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A conceptual analysis of constructivist classroom management

By

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Declaration

I, Victor Justice Pitsoe, declare that

"A conceptual analysis of constructivist classroom management"

is my own work, that all sources used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

Signed:_____ _____

V.J. Pitsoe **Date**

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DEDICATION

To my late grandmother Sinah Mangena Pitsoe

ABSTRACT

Outcomes-based education (OBE) (at least at a conceptual level) is moving from an instructionist (teacher as transmitter of knowledge) to a constructivist approach (teacher as mediator and facilitator in the construction of meaning). This shift requires teachers that move from a traditional teacher-centred classroom to a learner-centred classroom management approach. The policy originators label this shift as a "paradigm shift", but in the training of educators in OBE, no training was offered in terms of a new approach to classroom management. In this study I argue that if OBE in the South African context really constitute a paradigm shift, then at conceptual level, it would require a new approach to classroom management. Against this background, the aim of the study is to conceptually interrogate the notion of constructivist classroom management and investigate how classroom management within a constructivist mode differs from traditional classroom management within an instructionist approach.

This study is qualitative in nature and employs conceptual analysis in the form of conceptual historical analysis, conceptual cartography and hermeneutic analysis. The Wilsonian concept analysis was used to examine and distinguish between the defining attributes of the concepts "*instructionist classroom management*" and "*constructivist classroom management*" and their relevant attributes. Also, a typology of non-empirical questions applied to conceptual analysis was used. The Matrix of Paradigmatic Value Systems was used as a tool/lens to categorise "instructionist classroom management" and "constructivist classroom management" in terms of their paradigmatic roots. Credibility and authenticity was achieved through crystallisation instead of triangulation.

Emerging from the literature and concept analysis, "*instructionist classroom management*" is informed and guided by the traditional paradigm – it is based on a mechanistic worldview. On the other hand, "*constructivist classroom management*" is compatible with the emerging paradigm – it has holistic and artistic features. Traditional classroom management is underpinned by the principles of scientific management whilst constructivist classroom management is informed and guided by contingency approaches to management theory.

Based on the analysis done and the reflection on the data, it is posited that classroom management within a constructivist setting needs to move from traditional to contingency classroom management approach. On the surface, basic management principles such as, planning, organising, leading and control, appear to be similar, but this is a myth. For example, planning, seen from its traditional defining terms, approaches classroom management as a step-by-step process under control and directed by the teacher; and may restrict the degree to which learners become collaborators in the teaching and learning situation. Organising focuses on issues of group work and collaborates learning; control moves to accountability (where learners become part of the development of class rules and partners in ensuring order and discipline); and evaluation moves to ongoing assessment and feedback as a strategy to ensure continuous improvement and the facilitation of the construction of new knowledge. Thus, this study proposes rethinking a set of principles compatible to the emergent paradigm that should not only support the construction of knowledge in the constructivist setting, but also promote collaborative interaction.

Keywords

Instructionist classroom management

Constructivist classroom management

Outcomes-based education

Revised National Curriculum Statement

Curriculum 2005

Constructivism

Policy implementation

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LIST ACRONYMS

C2005	Curriculum 2005
DoE	Department of Education
OBE	Outcomes-based education
NCS	National Curriculum Statement
RNCS	Revised National Curriculum Statement

CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND MOTIVATION

One of the claims made with the introduction of OBE is that OBE represents a "paradigm shift" in teaching and learning (Pretorius, 1998:v; Musker, 1997:10; Claassen, 1998a:36; DoE, 1997b:1; DoE, 1997c:8; & Free State DoE, 1998:4). The claim, according to the Department of Education, required of teachers to break away from the traditional approach to teaching and learning and to adopt a totally new and innovative approach to teaching and learning (DoE, 1997a:28). At the heart of this claim of a paradigmatic change is the notion that education had to move from an *instructionist* approach to a *constructivist* approach.

From a philosophical perspective, OBE learning assumes constructivism (Moll, 2002:6; Messerschmidt, 2003: 107; Mackrory, 2000: 13; Malcolm, 1999: 103; Arjun, 1998: 25). Thus, OBE supposedly in its ontological, epistemological and anthropological nature is underpinned by constructivist principles. A movement from traditional (objectivist and behaviourist) to constructivist approach, reflects a theoretical shift in perspectives of learning and instruction that emphasises the social and contextual nature of learning.

Constructivist's theory of learning is based, among others, on the assumptions that: knowledge is not a transferable commodity; learning is contextual and dependent on the prior knowledge the learner brings to the experience. This notion calls for a radical shift in classroom focus away from the traditional transmission model of teaching toward one that is much more complex and interactive (Prawat & Floden, 1994:37). Considerable literature (Scheurman, 1998:6; Smith, 1999; Slavin, 1994:225; Kampulainen & Mutanen, 2000:144) suggests that constructivism has many significant implications for classroom practices (teaching and learning), for the definition of knowledge, for the relative emphasis on the individual versus social learning, for the role of the teacher, and for the definition of successful instruction.

During the training of teachers in OBE much time was devoted on teaching them about the principles of OBE and the outcomes to be achieved, yet very little attention, if any, was given to training them on changing their approach to classroom management (DoE, 2000a:19). This omission may imply that the developers of the new approach either assumed that the "paradigm shift" does not require a shift in classroom management practices, or that such a change would naturally follow from the implementation of OBE.

From research done as part of my master's degree it became clear that although teachers accepted the fact that OBE represented a so-called "paradigm shift" towards teaching and learning, they did not change their classroom management practices (Pitsoe, 2001:149). This leads us to the conclusion that the assumption that change in management approach will simply follow the implementation of OBE is not a valid assumption. The omission of dedicated training in a constructivist approach to classroom management to ensure effective management of OBE classroom environments should thus be interrogated.

1.2 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

In the paragraphs below, the focus will be on the motivation for the research and background to the problem, and the problem statement.

1.2.1 Motivation for the research and background to the problem

Part of my motivation to engage in this study can be ascribed to my interest in classroom management. The shift from instructionist to constructivist classroom management, more specifically in terms of the leadership roles of the teacher; and inconsistency between Revised National Curriculum Statement (South African OBE policy) and philosophical principles of constructivism intrigued me greatly.

Contesting arguments exist on whether or not OBE does represent a "paradigm shift", but for the purpose of the study, the preliminary assumption is that it does represent a move from *instructionalist* to *constructivist* teaching. OBE (at least at a conceptual level) is

moving from an instructionist (teacher as transmitter of knowledge) to a constructivist approach (teacher as mediator and facilitator in the construction of meaning).

