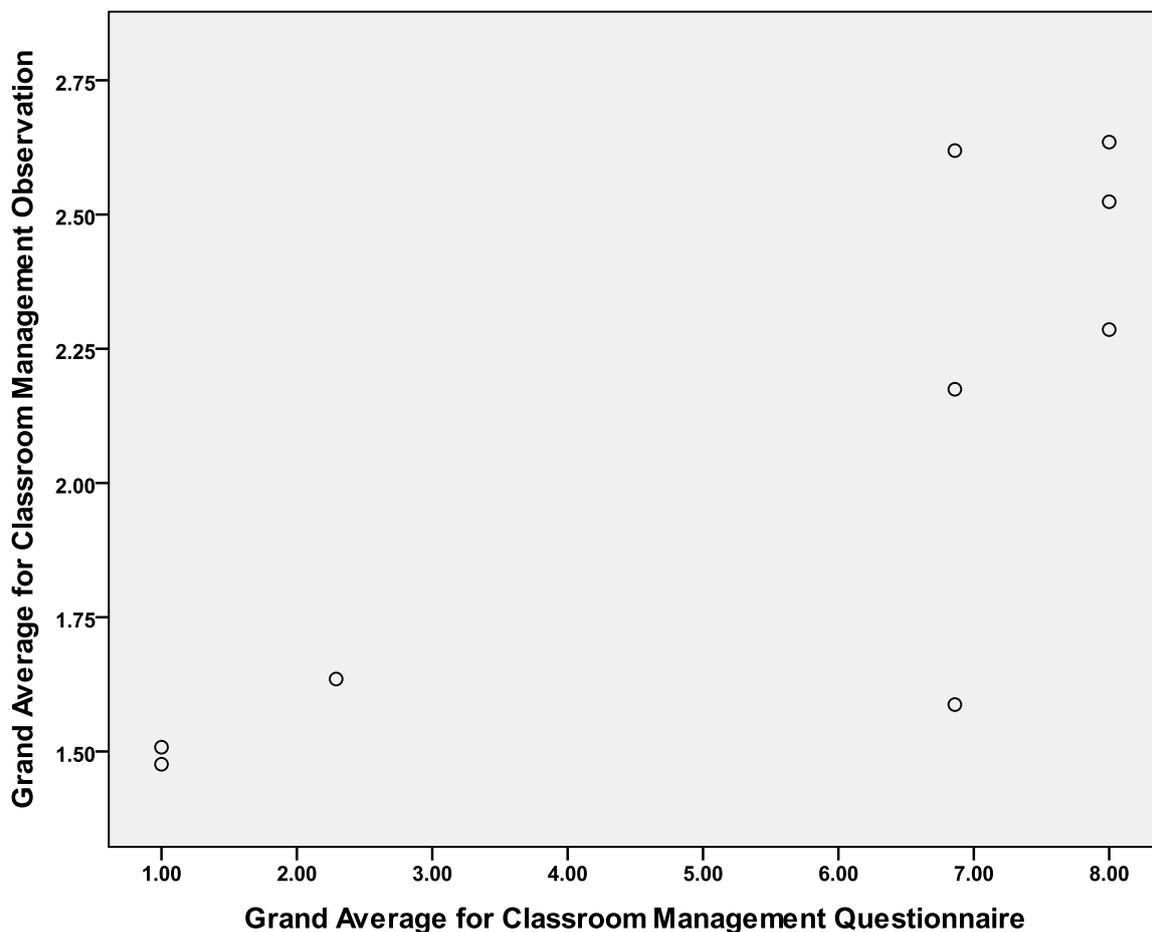
Correlation coefficient r = 0.814 and p = 0.008

Figure 7.17: Scatter Plot Average of Classroom Management between Observation and Questionnaire Data

The scatter gram also indicates that the questionnaire results for the middle and high category groups were very close to each other which go some way to explaining why the observational results for those groups showed little difference.

7.4.4 Evaluating and Taking Action

The scatter plot for the observation data and the questionnaire data for Evaluating and Taking Action is shown in Figure 7.18. Again, there is a linear and very strong positive relationship between the observation data and the questionnaire data for Evaluating and Taking Action. The correlation coefficient between the observation and questionnaire data is almost perfect at 0.982 and the p value is 0.001 (<0.01). There is a statistically significant, positive and linear relationship between the observation and questionnaire data for Evaluating and Taking Action just as there was for Preparation and Organisation, Group Work and Classroom Management. This further indicates that there is a strong agreement between the findings from the observation and the questionnaire data.
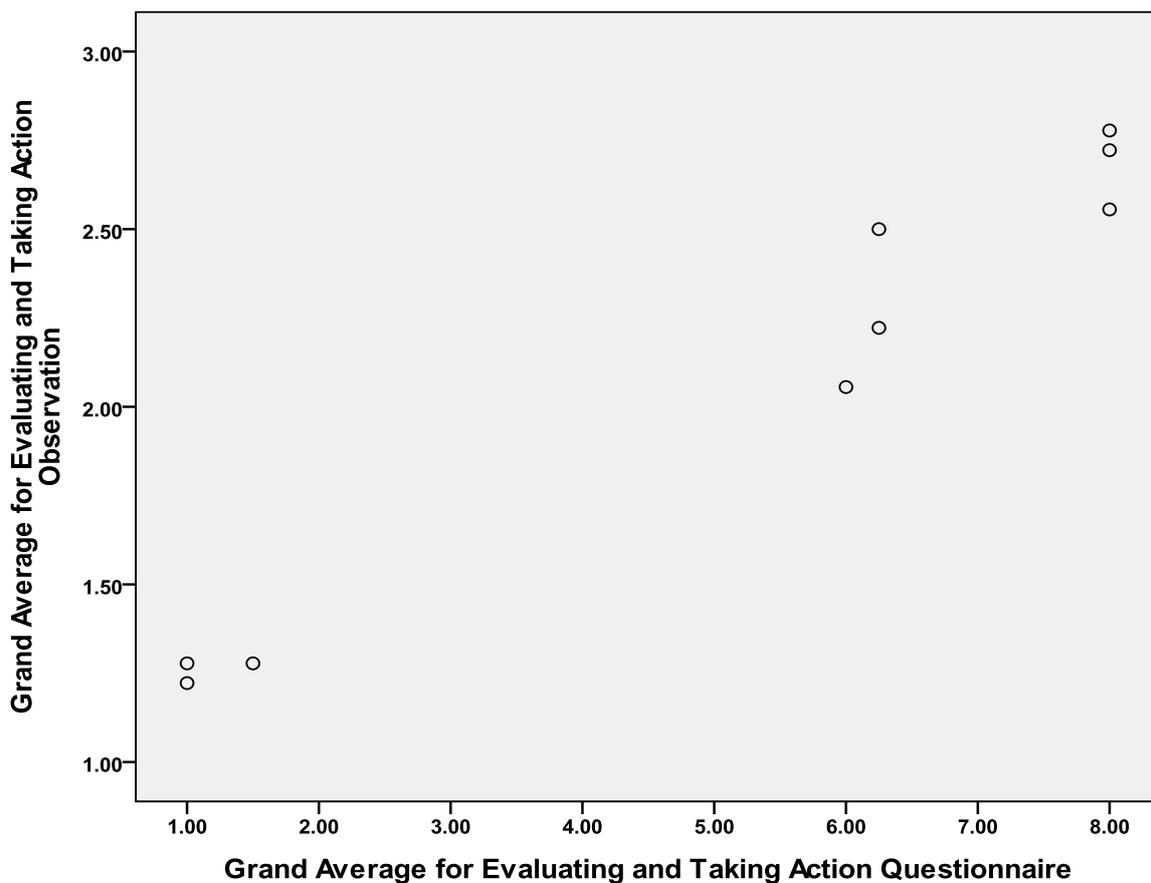
Correlation coefficient r = 0.982 and p = 0.001

Figure 7.18: Scatter Plot Average of Evaluating and Taking Action between Observation and Questionnaire Data

7.5 SUMMARY

As previously highlighted the questionnaire is the main research instrument, which was backed up by observation. The previous chapter analysed the questionnaire data. In this chapter, an analysis of the observation results was undertaken to establish the validity of the questionnaire responses. Thirty one teachers were observed in order to establish a link between the teacher's responses and the researcher's observation of the four dimension of the research: Preparing and organising; work group; classroom management and evaluating and taking action.

Each dimension was analysed separately and each provided evidence of a very strong link between the observations and the questionnaire response.

CHAPTER VIII
DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

8.0 INTRODUCTION

This study describes the classroom management approaches of upper-class primary stage teachers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) in the capital city, Riyadh. The objective of the research is to understand the reality of management approaches practiced in classroom and based on this understanding be able to present suggestions that will lead to developments in the curriculum and therefore the education system in Saudi Arabia.

The instruments used to collect for the research were the questionnaire as the main instrument and observation as a supportive instrument. In this chapter, the results from the questionnaire and the observation will form the basis for the discussion which will focus on the research questions initially laid out in Chapter one and repeated below.

- What management approaches are used during classroom activities in the upper class teachers in boys' primary schools?

- What is the preferred approach of classroom management for teachers in the upper classrooms in the primary stage?

- Are there statistically significance differences between teachers' classroom management in terms of the following variables: degree of qualifications, years of experience, training programme in classroom management, and subject taught?

- Are there any statistical significant differences between supervisors and teachers resulting from the changes in the variables: the job, degree of qualifications, years of experience, training programme in classroom management, and subject taught?

- What are the suggestions of the sample members (teachers and educational supervisors) for developing the approaches of classroom management and

accordingly, curriculum and instruction for teachers in the upper classes in boys'
primary schools?

In this chapter, the research results of the analyses will be discussed. This chapter has three
sections following the introduction as follows:

Section 8.1: discusses the results relating to the four dimensions namely: (A) organising
objects and material; (B) organising the dimension role of the teacher and students; (C) class
performance; and (D) class evaluation. Using the same method, every dimension will be
analysed separately. Section 8.2 will discuss the results of the differences among teachers
with detailed discussion of each of the following: qualifications, years of experience, training
programmes in classroom management, and the subjects taught. Section 8.3 will discuss the
differences among teachers and supervisors with detailed discussion of each of the following:
qualifications, years of experience, training programmes in classroom management, and the
subjects taught.

8.1 DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS BY DIMENSIONS

This section discusses the results derived from the questionnaire, the observation and the
literature across the four dimensions: (A) Organising Objects and Materials; (B) organising
teachers' and pupils' roles; (C) class performance and (D) class evaluation. It also highlights
a number of recommendations based on the discussion.

8.1.1 Organising Objects and Materials

The results from both the questionnaire and the observation highlight that in general both
teachers and educational supervisors realise the importance of Organising objects and
materials. However, there is a difference in their views as to its importance.

The statement A5 **'Prepare the time allocation of the lesson**' received the highest mean in this dimension from both teachers and educational supervisors (6.15 and 5.67 respectively) in the questionnaire. There are two possible reasons for the high score. First, it may be due to an appreciation of the importance of time in the classroom. Second, it may be due to the directions from Ministry of Education concerning the organisation of class time.

However, despite the high score, it was clear from the open questionnaire that not all teachers practice this skill properly. Although some teachers attempt to allocate the class time properly they are unable to adhere to it because of difficulties such as the long curriculum that needs to be covered in a limited time. For example, ID56 (The educational supervisor asks me to finish the curriculum despite its length especially when individual differences between pupils are considered. I hope this point is considered for it importance in my classroom management effectiveness). Supervisors monitor whether or not the curriculum is achieved. In turn, the failure adhere to time may affect the quality of teaching. Therefore, it is important to balance quantity and quality in the preparation of the curriculum preparation in order to ensure that there is sufficient time allocated to each part of the curriculum and not concentrating on the cognitive side and neglecting the skills side. Also, there should be a balance in class activities during the lesson. This is referred to by Soliman and Adebi (1990). Evertson and Emmer (1982); Esawi (1999) highlight the importance of training in classroom time management.

Statement A6 '**Putting the teaching aids in the proper place in class'** received the second highest mean from teachers and educational supervisors (6.03 and 5.49 respectively) in the questionnaire. Adherence to this practice was proved in the observation. However, although most teachers followed this practice teacher ID137 placed a teaching aid where it could not be seen by the classroom. This may be due to and justified by the fact that the class was crowded beyond its capacity. This problem prevails in both government-owned and rented

school buildings which affect in turn the classroom activities performance. In fact, many rented school buildings are built for housing purposes, but because of shortage of school buildings the government has to resorts to renting these unsuitable building.

Teachers participating in the research do their best to adapt to the available resources and circumstances despite the difficulties they face. This may be why the answers to the questionnaire and the practice witnessed in the observation process score highly, despite the difficulties faced. As an example, from the open question teacher ID172 commented that the large number of pupils in classes, whether in government schools or rented ones, needs to be resolved. He further added that the issue of inappropriate equipment requires to be addressed. However, the problems do not mean that teachers should not be prepared during his training or through on-the-job training.

It is important to pay attention to the proper place for teaching aids regardless of their kind and it is true to say that every teacher has his/her own way. However, (Higgins, 2003:14) notes that: ''Computers can be used individually, in small or large groups or by the teacher with the whole class. Each approach has been shown to be effective, though there are some differences in approaches and as a result upon outcomes. The difference comes from the way in which the teacher uses the different opportunities to help learners talk and think about their work''.

The statement A4 **"Preparing lesson plans, (aims and objectives)"** was ranked third from teachers and educational supervisors (5.75 and 5.44 respectively) in importance in the questionnaire in this dimension. This can be attributed to the fact that Ministry of Education imposes aims and objectives to be included in the preparation notes of lessons checked by head teachers and educational supervisors, which in turn affects the teacher's evaluation. These aims and objectives were not always put into practice. Accordingly, the researcher

believes that Ministry of Education needs to reconsider the process of the written daily preparation to take account of recent modern technological development. Stephens and Crawley (1994), stress the importance of clarity of the teacher's plan inside the class.

The statement A1 **"Arranging pupils' desks in class"** is ranked fourth for the teachers' agreed with an average of (4.97 out of 8) and in the fifth rank for educational supervisors (4.55 out of 8). The reason for the degree of priority may be because the supervisors are not completely aware of what happens in classrooms because they are not there all the time. In the observation sessions it was apparent that teachers are keen to arrange the pupils' desks in parallel lines. They do not, for example, arrange them in small groups; a system which has proved to be effective in studies such as that of Stephens and Crawley (1994). The reason for not adopting a group arrangement can be attributed to the traditional way of teaching in Saudi Arabia, as highlighted by Hasan (2003), and/or the large number of pupils in a limited class space does not allow this.

It is noticeable that statement A7 **'Preparing alternative material'** comes at the lowest end of the dimension (Organising objects and material) with means of 3.68 and 3.94 for teachers and supervisors respectively. This signifies that teachers largely do not have contingency arrangements in case of problems; perhaps, this is because they are not trained to do this. This aspect was clearly elucidated when during one observation session, teacher ID18 had arranged a Power Point presentation but could not do so because the material and equipment were kept in a locked drawer to which an absent pupil had the key. The researcher believes statement A7 is difficult to assess. Some questions need to be added by the researcher because sometimes nothing faces the teacher to prepare substitutes. Some of these questions may be: Have you prepared yourself for unexpected situations? Do you have substitute lessons ready?

8.1.2 Organising Teachers' and Pupils' Roles

It can be stated that both teachers and educational supervisors agree on the importance of Organising teacher and pupils' role but again the respondents showed a difference in priorities. The statement B1 **"Organising classroom discussion among pupils"** was ranked first with averages of 5.87 for teachers and 5.68 for educational supervisors in the questionnaire. According to Marzano et al (2003), it may be a positive result but it is preferred to be considered as good pupil-teacher relation affects results. Wragg (1995) refers to the absence of dialogue with pupils as a reason for violence and aggression. Also, Afash (1991) refers to the dire need for classroom management methods to include a human relations' aspect to ensure that pupils' views and feelings are taken into consideration.

The statement B2 **'Coordinating pupils' work among themselves and their teacher'** was ranked second in the questionnaire with an average of 5.98 for teachers and 5.29 for educational supervisors. This reflects the teachers' awareness of the importance encouraging pupils' participation in discussions. However, observing teachers revealed the problem of achieving this in small classrooms area and the consequent impact on overcrowding. In addition, a number of teachers following the traditional methods of teaching that do encourage pupil involvement as it depends mainly on lecturing at the pupils. Furthermore, a number of teachers do not resort to discussion in order avoid wasting time in an already overcrowded curriculum.

Statement B3 **'Discussion of class rules'** was ranked third rank with an average of 5.67 for teachers and 3.98 for supervisors. For example, one of the teachers (ID 432) wrote that ''there are no fixed rules from the very beginning and I made use of my experience''. In general the researcher noticed that the teachers used the instructions randomly with no

written instructions written in class previously known by all pupils. Thus, these teachers contradict Evertson and Emmer (1982) who stress the importance of establishing class rules very early for all pupils who should understand the consequences of any violations.

8.1.3 Class Performance

Statement C6 **'Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class'** was ranked first rank by teachers with an average of 6.84, and second by educational supervisors with an average of 6.40. The full attention of the teacher to what happens in class is a necessary skill that enables the teacher to control the class. Brouwers and Tomic (2000) say that teachers who suffer from their inability to control the class and keep discipline indeed do little to resolve this problem.

Although the beliefs and practices indicate an acceptance of this statement, not everything can be noticed by the teacher, especially when writing on the board with his back to the class. Teacher ID533 was very attentive to the class but when he started writing on the board, two pupils started talking quietly, regardless of what they were talking about, it is recommended to train teachers on acquiring different concentration skills; writing on the board should be carried out at times which guarantee the pupils' concentration. A further recommendation is introducing new technology in teaching which allows teachers to write while facing the class and thus maintaining control. However, this is not liked by some teachers in Saudi Arabia as they prefer the traditional method of teaching nor is the equipment needed available in all cases. Taan (1989), Tawlba (2000), Wilson (2006), refer to the improved effectiveness of teachers using technology to increase the level of learning.