If OBE implies a move from an instructionist approach to teaching to a constructivist approach, does it of necessity imply that classroom management should also change? According Brophy and Alleman (1998) this change does not imply a paradigm shift in classroom management, but a refocus and redefinition of roles. This study will explore how classroom management within a constructivist mode differs from traditional classroom management.

Research emanating from Scheurman (1998:6) suggests that constructivism has many implications for classroom practices, for the definition of knowledge, for the relative emphasis on the individual versus social learning, for the role of the teacher, and for the definition of successful instruction. Wood's (1994:336) research in mathematics, asserts that the alternative perspective that constructivism offers by defining learning as a process of personal construction of meaning offers a potentially powerful way in which to rethink educational practice. Incorporated into this pedagogical practice, a constructivist view of learning must necessarily imply specific implications for the teacher's role and the nature of the activity of teaching.

This movement, from an instructionist approach to teaching to a constructivist approach, will require that teachers move from a traditional teacher-centred classroom to a learner-centred classroom and this raises issues of classroom control and discipline and a change in the traditional teacher-leader role to shared leadership and new social interaction in the classroom, placing high demands on both teachers and learners on the creation and redefinition of classroom roles.

Wyssusek *et al*. (2000:3) argue that constructivist classroom management differs radically from instructionalist classroom management. They assert that many of the modernist assumptions on which traditional classroom management is based, do no longer hold in our world today and this led philosophers to question modern issues using

a different paradigm. In addition, classic (i.e. modern) conceptions of knowledge, regarding it as an objective entity, are superseded by conceptions which view knowledge as culturally determined, subjective or social (ibid). The study will explore classroom management theory compatible to constructivism.

Most management theories of the previous century (especially pre-1990) and particularly in as far as education management theory is concerned, are firmly rooted in Fordist and Taylorist tradition with its strong cause and effect underpinnings that are typical of a modernistic approach to science. This scientific grounding is in its ontological, epistemological and anthropological roots, firmly rooted in modernistic science and consequently focuses its management theory in a functionalistic approach. Again, at least at a theoretical level, there seems then to be a hiatus between classroom management theories as it applies to an instructionalist learning-based environments and constructivist learning environments.

Management of change in this study will be viewed from a situational or contingency perspective. From a situational perspective, the teacher is a leader and the learner a follower. Contingency or situational theory holds that appropriate management action depends on the particular parameters of the situation, and attempts to identify contingency principles that prescribe actions to take, depending on the characteristics of the situation (Bartol & Martin, 1991:67).

There are many similarities between the Australian and the South African models of OBE (though the two models are not the same) (Malcolm, 2001:200). However, OBE in Australia was introduced into a situation where teachers were known to have experience in curriculum design and assessment, school management and teamwork (Malcolm, 2001:222). In addition, constructivist theories and organic management were widely known. It could be argued that the policy symbolism underestimated the form of training (influenced by fundamental pedagogics) received by the majority of teachers in South African institutions of higher learning prior to the introduction of OBE.

In the case of the South African situation, (Malcolm, 2001:223) there were no significant attempts to explore teachers' existing beliefs and practices, interests and hopes, as bases for the reforms. It is possible that prevailing beliefs were dominated by behaviourism and fundamental pedagogics. Naicker (1999a: 57) holds that South African teachers could be located in any of the following paradigms: radical humanist, functionalist and interpretivist. Further, a large number of South African teachers have been trained within a paradigm that had to do with prediction and control, and belief in the soundness of a non-democratic system. In a different dimension, Jansen (1999d:92-93) holds that changes expected from the policy routinely underestimate the complexity of the system into which such change is introduced, and the policy intended to simply change teacher behaviour is very likely to be short-lived and inconsequential unless the focus shifts to changing teacher understanding.

According to Sayed (2001:188), educational policy developments have been wide-ranging and comprehensive, and a number of important policies have been introduced since 1994. However, this flurry of policies is characterised by policy symbolism – policies signal and provide images of desired educational outcomes and focus on "frameworks" rather than specific content of educational policies. Jansen (2001b:272) claims that the making of educational policy in South Africa is best described as a struggle for the achievement of a broad political symbolism, to mark the shift from apartheid to post-apartheid society.

Fundamental to this study, is the assumption that OBE classroom management should move towards constructivist policy guidelines. The main problem stemming from this assumption is: What are conceptually the key features of classroom management in an OBE classroom? Flowing from this it could also be asked how these features differ from the traditional features associated with classroom management and how these features will affect the roles of classroom teachers. There is need to establish guidelines that will place constructivism at the centre of development of teaching and learning policy for South African schools.

1.2.2 Problem statement

This study aims to conceptually interrogate the notion of constructivist classroom management. It is postulated that constructivist classroom management as a distinct entity can conceptually be defined, analysed in terms of its essential features and distinguished and differentiated from any other form of classroom management practice that exist. Constructivist classroom management appears to constitute an own body of knowledge within education management. Consequently, this study will argue that the constructivist classroom management required to support the implementation of OBE, can conceptually be envisioned and should have been included in the training of classroom teachers if success with OBE implementation is to be achieved.

1.3. AIMS OF THE STUDY

This study is exploratory in nature. It sets out to investigate how classroom management within a constructivist mode differs from traditional classroom management within an instructionist approach. The study does not attempt to enter into the debate on whether OBE constitutes a paradigmatic change to education, but rather attempts to depart from the assumption that, at least at a conceptual level, OBE requires a move from a traditional instructionalist approach (the teacher as transmitter of knowledge) to a constructivist approach (the teacher as mediator and facilitator of the construction of knowledge).

In order to achieve this general aim, the following will serve as specific aims, namely to:

- Investigate conceptually the key features of an OBE classroom management environment as envisaged and embedded in policy;
- Develop a conceptual understanding of constructivist classroom management
- Determine how traditional classroom management differs from constructivist classroom management; and
- Explore the implications of constructivist classroom management on classroom practices.

1.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology employed in this study is qualitative in nature. Hussey and Hussey (1997:12) define qualitative research as an '*approach, which is more subjective in nature and involves examining and reflecting perceptions in order to gain an understanding of social and human activities*'. Qualitative methodology should have the following characteristics:

- Consider words as the elements of data;
- Be primarily an inductive approach to data analysis;
- Result in theory development as an outcome of data analysis; and
- Be an alternative to the experimental method (Leedy, 1993:140).

According to Neuman (1997:328), qualitative methodology contains several techniques (e.g., ethnography, grounded theory, life history, conventional analysis). In this study, conceptual analysis will be employed. Textual data will be used as a source to undertake conceptual analysis. In *conceptual-analytical* studies basic assumptions behind constructs are first analyzed; theories, models and frameworks used in previous empirical studies are identified, and logical reasoning is thereafter applied (ibid:328).

A detailed account of the research methodology employed in this study appears in Chapter 2.