Statements C4 **'Respecting pupils' ideas in class'** and C5 **'Consolidating the positive behaviour of pupils directly'** ranked equal second with an average of 6.81. Wragg (1995) argues that these two elements are important is supporting positive behaviour which in turn

encourages the pupils to do more. In the observation of ID412, classified as a middle category teacher, he was late in consolidating behaviour and participation which made the pupils frustrated. On the other hand, teacher ID383 consolidated behaviour and participation which made the pupils keen to participate.

One of the main teaching problems in Saudi Arabia is the adherence to traditional methods of teaching in which the teacher dominates the class, and does not respect the pupils' ideas to the desired level; for example, the pupil often answers but rarely asks. Teachers believe that giving the pupil the chance to ask questions undermines their status and dignity. Hanson (2000) argues that less dominating teachers have fewer problems in classroom management. The researcher observed that consolidating positive behaviour is done verbally which is acceptable but it is better to vary means of consolidation, as in some British schools where pupils receive special cards for positive actions. This is highly appreciated by the pupils. Also, Hamelin (2003) proved it is possible to consolidate positive behaviour through non-verbal signals showing appreciation. Elliott and Stemler (2008) and Elliott and Place (2012) say that there are some behaviours that may help interested teachers to better their skills in managing behaviour through effective class practises, for example, the teacher may resort to eye contact, face expressions or body language, such means have strong messages expressing confidence and professionalism.

Statement C2 **'Making sure that I am visible to all pupils'** is applied both in the questionnaire answers (third ranked) and during observation of all categories of teachers (second ranked). This may be due to the parallel desk system in most classes; however, a number of teachers suffered because of restrictions on their movements due to the overcrowded classrooms.

Statement C1 **'Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to pupils'** was ranked fourth in this dimension with an average of 6.30 for teachers and 5.43 for educational supervisors. This ranking would indicate that it is practiced less often than other aspects, which is strange when Alsaed (1998), Mohammed et al (2001), Salama (2004) and Dawood (2002) all stress the importance of individual differences when assigning activities. The researcher observed teacher ID510 who asked a question and then addressed the pupils saying "Who can answer?" The researcher asked the teacher if he intended observing the individual differences, but his answer was "No, it was a question for all the class with no particular aim in mind"

The lowest ranked answer in the dimension is the statement C7 **'Anticipating class problems before they happen in class'** with an average of 6.03 for teachers and 5.35 for educational supervisors. Clearly, it is better for any teacher to be prepared for possible problems whether behavioural or material. However, during the observations it was clear that this skill is missing in all categories of teachers. For example during the observation for teacher ID95, one pupil complained about the poor air conditioning stating that it was very hot. The teacher was unable to resolve the issue. When was asked if he expected such a problem, he said "No". Although the teacher cannot provide proper solutions, but he is supposed to expect some behavioural and material problems related to class conditions. This may lead us to stress the importance of classroom good ventilation, cleanness and lighting to give the teacher and the pupils the chance to achieve the desired goals. This was referred to by: Soliman and Adebi (1990) and Manke (1994).

8.1.4 Class Evaluation

Konori and Melaefi (2004) highlight the starting point for developing individuals in any job is evaluation. As Martin and Yin (1999) further elucidate, the evaluation of classroom

management skills should be considered by teachers and school administrations in order that the teacher may correct his/her performance.

Statement D4 **'Treating behavioural problems educationally'** was ranked first with an average of 6.22 for teachers and 5.46 for educational supervisors. The results mean that teachers are aware of this point, which has been reinforced by recent ministerial directions to avoid violence in dealing with behavioural problems. It was observed that there was no educational treatment for behavioural problems. For example, during the observation of teachers in relation to D4 low category teachers were not pro-active on treating behavioural problems educationally. A further example was teacher ID477 who was writing on the board when a pupil whistled, failing to know which pupil did it, and the teacher punished all the pupils in the classroom which is clearly unfair. The teacher should have ignored the disruption as it was the first time it happened. If the offending pupil is known, then Kher, Lacina and Yandell (2000) argue an effective policy is to blame and warn the pupil; also, they consider that the head teacher may speak with the individual. They also say that shouting and threatening can do nothing. Merrett and Wheldall (1982) suggest that an alternative method for dealing with this type of problems is to contact interested parents and have a dialogue with the pupils.

Statement D1 **'Evaluating the learning environment in class regularly'** is ranked poorly with an average of 5.45 for teachers and 4.71 for supervisors. However, the relatively low averages indicate that there is a need for training in evaluation. A teacher who lacks this skill will not be able to understand his/her points of weakness and therefore will not be able to develop his/her performance.

The results of observing the teachers in the dimension **(Class evaluation)** show no differences among teachers classified high and middle. The differences are among the high

and middle compared with the less except statement D4 *"Treating behavioural problems educationally"* where there are differences among all teachers in all levels. This may indicate difference in practicing the skill of class evaluation. This may lead us also to say that the procedure of class evaluation may be different and varied.

Observing many teachers, it was clear that there is no standard strategy for evaluation; every teacher has his own way and the school gives him this authority except for the final results (pass or fail). According to Ministry of Education regulations, written exams have been changed to what is known as continuous evaluation.

It is important to mention that Ministry of Education, the school and the teachers are all keen on evaluating the cognitive side only. On the other hand, evaluation ignores its relevance with environmental side of the school and the class in particular in addition to the curriculum in general. Out of these results, it is favoured that Ministry of Education emphasises the fact that the culture of educational development can be achieved only through evaluation and not depending on the cognitive side only.

In general, the teachers realise the importance of class evaluation with no fixed measures but it is noticed that the procedures of evaluation are not enough and teachers differ among themselves. In this regard, some of them have a fixed list, while others depend mainly on their memory and also some teachers do not believe in class evaluation at all. After the lesson, the researcher asked a teacher who was observed that why he did not follow a specific approach for class evaluation, he said that he depended mainly on the evaluation of the educational supervisor and the head teacher. This shows that the concept of evaluation needs to be more comprehensive. It needs training on its procedures. Many studies referred to the importance of training teachers on the skill of class evaluation as a second factor in class

management. Example of such studies is that of Tawlba (2000); Joyce and Showers (2002); Evertson & Harris (1992); Griffin, Priscilla & Bharadwaja (2001).

The head teacher and the educational supervisor visit the teacher in certain times to measure certain skills, while the teacher spends longer times with the pupils; this is why the teacher himself should be responsible for the observation process.

8.2 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN TEACHERS ACROSS THE DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND BY DIMENSIONS

This section discusses the results derived from the questionnaire, the observation and the literature to assess the statistically significant differences between teachers only out of the analysis of their answers to the third research question in chapter six by demographic variable (degree of qualification, years of experience, training programmes in classroom management; subject taught and location of school across the four dimension . It also highlights a number of recommendations based on the discussion.

8.2.1 The Degree of Qualification

The results indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between teachers who have an education related degree and those who have a non-education related degree in three of the four the dimensions , A (Organising objects and materials), B (Organising teachers and students' roles), and D (class evaluation). One reason for the absence of a statistically significant difference is that although teachers with no educational qualifications have generally studied theoretical subjects this has not been intensive. Thus, these teachers have studied psychology and teaching methods including classroom management or they have attended training courses. Also, these teachers may have benefited from being colleagues with educationally qualified teachers. Another reason may be that the educational supervisor

supervises mixed group of teachers and issues similar directions regardless of qualification. Furthermore, the practical preparation period, whether good or poor, the two kinds of teachers study intensively similar or not. All these matters may sometimes be a factor cannot be ignored. To a degree this result is consistent with the findings of the study of Tawlba (2000), whose results show no statistically significant differences between the views of members of the sample regardless the degree of qualification to the practice of classroom management competencies.

Also it is clear from the results that there is a statistically significant difference between the two degree backgrounds in dimension C (Class performance). The educationally qualified teachers had an average of 0.111, while the average of non-qualified educationally is 0.366 with $p = 0.018$ (<0.05). This may be explained by the fact that educationally qualified teachers may have received classroom management skills in particular if compared with the previous dimension during their study more than those without this background.

8.2.2 Years of experience

The results indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between teachers according to their years of experience in dimension A (organising objects and materials). The Tukey test gives a value of $p = 0.1$ (<0.05) when comparing teachers with experience of 11 years and over against those with 5 years or less experience. The difference could be related to the professional experience gained over the years. This result agrees with the study of Martin and Shoho (2000), whose results show a correlation between the person's experience and his/her management of the class. However, it is important to note that the experience is not only gained in on-the-job terms, but can be achieved through completion of personal and professional self-development programmes.

On the other hand, there are no statistically significant differences between of the years of experience of teachers in dimension B (Organising teachers' and students' roles), C (Class performance) and D (Class evaluation), with the values of p = 0.922, 0.261, 0.697 respectively. This means that there is general agreement between the views of the teachers regardless of their years of experience to the activities in the three dimensions B, C and D. This may be due to the simple improvement in the quality of teacher preparation programmes and the culture of teachers in the past recent years, which have helped to make the skills of both groups similar in the dimensions B, C, D contrary to dimension A. These results agree with the Afash (1991) except for dimension A, where his results showed no statistically significant difference.

8.2.3 Training Programmes in Classroom Management

The results highlight that the averages of teachers who have received training in classroom management were higher than the average of teachers who have not have received training in classroom management in three of the four dimensions : A (Organising objects and materials); B (Organising teachers and students' roles), and D (Class evaluation). The exception was dimension C (Class performance) where the results were reversed. However there are no statistically significant differences across any of the four dimensions. This surprisingly means that there is a convergence of the views of teachers regardless of whether or not they have received training programmes in classroom management.

Importantly, responses to the open question in the questionnaire indicate that teachers are not satisfied with the quality of training courses in the field of classroom management in Saudi Arabia, where it is normally provided by the educational supervisor. The role of the educational supervisor role is to develop approaches for classroom management through various training programmes both in and out of school (for example, at training centres).

However, some studies on Saudi Arabia including Alharthy (1993) reveal that the educational supervisor only uses classroom visits and occasionally individual or collective interviews. Furthermore, some supervisors may lack a full understanding of the theories of classroom management, basing the programmes on his/her personal experience in classroom management without studying the subject and acquiring the necessary depth of knowledge. The main criticism directed by teachers at training programmes in classroom management is that they are too few and that the length of time during the session is not sufficient to produce benefits. One teacher stated that teachers do not want only to learn the theoretical side, but prefer to learn the practical elements through video or discussion with other teachers on techniques in classroom management. Joyce and Showers(2002) and Showers (1987) refer that training can affect teaching noticeably in classes if it follows certain designs and steps justifying the new method, then showing how it can be realised. Teachers should be given a chance to try the new method, then having their responses to this method. Joyce and Showers (2002) stress the importance of teachers coaching on what should be done to better the new method.

One group responded to the open question that some of the courses on the management of the class focused only on behavioural control and ignored other aspects of teaching and classroom management skills such as classroom organisation and the relationship with the pupils. This may be due to the traditional understanding held by some educational supervisors regarding the management of the classroom and teaching in general in Saudi Arabia. Therefore, there is an urgent need to develop training programmes based on classroom management approaches in Saudi Arabia, introduce greater diversity of topics into these courses, ensure coverage of practical issues, and ensure they are run by specialists.

Many studies, such as Merrett and Wheldall (1982) and Evertson, (1985), acknowledge the importance of training programmes in classroom management in having a significant impact in the development of skills of classroom management for the trainees. These programmes may also contribute to the rehabilitation and efficiency of teachers and raise the level of their knowledge, skills, and creativity in managing their classrooms, in turn benefiting the academic achievement of their students. Zuckerman (2000) shows how teaching classroom management to student teachers process ensure that they become better managers.

8.2.4 Subject Taught

The results highlight that there are no statistically significant differences between the teachers across the different subjects taught. This is probably due to the central supervision of teachers in Saudi Arabia, in which Ministry of Education, through its supervision offices, takes similar measures in most disciplines. However, this does not mean that teachers in the various disciplines follow the same priorities in classroom management. For example, the results indicate that the highest average value of 0.060 is achieved by teachers of religion for dimension D (Class evaluation). This may be explained in terms of the new method imposed by Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia on teachers called continuous evaluation. This means that each pupil is evaluated in every class rather than the monthly. This made the teachers of religion care about the dimension of D (Class evaluation) more than the other dimensions. Meanwhile, the highest average value of the Arabic language teachers is 0.21 for dimension B (Organising teachers' and students' roles). The reason for this result is probably because Arabic language teachers include their material in the development of communication and discussion between teacher and pupil in the linguistic aspect. As for teachers of mathematics, the highest average value is 0.282 in dimension C. This is probably

because mathematics teachers are often more keen on performance than other aspects of understanding and comprehension.

However, this emphasis on the individual aspects should not overlook the importance of combining the skills and classroom management topics in all four dimensions.

8.2.5 Location of School

The results show that there are no statistically significant differences among teachers in terms of location of school. This may be explained by the centralised supervision by Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia and the division of schools is merely a regulatory framework to accommodate the increasing numbers of pupils and to control supervision. This means that the classroom environment is comparable in almost all respects, including the cultural aspects. It is better to mention that school buildings are a further challenge. Ministry of Education, under the pressure of growing increase in students, has been forced to rent buildings with poor specifications that were not designed for use as schools. The 7th Development Plan highlights the high percentage of rented schools about 60% of schools, both for boys or girls, arguing that the steady increase in population will make the problem worse (Ministry of Education, 2004). The Plan for Education for All points out that rented building cannot be developed to suit future changes (Ministry of Education, 2004). The rented school buildings lack engineering, health and education measures. Alzeaber (2000) highlights many problems facing the education system are related to rented buildings. The absence of elements such as space, light and air, as well as over-crowding and the lack of availability of playgrounds, libraries and suitable halls, all lead to low study level (Ministry of Education. 2008). Alhamid et al. (2009) point out that further problems associated with rented buildings are the lack of space for activities and labs.

8.3 STATISTICALLY SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN TEACHERS AND SUPERVISORS BY DIMENSIONS

This section discusses the results derived from the questionnaire, the observation and the literature to assess the statistically significant differences between teachers and supervisors across the four dimensions. What made the researcher tackles the educational supervisors besides teachers is that Ministry of Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia considers the importance of the educational supervisor's participation in developing the educational process; his/her role affects the practices of teachers in classrooms. Through the educational supervisor, the study curricula are reconsidered, school management and pupils' standard become better. In a bid to have results that may be helpful, the researcher preferred the participation of the educational supervisors to know their points of view on classroom management strategies practiced by primary school teachers of upper classes in Riyadh city in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia as they visit the teachers in their classes to evaluate them.

8.3.1 Organising Objects and Materials

The results highlight that there are no statistically significant differences between teachers and educational supervisors across the main variables (degree of qualifications, years of experience, location of school, training programmes in classroom management, and subject taught) in dimension A (Organising objects and materials). These results show a convergence of the views of educational supervisors and teachers on classroom management approaches in relation to dimension A. The interpretation of this result is that educational supervisors and teachers have a similar familiarity with the skills required in dimension A, and/or programmes in preparing them pursued one way in this dimension. Furthermore, the convergence of views may be due to the style of arranging desks in parallel lines and the high number of pupils per class which forces teachers to follow a single method in relation to

dimension A. This leads to the recommendation that there is a need to reconsider the quality of school buildings, the number of pupils per class, the style of desks in the classroom and the adoption of the group teaching method.

Although there is a convergence of views between educational supervisors and teachers in relation to dimension A, out of the answers of teachers and supervisors to the open question there is a need to develop skills related to the classroom management in this dimension. For example, during a classroom observation by the researcher, teacher ID 8 expressed the need for training on the importance of time management. Robinson (2002); Esawi (1999); Guntermann (1993); Evertson & Harris (1992); Griffin, Priscilla & Bharadwaja (2001) and Robinson (2002) stress the importance of training in time management skill as part of classroom management skills.

It is also important to mention with regards to dimension A that the convergence of point of view among the study members of teachers and educational supervisors is justifiable because of the style of desks arrangement, also the excessive number of students forced teachers to follow similar methods with regards to the dimension A. This in fact leads us to the need to reconsider the style of desks arrangement and adopt the group teaching methods.

8.3.2 Organising Teachers' and Students' Roles

The results show that there are no statistically significant differences between educational supervisors and teachers regarding classroom management approaches in dimension B (Organising teachers' and students' roles) according to the demographic variables (degree qualifications, years of experience, location of school, training programmes in classroom management, and subject taught). This result may be justified on the basis that the method of preparation of teachers and educational supervisors are almost the same. Furthermore, the directions from educational supervisors to teachers during classroom visits are standard

because of the degree of central supervision. In addition, training courses offered by supervisors to teachers follow the same method.

The results refer to the interaction effect between supervisors and teachers in the variable training programmes, where it was found that teachers who have training in classroom management have a higher average than supervisors who have received similar training. This may also be caused by teachers who are keen to develop their skills in classroom management, beyond what they receive from educational supervisors; this can felt from some teachers being keen on joining such training courses despite the need for developing them. For example, ID 126 wrote that "I attended three training courses on classroom management run by an educational supervisor; I think the trainer should be well chosen to see the difference."

Based on the researcher's experience in the field of education in Saudi Arabia, the reasons for this result are partly explained by the random approach used to promote teachers to educational supervisors. This was confirmed by a number of teachers in response to the open question in the questionnaire. For example ID 610 mentioned "the educational supervisor admired my classroom management and decided to promote me as a supervisor to help other teachers benefit from my experience." Furthermore, ID 627 wrote "I spent five years as an educational supervisor; I was asked to arrange courses on classroom management which is not my interest. I hope specialization or major is considered by my colleagues in the educational supervision."

8.3.3 Class Performance

The results show that there are no statistically significant differences between the supervisors and teachers regarding classroom management approaches in dimension C (Class performance) according to the demographic variables (years of experience and subject

taught). The reason for the lack of any statistically significant differences may be due to the standard centralised directions from Ministry of Education. The absence of statistically significant differences in the variable subject taught this number is not surprising as religion is the most commonly taught subject in Saudi Arabia.

However, there are statistically significant differences between teachers and supervisors in regarding classroom management approaches in dimension C (Class performance) according to the variables (location of school, training programmes and subject taught). The average for educational supervisors is less than for teachers, which may be because the supervisors are not completely aware of what happens in classrooms because they are not there all the time.