1.5 CREDIBILITY AND AUTHENTICITY

Just as a quantitative study cannot be considered without validity and reliability, a qualitative study cannot be called credible unless it is not trustworthy. Literature (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:300; Merriam, 1998:44; Babbie & Mouton, 2001:276) stress that researchers should pay sufficient attention to the criterion of trustworthiness when carrying out a constructivist inquiry. The four terms *credibility*, *transferability*, *dependability*, and *confirmability* are, then, the naturalist's equivalents for the conventional terms *internal validity*, *external validity*, *reliability* and *objectivity* (Lincoln

& Guba, 1985:300). In this investigation, interpretation of primary and secondary data was used to examine and distinguish between the defining attributes of the concepts "*instructionist classroom management"* and "*constructivist classroom management*" and their relevant attributes in conceptual analysis has to reflect the participants' views in relation to the same phenomenon.

Babbie and Mouton (2001:277) content that credibility is achieved through the following procedures: prolonged engagement, persistent observation, triangulation, referential adequacy (extensive field notes), peer debriefing (review) and member checks. This study does not deal with much of an exact measurable finding in a qualitative research as it is an emerging reality that we describe and analyse. In this regard Richardson (as quoted by Nieuwenhuis, 2007) argues that triangulation is based on the assumption of a fixed point or object that can be triangulated. She proposes that we should not triangulate but crystallize.

In light of the above, I adopted the concept *crystallization*, replacing the concept *triangulation* in this study. Two types of *crystallisation* were adopted: a) crystallisation of empirical materials: the materials were textual data in the form of professional journals, scholarly books, monographs, dissertations, human/personal documents, official documents and mass media and virtual output (internet sources); b) Methodological crystallisation: Several sources of empirical materials instead of focusing on one source only were used. Literature review/conceptual historical analysis, conceptual analysis, conceptual cartography and hermeneutic analysis were employed on relevant documents.

Peer debriefing is essential "to provide inquirers the opportunity to test their growing insights and to expose themselves to searching questions" (Guba, 1981:85). The concept of peer debriefing was achieved throughout my meetings with my senior supervisor, Dr J. Nieuwenhuis. To enhance the credibility of this study, discussions regarding the literature review, conceptual analysis and hermeneutic analysis that emerged from the analysis of the empirical materials were carried out between the senior supervisor and the writer.

During these discussions, the consistency of the application of review and analysis was also checked.

Confirmability (authenticity) is the degree to which the findings are the products of the inquiry and not of the biases of the researcher (Mouton, 2001:27). It takes six classes of data, namely, raw data, data reduction analysis products, data reconstruction and synthesis products, process notes, material relating to intentions and dispositions, instrument development information (ibid:278). The technique that was followed to enhance authenticity, involved describing and explaining the situation or case as truthfully as possible. Also, authenticity was ensured by taking a personal view from some distance.In an attempt to increase the dependability and confirmability of the current inquiry, an external audit process was carried out.

1.6 CONCEPT CLARIFICATION

Concepts are building blocks of theory – ideas are expressed as symbols or words. According to Neuman (1997:40), everyday culture is filled with concepts, but many of them are vague and full of definitions. In addition, values and experience of people in a culture may limit everyday concepts. Quite often, in social sciences, concepts are expressed in the form of words. Neuman (1997:40) notes that the use of everyday words in specialised ways in social science may create confusion. Thus, Sallies (1993:21) holds that it is imperative to clarify concepts in the study as they may bear different meaning for different people, and as a result, may lose their connotative meaning.

The concepts clarified below are critical to an understanding of the discourse in this study. More detailed explanations are provided in relevant sections of the study.

1.6.1 Outcomes-based education (OBE)

The meaning of the concept “outcomes-based education” is slippery and illusive, implying and conjuring up different ideas to people. Van der Horst and McDonald (1997:7) define OBE as a *learner-centred, results-oriented* approach to learning.

According to Spady (as quoted by Towers, 1994:625), OBE is not a programme, but a means of designing, developing, delivering and documenting instruction in terms of intended goals and, a means of organising for results, basing what we do instructionally on the outcome we want to achieve. In Malcolm's (1999:78) view, it is a *management system* – an approach to managing curriculum control, curriculum design, assessment reporting teachers' accountability, change and innovation.

For the purpose of this study, OBE will refer to a learner-centred; result-oriented system/design; a means of designing, developing, delivering and documenting instruction in terms of intended goals, and management system.

1.6.2 Constructivism

Fleury (1998:157) defines constructivism as a range of ideas about the *production of knowledge and its construction by groups and individuals*. It involves a process whereby learners *construct their own reality or* at least interpret it, based upon their perceptions of experiences, so an individual is a function of one's prior experiences, mental structures and beliefs that are used to interpret objects or events (http://members.lycos.co.uk/jmoreea/im2141.htm).

In this study, the concept "constructivism" will mean a process whereby the learner constructs his/her own understanding, reality and knowledge of the world he/she lives in, through reflection of his/her experiences and through his/her interactions with the environment.

1.6.3 Instructionist

The concept "instructionist" is a noun of the verb "instruct". It originates from a Latin word "*instructus*" which means "*to teach*; *to train in some special field; give skill in some art or field of specialisation; impart knowledge systematically*" (New Webster's Dictionary and Thesaurus, 1991:202). In educational settings, Jonassen, Myers and

McKillop (1996:93) see instructionism as *sponge* method of teaching and the banking concept of learning where the goal of learners is to absorb and accumulate what they are given until the examination, at which time the information is wrung out of them.

In this study, "instructionist approach" will imply *sponge* method of teaching and the banking concept of learning, where the goal of learners is to absorb and accumulate what they are given until the examination.

1.6.4 Classroom management

According to Cruickshank, Bainer and Metcalf (1995:468), classroom management can be defined as the provision and procedures necessary to create and maintain an environment in which teaching and learning can occur. Weber (1986:272) on the other hand, sees classroom management as a process that involves establishing and maintaining conditions in the classroom (*through planning, organizing, leading, control, creating a positive climate and discipline*) to ensure effective learning.

In this study, classroom management denotes methods used to organise classroom activities, instruction, physical structure and other features to make effective use of time, to create a happy and productive learning environment, and to minimise behavioural problems and disruptions.

1.6.5 Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS)

According to DoE (2001a:1), RNCS (policy) is the result of a decision in mid-2000 by the Council of Education Ministers and Cabinet. It is built on the vision and values of the constitution and the Curriculum 2005. Official documents (DoE, 2001a:16; DoE, 2003a:5; DoE, 2004:18) claim that RNCS is underpinned by the following principles:

- Social justice;
- Healthy environment;
- Human rights;

- Inclusivity;
- Outcomes-based education;
- A high level of skills and knowledge; and
- Balance of progression and integration.