It is worth mentioning that the location of schools in Saudi Arabia does not take account of demand but is based on regulatory and supervision needs, the educational side to choose one school or centre supervision is not considered.

With regard to the existence of statistically significant differences between job and training programmes in dimension C, it was found that teachers who have received training in the management are of higher average grade than supervisors who have received training in classroom management. The reason could be that some teachers are keen to develop their skills in classroom management beyond that received from the educational supervisors.

The results show also that teachers of mathematics have a higher average than mathematics educational supervisors. This may be another argument that teachers are applying the skills of classroom management in the dimension C (Class performance) on the field more than supervisors; perhaps, the teachers of math may have been keen on implementing the skills in this theme and developed themselves more than supervisors of mathematics.

8.3.4 Class Evaluation

Results show that there are no statistically significant differences between educational supervisors and teachers in dimension D (Class evaluation) the key variables (qualifications, location of school, training programmes, and subject taught) with the exception of level of experience. Breaking down the results, teachers with experience of up to and including 5 years of experience and those from 6 to 10 years inclusive have higher averages than educational supervisors with similar experience. Additionally, the result may be justified by the fact that teachers may be keen to develop themselves in classroom management in dimension D. Furthermore, the centralised role of educational supervisors dictated by Ministry of Education means they are more interested in the evaluation of knowledge through tests rather than a combination of learning knowledge and skills.

The results indicate that the concept of evaluation for some teachers and educational supervisors need to be clarified, in addition, to more comprehensive understanding, training and implementation mechanisms. More than one study supports this suggestion, including Tawlba (2000) and Ashour (1997). Evertson & Harris (1992); Griffin, Priscilla & Bharadwaja (2001) and Robinson (2002) refer to the importance of teacher training in the skill of classroom evaluation with a view to achieving success in classroom management.

CHAPTER IX

CONCLUSION

9.0 INTRODUCTION

The aims of this research are to describe the classroom management approaches practised by teachers in the upper classes of the primary stage in boys' schools in the city of Riyadh, in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) and to record the perspectives from a sample of teachers and supervisors. Based on the findings, the research also provides recommendations for the development of the curriculum and methods of teaching in order to improve classroom management in Saudi Arabia. This chapter presents a summary of the research findings, its recommendations, the limitations of the study, the contribution of the study to the literature and suggestions for further research relevant to this study.

9.1 THE RESEARCH

Prior to discussing the findings of the research, the objectives, research questions and methodology are highlighted.

9.1.1 Objectives

This research set out to achieve the following:

This research aims to achieve the following:

- To establish what management approaches are used in classroom activities by the teachers of the upper classes in the primary schools for boys in Riyadh City in the KSA.

- To identify the preferred approaches and trends in classroom management approaches that teachers adopt in the upper classes of primary school for boys in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

- To identify the relationship between variables such as job, degree of qualifications, years of experience, training programmes in classroom management, the subject taught of the teachers and educational supervisors of the upper classes in primary schools for boys on the use of approaches in classroom management.

- To present the results of the collected qualitative data collected during the research.

- To present suggestions based on the research to develop and improve classroom management approaches, the curriculum and the education system in Saudi Arabia.

9.1.2 Research Questions

The main research question is: What classroom management approaches are used in the upper classes in primary schools (boys) in Riyadh City in the kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) according to teachers and educational supervisors? Based on this question, the research investigates the following sub-questions:

- What management approaches are used during classroom activities in the upper class teachers in boys' primary schools?

- What is the preferred approach of classroom management for teachers in the upper classrooms in the primary stage?

- Are there statistically significance differences between teachers' classroom management in terms of the following variables: degree of qualifications, years of experience, training programme in classroom management, and subject taught?

- Are there any statistical significant differences between supervisors and teachers resulting from the changes in the variables: the job, degree of qualifications, years of experience, training programme in classroom management, and subject taught?

- What are the suggestions of the sample members (teachers and educational supervisors) for developing the approaches of classroom management and accordingly, curriculum and instruction for teachers in the upper classes in boys' primary schools?

9.1.3 Research Methodology

In this study, a mixture of quantitative and qualitative approaches is used. The questionnaire was the main instrument with which to gather information and attempt to answer the research questions. Observation was used as a supportive instrument in order to view validating the results of the questionnaire results and to have a deeper describing to the problem of the research. The number of participants for the questionnaire was 547 teachers and 87 educational supervisors, while 31 teachers who completed the questionnaire were observed in classrooms. This approach helped to understand the reality of classroom management approaches practiced by teachers in the classrooms and obtain their suggestions to help develop approaches for classroom management, the curriculum and teaching methods in Saudi Arabia. The method of delivery of the questionnaires was to go to the school directly because of the poor technology infrastructure to deliver these electronically, which could cause a delay in data collection. As a result of this issue, this study recommends the importance of educating teachers and educational supervisors to keep pace with technical developments for improving communications and research through workshops and training courses arranged by the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia.

9.2 OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

This section summarises the findings which were presented in previous chapters. It was clear that both teachers and educational supervisors appreciate the importance of classroom management and understand its link to the quality of teaching. Furthermore, it became clear that whilst teachers do try to set a high standard in their classroom management approaches they are constrained, sometimes severely, by the classroom environment in which they find themselves. For example the poor standard of rented and state-owned school buildings is a major problem that needs to be resolved by the Ministry of Education, as most buildings are not supportive for good teaching practice. An associated problem is the large number of pupils per class; up to 40 pupils may be taught by one teacher.

Before constructing the questionnaire for the thesis the researcher reviewed the literature, which highlighted that four dimensions—preparation and planning; organising the roles of the teacher and students; class performance; and class evaluation—are important in relation to classroom management. Thus, the questionnaire was specifically designed around these four dimensions. As this questionnaire was completed by non-native English language speakers, the questions were created using simple language by the researcher in order to reduce complexity and ambiguity. The researcher considered the feedback from the pilot study. The studies that highlight the importance of the four dimensions are as follows:

Organising objects and materials dimension: Evertson & Emmer (1982); Brown, Lewis & Harcloard (1985); Soliman & Adebi (1990); Smith & Rivera (1995); Prosise (1996); Shokeer (1996); Malone & Tietjens (1998); Abosenena & Lakani, (2002); Sabti (2002); Alagmi (2003); Hemdan (2003); Katami (2005); Emmer et al. (2006); Zaitoon (2007); Alzeood et al. (2008); Gado (2008); Curwin & Mendler (2009).

Organising the role of the teacher and students dimension: Evertson and Emmer (1982); Soliman and Adebi (1990); Baron et al (1992); Stephens and Crawley (1994); Smith and Rivera (1995); Wragg (1995); Prosise (1996); Shokeer (1996); Malone and Tietjens (1998); Gordon (2001); Sabti (2002); Alagmi (2003); Hemdan (2003); Katami (2005); Emmer et al. (2006); Gado (2008); Curwin and Mendler (2009).

Class performance dimension: Ashour (1997); Abosenena and Lakani (2002); Fatlawai (2003); Ads (2004); Zaitoon (2007); Alzeood et al. (2008).

Class evaluation dimension: Ruben (1984); Anderson (1989); Saaada (1997); Taan (1998); Alkhateeb (2002); Alagmi (2003); Hasan (2003); Konori and Melaefi (2004); Alhessin (2004); Gaber (2005); Gamal (2006); Gado (2008).

The qualitative findings from the open-ended part of the questionnaire highlighted a gap between the teachers' beliefs and their practices in relation classroom management. This gap is driven at least in part by the challenges faced by the teachers, including the sheer size of the curriculum which has to be completed during the school year; respondents indicated that the curriculum was too large to be taught in one year, especially when the large classes are being taught in difficult physical environments. Teachers are left with the challenge of balancing quantity and quality in covering the prescribed curriculum, which is usually resolved by focusing on imparting knowledge rather than developing the skills of the pupils.

A further outcome from the study was that despite a strong commitment to using technology in the classroom, there is a scarcity of resources. Some teachers attempt to provide such technology themselves but they are simply not able to provide all that is needed.

This study makes it clear that teachers believe deeply in the importance of developing a good relationship with pupils. However, more emphasis needs to be placed on accepting the views and feelings of the pupils. Some teachers tend to favour lecturing and see that as their role.

Teachers believe that they recognise the importance of respecting pupils' ideas through positive behaviour but it is noted that, whilst this is understood, the practice is limited and sporadic. The results from the questionnaire the observations also indicate that teachers often do not anticipate classroom problems before they occur. This was reinforced when teachers were asked at the end of the lesson about a specific situation that happened in the lesson. Similarly most teachers believe that they adopt appropriate educational methods to address behavioural problems, but there is no consensus on what this is. It is clear that there is a need to explore this issue and to develop a greater awareness of its importance through training. If the teacher does not assess the classroom environment on a regular basis, then perhaps he will not be able to determine the cause of any imbalance or weakness and will therefore be unable to rectify it.

In relation to whether or not the findings are statistically significant, perhaps surprisingly the results of teachers whose degrees are education-based and those whose degrees are not educationally based show no statistically significant differences in three of the four dimensions , namely A (Organising objects and materials), B (Organising teachers' and students' roles) and D (Class evaluation). However, there is a statistically significant difference in dimension C (Class performance): educationally qualified teachers have an average of 0.11 while the average of non-educationally qualified teachers is 0.37, with $p = 0.02$. That is to say those educationally qualified teachers have better quality skills in relation to classroom management compared to teachers who are non-educationally qualified.

There were similarly few differences between teachers with differing amounts of experience. There is, just, a statistically significant difference in dimension A (Organising objects and materials) of p = 0.1. The Tukey test highlighted that this difference occurred between teachers with experience of 11 years and above and those with up to and including 5 years of experience. This implies that length of experience is important; however, there are no statistically significant differences in the other three dimensions B, C and D.

A further surprising result was that, there are no statistically significant differences in any of the four dimensions between those that had been or had not been on not training courses related to classroom management. The average scores of those who had received training in classroom management was higher in dimensions A, B and D but not significant so.

9.3 IMPLICATIONS

This results of this study have are a series of implications for researchers and decision makers, especially in Saudi Arabia. A major conclusion is that is that much work is need to improve approaches to classroom management and to improve the effectiveness of learning and teaching. Most teachers and supervisors realise their importance, yet, there are still many challenges.

One of the biggest challenges facing teachers is class density which results from large class sizes and small teaching rooms. This needs to be addressed radically and rapidly by the Ministry of Education. King Abdullah's project for developing education is one example of the steps that require to be taken to resolve the problems. Further, on 10 September 2012 it was agreed to establish an independent organ to evaluate general education. The results of this study give the Ministry of Education a route through which more teachers can attend training courses in the field of classroom management. However, these courses should be well-constructed and of high quality to make the difference required.

Joyce and Showers (2002) and Showers (1987) argue that training can affect teaching noticeably in classes if and only if the entraining program follows certain principle. Teachers first need to be presented with new methods and then allowed to discuss the ideas. They should then be given a chance to try the new method, and to provide feedback on it. Joyce and Showers (2002) stress the importance of coaching teachers coaching in the new methods and the time that is needed to effect change.

It is clear from the results of this study that the training courses on classroom management are not having the desired impact and that change is needed to achieve the difference required.

A final implication of this study is an overarching one. It shows a way of approaching a major educational issue which will hopefully be useful to both the Ministry of Education and Higher Education. It is clear that the knowledge accumulated in the west has relevance to Saudi Arabia. Of course, there are important differences in culture and philosophy but there are some underlying features of classrooms which are transferrable and there are messages which can be learned. The KSA should develop teaching programmes in both educational and non-educational colleges using the experience of educationalists in advanced western countries to design and develop curricula as well as in-service and pre-service training courses.

9.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Despite the strengths of this research, such as having samples of both teachers and educational supervisors in the one study, the integrated use of the qualitative and quantitative research methods and the use of both questionnaire and observation, , the study has a number of limitations, including the narrow geographical spread, the exclusion of pupils and head teachers, infrastructural problems, and possible misunderstanding of the questionnaire by certain respondents.

This study was restricted to Riyadh City, the capital of the KSA. The researcher believes that Riyadh is a valid example of conditions in Saudi Arabia because of its large population and it is particularly relevant because of the focus it receives from the Ministry of Education which operates in a highly centralized fashion. However, the study could have been conducted in other cities and rural areas if there had not been restrictions of time and cost. The supposition that the results may be generalised across the country remains a supposition.

The study sample included teachers and educational supervisors only. Pupils and head teachers were excluded due to the limited period of time set for the research as well the difficulties involved in gaining approval for extending the survey to a wider audience. A future study might profitably look at those groups specifically.

There were a number of difficulties caused by the infrastructure which impeded the collection of the data. Riyadh is a huge city with traffic problems, which inhibited travel between the various schools. Further the researcher had to travel to new schools when teachers were transferred. Third, the mail service is not up to international standards; as a result the researcher had to distribute the questionnaire himself to guarantee obtaining sufficient responses.

Despite careful arrangements, such as piloting the questionnaire and making necessary arrangements, as is the case in any research unexpected results or unusual dispersions in the answers may occur. This was noticed in the second part of the questionnaire where unexpected patterns were found. It is assumed that this arose because of a misunderstanding of the format of the questions (semantic differential). The educational and moral system of research in Saudi Arabia does not allow contact with teachers to explain the aims of the research to which they are subject. Thus, it is left to the head teacher to explain it to the

teachers. A number of teachers highlighted this fact, while others stated that a number of questions were not understood.

It is important to mention that surveys including those in this research allow description and show associations but these do not indicate definite causal relationships as is the case with the experimental research methods. Creswell (2012: 376) mentions that

> ''Survey designs differ from experimental research in that they do not involve a treatment given by researcher. Because survey researchers do not experimentally manipulate the conditions, they cannot explain cause and effect as well as experimental researchers can...survey researchers often correlate variables''.

Future research could use intervention approaches to demonstrate causal links.

9.5 SUMMARISING THE QUALITATIVE FINDINGS

This section summarises the results from the open questions to participant teachers and educational supervisors. In order to present the results obtained from participants in the questionnaire, the points of view were collected by the researcher then grouped into seven general themes:

- Suggestions related to classrooms and buildings.

- Suggestions related to curricula.

- Suggestions related to teaching aids and technical equipment.

- Suggestions related to training courses on classroom management.

- Suggestions related to teachers' incentives (motivations) in classroom management.

- Suggestions related to educational supervisors approaches.

- Suggestions related to the culture of teacher-pupil-parents relationship.

9.5.1 Suggestions Related to Classrooms and School Buildings

The participants referred to many suggestions related to this theme, for example:

- ID50 ''to move freely in classroom, the number of pupils should be reasonable in relation to classroom area''.

- ID73 ''cooperative learning sometimes helps a lot in classroom management through groups, but in reality I can't perform this because the classroom is not suitable or equipped for this''.

- ID88 ''I have a 24-years teaching experience. The quality of school buildings and classes makes me frustrated; therefore Ministry of Education should modernise classes to catch up with modern countries''.

- ID120 ''I think the role of school management needs to be activated to make the classroom attractive and encourage the teacher and pupil to teach and learn''.

- ID420 ''I like to change the style of desks every now and then to change the classroom atmosphere but due to the inappropriate class area and over crowdedness I often use one style for desks arrangement. I hope Ministry of Education considers this''.

- ID30 ''I have 15-years teaching experience, yet, the educational supervisor never consulted me whether the class atmosphere is suitable for creation or not. Ministry of Education should consult teachers on the obstacles facing teacher in classroom management''.

- ID605 ''to be frank, the number of pupils per classroom is a problem that should be addressed and solved by Ministry of Education''.

It is clear from these points of view that the problem of overcrowded classrooms should be addressed. The statements all convey a message saying that classrooms, buildings and the surrounding environment should be sufficient to assist the effectiveness of classroom management.

9.5.2 Suggestions Related to Curricula

Concerning this theme, the participants recommended some suggestions, for example:

- ID56 ''the educational supervisor asks me to finish the curriculum despite its length especially when individual differences between pupils are considered. I hope this point is considered for it is important in my classroom management effectiveness''.

- ID97 ''School curricula have been developed recently, but I have not received any relevant training courses. I need training courses to help me develop my classroom management performance''.

- ID346 ''One of the points my educational supervisor evaluates me upon is to finish the curriculum in a fixed time which causes a lot of pressure that may affect my role in classroom management''.

- ID401 ''I think that having another teacher in classroom helps a lot in effective classroom management and in teaching''.

- ID251 ''I think recent developed curricula need much effort from the teachers because they need many activities and in turn a co teacher to help in classroom management''.

- ID103 ''The Ministry of Education decides and introduces curricula ignoring our points of view, because curricula play a role in successful of classroom management''.

- ID614 ''I have a 25-years supervising experience, the recently developed curricula are suitable for combining the cognitive and skill sides but the teachers were shocked at receiving no training. This in fact forces them to follow the traditional approaches of teaching and in turn the traditional classroom management approaches''.

The participants mentioned that having good classroom management necessitates a balance between quantity and quality when preparing, evaluating and developing curricula. In

addition, the teachers' points of view should be considered during the process. The suggestions also mentioned that full concentration on the knowledge side should not be at the expense of skills when preparing, evaluating and developing curricula.

9.5.3 Suggestions Related to Teaching Aids and Technical Equipment

The participants in this theme made a number of suggestions that may help develop the classroom management approaches practiced by teachers, for example:

- ID389 ''the school does not provide teaching aids that help in managing the classroom and I bring teaching aids myself. Therefore, we need the support of the school and Ministry of Education with regards to providing teaching aids and technical equipment''.

- ID259 ''I wish classrooms to be equipped one day with modern technical equipment that may help in teaching and classroom management''.

- ID134 ''I have been teaching in a rented school building. I ordered a long time ago a computer for every classroom to help improve class management but I received no answer, in the end I brought my own laptop to my classrooms''.

- ID264 ''When I use educational technology in classroom, I notice that the pupils are involved and attracted which in turn helps me manage the class. The pupils feel bored when one method is repeated. We have to vary the educational equipment used while managing the classroom''.

- ID49 ''School administration requires effective classroom management and, in turn, we need modern and well educationally equipped classroom to help us''.