1.6.6 Leadership

Kruger (1994:388) defines leadership as the process by which a particular person, the leader, influences a group of people (subordinates) in such a manner that they will subsequently be willing to strive to achieve objectives that the leader presents; and a human factor that leads an institution towards realizing definitive objectives through cooperative and voluntary effort of all the people in the enterprise. Hellriegel and Slocum (1991:G7) see leadership as the ability to influence, motivate and direct others in order to attain desired objectives. In the teaching and learning situation, the teacher is in a "natural" leadership position; and should be able to lead his/her pupils, to meet with them, to understand their personal needs, and to make it clear through his/her behaviour that he/she respects them as individuals (Kruger & Badenhorst, 1995:87).

In this study, leadership implies a process whereby the teacher influences, motivates and directs the learners to achieve learning outcomes.

1.7 LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

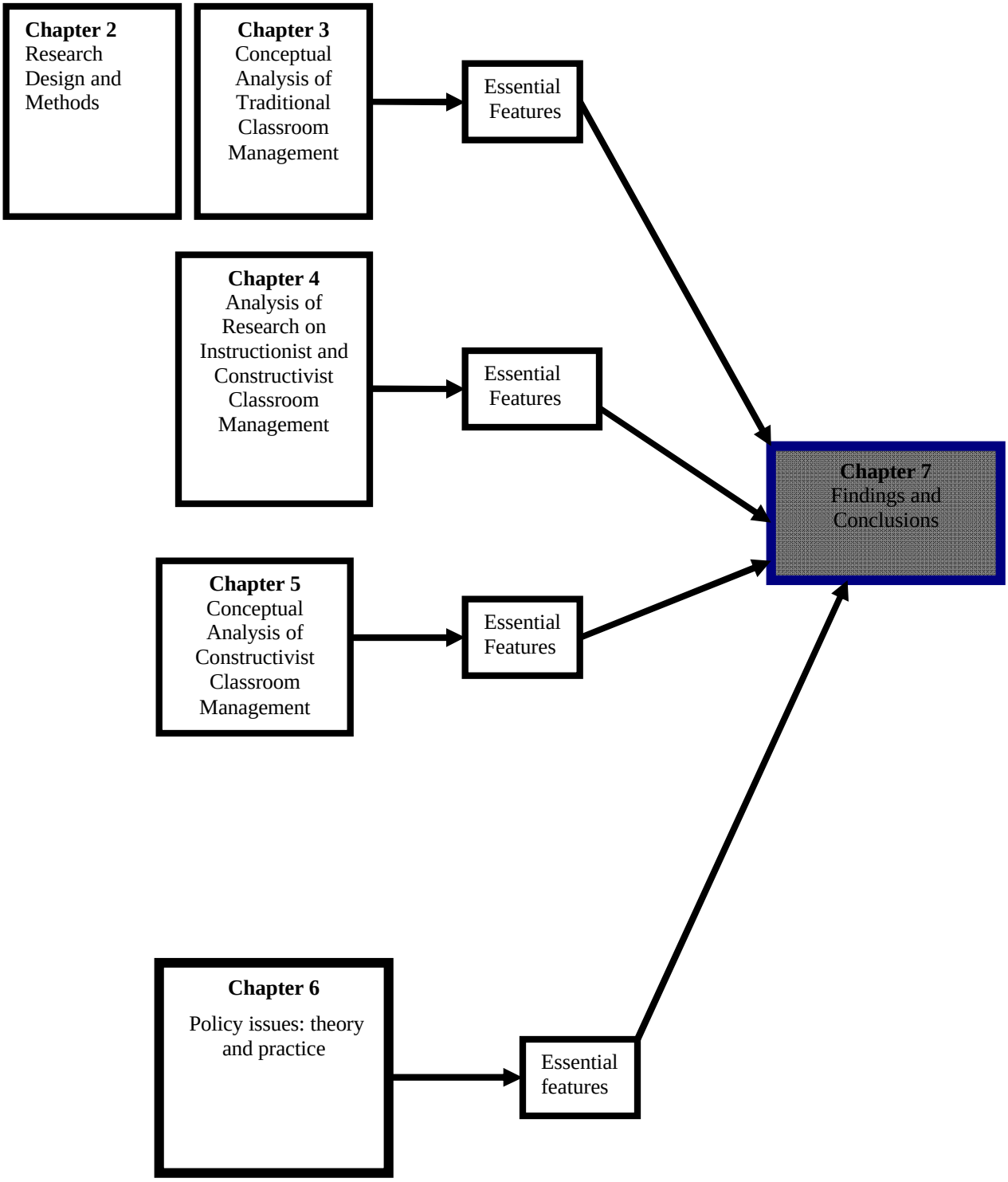
The study is exploratory and provisional. It is based on the assumption made in pronunciations that OBE in South Africa constitutes a paradigm shift in classroom teaching and learning. If this is the case then an important aspect such as classroom management, that is of pivotal importance to effective teaching and learning, cannot be left to chance. The study sets out to interrogate the constituent features of constructivist classroom management and to juxtapose it to traditional classroom management and to analyse C2005 and RCNS to establish the policy taken on classroom management. Through critical and deductive reasoning, I would like to establish if the assumptions

made in the pronunciations can be theoretically substantiated or whether they simply constitute some form of policy symbolism. In essence it remains exploratory and theoretical in nature and will provide us with provisional answers to the claims made and it will therefore shed light on why teachers were not trained on alternative classroom management strategies.

1.8 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The main contribution of this study lies in the conceptual analysis of classroom management within the two paradigms of an instructionist versus a constructivist approach offered and its analysis of features of C2005 and RNCS that answers the question as to whether these innovations really constitute a "paradigm shift" to teaching and learning in South Africa. More importantly, it makes a significant contribution to our understanding of classroom management from a post-modern perspective and begs the question of whether such an approach is attainable in developing the countries' context. The analysis offered provides some conceptual clarity of the conceptual quagmire surrounding concepts that are often used to describe practices that do not meet the conceptual parameters for which they were intended. In general, modernist assumptions on which traditional classroom management is based do not hold for constructivist classroom management. This requires classroom management in a constructivist setting to be approached from a situational approach perspective – a new set of principles is apposite.

1.9 PLAN OF THE STUDY



1.10 SUMMARY

In this chapter an introductory overview, background and aims to the investigation were presented. Also, the research methodology was outlined and the key concepts used in this study were clarified. In the next chapter, the research methodology underpinning this study will be discussed.