- ID625 ''I have 10-years' experience in educational supervision. I noticed that most teachers bring and use their own teaching aids. It is high time to provide integrated

classrooms with modern technological teaching aids that strengthen the teaching chances and help change classroom management approaches''.

It can be noticed that the participants realize the need for and the importance of such teaching aids and technical equipment in assisting their classroom management and they have appealed to the Ministry of Education and school administrations to provide technological teaching aids in classrooms.

9.5.4 Suggestions Related to Training Courses on Classroom Management

The participants made suggestions that may help develop the theme of training courses on classroom management, for example:

- ID 223 ''I have considerable theoretical information on classroom management, but I need training to practice it''.

- ID 166 ''I joined many training courses on classroom management but they were theoretical not practical. We need amalgamation between the two sides''.

- ID 315 ''I think teachers need training courses on classroom management to be organised not only by educational supervisors but also by educational experts from abroad''.

- ID 23 ''I taught for ten years during which I received no invitation to attend any training course on classroom management from the educational supervision centre''.

- ID 61 ''I attended two training courses on classroom management, I tried to apply them but I did not succeed. I think teachers need such courses to be practical''.

- ID 126 ''I attended three training courses on classroom management run by an educational supervisor. I think the trainer should be well chosen to see the difference''.

- ID 627 ''I spent five years as an educational supervisor, I was asked to arrange courses on classroom management which is not my interest. I hope specialization or major is considered by my colleagues in the educational supervision''.

- ID 602 ''As an educational supervisor, I do my best to have training courses on classroom management and others related to teaching in developed countries in order to benefit from such courses in my job and provide the teachers I supervise with the experience needed but to tell the truth it is difficult to have these training courses''.

- ID 267 ''a large number of my colleague teachers suffer a lot from the teaching responsibilities and burdens. We want the Ministry of Education to make these burdens less to help us benefit from the training courses offered especially classroom management''.

- ID 151 ''I need translated references and workshops on modern approaches on classroom management''.

It is clear that the participants believe that they need training courses on classroom management. Furthermore, they stress the importance of practice and the practical sides with due attention to choosing the trainer. The participants look forward to making use of modern approaches on classroom management adopted from advanced countries, as well as the need for translated references and sending some teachers and educational supervisors abroad.

9.5.5 Suggestions Related to Teachers' Incentives in Classroom Management

Some participants think that incentives are helpful in promoting the effectiveness of classroom management, for example:

- ID47 ''I received a Thank You Letter' from the Educational Supervision Centre because I was good at my classroom management; this, in fact, was an incentive to do my best''.

- ID610 ''the educational supervisor admired my classroom management and decided to promote me as a supervisor to help other teachers benefit from my experience. I recommend Ministry of Education arrange workshops for brilliant teachers to train other teachers''.

Some participants stressed money incentives to teachers in a bid to promote teachers' commitment to classroom management.

9.5.6 Suggestions Related to Educational Supervisors' Methods

The participants put forward suggestions that may help develop the methods used by educational supervisors with regards to classroom management, for example:

- ID266 ''When the educational supervisor visits me in classroom, I have a feeling that he is evaluating my performance not to develop my skills. We need to develop the relationship between teachers and educational supervisors''.
- ID354 ''the educational supervisor does not show my points of weakness but he only he gives a general written opinion. I need to discuss many issues with him after classroom visits''.
- ID444 ''I have 30-years teaching experience during which I was not invited by the educational supervisor to visit any brilliant teachers. My colleagues wish to have such visits''.
- ID210 ''Teachers need workshops with colleagues and educational supervisors to develop our classroom management skills. We need educational supervisors to provide us with the new research into classroom management to develop ourselves; they should not only evaluate''.

It is clear from the answers that the role of the educational supervisor needs to be more comprehensive not restricted to evaluation but to assist in the development of teachers' skills

in relation to their classroom management. This could be achieved through the provision of the latest research and workshops that could help overcome barriers and highlight points of strength through dialogue and flexible constructive discussion.

9.5.7 Suggestions Related to the Culture of the Teacher-Pupil-Parent Relationship

The participants gave some suggestions with regards to developing the culture of teacher-pupil-parent relationship, for example:

- ID603 ''during my supervising visits for teachers, I noticed the teachers needed to be closer with the pupils and change the traditional type approach''.

- ID535 ''I try to stress the importance of dialogue with the pupil but the traditional style approaches is prevailing. The Ministry of Education should consider this issue''.

- ID323 ''I need to have contacts with parents to discuss some difficulties with some pupils and also parents meetings should be activated''.

- ID112 ''for traditional considerations, sometimes parents do not accept or interact with the advice offered''.

The importance of the teacher-pupil-parent relationship is clear in the participant's suggestions. This culture should receive proper attention at the expense of the traditional approaches that consider the pupil to be a mere recipient.

9.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

As a result of the research, the researcher has made a number of recommendations which will help to boost classroom management approaches and thus effective teaching.

The first recommendation is related to the problem of the buildings which the Ministry of Education rents because of the shortage of state school buildings. These buildings are unsuitable for teaching and should be replaced by specifically-designed schools. This will

allow teachers to re-arrange desks in a way that encourages group-teaching. Further air conditioning, cleanliness and lighting should all be improved with new buildings.

The problem of overcrowded classes also impedes the effectiveness of classroom management and its approaches. The introduction of new specially-designed buildings will help this in the long run. However, in the short term, it is recommended that greater effort be exerted to reduce the number of the pupils in classroom. Most participants mentioned that the large number of pupils negatively affects classroom management and, in turn, the teaching method. It is however noted that research from the STAR experiment in Tennessee concludes that cutting class sizes by half (in the USA with young children) has just a small effect (Nye et al., 1999; Finn & Pannozo, 2003). Many people have concluded from this that it may not be cost effective to make small changes in class sizes. However, that was carried out in the US with already small classes and the finding may not transfer to te KSA with its very different context.

Second, the use of modern technology is highly recommended in all schools. This is related also to traditional method of teaching that dominates Saudi schools. The continuing prevalence of the traditional approach may, in part, be due to the lack of specialized equipment. If the equipment exists teachers should be encouraged to use the equipment through feedback in appraisals and through material rewards. One aspect of technological improvement should be to replace the use of paper-based preparation notes with computer-based notes. This would also reinforce the culture of technology use and develop teachers' qualifying programmes. It is important to mention that some researchers argue that although technology enhances learning and teaching experiences it is difficult to say that a great difference can happen. For example, Higgins (2003:5) mentions that:

> ''There is evidence from research that ICT can help pupils to learn and teachers to teach more effectively. However there is not a simple message in such evidence

that ICT will make a difference simply by being used. Findings suggest that although ICT can improve learning there are a number of issues that need to be considered if such technology is going to make a difference. Some caution is therefore called for at this broad level of where and how ICT might have an impact. There are two main issues. First is the modest effect of ICT compared with other researched interventions, second is the almost negligible effect of the provision and use of ICT at a general''.

Despite Higgins' reservations, this study recommends, in case of availability, the use of modern technological equipment to enhance the learning and teaching process; it will also help with the communication issues repeatedly mention in their thesis

The third recommendation is that the time management should be taught by highly qualified experts rather than depending only on educational supervisors, who may have the experience but lack the expertise. This is supported by the recommendations of the study of Esawi (1999) who highlights the presence of statistical differences in favour of those trained in workshops on how to prepare a timed lesson plan with a view to minimising time wastage during the lesson. Class evaluation is essential to develop the educational process and it is recommended that teachers are systematically trained in on class evaluation systematically, in order to encourage an approach which recognises individual differences when assigning class activities.

Related to this is the recommendation that teachers keep up with the latest developments and research on classroom management strategies. Field visits by educational supervisors are not sufficient; they should collect the latest research and provide it to teachers. One of the teachers who were observed asked me to provide him with books and researches on the topic.

The study also recommends implementing agreed class rules from the first day of school and to abandon unexpected punishment measures in class. Many studies, such as Evertson and Emmer (1982), show that the first few weeks play an important role in establishing the way in which pupils react with the teacher and their colleagues over the rest of the school year. In

this context, it is important to arrange meetings to educate the pupils and parents on class rules and regulations. The supporting role of parents can, through mutual cooperation with the school, assist in the social development of pupils. In addition, pupils' ideas should be respected which in turn enhances the pupil-teacher relationship; a lack of good relations causes violence and aggression. Finally, a teacher should be trained to acquire self-confidence and to have the ability to keep discipline. The result will be more concentration on dealing with undesired behaviour.

Expecting classroom problems in advance may help solving them educationally and avoid unjustified collective punishment.

There should be a balance between quantity and quality in the curriculum in order to help the teacher manage the class effectively. At present, teachers concentrate on the cognitive side rather than developing life skills.

Although this study was carried out in a different cultural environment to that of previous studies on classroom management such as the western environment the lessons learned from these studies can be used to change the type of thinking and environment provided by the Ministry of Education. The present study has specific goals to achieve the difference required.

Finally, based on suggestions from the respondents, the researcher recommends arranging a conference in Saudi Arabia on developing curricula based on classroom management approaches, looking at the theory and reality.

9.7 RESEACH CONTRIBUTION

The researcher looks forward to the results of this research being used as a step towards developing effective classroom management strategies in Saudi Arabia that improve the curriculum and the education system, thereby improving the outcomes for all pupils. The

researcher aims to apply the findings to help develop more effective classroom management strategies in Saudi Arabia. This will necessarily involve improving the curriculum, the education system and the outcomes for pupils. These are ambitious aims, which can be achieved by building on the extensive research carried out across the world, as summarised in the literature's chapter in this thesis. Crucially, very little research on classroom management has been carried out in Saudi Arabia and an important contribution of this research is to ascertain the perceptions and practices of teachers and supervisors to the questions: What is the present situation and do the general patterns found in other parts of the world hold in Saudi Arabia? And what opinions do the teachers and supervisors hold? It is hoped that their views, as well as the findings of the thesis will be taken into consideration by decision-makers.

The government in Saudi Arabia is focussed on developing education; about one quarter of the budget is devoted to education. The King Abdullah Project for Developing General Education, discussed in chapter 2, needs to be highlighted. It is hoped that the officials concerned with the project can accelerate the process of development by building new schools and providing modern equipment to all schools, allowing education in Saudi Arabia to keep pace with that in advanced countries. A country with such large hydrocarbon revenues should be in a position to achieve this.

Because the KSA considers Islamic education to be an important basis for education at the primary stage, the majority of participants are teachers and supervisors of Islamic education. It is within this context that this study describes the approach of classroom management of teachers and educational supervisors and provides analyses and conclusions. The timing of this study is important as it coincides with the Saudi Arabian cabinet forming an independent body for the evaluation of general education on 10 September 2012. This study can benefit

Saudi decision-makers who adopt Islam and its culture in order to avail themselves of evidence relating to classroom management across the world.

The current study is distinctive in that it focuses on classroom management approaches for boys' schools in the primary stage upper classes in Riyadh, the capital city of Saudi Arabia, and is believed to be the first of its kind. Furthermore, the research uses quantitative and qualitative methods, which have not previously been used by studies on classroom management in Saudi Arabia.

9.8 SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES

In part due to the limitations faced in this study, other studies can be undertaken which will extend this research. One area is subject girls' schools studying Saudi Arabia to a similar study. Second, other cities and rural areas in KSA can be assessed. Third, stages other than the upper primary stage may also be tackled. These three extensions would allow comparative results and a generalisation of the results. In addition, to improving the spread of the research, other studies could concentrate on the views of head teachers and pupils to give a greater depth to the findings.

On a different track, experimental research could be used to understand the effect of training on the personal abilities of teachers to face different class situations and help design effective training

In relation to the outcomes for the pupils, research on the relationship between classroom approaches adopted and the pupils' behaviour would be productive, as would an investigation into the effectiveness of teachers' and pupils' learning in all stages. The role of the educational supervisor in developing classroom approaches and the effect of school buildings on classroom approaches would also benefit from further investigation.

There is a need for carrying out more research to know the impact of increased knowledge of behavioural strategies on the behaviour of teachers' when managing classrooms. More researches are also needed on the way in which of the pupils-teacher relationship impact on the teachers' classroom management method. Finally, research in to the impact of classroom management on some variables such as the teachers' profession satisfaction and deciding the teachers' needs of classroom management skills would be helpful.

Finally, the effectiveness of the classroom environment on teaching and curriculum performance in the various stages of the education system can be carried out.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Abosenena, O., & Lakani, A. (2002). *Classroom learning and teaching.* Cairo, Dar Al Thakafa.

- Ads, M. (2004). Classroom Management. *Educational Horizons*, 74, 8-17.

- Adulrahman, M. (2004). *RE: The art of classroom management. Research presented to the second annual scientific conference on classroom management: Modern trends and real practices. Cairo, Teba Educational Studies Center.*

- Afash, Y. (1991). Teaching competencies, teachers need in the on the job educational qualifying programs as seen by participants in Jordon. *Arab Education*, 11, 68-95.

- Ahmed, A. (2006). *Insufficient Management in Schools, Reality and Solution*. Cairo, Dar of Arab Thought.

- Ahmed, S., Kamal, T., & Katami. Y (2005). *School management in Fundamental Education stages, Cairo*. Egypt: Dar Arab Nahda.

- Akharash, I. (2000). *The management type, its relation with the teacher's performance and dealing with the students in class*. Unpublished Master's Dissertation, King Saud University, KSA.

- Aksoy, N. (1999). *Classroom management and student discipline in elementary schools of Ankara (Turkey)*. Unpublished Ed.D Dissertation, University of Cincinnti, Ohio, USA.

- Alshahrani, A. (1995). The teacher and some teaching skills. The reality and the expected. *Bayader*, 15, 60-73.

- Alabadi, M. (2000). Obstacles facing teachers in carrying out classroom management strategies. *Arab Universities Union Magazine*, 39.

- Alabdullah, F. (1997). *The use of education technology in class. A research presented to the second annual science conference about classroom management; modern trends and real practices*. Cairo, Teba Educational Studies Center.

- Alagmi, M. (2003). *School management*. Cairo, Dar of Arab Thought.

- Alassaf, S. 2010. *An introduction to research in behavioral sciences*. Riyadh, Obaykan Bookshop.

- Aldosary, H. (2000). *The degree of practicing the human factor in school management*. Unpublished Master's Dissertation, King Saud University, KSA.

- Aldridge, A., & Levine, K. (2001). *Surveying the social world: principles and practice in survey research*. Philadelphia, Open University Press.

303

- Alduhayan, S., & Ezat, H. (2002). *Data analysis with SPSS 16*. Riyadh, Obikan.

- Alenzi, M. (2002). *The useful guide for the new teacher*. Riyadh: Dar Twaik for Publishing and Distribution.

- Alerini, A. (2004). *Fundamental competencies for the general education head teachers in K.S.A*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, King Saud University, KSA.

- Alesa, A. (2008). *Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: policies, systems and future*. Riyadh, Dar Al Zaytona for Publishing and Distribution.

- Aletebi, B. (2005). *Education in Saudi Arabia and Education problems in Saudi Arabia*. Riyadh, Alroshd.

- Alfayez, H. (2004). *Evaluation of the professional performance of school management female personnel in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia*. Unpublished Master's Dissertation, King Saud University, KSA.

- Alfayez, M. (2006). *The civil service minister considers high education responsible for universities graduates' unemployment*. Jeddah, Okaz Newspaper.

- Algamdi, A. (1994). *A contrastive study on the necessary skills for teachers of English in the intermediate and secondary stages in the preparation programs in Faculties of Education in K.S.A universities from the point of view of specialists*. Unpublished Master's Dissertation, Om Al Qura University, KSA.

- Algamdi, H. (2007). Education policy in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. In Al Gamdi, H.A., & Abdl Gawad, M., *Development in the education system in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia*. Riyadh, Obikan.

- Alganeem, M., Alzhrani, A., & Khaled, S. (2006). A hot beginning for the 6th national meeting for intellectual dialogue (Education: reality and ways to develop it). Riyadh, publisher.

- Alghamdi, M. (2000). *A developed vision for the teacher evaluation model in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. An analytical study for the content of the model and its field applications*. Unpublished Master's Dissertation, King Saud University, KSA.

- Alhabib, F. (2006). The political basics of the educational policy in The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. *Educational Studies*, 10, 268-307.

- Alhakel, S. (2008). *The system and education policy in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia*. Riyadh, Alobikan.

- Alhamid, M., Zeyada, M., Alotaibi, B., & Motwalli, N. (2009). *Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, a vision of the present and anticipating the future*. Riyadh, Al Roshd.

- Alharthy, A. (1993). Effectiveness of the educational supervisor in developing the competencies of social studies teachers in the intermediate stage from the teachers point of view in Taif educational zone. Unpublished Master's Dissertation, Om Al Qura University, KSA.

- Alhassan, H. (2000). *Evaluation of on the job educational training in the General Presidency for Girls' Education*. Unpublished Master's Dissertation, King Saud University, KSA.

- Alhessin, A. (2004). *Teaching Science*. Kuwait, Education House for publishing and distribution.

- Alkhateeb, M. (2002). *The teacher guide in the class situation*. Kuwait, Al Falah Bookshop.

- Almeghem, A. M. (2002). *Principles of successful classroom management. Teachers' electronic bag*. Al Ehsa, Saudi Arabia.

- Almehrag, A. (2001). *The role of the secondary school in developing the relation with local society*. Unpublished Master's Dissertation, Imam Mohammed Bin Saud Islamic University, KSA.

- Almenaef, M. (1998). *School management in terms of the behavioral and educational missions of the head teacher*. Riyadh, Al Bakeria Printing Press.

- Alnaeem, M. (2000). Educational awareness for the 2000 teacher. Research and educational studies unit; General Directorate For Girls Education. Riyadh, Capital of Arab culture.

- Alnagem, S. M., & Rashad add initial (1996). School classroom management from the point of view of the student trainee according to sex and academic discipline. *Cooperation*, 44, 204-240.

- Alomar, M. (2006). *The active teacher and effective teaching*. Jordan, Dar Al Fikr.

- Alomran, M. (2006). A report prepared by the Ministry of education responding to the committee on U N. human rights. In: F. Al Bidewi, Al Watan newspaper, January 25, 2006. Available at: http://www.alwatan.com.sa/daily/.

- Alotibi, M. (2003). *The Role of Educational Guidance in Developing the Competencies of Religion Teachers in The Intermediate Stage.* Unpublished Master's Dissertation, King Saud University, KSA.

- Alsaed, H. (1998). *The extent of practicing scientific thinking methods by teachers with primary stage school girls.* KSA, King Saud University.

- Alsaloom, H. (2006). *General education and learning in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia,the policy, theory and application, Evaluation view.* Riyadh, Obikan.

- Alsaud, R. (1993). The degree of effectiveness of the secondary school head teacher's role in Jordon in bettering the class teacher performance as seen by secondary stage teachers and head teachers. *Assuit faculty of Education Journal,* 1(9), 184-209.

- Alsayed, M. (2002). *Teaching aids and education technology.* Jordon, Jordon Printing Press.

- Alshehri, S. (2004). *The contribution of the educational supervisor in the professional growth of primary stage teachers in Abha city.* Unpublished Master's Dissertation, King Saud University, KSA.

- Alsheikh, O. (1983). *Educational technology and development in the Arab world. Resala of the teacher magazine.* Oman, Ministry of Education.

- Alshemary, A. (2007). The King Abdullah project for the development of public education. Asharg Alawsat Newspaper. 18 April retrieved 16/11/2011, from http://www.aawsat.com/english/news.asp?section=7&id=8686.

- Alsonbol, A., Alshabanh, K., & Mordi, A. (2008). *The education system in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.* Riyadh, Dar Al Kheregi for Publishing and Distribution.

- Alzeaber, I. (2000). *Educational problems related to rented school buildings in the primary stage- boys- in Riyadh city as seen by the educational organ compared with government school buildings.* Unpublished Master's Dissertation, King Saud University, KSA.

- Alzeood, N., Khatami, F., & Abdullah, K. (2008). *Classroom teaching and learning.* Jordon, Dar Al Fikr.

- Anderson, L. W. (1989). T*he effective teacher: study guide and readings.* New York, Random House.

- Arafa, A. (2002). *The systematic organization for the Islamic education syllabus in the first year secondary and the degree of develop according to the integrated curriculum.* Riyadh, Ministry of Education.

- Arefig, S. (2006). *Contemporary Educational management*. Jordon, Dar Al Fikr.

- Ary, D., Jacobs, L. C., & Razavieh, A. (1985). *Introduction to research in education*. New York, Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

- Ashour, M. (1997). Conceptions of Yarmouk university students to the degree of practicing basic skills for effective classroom management. *Arab Universities Union Magazine*, 32, 90-143.

- Asyad, A. A. (1988). Practical significance and sample size accompanying statistical significance of t-test in educational and psychological research: evaluation study. *Educational research Conference: the present and future*, 2-4 July 1988, the Association of Modern Education, Cairo, 2, 197- 233.

- Atwi, G. (2006). Educational management and supervision, fundamentals and applications, Aman, Jordon: Dar of International scientific & Cultural house for publishing and distribution.

- Azrak, A. (2005). *Educational psychology for teachers*. Lebanon, Dar of Arab Thought.

- Babtain, A. (1995). Managerial problems facing field training students in the faculty of education. *King Saud University Education Magazine*, 12, 33-42.

- Baker, W. P., Lang, M., & Lawson, A. E. (2002). Classroom Management for Successful Student Inquiry. *Clearing House*, 75, 248-52.

- Balckheor, S. A. (2000). *Research hypotheses, an evaluation study and comparison of the methods of hypotheses deriving and achieving them statistically of the MA in the faculty of education at Umm Al-Qura University and the faculty of education at King Saud University*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Al-Qura University, KSA.

- Barnes, P. (1998). Classroom Management: Thinking Ahead - Anticipate problems and deal with them in their early stages before they spin out of control. *Teaching Pre K 8*, 29, 56-57.

- Baron, E. B. (1992). *Discipline strategies for teachers*. Bloomington, Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.

- Bell, J. (2005). *Doing your research project: a guide for first-time researchers in education, health and social science*. Maidenhead, England, New York, Open University Press.

- Berg, B. L. (2009). *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*. Boston, Allyn and Bacon.

- Bostan, A. & Taha, H. (2005). *An introduction to educational management*. Kuwait, Dar Al Qalam.

- Bridges, E. M. (1992). The incompetent teacher. Bristol, PA: Falmer Press.

- Bridges, E. M., & Groves, B. R. (1999). The macro and micropolitics of personnel evaluation: A framework. Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education, 13 (4), 321-337.Brophy, J. (1986). Classroom Management Techniques. *Education and Urban Society*, 18, 182-94.

- Brophy, J. E. (1982). *Classroom organization and management*. Michigan, Michigan State University.

- Brouwers, A., & Tomic, W. (2000). A Longitudinal Study of Teacher Burnout and Perceived Self-Efficacy in Classroom Management. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 16, 239-53.

- Brown, J. W., Lewis, R. B., & Harcleroad, F. F. (1985). *AV instruction: technology, media, and methods*. Singapore, McGraw-hill.

- Bryman, A. (2008). *Social research methods*. Oxford, New York, Oxford University Press.

- Burns, M. (2002). From Black and White to Color: Technology Professional Development and Changing Practice. T H E Journal, 29, 36.

- Burns, R. B. (2000). *Introduction to research methods*. London, Thousand Oaks, Calif., Sage.

- Caillods, F., Bray, M., & Varghese, N. V. (2011). *Directions in educational planning, international experiences and perspectives*. Paris, International Institute for Educational Planning.

- Cains, R. A., & Brown, C. R. (1998a). Newly Qualified Teachers: a comparative analysis of the perceptions held by B.Ed. and PGCE-trained primary teachers of the level and frequency of stress experienced during the first year of teaching. *Educational Psychology*, 18, 97-110.

- Cains, R. A., & Brown, C. R. (1998b). Newly Qualified Teachers: a comparison of perceptions held by primary and secondary teachers of their training routes and of their early experiences in post. *Educational Psychology*, 18, 341-352.

- Cangelosi, J. S. (1997). *Classroom management strategies: gaining and maintaining students' cooperation*. White Plains, New York, Longman.

- Carr, E. G., & Durand, V. M. (1985). Reducing Behavior Problems through Functional Communication Training. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, 18, 111-26.

- Chase, K. (2002). The Brilliant Inventiveness of Student Misbehavior: Test Your Classroom Management Skills. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 84, 327-28.

- Coakes, S. J., & Steed, L. G. (2001). *SPSS analysis without anguish: version 10.0 for Windows*. Brisbane, Chichester, Wiley.

- Coe, R. (2004). Issues arising from the use of effect sizes in analysing and reporting research. In I Schagen & K Elliot (Eds.) *But what does it mean? the use of effect sizes in educational research*. Slough, National Foundation for Educational Research.

- Coffey, A., & Delamont, S. (2000). *Feminism and the classroom teacher: research, praxis, and pedagogy*. London, Routledge/Falmer.

- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Hillsdale, New Jersey, L. Erlbaum Associates.

- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2003). *Research methods in education*. London, RoutledgeFalmer.

- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education*. London, RoutledgeFalmer.

- Combs, A. W. (1982). *A personal approach to teaching: beliefs that make a difference*. Boston, Allyn and Bacon.

- Craig, J. R., & Metze, L. P. (1979). *Methods of psychological research*. Philadelphia, Saunders.

- Creswell, J. W. (2008). *Educational research: planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey, Pearson/Merrill Prentice Hall.

- Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey, Pearson/Merrill Prentice Hall.

- Crowl, T. K. (1996). *Fundamentals of educational research*. Madison, Wis., Brown & Benchmark.

- Cummings, C. B. (2000). *Winning strategies for classroom management*. Alexandria, Va., Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

- Curwin, R. L. M. (2009). *Discipline with dignity: new challenges, new solutions.* country. [S.l.], Hawker Brownlow Education.

- Dahawi, B. (2004). *Comparative education and learning systems*. Cairo, Dar of Arab Fikr & Anglo Egyptian.

- Dane, F. C. (1990). *Research methods*. Pacific Grove, Calif., Brooks/Cole Pub. Co.

- Danielson, C. (2008). The handbook for enhancing professional practice using the framework for teaching in your school [Online]. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Available: http://site.ebrary.com/id/10250493.

- Dawood, N. (2002). *The relation between teaching aids and students' understanding of school subjects*. Riyadh, Obikan.

- Denscombe, M. (2008). Communities of practice: a research paradigm for the mixed methods approach. Communities of practice: a research paradigm for the mixed methods approach. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 2(3), 270-283.

- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2000). *Handbook of qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, Calif., Sage Publications.

- Denzin ., N.K(1978). The Research Act: A Theoretical Introduction to Sociological methods New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Digiulio, R. (2000). Positive Classroom Management. *A Step-by-Step Guide to Successfully Running the Show Without Destroying Student Dignity* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, California, Corwin Press, Inc.

- Doyle, W. (1980). *Classroom management*. West Lafayette, Kappa Delta Pi.

- Dreder, A. (2005). *Statistical testing of hypotheses in psychological, educational and social research*. Cairo, The World of Books.

- Eid, R. (1998). The problem of class control: the concept, the reasons and treatment. *Educational Sciences Magazine*, 12, 61-108.

- Elliott, J., & Place, M. (2012). *Children in difficulty: a guide to understanding and helping*. Abingdon, Oxon, New York, Rouledge.

- Elliott, J. G., & Stemler, S. E. (2008). Teacher authority, tacit knowledge, and the training of teachers. *Adv. Learn. Behav. Disabil. Advances in Learning and Behavioral Disabilities*, 21, 75-88.

- Emmam, E. (1997). The use of developed technology aids in class, its effect in successful clas performance and the teacher management to the classroom. Research

presented to the second scientific conference on classroom management: modern trends and real practices. 25-26 October. Teba Educational Studies Center, Cairo.

- Emmer, E. T., Evertson, C. M., & Worsham, M. E. (2006). *Classroom management for middle and high school teachers*. Boston, Pearson/A and B.

- Esawi, S. (1999). A suggested training plan on time for Riyadh undergraduate teachers. *Studies on curriculum and teaching methods*, 56, 117-162.

- Evans J, Harden A, Thomas J, Benefield P (2003) Support for pupils with emotional and behavioural difficulties (EBD) in mainstream primary classrooms: a systematic review of the effectiveness of interventions. In: Research Evidence in Education Library. London: EPPI-Centre, Social Science Research Unit, Institute of Education.

- Evertson, C. M., & Emmer, E. T. (1982). Effective management at the beginning of the school year in junior high classes. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 74, 485-498.

- Evertson, C. (1985). Training teachers in classroom management: an experimental study in secondary school classrooms. *Journal of Educational Research*, 79, 51-58.

- Evertson, C. M. (1989). Improving Elementary Classroom Management: A School-Based Training Program for Beginning the Year. *Journal of Educational Research*, 83, 82-90.

- Evertson, C. M. & Harris, A. H. (1992). What We Know about Managing Classrooms. *Educational Leadership*, 49, 74-78.

- Evertson, C. M., & Weinstein, C. S. (2006). *Handbook of classroom management : research, practice, and contemporary issues*. Mahwah, New Jersey, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Evertson, C. M., & Harris, A. H. (1999). Support for Managing Learning-Centred Classrooms: The Classroom Organization and Management Program. In H. J. Freiberg, & J. E. Brophy. *Beyond behaviorism: changing the classroom management paradigm*. Boston, Allyn and Bacon.

- Falata, M. (2001). *An introduction to modern technology in communication and education*. Riyadh, Obikan.

- Fatlawai, S. (2003). *Teaching competencies: concept- training- performance*. Jordon, Dar Al Shrouq.

- Finn, J. D., & Pannozo, G. M. (2003). The "Why's" of Class Size: Student Behavior in Small Classes. Review of Educational Research, 73(3), 321-368.

- Foxworthy, J. E. (2006). *Teachers' beliefs about classroom management.* Unpublished Master's Dissertation, Lakehead University, Canada, USA.

- Fraenkel, J. R., & Wallen, N. E. (2008). *How to design and evaluate research in education.* Boston, McGraw-Hill Higher Education.

- Freiberg, H. J., & Brophy, J. E. (1999). *Beyond behaviorism: changing the classroom management paradigm.* Boston, Allyn and Bacon.

- Gaber, A. (2005). *The effective teacher in the 21st century, Skills and professional development.* Cairo, Dar of Arab Thought.

- Gado, S. (2008). *Educational psychology.* Jordan, Dar Al Masera.

- Gamal, A. R. (2006). *The teaching competencies in measuring and evaluation and acquiring them through self learning.* Jordon, Dar Al Manahg.

- Gan, M. S. (2004). *The valuable guide of Islamization of teaching methods for parents, preachers and those interested in educating Muslims' children.* Taif, Saudi Arabia, Dar Al Tarafen.

- Ganem, A. (1996). The role of the head teacher as a perminat supervisor - Theoritical and applied study. *Educational and social studies*, 2, 87-123.

- Garrett, T. (2005). *Student and teacher-centered classroom management: A case study of three teachers' beliefs and practices.* Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation., The State University of New Jersey, New Brunswick, USA.

- Gass, S. M., & Mackey, A. (2007). *Data elicitation for second and foreign language research.* New Jersey, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Gay, L. R., & Airasian, P. W. (2003). *Educational research, competencies for analysis and applications.* New Jersey, Merrill/Prentice Hall.

- General Directorate for Students Guidance (1994). *Academic achievement; reality, effecting factors and methods of enhancing it "a summary and analysis of educational regions views".* Riyadh, Ministry of Education.

- Ghafour, P. (2007). Education system undergoing major overhaul. *ArabNews Newspaper* details.

- Gibbes, J. B. (2004). *Attitudes and beliefs regarding classroom management between traditionally certified and alternatively certified high school teachers.* Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, The University of Southern Mississippi. Hattiesburg, USA.

- Gilbert, G. N. (2008). *Researching social life.* Los Angeles, Sage.

- Glatthom, A. (1997). Differentiated supervision (2nd ed.). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

- Gomlas, K. (2001). Educational and professional guidance. *Education documentary, Ministry of Education*, 42.

- Good, T. L. (1979). Teacher-effectiveness in the Elementary School. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 30, 52-64.

- Gordon, D. G. (2001). Classroom Management Problems and Solutions. *Music Educators Journal*, 88.

- Gottfredson, D. C., Gottfredson, G. D., & Hybl, L. G. (1993). Managing Adolescent Behavior A Multiyear, Multischool Study. *American Educational Research Journal*, 30, 179-215.

- Gradat, E., Jaber, A., Khwaldh, N. (2005). *Effective teaching*. Cairo, The Contemporary Educational Bookshop.

- Greene, J.C., Caracelli, V.J., and Graham, W.F. (1989). Toward a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation designs. Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 11(3), 255-274.

- Griffin, N. C., Wohlstetter, P., & Bhardadwaja, L. C. (2001). Teacher Coaching: A Tool for Retention. *School Administrator*, 58, 38-40.

- Guba, E. G. (1990) *The Paradigm dialog*. California, Sage Publications.

- Guntermann, C. G. (1993). *Developing language teachers for a changing world*. Illinois, National Textbook Co.

- Hadhood, D. (1991). The fundamental competencies fo the school head teacher in the state of Kuwait. *Educational studies*, 7, 140-206.

- Hakeem, A. (2007). *The degree of implementing the education policy principles from the point of view of secondary schools teachers in Makkah region*. Makkah, Dar Makkah.

- Hamelin, J. M. (2003). *"It goes without saying"; nonverbal communication signals as a tool for establishing effective classroom management*. Unpublished MAE dissertation, Washington, Pacific Lutheran University, Washington, USA.

- Hanson, J. A. (2002). *Learning while managing, the role of authority in successful classroom management*. Unpublished MAE dissertation, Pacific Lutheran University, Washington, USA.

- Harris, L. R. (2008). A Phenomenographic Investigation of Teacher Conceptions of Student Engagement in Learning. *Australian Educational Researcher*, 35, 57-79.

- Hasan, M. (2003). Problems facing teachers of the intermediate and Secondary stages - A field study on the area of Makah Educational Directoratev,The conference of , Towards a critical view for the Arab Educational Thought Modern Education Union,3.

- Heje, A. (2008). *Managing Education and Learning Environment, Theory and Practice in the Classroom and School*. Cairo, Dar of Arab Thought.

- Hemdan, M. (2003). *Classroom education; managing, enhancing and measuring*. Jeddah, Tohama.

- Hemdan, M. (2006). *School Education, Enhancing, Management and Educational Measurement*. Jordon, Dar Modern Educational.

- Hemda, F. I. (1997). The effect of training in classroom management strategies on the self effectiveness of the undergraduate teacher and the ability to face classroom situations. *Studies in curriculum and teaching methods*, 43, 81-127.

- Higgins, S. (2003). Does ICT improve learning and teaching in schools? [Online]. BERA, British Educational Research Association. (ISBN 09466711929780946671199)

- Hitz, R., & Driscoll, A. (1989). *Praise in the Classroom*. U.I.L., Elementary, E.C.O. & Early Childhood Education.

- Hopkins, D., & Levin, B. (2000). Government Policy and School Development. *School Leadership & Management*, 20, 15-30.

- Hosnia, S. (2007). *Methods of Teaching Commercial and Economic Sciences*. Damascus, University of Damascus.

- Hulin-Austin, L., and Resta, V. (2001). Teacher mentoring as professional development [Online]. Washington, DC, ERIC Clearinghouse on Teaching and Teacher Education. Available, http,//purl.access.gpo.gov/GPO/LPS31798.

- Hussy, J. and Hussy, R. (1997). Business Research: A Practical Guide for Undergraduate and Postgraduate students. New York. PALGRAVE.

- Huysamen, G. K. (1997). *Introductory statistics and research design for the behavioural sciences*. Cape Town, G.K. Huysamen.

- Ibraheem, A., & Abdlrazik, T. (2001). *Currculum planning and developing strategies in Arab countries*. Cairo, Dar Al Nahda.

- Ibrahem, M. (2007). *Effective teaching skills*. Cairo, Al Anglo Egyptian.