CHAPTER 2

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Interrogating classroom management from a constructivist perspective necessitates an approach that is firmly rooted in qualitative epistemology. In line with this, the research will be based on an interpretivist method. According to Borg and Gall (1989:8), interpretivism is an approach to qualitative studies that is descriptive and holistic in nature. It is underpinned by the theory and principles that human discourse and action can not be analysed with the methods of natural and physical science.

Borg and Gall (1989:8) contend that for the social interactions, interpretation comes via understanding of group actions and interaction. In Neuman's (1997:68) view, the interpretive approach is the systematic analysis of socially meaningful action through direct detailed observation of people in a natural setting in order to arrive at understandings and interpretations of how people create (construct) and maintain their social world.

Interpretivism has a local rather than a global orientation that is concerned more with the nature-bound frameworks of particular schools and the ways individuals understand and act in specific social contexts than with finding general laws or all-encompassing explanations (Gultig, Lubisi, Parker & Wedekind, 1999:80). Hence, working from an interpretivist paradigm will enable me to interpret and explore the following:

- The impact of policy symbolism on implementation issues;
- The OBE implementation challenges in the South African context;
- Why OBE calls for different learning approaches, acquisition of new classroom management roles; and
- Socially constructed meanings.

2.2 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The concepts "*research design*" and "*research methodology*" are often confused, but these are two different dimensions of research. This section attempts to clarify the difference between these concepts. Babbie and Mouton (2001:74) provide a more detailed account on the differences between "research design" and "research methodology".

A plethora of "*research*" definitions exists. The development of an understanding of research may be approached from a variety of perspectives. Almost every researcher in the field of research, be it pedagogical, psychological or business, has an own definition or interpretation of this concept. Hussey and Hussey (1997:1) posit that research is a critical element to both academic and business activities, however there is no consensus view on a definition of research.

The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (1986:720) defines research as: "*systematic investigation undertaken in order to discover new facts, get additional information*". For Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2003:3), research is:

> "*…something that people undertake in order to find out new things in a systematic way, thereby increasing their knowledge…*"

In Tull and Hawkins' (1987:26) view, research is a process that involves identifying a management problem or opportunity; translating that problem/opportunity into a research problem; and collecting, analysing, and reporting the information specified in the research problem.'

Hussey and Hussey (1997:1) synthesise several definitions, offering that research the areas of agreement defined as follows:

- Research is a process of enquiry and investigation;
- Research is systematic and methodical; and
- Research increases knowledge

The goal of qualitative research is defined as describing and understanding (*verstehen*) rather than the explanation and prediction of human behaviour (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:270). According to Hussey and Hussey (1997:2), its purpose is to do the following:

- Review and synthesise existing knowledge;
- Investigate some existing situation or problem;
- Provide solutions to problems;
- Explore and analyse more general issues;
- Construct or create a new procedure or system;
- Explain a new phenomenon;
- Generate new knowledge; and
- Combine any of the above.

In Hussey and Hussey's (1997:54) opinion, the concept "methodology" refers to the overall approach to the research process, from the theoretical underpinning to the collection and analysis of the data. According to Leedy (1993:121), methodology refers to merely an operational framework within which the facts are placed so that their meaning may be seen more clearly.

Mouton and Marais (1993:193) see research design as exposition or plan of how the researcher decided to execute the formulated research problem. For Durrheim (2004:29), research design is a strategic framework for action that serves as a bridge research question and the execution or implementation of the research. A research design is a plan of how you intend conducting the research (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:74).

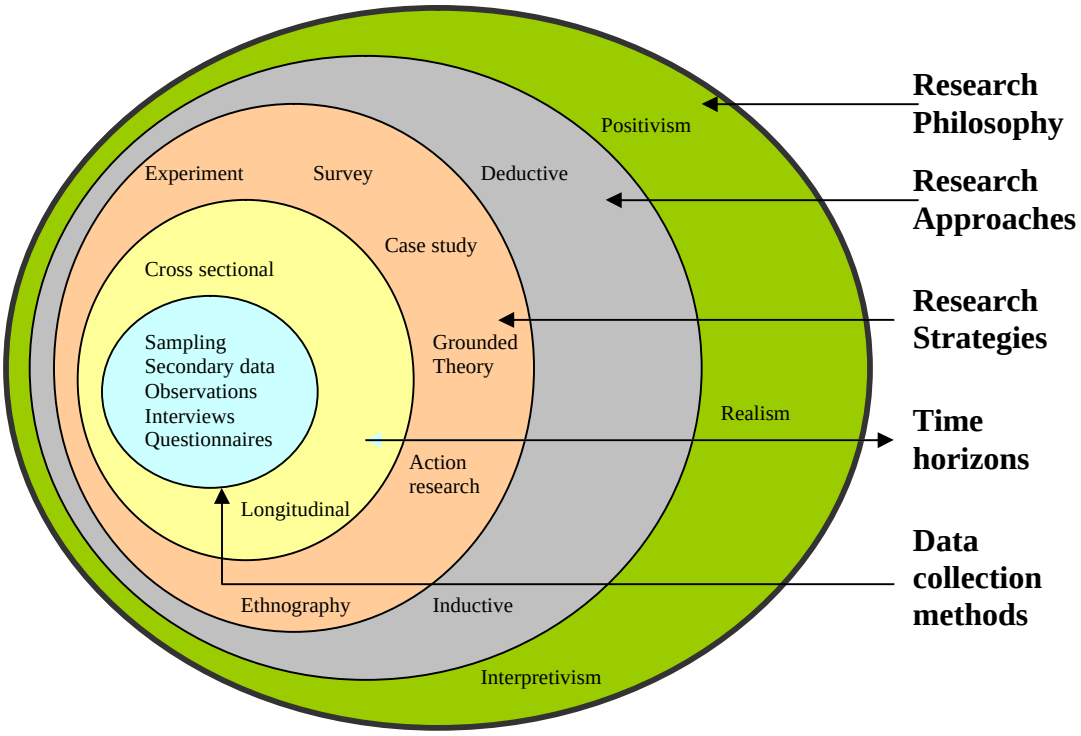
Silverman (as cited in Hussey & Hussey, 1997:54) defines pure research methodology as follows:

> *"Methodologies refer to the overall approach to the research process, from the theoretical underpinning to the collection and analysis of data. Like theories, methodologies cannot be true or false, only more or less useful".*

2.3 THE RESEARCH PROCESS

For the benefit of this study, Saunders *et al.'s* (2003:83) research process "onion", which illustrates the range of choices, paradigms, strategies and steps followed by researchers, was adopted. This is presented in Figure 2.1 below.

Figure 2.1: The research process onion (Saunders *et al.*, 2003: 83)



The research process "onion" gives a concise and useful summary of the main issues that need to be reviewed before any research study is undertaken. These "layers" of the "onion" provide a platform from which to consider the following:

- The research philosophy adopted by a researcher;
- The research approach taken by a researcher;
- The research strategies followed by the researcher;
- The research time lines that are under review by the researcher; and
- The data collection methods employed by a researcher.