- Jang, E. E., McDougall, D. E., Pollon, D., Herbert, M., & Russell, P. (2008). Integrative Mixed Methods Data Analytic Strategies in Research on School Success in Challenging Circumstances. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 2, 221-247.

- Joyce, B. R., & Showers, B. (2002). Student achievement through staff development [Online]. Alexandria, VA, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Available,http,//search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&scope=site&db=nlebk &db=nlabk&AN=87516.

- Kahtani, W. (1998). *School factors leading to teachers performance insuffiency in primary schools in Riyadh city*. Unpublished Master's Dissertation, King Saud University, KSA.

- Kareem, M. et al (2003). *Classroom management, theory and application*. Kuwait, Al Falah.

- Katami, Y. (2005). *Educational psychology and classroom teaching*. Jordon, Dar Al Shoroq.

- Kauffman, D. (1992). Supervision of Student Teachers. The educational Resources Information centre (ERIC Reproduction service No. ED 344873).

- Kaufman, K. F., & O'Leary, K. D. (1972). Reward, cost, and self-evaluation procedures for disruptive adolescents in a psychiatric hospital school. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, 5, 293-309.

- Key, J. (1997). Research Design in Occupational Education "Advantages & Disadvantages of Qualitative & Quantitative Research Methods" http,//www.ehow.co.uk/info_8074619_advantages-qualitative-quantitative-research-methods.html [Online].

- Kher, N., Lacina-Gifford, L. J., & Yandell, S. (2000). *Preservice Teachers' Knowledge of Effective Classroom Management Strategies; Defiant Behavio*r. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (New Orleans, LA.

- Khwldh, M. (2004). *An introduction on education*. Jordon, Al Masera Publishing.

- Kohn, A. (1993). *Punished by rewards; the trouble with gold stars, incentive plans, A's, praise, and other bribes*. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co.

- Kohn, A. (1996). *Beyond discipline; from compliance to community*. Alexandria, Va., ASCD.

- Konori, A., & Melaefi, M. (2004). *Vocational Teacher Guide in General Education*. Riyadh, Obikan.

- Korashi, S. (1997). Obstacles facing educational activities in the primary stage in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. *Future of Arab Education*, 3, 24-33.

- Kyriacou, C., & Coulthard, M. (2000). Undergraduates' Views of Teaching as a Career Choice. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 26, 117-26.

- Larochelle, L. (1999). Classroom Management in the Art Room. *Arts & Activities*, 126, 28, 62-63.

- Larson-Hall, J. (2010). *A guide to doing statistics in second language research using SPSS*. New York, London, Routledge.

- Levin, R et al. (1989). *Quantitative approaches to management*. New York, McGraw-Hill.

- Lobitz, W. C. (1974). A simple stimulus cue for controlling disruptive classroom behavior. Methodological implications for behavior change procedures. *Journal of abnormal child psychology*, 2, 143-52.

- Madey, D. L. (1982). Some benefits of integrating qualitative and quantitative methods in program evaluation, with illustrations. Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 4, 223- 236.

- Malki, H. (2003). Classroom management skills. *Afaq Education Journal,* 8-17, 11.

- Malone, B. G., & Tietjens, C. (1998). *A Re-examination of Classroom Rules*. details

- Manai, A. (2006). Teaching; management and innovation. *Education horizons magazine*. Qatar, 3, 33-55

- Manke, M. P. (1994). Teacher Organization of Time and Space in the Classroom as an Aspect of the Construction of Classroom Power Relationships.the paper presented at the annual Meeting American educational research, 4-8-1994, April, USA, New Orleans.

- Mansi, H. (2006). *Classrooms Management*. Jordon, Dar Al Kindy.

- Martin, N. K., & Shoho, A. R. (2000). Teacher Experience, Training, & Age, The Influence of Teacher Characteristics on Classroom Management Style. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Southwest Educational Research Association (Dallas, TX, January 27-29).

- Martin, N. K., & Yin, Z. (1999). Beliefs Regarding Classroom Management Style, Differences between Urban and Rural Secondary Level Teachers. *Journal of Research in Rural Education*, 15, 101-05.

- Marton, F. (1988). Prenomenography, A research approach to investigating different understandings of reality. In R. R. W. Sherman and B. Rodman, *Qualitative research in education / focus and methods*. London, Falmer Press.

- Marton, F., & Booth, S. (1997). *Learning and awareness*. New Jersey, L. Erlbaum Associates.

- Marzano, R. J., Marzano, J. S., & Pickering, D. (2003). *Classroom management that works: research-based strategies for every teacher*. Alexandria, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

- May, T. (2001). *Social research: issues, methods and process*. Buckingham, Philadelphia, Open University Press.

- McFarland, K. P. (2000). *Specific Classroom Management Strategies for the Middle/Secondary Education Classroom*. U.S.A http://orders.edrs.com/members/sp.cfm?=ED437340

- Merae, T. (2004). *Educational competencies in view of regulations*. Jordan, Dar Al Forkan.

- Merrett, F., & Wheldall, K. (1982). Does teaching students-teachers about behavior-modification techniques improve their teaching performance in the classroom? *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 8, 67-75.

- Mertens, D. M. (2009). *Research and evaluation in education and psychology, integrating diversity with quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods*. London, Sage.

- Mezabri, I. (2002). *Parents and teachers councils obstacles in the primary stage in Riyadh city from the point of view of parents and teachers*. Unpublished Master's Dissertation, King Saud University, KSA.

- Ministry of Education (1987). *The teacher's guide*. Taif, KSA, Taif Literary Club.

- Ministry of Knowledge (1999). *Education policy in K.S.A*. Riyadh, KSA Ministry of Education.

- Ministry of Knowledge (1999). *Education policy in K.S.A*. Riyadh, KSA Ministry of Education.

- Ministry of Education (2000). *The General Directorate for Students Guidance. Rules regulating behavior and punctuality for general education students*. Riyadh, KSA Ministry of Education.

- Ministry of Education (2004). *10-years plan.* Riyadh, KSA Ministry of Education.

- Ministry of Education (2004). *The 7th development plan*. Riyadh, KSA Ministry of Education.

- Ministry of Education (2007). *Educational Documentary*. Riyadh, KSA Ministry of Education.

- Ministry of Education (2008). *The General Directorate for Students Guidance. Rules regulating behavior and punctuality for general education students*. Riyadh, KSA Ministry of Education.

- Ministry of Education (2010). *Education in Saudi Arabia "Report of Statistics and numbers"*. Riyadh, KSA Ministry of Education.

- Ministry of Economy and Planning (2010). General aims and strategically basics of the 8th development plan. Available on, plan8/arabichttp//www.planning.gov.sa/

- Ministry of Education (1970). *The Saudi Education Policy Document*. Riyadh, KSA

- Ministry of education in New Zealand. (2006). Management of development program in New Zealand. Http;//publicationprograms.php.16.01.2012.

- Modanat, O., & Kamal, B. (2009). *Teaching educational supervision*. Egypt, Dar Magdalawi for Publishing.

- Mohammed, F. (2004). *The teacher and classroom management*. Helioplis, Book Center for Publishing.

- Mohammed, G., & Mohammed, L. (2001). *Communications and teaching aids. Fundamental readings for the undergraduate teacher*. Cairo, Book Center for Publishing.

- Morsi, M. (2004). *The teacher and discipline; the teacher's guide to teaching the learner*. Cairo, Alam Al Kotob.

- Mosleh, A. M. (2000). *Classroom management and collective classes*. Aman, Dar Almarefa Publisher.

- Mostafa, Z. (1989). The teacher and classroom management (1). *Education magazine*. U.A.E. 10(73), 20-21.

- Mullikin, T. (1982). *Approaching the research on effective schools and effective classrooms*. PA Department of Education, U.S.A

- Mustafa, S. F. (2004). *Educational management and planning*. Riyadh, Alroshd.

- Mustafa, Y. (1996). School Control in Lower Classes in the Fundamental Education in Egypt-a field study. *Education Journal*, 51, 255-275.

- Nashawati, A. M. (1998). *Educational Psychology*. Baurit, Resalah Est.

- Nasser, Y. (1996). Classroom Interaction. Educational course for on the job teachers trainers in the ministries of education in Arab countries. Tripoli, 76-95.

- Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (2006). P*sychometric theory*. New York, McGraw-Hill.

- Nye, B., Hedges, L. V., & Konstantopoulos, S. (1999). The Long-Term Effects of Small Classes: A Five-Year Follow-Up of the Tennessee Class Size Experiment. Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 21(2), 127-142.

- O'Hara, M. (2004). *Teaching 3-8; meeting the standards for initial teacher training and induction*. London, New York, Continuum.

- Obaydat, Z. A., Adulrhman ; Abdlhaka, Kayed (Eds.) (2011). *Scientific research. Concepts, tools and methods*. Riyadh, Dar Osama for Publishing.

- Omer, F. (1997). *The extent of the availability and use of modern technology in government and private secondary school from the point of view of female head teachers*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, King Abdulaziz University, KSA.

- Pallant, J. (2007). *SPSS survival manual; a step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS for Windows*. Maidenhead, Open University Press.

- Plax, T. G., & Kearney, P. (1990) Classroom management: structuring the classfroom for work. In Daly, John A. Friedrich, Gustav W.Vangelisti, Anita L. (1990), *Teaching communication theory, research, and methods* [Online]. Hillsdale, N.J., L. Erlbaum Associates. Available, http,//catalog.hathitrust.org/api/volumes/oclc/19779335.html.

- High committee on education policy (2002). *The growth and development of education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in forty years*. Riyadh, publisher.

- Powell S, Tod J (2004) A systematic review of how theories explain learning behaviour in school contexts. In: Research Evidence in Education Library. London: EPPI-Centre, Social Science Research Unit, Institute of Education.Prosise, R. D. (1996). *Beyond rules and consequences for classroom management*. Bloomington, Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.

- Qurashi, A. (2001). *Research design in social science*. Kuwait, Dar Alqalm.

- Raees, F. (1999). *Developing secondary education in the U.A.E in terms of contemporary world trends*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Ein Shams university, KSA.

- Ramzy, A. (2001). The Arab teacher from a future functional prospective: An analytical study. Zaytona reseash and scientific studies. *Human sciences*, 1, 71-98.

- Rawlinson, S., Essex-Carter, L. I. Z., Bolden, D., & Constable, H. (2003). Have Geographers Lost Their Way? Issues relating to the recruitment of geographers into school teaching. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, 27, 39-56.

- Rayan , A. (2006). *Research Methodology*. Cairo, Alsfa.

- Rea, L. M., & Parker, R. A. (2005). *Designing and conducting survey research: a comprehensive guide*, San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.

- Reichardt, C. S., & Cook, T. D. (1979). Beyond qualitative versus quantitative methods. In T. D. Cook & C. S. Reichardt (Eds.), Qualitative and quantitative methods in evaluation research (pp. 7-32). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

- Ritter, J. T. (2003). *Classroom management beliefs and practices of middle school teachers based on years of experience and teaching certification*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of North Carolina, Charlotte, USA.

- Robinson, M. (2002). Teacher reforms in South Africa: challenges, strategies and debates. *Prospects*, 32, 289-299.

- Robinson, P. (2001). Individual Differences, Cognitive Abilities, Aptitude Complexes, and Learning Conditions in Second Language Acquisition. *Second Language Research*, 17, 368-92.

- Rossman, G. B., & Wilson, B. L. (1985). Numbers and words: Combining quantitative and qualitative methods in a single large-scale evaluation study. Evaluation Review, 9, 627-643.

- Ruben, B. D. (1984). *Communication and human behavior*. New York, London, Collier Macmillan Publishers.

- Rudestam, K. and Newton, R. (2000). Surviving Your Dissertation: A Comprehensive Guide to Content and Process (2nd Edition). Califomia: Sage Publications, Inc.

- Saaada, H. (1997). The role of head teachers in the fundamental stage in the professional development of teachers in Bahrain. *Arab Gulf Resalah*, 18, 17- 53.

- Saad, M. (2000). *Practical education; the theory and application.* Aman, Dar Al Fikr.

- Sabti, A. (2002). The classroom. *The Education Magazine*. 8(25), 64-68

- Salama, A. (2004). *Technological teaching aids*. Oman, Dar Al Fikr.

- Sayed, F. (1997). *Utilizing education technology*. Egypt, Egyptian association for education technology.

- Shafshak, M., & Alnashif, H. (2000). *School classroom management*. Cairo, Dar Al Fikr of Arab.

- Shaheen, M. (2001). The teacher, human and social communication. *The undergraduate teacher journal*. 1(2), 3-4.

- Shanti, R., & Oda, M. (2007). *Class Teaching and Education*. Jordan, Al Ahlyia for Publishing and Distribution.

- Sharaf, A. N. (2001). Suggested view for classroom management in general education schools; descriptive analytical study. *Education magazine*, 102, 77-129.

- Sheets, R. (1994). *Student Voice, Factors That Cause Teacher/Student Confrontations in a Pluralistic Classroom*. Paper presented at the annual conference of the national association of minority education, Seattle, WA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No.ED371089).

- Sheets, R. H., & Gay, G. (1996). Student Perceptions of Disciplinary Conflict in Ethnically Diverse Classrooms. *NASSP Bulletin*, 80, 84-94.

- Shin, S. (2004). *A cross-cultural study of teachers' beliefs and strategies on classroom behavior management in urban American and Korean school systems*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Memphis, Memphis, USA.

- Shockley, R., & Sevier, L. (1991). Behavior Management in the Classroom, Guidelines for Maintaining Control. *Schools in the Middle*, 1, 14-18.

- Shokeer, O. (1996). *Effectiveness of both a training programme and characteristic of the control organ for acquiring classroom efficiencies of undergraduate teachers in the fundamental education division, faculty of education, Tanta University*. Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Tanta University.

- Showers, B. (1987). Synthesis of Research on Staff Development, A Framework for Future Study and a State-of-the-Art Analysis. *Educational Leadership*, 45, 77-87.

- Smith, D. D., & Rivera, D. P. (1995). Discipline in Special Education and General Education Settings. *Focus on Exceptional Children*, 27, 1-14.

- Smith, J. K. (1983). Quantitative versus Qualitative Research, An Attempt to Clarify the Issue. *Educational Researcher*, 12, 6-13.

- Smith, A. G., & Louis, K. S. (Eds.). (1982). Multimethod policy research: Issues and applications [Special issue]. American Behavioral Scientist, 26

- Snyder, D. W. (1998). Classroom Management for Student Teachers. *Music Educators Journal*, 84, 37-40.

- Soad, R. (1994). The Degree of Supervision Role of The Secondary School Head teacher in Jordon in developing the class teacher performance as seen by secondary school teachers and head teachers. *Journal of Asyot Faculity of Education*, 9, 184-209.

- Soliman, A. (2006). *Contemporary educational trends, a vision in education and teaching affairs*. Cairo, Anglo Egyptian.

- Soliman, M., & Adebi, A. (1990). Towards a subjective tool for classroom management in the preparatory stage, State of Bahrain. *Arab Gulf Message*, 10, 58-86.

- Stage, S. A., & Quiroz, D. R. (1997). A Meta-Analysis of Interventions To Decrease Disruptive Classroom Behavior in Public Education Settings. *School Psychology Review*, 26, 333-68.

- Stephens, P., & Crawley, T. (1994). *Becoming an effective teacher*. Cheltenham, Stanley Thomas.

- Suen, H. K., & Ary, D. (1989). *Analyzing quantitative behavioral observation data*. Hillsdale, Erlbaum Associates.

- Taan, H. (1998). Practicing of the secondary stage teachers of the fundamental skills for managing educational situations efficiently. Yarmouk research. *Human and social sciences*, 14, 169-188.

- Tawlba, M. (2000). Measuring the degree of computer teachers practicing of effective teaching principals in Erbid governorate. *Damascus university magazine for literature, humanities and education sciences*, 16, 187-237.

- Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (1998). Mixed methodology: Combining qualitative and quantitative approaches. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Tull, D. S., & Hawkins, D. I. (1987). *Marketing research: measurement and method*. New York, London, Collier Macmillan.

- Turkistani, H. (2004). The role of higher education in providing the Saudi work market needs. *Social sciences magazine*, 4, 77-101.

- Tymms, P. (2012). Questionnaires. In J. E. A. Arthur (Ed.), *Research methods and methodologies in Education*. London, Sage.

-   Vincent, S. (1999). *The multigrade classroom a resource handbook for small, rural schools. Rural Education Program based on the September 1989 publication of the same title written by Bruce A. Miller*. Washington, U.S. Dept. of Education.

-   Whitehead, J., Preece, L., & Maughan, S. (1999). Teacher supply, Is there a disjuncture between policy and practice? The case of mature students. *Research in education*, 22.

-   Wibari, A. (2002). The future of education in K.S.A. *Al Moalem Magazine; educational- cultural- general*, 15.

-   Wilkinson, D., & Birmingham, P. (2003). Using Research Instruments a Guide for Researchers[Online].London,RoutledgeFalmer.Available,http,//public.eblib.com/EBL Public/PublicView.do?ptiID=181843.

-   Wilson, K. S. (2006). *Teacher perceptions of classroom management practices in public elementary schools*. Unpublished Ed.D Dissertation, University of Southern California, California, USA.

-   Wisker, G. (2007). *The postgraduate research handbook: succeed with your MA, MPhil, EdD and PhD*. Basingstoke, Palgrave Macmillan.

-   Wlodkowski, R. J. (1982). *Discipline: The Great False Hope*. Milwaukee, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee.

-   Wong, H., & Wong, R. (2001). "Effective teaching: The Effective teacher thinks". Teachers. net Gazette, Vol.2 , No.7. <http,//teachers.net/gazette/NOVOl/qong.html> [Online].

-   Wragg, C. (1995). Classroom management, The perspectives of teachers, pupils and researcher. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, 17-22-April 1995, USA San Francisco.

-   www.tatweer.edu.sa (2008). King Abdullah project for the development of public education.

-   Yost, D., & Mosca, F. (2002). Beyond Behavior Strategies: Using Reflection to Manage Youth in Crisis. *The Clearing House, A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas*, 75, 264-267.

-   Yousf, A. (1990). *The wide vision for the fundamental education from the Arab reality prospect, overview and analysis*. The Arab countries UNISCO education regional office, A special issue on, Fundamental education. Jordan, Dar Almarefa.