These main layers of the onion are used as a guide in the subsequent paragraphs.

2.4 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study sees *instructionist classroom management* and *constructivist classroom management* as belonging to two different worldviews, and therefore requires different approaches and training. Because this cannot be done empirically (it cannot be proven through the scientific method), it needs to be tackled at a conceptual philosophical level. Thus, in this study, qualitative research design will be adopted.

Literature (Van der Merwe, 1996:283; Kruger, 2000:6; Neuman, 1997:14) suggests that "*qualitative*" is an umbrella term for research based on the theoretical orientation, such as phenomenological approach, natural observation, case studies, symbolic interaction, ethnography, ethnomethodology, cultural studies, narrative reports and constructivism. Qualitative research usually emphasises words rather than quantification in the analysis of data (Bryman, 2001:506). For Van der Merwe (1996:283), the emphasis is on improved understanding of human behaviour and experience. As a research strategy, it is inductivist, constructivist and interpretivist (Bryman, 2001:506: Janesick, 2004:10).

In ontological perspective, qualitative research is underpinned and guided by the principles of interpretivist philosophy – it rejects positivist thinking. Basically, it refuses to reduce human behaviour to a mere number. This tradition (interpretivist) holds that people may or may not experience social or physical reality in the same way (Neuman, 1997:70). Also, it sees social reality as consisting of people who construct meaning and create interpretations through their daily social interaction.

Merriam (1991:7) maintains that non-experimental or descriptive research is undertaken when description and explanation (rather than prediction based on cause and effect) are sought, when it is not possible or feasible to manipulate the potential causes of behaviour and when variables are not easily identified or are too embedded in the phenomenon to be extracted from the study.

Qualitative research focuses on processes, meaning and understanding. According to Le Compte and Preissle (1993:31) and Creswell (1994:11), it is concerned with meaning people make, thus such studies are

> "*framed by descriptions of, explanations for or meaning given to the phenomena by both the researcher and the study participants rather than by definitions and interpretations of the researcher alone*".

Qualitative research is also linked to the construction of social reality, cultural meaning and focuses on interactive processes and events (Neuman, 1997:14; Creswell, 1994:15). Van der Merwe (1996:283) claims that it aims at the development of theories (grounded theory) and understanding. In addition, he maintains that its objective is to promote self-understanding and increase insight into the human condition.

Qualitative research methods are humanistic. Hussey and Hussey (1997:12) assert that qualitative research is an approach which is "more subjective in nature and involves examining and reflecting perceptions in order to gain an understanding of social and human activities". Further, on the human factor in phenomenological (qualitative) research, the researcher's own experiences and behaviour influence the interpretation of the results (ibid:152). This in fact describes the core of action learning in a sense.

Qualitative research is to be regarded as a "warm" or personal approach to research (Leedy, 1993:142) with the following characteristics according to Leedy (1993:140):

- Words are considered as elements of data;
- It should be regarded as an inductive approach to data analysis; and
- The results derived from data analysis form part of theory development.

Qualitative research employs an inductive strategy. In an inductive approach, emphasis is on gaining an understanding of the meaning humans attach to events, a close understanding of the research context. Hussey and Hussey (1997:19) see inductive research as a study in which theory is developed from the observation of empirical reality; thus general inferences are induced from particular instances. In the inductive

approach, the researcher constructs a picture that takes shape as the parts are collected (Creswell, 1994:5).

This study is also of a non-empirical, unobtrusive and analytical nature. It is non-empirical because it relies on existing and secondary textual data – document text, conversation and interview transcripts. Babbie and Mouton (2001:78) contend that non-empirical studies include philosophical analysis, conceptual analysis, theory building and literature reviews and these elements lie at the heart of this study.

2.5 RESEARCH PARADIGM (PHILOSOPHY)

In this section, the concept "paradigm" will be defined. Also, the discussion will focus on the research paradigms and on *truth* and *reality* as seen through mechanistic and holistic worldviews.

2.5.1 The concept "*paradigm*"

There are many definitions of the concept *paradigm* - Kuhn himself used the term in at least 21 different definitions. It originates from the Greek word "*paradeigma*" which means to represent something or offer it as a model (Jordaan & Jordaan, 1986:13; Knill, 1991:52). In the opinion of Hussey and Hussey (1997:47), it refers to the progress of scientific practice based on people's philosophies and assumptions about the world and the nature of knowledge. For Arjun (1998:21), it means a philosophical scheme of thought or a theoretical formulation on a subject which relates to a set of concepts, categories, relationships, values and methods which are generally accepted by a community of practitioners at any given period of time.

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:645), a paradigm is a model/framework for observation and understanding, which shapes both what we see and how we understand it. In Jordaan and Jordaan's (1986:13) view, it is a thought framework within which about which human nature can be proposed and answered. Put differently, a paradigm is a set of

assumptions or beliefs about fundamental aspects of reality which gives rise to a particular worldview – it addresses fundamental assumptions taken on faith, such as beliefs about the nature of reality (the ontology), the relationship between knower and known (epistemology), and assumptions about methodologies (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:15; Guba & Lincoln, 1994:105).

Quantitative and qualitative researches are often described as two research paradigms, but they are more than that – they represent two worldviews that need to be understood. Hence, Lincoln (1985) states that a paradigm is much more than a model or pattern; it is a view of the world – a *weltanschauung* that reflects our most basic beliefs and assumptions about the human condition.

Fundamental to understanding the concept paradigm, it is necessary to understand its characteristics. According to Jordaan and Jordaan (1986:13), a paradigm has a basic proposition or series of propositions, it is influenced by and influences cultural climate or spirit of the time in which it arose; influenced by the psycho-epistemologies. Also, different paradigms can exist concurrently. Arjun (1998:21-23) discusses these characteristics. These, among others, include disciplinary matrix, view of the world, types of paradigms, scope of paradigms, period of "normal science", extra ordinary science, and scientific revolution: paradigmatic crisis, growth science, set of assumptions and practice of discipline.

Kuhn differentiates three types of paradigms: *metaphysical*, *sociological*, and *construct*. The *metaphysical* paradigm represents the most extensive consensus possible within a science: a worldview or *Weltanschauun* (Wyssusek, Schwartz & Krallmann, 2000:7). Worldview, as understood by Kuhn, thereby implies that perception is influenced by experience (ibid:7).

According to Wyssusek *et al*. (2000:7), a change in our *Weltanschauung* does not imply a change in our environment, but in the way we perceive it. They maintain that changing one's worldview from one way to another is no continuous process, but a radical shift. It

is impossible to view the world through one or the other 'lens'. The world, as seen with the old worldview, has a different 'Gestalt' than the one seen with the new one. The two cannot be compared, they are incommensurable (ibid:7).

Kuhn (as quoted by Wyssusek *et al*., 2000:7) held that the *sociological* paradigm encompasses "*the entire constellation of beliefs, values, techniques, and so on shared by the members of a given community*" and is a concretion of the metaphysic paradigm. Paying regard to the social dimension in describing sciences, exposes the socially contextualized subjectivity of their self-conception, and at the same time, the notion of objectivity in science has to be dismissed (ibid:7). In Kuhn's (ibid:7) opinion, the *construct* paradigm is the most concrete form of a paradigm. It refers to the methodic layer of science, to specific tools, instruments and procedures for producing and collecting data.

It is apparent, then, that paradigms serve as the lens or organizing principles by which reality is interpreted. In this regard Nieuwenhuis (2007) described paradigms as enabling us to tell a coherent "story" by depicting a world that is meaningful and functional but culturally subjective. Thus, in the study methodological paradigm, will serve as the lens or organizing principles by which text and theories are interpreted.

2.5.2 Research Paradigm

This research is rooted in the interpretivist paradigm. According to Borg and Gall (1989:8), interpretivism as an approach to qualitative data analysis, has a long intellectual history. It is underpinned by the theory and principles that human discourse and action cannot be analysed with the methods of natural and physical science. For the social interactions, interpretation comes via understanding of group actions and interaction (ibid:8).

Within the interpretivist research paradigm research is qualitative, descriptive and holistic in nature. Neuman (1997:68) contends that an interpretive approach is the systematic

analysis of socially meaningful action through direct detailed observation of people in a natural setting in order to arrive at understanding and interpretations of how people create and maintain their social world.

Interpretivism has a local rather than a global orientation that is concerned more with the nature-bound frameworks of particular schools and the ways individuals understand and act in specific social contexts than with finding general laws or all-encompassing explanations (Gultig, Lubisi, Parker & Wedekind, 1999:80). Hence, working from an interpretivist paradigm will enable me to interpret and explore the socially constructed meanings of constructivist classroom management by thoroughly reviewing the literature on the topic and develop a conceptual understanding of constructivist classroom management so as to juxtapose it to traditional classroom management practices discussed in the literature.

Positivism and interpretivism are two poles of the same continuum. Table 2.1 below illustrates the differences between the paradigms.

Table 2.1 Positivistic and Interpretivist/Phenomenological Research Paradigms

Positivistic Paradigm	**Interpretivist/Phenomenological Paradigm**
Tends to produce quantitative data	Tends to produce qualitative data
Uses large samples	Uses small samples
Concerned with hypothesis testing	Concerned with generalising theories
Data is highly specific and precise	Data is rich and subjective
The location is artificial	Location is natural
Reliability is high	Reliability is low
Validity is low	Validity is high
Generalises from sample to population	Generalises from one setting to another

(Adapted from Hussey and Hussey, 1997: 54)

2.5.3 Worldview as paradigm

Various attempts to define "worldview" are found in the literature. It would seem that there is a great diversity of opinion regarding the worldview perspectives. Depending on the perspective from which worldview is studied and described, certain features seem to be stressed and others neglected. Worldview refers to the culturally-dependent, generally subconscious, fundamental organization of the mind (Cobern, 1991:3). This organization manifests itself as a set of presuppositions or assumptions, which predispose one to feel, think and act in predictable patterns. In Kearney's (1984:1) view, worldview is culturally organized macro-thought: those dynamically inter-related basic assumptions of a people that determine much of their behaviour and decision making, as well as organizing much of their body of symbolic creations and ethno-philosophy in general.

To be rational means to think and act with reason, or in other words, to have an explanation or justification for thought and action (Cobern, 1991:3). Such explanations and justifications ultimately rest upon one's worldview, one's presuppositions about the world. In other words, a worldview inclines one to a particular way of thinking. According to Kearney (1984:41), a world view consists of basic assumptions and images that provide a more or less coherent, though not necessarily accurate, way of thinking about the world.

Specifically, a worldview defines the self. It sets the boundaries of who and what I am. It also defines everything that is not me, including my relationships to the human and non-human environments. It shapes my view of the universe, my conception of time and of space. It influences one's norms and values (Cobern, 1991:3). Often one thinks of a worldview as religion or philosophy, for example the *Christian* worldview or the realist worldview. Religion is indeed an especially powerful formative force on the mind of a growing child, greatly influencing the contours of a child's worldview (Cobern, 1991:3).

Lincoln and Guba (1985:15) assert that:

> "*Paradigms represent what we think about the world (but cannot prove). Our actions in the world, including the actions we take as inquirers, cannot occur without reference to those paradigms: 'As we think, so do we act."*

Thus, as a worldview, paradigm guides the investigator, not only in choices of method but in ontologically and epistemologically fundamental ways (Guba & Lincoln, 1994:105).

Within the social sciences, there are two main competing paradigms: the scientific, mainly quantitative paradigm and the phenomenological, interpretive, mainly qualitative paradigm of inquiry. The former was first established at the beginning of the twentieth century when social sciences were born and their methodology was adapted to the positivist thinking of the natural sciences. The phenomenological paradigm has gradually emerged since World War II. It is now well established and arguably the predominant paradigm for the new millennium. Evidence for this claim is provided by the many reference books on qualitative methods of inquiry published in recent years (e.g. Strauss & Corbin, 1997; Denzin & Lincoln, 1998; Dey, 1999; Glesne, 1999; Dick, 1999).

It is useful here to briefly outline the characteristics of and differences between the traditional and emerging worldviews. It is more appropriate to distinguish between two main research paradigms than to distinguish between quantitative and qualitative methods. Table 2.1 on the next page illustrates the differences between traditional and emerging worldviews.