- Zaitoon, H. (2007). *Teaching skills "A vision on implementing teaching"*. Cairo, Alam Al Kotob.
- Zikmund, W. G. (2000). *Business research methods*. Fort Worth, Dryden Press.
- Zuckerman, J. T. (2000). Student Science Teachers' Accounts of a Well-Remembered Event about Classroom Management. *Journal of Science Teacher Education*, 11, 243-50.

APPENDICES

Questionnaire

On

Classroom management approaches of primary teachers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: Descriptions and the development of curriculum and instruction with a focus on Islamic education teachers.

Dear Teacher,

I am a full time PhD student in the Curriculum and Pedagogy Group of the School of Education, University of Durham, United Kingdom. I am conducting some research with classroom approaches of primary teachers in the kingdom of Saudi Arabia and wonder if you could help me by completing a short questionnaire including some general questions. The attached questionnaire is a significant part of my PhD.

I am hoping to carry out the questionnaires with you, as an experienced person in this area, to attain a clear image of the classroom management approaches in order to identify what needs to be done to improve them. Therefore, I would be extremely grateful if you would contribute toward the successful result of this research, which will hopefully also lead to the improvement of the Saudi teaching methods, by completing this questionnaire.

Finally, I wish to confirm that the information and personal opinion that you provide will be treated as confidential. Please accept in advance my best regards and appreciation for your cooperation.

<div align="center">Yours Faithfully,</div>

Ali Aldossari

Curriculum and Pedagogy Group

School of Education

Durham University- United Kingdom

Email. ali.aldossari2@durham.ac.uk

General data.

Please put (✓) after the statement that matches your present status

1- Current job:

Teacher ☐

Supervisor ☐

2- Qualifications:

University graduate & educational study ☐

University graduate & non-educational study ☐

3- Years of experience in current job

1-5 years ☐

6-10 years ☐

11 years & over ☐

4- Location of school.

Rwabi ☐

West ☐

East ☐

Central ☐

South ☐

North ☐

Rodah ☐

5- Training programs in classroom management:

Received training programs in classroom management. ☐

Received NO training programs in classroom management ☐

6- Subject: (tick one or more)

Religion ☐ Arabic Language ☐ Maths ☐

English Language ☐ History and Geography ☐ Science ☐ other ☐

Other: please specify……………………………………………………………………

Frequency of classroom activities.

   The following an example illustrates how to answer by putting (✓) in the column that represents your opinion.

Example:

Statement	How often?							
	Never or almost never	Once a term	Once a month	Once a fortnight	Once or twice a week	Three of four times per week	Every day	Several time a day
I come to the school early.					✓			

Now please complete the table below and over the page.

Statement	How often?							
	Never or almost never	Once a term	Once a month	Once a fortnight	Once or twice a week	Three of four times per week	Every day	Several time a day
Classroom planning								
A) *Organising objects and materials*.								
1-Arranging students' desks for learning in class.								
2-Preparing the teaching apparatus in class.								
3-Preparing teaching aids prior to class.								
4- Preparing lesson plan. (aims, objectives)								
5- Prepare the time allocation of the lesson.								
6-Putting the teaching aids in the proper place in class.								
7-Preparing alternative material for contingency.								
B)*Organising teacher and students, role*.								
1-Organising classroom discussion among students.								
2-Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher.								
3-Discussion of class rules.								

Your typed classroom.

Class performance.								
1-Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students.								
2-Making sure that I am visible to all students.								
3-Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class.								
4- Respecting students' ideas in class.								
5-Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly.								
6-Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class.								
7-Anticipating class problems before they happen in class.								
Class evaluation.								
1- Evaluating the learning environment in class regularly.								
2- Determining points of weakness and strength of the students.								
3-Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation.								
4- Treating behavioural problems educationally.								
5- Treating weakness resulting from class evaluation.								

Regarding managing your class as a teacher, read the following statements and put only one (X) in the box that is closed to you class.

For example:

statement A | X | | | | | Statement B

When you put (X) on the A side, this means your answer is close to A.

NO	Statement A					Statement B
1	The class is quiet.					The class is active.
2	Pupils sit where they decide.					Pupils sit where I decide.
3	Pupils move in class only with permission.					Pupils are free to move around in class.
4	Pupils are free to speak in class.					Pupils speak in class only with permission.

5	Pupils leave the class only with permission.					Pupils are free to leave the class whenever they like.
6	I use the internet in class.					I use the chalk board in class.
7	Pupils can only use the set book in class.					Pupils can bring more references into class if they want.
8	I reward good behaviour.					I punish bad behaviour.
9	I do not decorate the class.					I decorate the class.
10	I train my pupils to be responsible for class control and discipline.					I am responsible for class control and discipline.
11	I record the bad behaviour of the pupils in class.					I do not record the bad behaviour of the pupils in class.
12	The pupils are allowed to ask questions at any time during the lesson.					The pupils are only allowed to ask questions at the end of the lesson.
13	I do not call pupils by their names in class.					I call pupils by their names in class.
14	I always move while giving explanations in class.					I stand in front of the students while explaining matters in class.
15	I always punish a naughty pupil promptly.					I try to deal with naughty pupils without confrontations.
16	I use polite funny remarks while giving explanations in class.					I am strict and serious while giving explanations in class.
17	I give homework for the students during class.					Pupils choose their homework at the end of the class.
18	I ask the pupils to manage their presence and absence process themselves.					I manage the presence and absence of the pupils myself.
19	The communication channel in class is from the teacher to the pupil.					The communication channel in class is from the teacher to the pupil and pupil to pupil.
20	My major responsibility in class is to help the pupils to develop themselves.					My major responsibility in class is to transfer knowledge to the pupils.

331

21	My aim in class is to finish the curriculum on time.					My aim in class is to help the pupil to understand the curriculum .
22	In class, I focus on how the pupils learn.					In class, I focus on what the pupils learn.
23	In class, I concentrate on the cognitive side.					In class, I concentrate on the skills side.
24	I conduct class tests to determine the degree of the pupils' progress.					I conduct class tests to determine the success or failure of the pupils.
25	I use the exercises in the set books in class.					I ask the pupils to bring their own books.
26	I teach outside the curriculum if the pupils ask questions outside the curriculum.					I keep strictly to the curriculum.
27	My aim in class is to make the pupils acquire the content in quantity.					My aim in class is to encourage pupils to make as much progress as possible.

If you would be happy to give your name, school and e-mail, please do so, if you do then I will send you a short report.

Name: ………………………………..

School: …………………………………

Email address: ………………………………….

Please add any further comment you would like to add and what are your suggestions for

developing the approaches of classroom management and accordingly, curriculum and

instruction/………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………

Dear Educational Supervisor,

I am a full time PhD student in the Curriculum and Pedagogy Group of the School of Education, University of Durham, United Kingdom. I am conducting some research with classroom approaches of primary teachers in the kingdom of Saudi Arabia and wonder if you could help me by completing a short questionnaire including some general questions. The attached questionnaire is a significant part of my PhD.

I am hoping to carry out the questionnaires with you, as an experienced person in this area, to attain a clear image of the classroom management approaches in order to identify what needs to be done to improve them. Therefore, I would be extremely grateful if you would contribute toward the successful result of this research, which will hopefully also lead to the improvement of the Saudi teaching methods, by completing this questionnaire.

Finally, I wish to confirm that the information and personal opinion that you provide will be treated as confidential. Please accept in advance my best regards and appreciation for your cooperation.

<div align="center">Yours Faithfully,</div>

Ali Aldossari

Curriculum and Pedagogy Group

School of Education

Durham University- United Kingdom

Email. ali.aldossari2@durham.ac.uk

General data.

Please put (✓) after the statement that matches your present status

1- Current job:

Teacher ☐

Supervisor ☐

2- Qualifications:

University graduate & educational study ☐

University graduate & non-educational study ☐

3- Years of experience in current job

1-5 years ☐

6-10 years ☐

11 years & over ☐

4- Location of school.

Rwabi ☐

West ☐

East ☐

Central ☐

South ☐

North ☐

Rodah ☐

5- Training programs in classroom management:

Received training programs in classroom management. ☐

Received NO training programs in classroom management ☐

6- Subject: (tick one or more)

Religion ☐   Arabic Language ☐   Maths ☐

English Language ☐   History and Geography ☐   Science ☐ other ☐

Other: please specify……………………………………

Frequency of classroom activities.

The following is an example to illustrate how to answer by putting (✓) in the column that represents your opinion (through your supervision) on the teacher's classroom management.

Example:

Statement	How often?							
	Never or almost never	Once a term	Once a month	Once a fortnight	Once or twice a week	Three of four times per week	Every day	Several time a day
The teacher comes to the school early.					✓			

Now please complete the table below and over the page.

Statement	How often?							
	Never or almost never	Once a term	Once a month	Once a fortnight	Once or twice a week	Three of four times per week	Every day	Several time a day
<u>Classroom planning</u>								
A) *Organising objects and materials*.								
1-Arranging students' desks for learning in class.								
2-Preparing the teaching apparatus in class.								
3-Preparing teaching aids prior to class.								
4- Preparing lesson plan. (aims, objectives)								
5- Prepare the time allocation of the lesson.								
6-Putting the teaching aids in the proper place in class.								
7-Preparing alternative material for contingency.								
B)*Organising teacher and students, role*.								
1-Organising classroom discussion among students.								
2-Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher.								
3-Discussion of class rules.								

Class performance.									
1-Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students.									
2-Making sure that the teacher is visible to all students.									
3-Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class.									
4- Respecting students' ideas in class.									
5-Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly.									
6-Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class.									
7-Anticipating class problems before they happen in class.									
Class evaluation.									
1- Evaluating the learning environment in class regularly.									
2- Determining points of weakness and strength of the students.									
3-Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation.									
4- Treating behavioural problems educationally.									
5- Treating weakness resulting from class evaluation.									

Classroom type:

Regarding the teacher's classroom management, read the following statements and put (X) in the box that is more close to the type of class of the teachers you are supervising.

For example:

statement A ☐ X ☐ ☐ ☐ **Statement B**

When you put (X) on the A side, this means your answer is close to A.

NO	Statement A					Statement B
1	The class is quiet.					The class is active.
2	Pupils sit where they decide.					Pupils sit where the teacher decides.
3	Pupils move in class only with permission.					Pupils are free to move around in class.
4	Pupils are free to speak in class.					Pupils speak in class only with permission.
5	Pupils leave the class only with permission.					Pupils are free to leave the class whenever they like.

6	The teacher uses the internet in class.						The teacher uses the chalk board in class.
7	Pupils can only use the set book in class.						Pupils can bring more references into class if they want.
8	The teacher rewards good behaviour.						The teacher punishes bad behaviour.
9	The teacher does not decorate the class.						The teacher decorates the class.
10	The teacher trains pupils to be responsible for class control and discipline.						The teacher is responsible for class control and discipline.
11	The teacher records the bad behaviour of the pupils in class.						The teacher does not record the bad behaviour of the pupils in class.
12	The pupils are allowed to ask questions at any time during the lesson.						The pupils are only allowed to ask questions at the end of the lesson.
13	The teacher does not call pupils by their names in class.						The teacher calls pupils by their names in class.
14	The teacher always moves while giving explanations in class.						The teacher stands in front of the students while explaining matters in class.
15	The teacher always punishes a naughty pupil promptly.						The teacher tries to deal with naughty pupils without confrontations.
16	The teacher uses polite funny remarks while giving explanations in class.						The teacher is strict and serious while giving explanations in class.
17	The teacher gives homework for the students during class.						Pupils choose their homework at the end of the class.
18	The pupils manage their presence and absence process themselves.						The teacher manages the presence and absence of the pupils himself.
19	The communication channel in class is from the teacher to the pupil.						The communication channel in class is from the teacher to the pupil and pupil to pupil.
20	The teacher's major responsibility in class is to help the pupils develop themselves.						The teacher's major responsibility in class is to transfer knowledge to the pupils.
21	The teacher's aim in class is to finish the curriculum on time.						The teacher's aim in class is to help the pupil to understand the curriculum.

337

22	In class, The teacher focuses on how the pupils learn.					In class, The teacher focuses on what the pupils learn.
23	In class, The teacher concentrates on the cognitive side.					In class, The teacher concentrates on the skills side.
24	The teacher conducts class tests to determine the degree of the pupils' progress.					The teacher conducts class tests to determine the success or failure of the pupils.
25	The teacher uses the exercises in the set books in class.					The teacher asks the pupils to bring their own books.
26	The teacher teaches outside the curriculum if the pupils ask questions outside the curriculum.					The teacher keeps strictly to the curriculum.
27	The teacher aim in class is to make the pupils acquire the content in quantity.					The teacher's aim in class is to encourage pupils to make as much progress as possible.

If you would be happy to give your name, school and e-mail, please do so, if you do then I will send you a short report.

Name: ……………………………………..

School: ………………………………

Email address: ………………………………….

Please add any further comment you would like to add and what are your suggestions for

developing the approaches of classroom management and accordingly, curriculum and

instruction?……………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………

Classroom management approaches observation check list sheet:

Classroom management approaches observation check list sheet:

General information:

Name of school: ……………………………

School building design kind: rented building ☐   public building ☐

Number of pupils in classroom: ………………………..

Date of observation: ………………………………

Time of observation:……………………………….

Subject:

Religion   ☐   Arabic Language   ☐   Maths ☐

English Language ☐   History and Geography ☐   Science ☐   Other ☐

Length of lesson: ………………………….

		1 = Not observed. 2 = Not sure. 3= Yes observed. 4= several times.									
The repeated rating a regular intervals during the lessons	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	Any notes
A) *Preparing and Organising.*										
1-Arranging students' desks for learning in class.										
2-Preparing the teaching apparatus in class.										
3-Preparing teaching aids prior to class.										
4- Preparing lesson plan. (aims, objectives)										
5- Prepare the time allocation of the lesson.										
6-Putting the teaching aids in the proper place in class.										
7-Preparing alternative material for contingency.										
B) *Group work.*										
1-Organising classroom discussion among students.										
2-Co-ordinating students' work among themselves and their teacher.										
3-Using the class rules.										
C) *Classroom management.*										
1-Considering individual differences when assigning class activities to students.										
2-Making sure that teacher is visible to all students.										
3-Using a democratic way of dealing with students in class.										
4- Respecting students' ideas in class.										
5-Consolidating the positive behaviour of students directly.										
6-Full attention of the teacher to all that happens in class.										
7-Anticipating class problems before they happen in class.										
D) *Evaluating and taking action.*										
1- Evaluating the learning environment in class.										
2- Determining points of weakness and strength of the students.										
3-Determining behavioural problems accurately through class observation.										
4- Treating behavioural problems educationally.										

23 June 2010

To whom it may concern
Royal Embassy of Saudi Arabia
Culture Bureau
630 Chiswick High Road
London
W4 5RY

Re: ALI T. ALDOSSARI

Dear Sir

Re: Ali T.N. Aldossari: PhD Student at Durham University

I would like to note that Ali Aldossari needs to collect data as part of his PhD in Saudi Arabia. This scientific trip will last from 25-09-2010 to 25-12-2010. He is studying for a PhD (Curriculum and Pedagogy Group) and the title of his programme is "Classroom management approaches of primary teachers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: Descriptions and the development of curriculum and instruction with a focus on Islamic education teachers". His start date was 1 October 2009.

With best wishes.

Professor Peter Tymms

14 July 2010
RE: Ethical approval: Ali Aldossari

Dear Ali

I am pleased to inform you that your application for ethical approval has been granted by the School of Education Ethics Committee in respect of 'Classroom management approaches of primary teachers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: Descriptions and the development of curriculum and instruction with a focus on Islamic education teachers'. However, please note that you should include an option re consent on the questionnaire so that we have something signed to indicate consent on behalf of the student.

May we take this opportunity to wish you good luck with your research.

Sheena Smith
Durham University
School of Education
Tel: (0191) 334 8403
Fax: (0191) 334 8311
http://www.durham.ac.uk/education

قائمة استبيان حول

مناهج معلمي المرحلة الابتدائية في إدارة الصف: وصف وتطوير المناهج وطرق التدريس مع التركيز على معلمي التربية الإسلامية

عزيزي المعلم

سلامٌ عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته   تحية طيبة

أود إفادتك بأنني أحد طلاب الدكتوراه في جامعة درم بالمملكة المتحدة – كلية التربية – قسم المناهج وطرق التدريس ، وأقوم حاليا ببحث حول مناهج معلمي المرحلة الابتدائية في إدارة الصف في المملكة العربية السعودية. سأكون ممتناً إذا تفضلت بمساعدتي من خلال استكمال هذا الاستبيان القصير الذي يشتمل على بعض الأسئلة العامة .

حقيقة أنا على يقين أن تنفيذ هذه الاستبانة معك سيضيف المفيد على أساس خبرتك في هذا المجال من أجل التعرف على الواقع وبالتالي ربما يمكن لنا المساهمة في التحسين والتطوير.

أخيراً ، أود أن أؤكد لك أنه سيتم التعامل مع المعلومات وآرائك الشخصية بشكل سري لأغراض البحث العلمي وأهداف هذه الدراسة فقط ، وتفضلوا بقبول خالص شكري وتقديري ،،،

الباحث

علي طارد الدوسري

المناهج وطرق التدريس

كلية التربية

جامعة درم – المملكة المتحدة

معلومات عامة:

يرجى وضع علامة (✔) مقابل العبارة التي تناسبك حاليا.

1- العمل الحالي:

☐ معلم

☐ مشرف

2-المؤهـــلات:

☐ خريج جامعي ومؤهل تربوي

☐ خريج جامعي فقط

3- سنوات الخبرة في الوظيفة الحالية:

☐ 1-5 سنة

☐ 6-10 سنة

☐ 11 سنة وأكثر

4- موقع المدرسة (المركز):

الشمال ☐ الجنوب ☐ الغرب ☐ الشرق ☐ الوسط ☐ الروابي ☐ الروضة ☐

5- تلقى برامج تدريبية في إدارة الصف:

تلقيت برامج تدريبية في إدارة الصف. ☐

لم أتلق برامج تدريبية في إدارة الصف. ☐

6- المادة الدراسية:(أشر واحدة أو أكثر)

دين ☐   لغة عربية ☐   رياضيات ☐

لغة انجليزية ☐   تاريخ وجغرافيا ☐   علوم ☐

أخرى : فضلا وضح ....

(2)

تكرار الأنشطة الصفية:

فيما يلي مثال يوضح كيفية الإجابة بوضع علامة (✔) في العمود الذي يمثل رأيك.

التكـــــرار							العبــــارة
مرات عديدة	كل يوم	ثلاث أو أربع مرات أسبوعيا	مرة أو مرتان أسبوعيا	مرة كل أسبوعين	مرة كل شهر	مرة في الفصل الدراسي	نهائيا أو مطلقا	
			✔					يحضر المعلم إلى المدرسة مبكرا.

الآن يرجى إكمال الجدول التالي وما يليه:

التكـــــرار							العبـــــــــارة
مرات عديدة	كل يوم	ثلاث أو أربع مرات أسبوعيا	مرة أو مرتان أسبوعيا	مرة كل أسبوعين	مرة كل شهر	مرة في الفصل الدراسي	نهائيا أو مطلقا	
							التخطيط للصف
							أ-تنظيم الأدوات والمواد :-
							1-تنظيم مقاعد الطلاب للدراسة في الصف.
							2-إعداد أجهزة التدريس في الصف.
							3-إعداد وسائل للتدريس في الصف.
							4- إعداد خطة الدرس (الأهداف – الأغراض).
							5- إعداد الوقت المخصص للدرس.
							6- وضع أدوات التدريس في المكان الصحيح بالصف.
							7- إعداد المواد البديلة للصف في حالة الضرورة غير مخطط لها.
							(ب) تنظيم دور المعلم والطلاب
							1-تنظيم المناقشة الصفية بين الطلاب.
							2-تنسيق عمل الطلاب فيما بينهم وبين المعلم
							3- مناقشة قواعد وتعليمات الصف.
							الأداء الصفي
							1-أخذ الفروق الفردية في الاعتبار عند تعيين أنشطة للطلاب
							2- التأكد من ظهوري (المعلم) بوضوح لكل الطلاب.
							3- استخدام طريقة ديمقراطية في التعامل مع طلاب الصف.
							4-احترام أفكار الطلاب بالصف.
							5- تدعيم السلوك الايجابي للطلاب مباشرة.
							6- انتباه المعلم الكامل لكل ما يحدث بالصف.
							7- توقع المشكلات الصفية قبل وقوعها بالصف.
							تقييم الصف
							1-تقييم بيئة التعلم في الصف بانتظام .
							2-تحديد نقاط الضعف والقوة لدى الطلاب.
							3- تحديد المشكلات السلوكية بدقة من خلال الملاحظة الصفية.
							4-معالجة المشكلات الصفية تربويا.
							5-معالجة الضعف الذي يسفر عنه تقييم الصف.

(3)

نوعية الفصل

فيما يتعلق بإدارتك للصف كمعلم يرجى قراءة العبارات التالية ووضع علامة (x) في الخانة الأقرب إلى (نوعية) صفك.

مثال

					x	عبارة ب

عبارة أ

عندما تضع (x) ناحية أ فهذا يعنى أن إجابتك اقرب إلى أ.

العبـــــــــارة						العبـــــــارة	م
الفصل نشط.						الفصل هادئ.	1
يجلس التلاميذ في المكان الذي أحدده.						يجلس التلاميذ في المكان الذي يريدونه.	2
يتحرك التلاميذ في الصف بحرية.						يتحرك التلاميذ في الصف فقط بالإذن.	3
يتكلم التلاميذ في الصف بحرية.						يتكلم التلاميذ في الصف فقط بالإذن.	4
يغادر التلاميذ الصف متى أرادوا ذلك.						يغادر التلاميذ الصف بالإذن فقط.	5
أستخدم سبورة طباشيرية في الصف.						أستخدم الانترنت في الصف.	6
بإمكان التلاميذ إحضار مراجع أكثر في الصف إذا أرادوا ذلك.						يستخدم التلاميذ الكتاب المقرر فقط في الصف .	7
أعاقب السلوك السيئ.						أكافئ السلوك الجيد.	8
أقوم بتزيين الصف.						لا أقوم بتزيين الصف.	9
انا مسئول عن ضبط الصف والنظام.						أدرب التلاميذ ليكونوا مسئولين عن ضبط الصف والنظام.	10
لا أقوم بتسجيل السلوك السيئ للتلاميذ بالصف.						أقوم بتسجيل السلوك السيئ للتلاميذ بالصف.	11
يسمح للتلاميذ بتوجيه الأسئلة فقط عند انتهاء الدرس.						يسمح للتلاميذ بتوجيه الأسئلة في أي وقت أثناء الدرس.	12
أنادى التلاميذ بأسمائهم في الصف.						لا أنادى التلاميذ بأسمائهم في الصف.	13
أقف أمام الطلاب أثناء الشرح بالصف.						أتحرك دائما أثناء الشرح بالصف.	14
أحاول التعامل مع التلاميذ المشاغبين دون مواجهات.						أعاقب التلميذ المشاغب دائما وعلى الفور.	15
أتسم بالحزم والجدية أثناء الشرح بالصف.						أستخدم الملاحظات الظريفة والمهذبة أثناء الشرح بالصف.	16
يختار التلاميذ واجباتهم أثناء الحصة.						أعطى واجبات أثناء الحصة.	17
أقوم بعملية الحضور والغياب بنفسي.						يقوم التلاميذ بعملية الحضور والغياب بأنفسهم.	18
قناة الاتصال بالصف من المدرس إلى التلميذ والعكس.						قناة الاتصال بالصف من المدرس إلى التلميذ.	19
مسئوليتي الرئيسية بالصف هي نقل المعرفة للتلاميذ.						مسئوليتي الرئيسية بالصف هي مساعدة التلاميذ في تطوير أنفسهم.	20
هدفي في الصف هو مساعدة التلميذ على فهم المنهج.						هدفي في الصف هو إنهاء المنهج في الوقت المحدد.	21
أركز في الصف على ما يتعلمه التلاميذ.						أركز في الصف على الطريقة التي يتعلم بها التلميذ.	22
أركز في الصف على جانب المهارات.						أركز في الصف على الجانب المعرفي.	23
أقوم بالاختبارات الصفية لتحديد نجاح أو فشل التلاميذ.						أقوم بالاختبارات الصفية لتحديد درجة تقدم التلاميذ.	24
أطلب من التلاميذ إحضار كتبهم.						استخدم في الصف التدريبات بالكتب المقررة.	25
ألتزم بالمنهج بحزم.						أقوم بالتدريس خارج المنهج إذا سأل التلاميذ أسئلة خارج المنهج.	26
هدفي بالصف هو تشجيع التلاميذ لتحقيق أقصى تقدم ممكن.	348					هدفي بالصف هو جعل التلاميذ يكتسبون المحتوى بشكل نوعي.	27

إذا أسعدك كتابة اسمك ومدرستك وبريدك الالكتروني فأرجوا ذلك وفى هذه الحالة سأرسل لك تقريراً مختصراً.

الاسم:

المدرسة:

البريد الالكتروني:

يرجى إضافة أي تعليقات أو أي اقتراحات ربما تسهم في التطوير

....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....

عزيزي المشرف التربوي

سلامٌ عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته   تحية طيبة

أود إفادتك بأنني أحد طلاب الدكتوراه في جامعة درم بالمملكة المتحدة – كلية التربية –
قسم المناهج وطرق التدريس ، وأقوم حاليا ببحث حول مناهج معلمي المرحلة الابتدائية في
إدارة الصف في المملكة العربية السعودية. سأكون ممتناً إذا تفضلت بمساعدتي من خلال
استكمال هذا الاستبيان القصير الذي يشتمل على بعض الأسئلة العامة .

حقيقة أنا على يقين أن تنفيذ هذه الاستبانة معك سيضيف المفيد على أساس خبرتك في
هذا المجال من أجل التعرف على الواقع وبالتالي ربما يمكن لنا المساهمة في التحسين
والتطوير.

أخيراً ، أود أن أؤكد لك أنه سيتم التعامل مع المعلومات وآرائك الشخصية بشكل سري
لأغراض البحث العلمي وأهداف هذه الدراسة فقط ، وتفضلوا بقبول خالص شكري
وتقديري ،،،

الباحث

علي طارد الدوسري

كلية التربية

جامعة درم – المملكة المتحدة

Email. ali.aldossari2@durham.ac.uk

bar

350

عزيزي المشرف التربوي

سلامٌ عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته   تحية طيبة

أود إفادتك بأنني أحد طلاب الدكتوراه في جامعة درم بالمملكة المتحدة – كلية التربية –
قسم المناهج وطرق التدريس ، وأقوم حاليا ببحث حول مناهج معلمي المرحلة الابتدائية في
إدارة الصف في المملكة العربية السعودية. سأكون ممتناً إذا تفضلت بمساعدتي من خلال
استكمال هذا الاستبيان القصير الذي يشتمل على بعض الأسئلة العامة .

حقيقة أنا على يقين أن تنفيذ هذه الاستبانة معك سيضيف المفيد على أساس خبرتك في
هذا المجال من أجل التعرف على الواقع وبالتالي ربما يمكن لنا المساهمة في التحسين
والتطوير.

أخيراً ، أود أن أؤكد لك أنه سيتم التعامل مع المعلومات وآرائك الشخصية بشكل سري
لأغراض البحث العلمي وأهداف هذه الدراسة فقط ، وتفضلوا بقبول خالص شكري
وتقديري ،،،

الباحث

علي طارد الدوسري

كلية التربية

جامعة درم – المملكة المتحدة

Email. ali.aldossari2@durham.ac.uk

<u>**معلومات عامة:**</u>

يرجى وضع علامة (✔) مقابل العبارة التي تناسبك حاليا.

1-   العمل الحالي:

       معلم   ☐

       مشرف   ☐

2-المؤهـــلات:

خريج جامعي ومؤهل تربوي   ☐

خريج جامعي فقط   ☐

3- سنوات الخبرة في الوظيفة الحالية:

      1-5 سنة   ☐

      6-10 سنة   ☐

      11 سنة وأكثر   ☐

4- موقع المدرسة (المركز):

الشمال ☐ الجنوب ☐ الغرب ☐ الشرق ☐ الوسط ☐ الروابي ☐ الروضة

5- تلقى برامج تدريبية في إدارة الصف:

تلقيت برامج تدريبية في إدارة الصف.   ☐

لم أتلق برامج تدريبية في إدارة الصف.   ☐

6- المادة الدراسية:(أشر واحدة أو أكثر)

دين ☐   لغة عربية ☐   رياضيات ☐

لغة انجليزية ☐   تاريخ وجغرافيا ☐   علوم ☐

أخرى : فضلا وضح ....

(2)

351

تكرار الأنشطة الصفية:
فيما يلي مثال يوضح كيفية الإجابة بوضع علامة (✓) في العمود الذي يمثل رأيك (من خلال اشرافك) حول إدارة المعلم للصف.

العبـــــارة	نهائيا أو مطلقا	مرة في الفصل الدراسي	مرة كل شهر	مرة أو مرتان أسبوعيا	مرة أو مرتان	ثلاث أو أربع مرات أسبوعيا	كل يوم	مرات عديدة
					التكــــرار			
يحضر المعلم إلى المدرسة مبكرا.				✓				

الآن يرجى إكمال الجدول التالي وما يليه:

العبـــــارة	نهائيا أو مطلقا	مرة في الفصل الدراسي	مرة كل شهر	مرة أو مرتان أسبوعيا	مرة أو مرتان	ثلاث أو أربع مرات أسبوعيا	كل يوم	مرات عديدة
					التكــــرار (عمل المعلم)			
التخطيط للصف								
أ- تنظيم الأدوات والمواد:-								
1-تنظيم مقاعد الطلاب للدراسة في الصف.								
2-إعداد أجهزة التدريس في الصف.								
3-إعداد وسائل للتدريس في الصف.								
4- إعداد خطة الدرس (الأهداف – الأغراض).								
5- إعداد الوقت المخصص للدرس.								
6- وضع أدوات التدريس في المكان الصحيح بالصف.								
7- إعداد المواد البديلة للصف في حالة الضرورة غير مخطط لها.								
(ب) تنظيم دور المعلم والطلاب								
1-تنظيم المناقشة الصفية بين الطلاب.								
2-تنسيق عمل الطلاب فيما بينهم وبين المعلم								
3- مناقشة قواعد وتعليمات الصف.								
الأداء الصفي								
1-أخذ الفروق الفردية في الاعتبار عند تعيين أنشطة للطلاب								
2- التأكد من ظهوره (المعلم) بوضوح لكل الطلاب.								
3- استخدام طريقة ديمقراطية في التعامل مع طلاب الصف.								
4-احترام أفكار الطلاب بالصف.								
5- تدعيم السلوك الايجابي للطلاب مباشرة.								
6- انتباه المعلم الكامل لكل ما يحدث بالصف.								
7- توقع المشكلات الصفية قبل وقوعها بالصف.								
تقييم الصف								
1-تقييم بيئة التعلم في الصف بانتظام .								
2-تحديد نقاط الضعف والقوة لدى الطلاب.								
3- تحديد المشكلات السلوكية بدقة من خلال الملاحظة الصفية.								
4- معالجة المشكلات الصفية تربويا.								
5- معالجة الضعف الذي يسفر عنه تقييم الصف.								

نوعية الفصل :
فيما يتعلق بإدارة المعلم للصف يرجى قراءة العبارات التالية ووضع علامة (x) في الخانة الأقرب
إلى (نوعية) صف المعلمين الذين تقوم بالإشراف عليهم .

عبارة أ | | | X | | | | عبارة ب

عندما تضع (x) ناحية أ فهذا يعنى أن إجابتك اقرب إلى أ.

العبـــــــــــارة					العبـــــارة	م
الفصل نشط.					الفصل هادئ.	1
يجلس التلاميذ في المكان الذي يحدده المعلم.					يجلس التلاميذ في المكان الذي يريدونه.	2
يتحرك التلاميذ في الصف بحرية.					يتحرك التلاميذ في الصف فقط بالإذن.	3
يتكلم التلاميذ في الصف بحرية.					يتكلم التلاميذ في الصف فقط بالإذن.	4
يغادر التلاميذ الصف متى أرادوا ذلك.					يغادر التلاميذ الصف بالإذن فقط.	5
يستخدم المعلم سبورة طباشيرية في الصف.					يستخدم المعلم الانترنت في الصف.	6
بإمكان التلاميذ إحضار مراجع أكثر في الصف إذا أرادوا ذلك.					يستخدم التلاميذ الكتاب المقرر فقط في الصف.	7
يعاقب المعلم السلوك السيئ.					يكافئ المعلم السلوك الجيد.	8
يقوم المعلم بتزيين الصف.					لا يقوم المعلم بتزيين الصف.	9
المعلم مسئول عن ضبط الصف والنظام.					يدرب المعلم التلاميذ ليكونوا مسئولين عن ضبط الصف والنظام.	10
لا يقوم المعلم بتسجيل السلوك السيئ للتلاميذ بالصف.					يقوم المعلم بتسجيل السلوك السيئ للتلاميذ بالصف.	11
يُسمح للتلاميذ بتوجيه الأسئلة فقط عند انتهاء الدرس.					يُسمح للتلاميذ بتوجيه الأسئلة في أي وقت أثناء الدرس.	12
ينادى المعلم التلاميذ بأسمائهم في الصف.					لا ينادي المعلم التلاميذ بأسمائهم في الصف.	13
يقف المعلم أمام الطلاب أثناء الشرح بالصف.					يتحرك المعلم دائما أثناء الشرح بالصف.	14
يحاول المعلم التعامل مع التلاميذ المشاغبين دون مواجهات.					يعاقب المعلم التلميذ المشاغب دائما وعلى الفور.	15
يتسم المعلم بالحزم والجدية أثناء الشرح بالصف.					يستخدم المعلم الملاحظات الظريفة والمهذبة أثناء الشرح بالصف.	16
يختار التلاميذ واجباتهم أثناء الحصة.					يعطى المعلم واجبات أثناء الحصة.	17
يقوم المعلم بعملية الحضور والغياب بنفسه.					يقوم التلاميذ بعملية الحضور والغياب بأنفسهم.	18
قناة الاتصال بالصف من المعلم إلى التلميذ والعكس.					قناة الاتصال بالصف من المعلم إلى التلميذ.	19
مسئولية المعلم الرئيسة بالصف هي نقل المعرفة للتلاميذ.					مسئولية المعلم الرئيسة بالصف هي مساعدة التلاميذ في تطوير أنفسهم.	20
هدف المعلم في الصف هو مساعدة التلميذ على فهم المنهج.					هدف المعلم في الصف هو إنهاء المنهج في الوقت المحدد.	21
يركز المعلم في الصف على ما يتعلمه التلاميذ.					يركز المعلم في الصف على الطريقة التي يتعلم بها التلميذ.	22
يركز المعلم في الصف على جانب المهارات.					يركز المعلم في الصف على الجانب المعرفي.	23
يقوم المعلم بالاختبارات الصفية لتحديد نجاح أو فشل التلاميذ.					يقوم المعلم بالاختبارات الصفية لتحديد درجة تقدم التلاميذ.	24
يطلب المعلم من التلاميذ إحضار كتبهم.					يستخدم المعلم في الصف التدريبات بالكتب المقررة.	25
يلتزم المعلم بالمنهج بحزم.					يقوم المعلم بالتدريس خارج المنهج إذا سأل التلاميذ أسئلة خارج المنهج.	26
هدف المعلم بالصف هو تشجيع التلاميذ لتحقيق أقصى تقدم ممكن.					هدف المعلم بالصف هو جعل التلاميذ يكتسبون المحتوى بشكل نوعى.	27

353

إذا أسعدك كتابة اسمك ومدرستك وبريدك الالكتروني فأرجوا ذلك وفى هذه الحالة سأرسل لك تقريراً مختصراً.

الاسم:

المدرسة:

البريد الالكتروني:

يرجى إضافة أي تعليقات أو أي اقتراحات ربما تسهم في التطوير

....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....
....