TABLE 2.2 Differences between traditional and emerging worldviews

Emerging worldview	**Traditional worldview**
Holism	Reductionism
Mutual causality	Linear causality
Perspectival reality	Objective reality
Observer in the observation Indeterminism	Observer outside the observation
Equal focus on exteriors and interiors	Determinism
Focus on relationship between entities	Primary focus on exteriors
Dialogical research methods	Focus on discrete entities
Non-linear relationships	Monological research methods
Polarity thinking	Linear relationships
Focus on feedback	Either/or thinking
Quantum physics perspectives	Focus on directives
- influence occurs through iterative non-linear feedback	Newtonian physics perspectives
- - the world is novel and probabilistic	- influence occurs as direct result of force exerted from one person to another
Postmodern	- expecting the world to be predictable
De-differentiation	Modern
Focus on heterarchy (within level)	Differentiation
Understanding/sensitivity analysis/ explanation	Focus on hierarchy (between levels)
Equality	Prediction
Based on biology	Patriarchy
- structure, pattern, self-organization, life cycle	Based on 19th-century physics
Focus on patterns	- equilibrium, stability, deterministic dynamics
Focus on variation	Focus on pace
Local control	Focus on averages
Behaviour emerge from bottom up	Global control
Metaphor of morphogenesis	Behaviour specified from top down
Focus on ongoing behaviour	Metaphor of assembly
Generalist	Focus on results or outcomes
Little or no transference of models	Specialist
Theory is narrowly applicable	Easy transference of models
Irreversible time	Theory is widely applicable
Generation of symbols	Reversible time
Mind creates matter	Transmission of symbols
	Matter creates mind

(Adapted from Nieuwenhuis, 2007)

In the literature, both paradigms are often cast in opposition: traditional versus emergent; experimental versus naturalistic; prescriptive versus descriptive; reductionist versus holistic; nomothetic (study of general laws and trends) versus idiographic (study of individual characteristics, case studies); normative versus interpretive; positivist versus non-positivist; etc.

Although it is true that in the traditional paradigm the methods used are predominately quantitative, and in the alternative paradigm they are predominately qualitative, both

quantitative and qualitative methods may be – and indeed have been – used in both paradigms. However, it is the inquirer's philosophical assumptions that mainly determine which methods s/he will choose, especially when the inquirer is conscious of his or her epistemological framework. Thus, methods play a secondary role; the paradigm or theoretical framework is of primary importance and must be made explicit, so that the reader/examiner can evaluate the process, methods and outcomes, using relevant criteria from the inquirer's particular perspective.

In the light of the above, the emerging worldview is in essence about post-modern thinking and that is related to constructivism. This study holds that the aspects listed in table 2.2 may provide the type of indicators that will aid in the conceptual analysis of constructivist classroom management. Thus, it could be used conceptually to analyse and define constructivist classroom management. In the subsequent paragraphs, *reality* and *truth* in terms of mechanistic and holistic worldviews and the humanist perspective are presented.

2.5.4 Truth and reality: as seen through mechanistic and holistic worldviews

The study of the nature and form of reality (that which is or what can be known) is called *"ontology"*. Guba and Lincoln (1989) distinguish two possibilities. The first is that there is one objective reality that is observable by an inquirer who has little, if any, impact on the object being observed – the object has ontological status in itself and, therefore, can be studied objectively from the outside. This statement implies that there is some objective independent law of nature (very much like in the project of the natural sciences) to which human life is subjected and that it is the project of research to discover and describe these objective laws. Understanding these will aid prediction and control of human life. Supporters of the conception of reality as an objective entity that is separate from the researcher and the researched are broadly classified as positivists and advocates of the "scientific method".

Guba and Lincoln's (1989) aim is to discover *truth* as a verified and tested thing or at least to ensure correspondence between the research account and the 'what is the case' account. This is important to this study because an instructionist approach to teaching and classroom management finds its roots in the positivist thinking. In epistemological, ontological dimension, this section will attempt to address the following questions: How does the world work? What is the relationship between the knower and the known? What role do values play in understanding the world? Are causal linkages possible? The discussion will be based on the Table 2.3 below.

TABLE 2.3 Matrix of Paradigmatic Value Systems

	Scientific	**Emergent**
View of knowledge	Rational Perceptual Absolute: Fairly Dogmatic	Relational Tentative: Largely perceptual
View of phenomena -	Simple Reductionist Empirical	Complex Holistic Ideational Empirical process
Relationships between entities -	Discrete units Hierarchical orders	Fluid, systemic, integrative orders, largely heterarchical
View of causation	Linear cause-effect and unidirectional interaction, explained by deductive reasoning	Mutual causation, - with multi causal factors, explained by deductive, inductive and integrative reasoning
View of change/ orientations to - the future	Determinate Predictable and controllable by humans	Indeterminate Unpredictable Morphogenetic
Descriptive metaphor	The Newtonian clock	The hologram

(Adapted from Nieuwenhuis, 2007)

How does the world work? The traditional paradigm, often labeled "positivistic", views reality as being uniformly structured and transparent. When different observers give it their attention, they must, in principle, arrive at a comparable image (Moser, 1999). One

can posit a unified scientific procedure - as represented by the classical methodology of empiricism - in order to comprehend reality in a scientifically "objective" manner. This is to say that by carefully dividing the unified world into constituent parts and studying them, one can understand it as a whole. Theories are conceived in the framework of a progress model in which they become more and more refined and explain larger and larger parts of the world. Science can thus be understood, in terms of a Popperian metaphor, as the building of a tower, where one stone is laid upon another (ibid).

The emerging paradigm, on the contrary, assumes there are "multiple realities." These are socio-psychological constructions with which subjects grasp their world from different standpoints (Moser, 1999). *Truth* does not follow the criteria of corresponding to its object any longer, but is concerned instead, with finding out which of the various explanatory attempts is better informed. And it cannot be ruled out that individual attempts at explanation are limited in time and breadth according to their standpoint (ibid).

Human behaviour, unlike that of physical objects, cannot be understood without reference to the meaning and purpose with which human actors associate with their activities (Moser, 1999). Constructions are not more or less "true" in any absolute sense, but are simply more or less informed and/or sophisticated. Thus, Guba and Lincoln (1994:111) assert that constructions are alterable, as are their associated "realities".

What is the relationship between the knower and the known? In the traditional paradigm the knower stands outside of what is to be known. Keeping distance is an essential criteria for achieving objective knowledge. In contrast, the emerging paradigm recognizes the interdependency of the knower and what is known (Moser, 1999). This becomes especially clear in the post-modernist approach and its emphasis on different forms of representation which ought to fit each respective object. Though it would seem to be sensible here to maintain a certain distance in a research situation which involves a emerging paradigm, this does not consist simply in choice of method (e.g. construction of an artificial experimental situation) but in the reflectivity about the position of the

researcher himself (ibid).

What role do values play in understanding the world? An essential criteria of empirical research was to divert the question of values to matters beyond scientific concern. Scientific work was to be very clearly value-free (Moser, 1999). Only in the case of (non-scientific) transfer into concrete actions, according to this methodological stance, were the questions of judgment and value attribution again relevant. Hence, the quality of "good" scientific work lay precisely in letting as few value decisions as possible find their way into scientific research and "distorted" it (ibid).

In the emerging paradigm, to the contrary, values convey and shape everything that is to be discovered and understood. From a constructivist view of things the positioning of one's own epistemological standpoint is already inextricably bound up with norms and values (Moser, 1999).

Are causal linkages possible? The traditional paradigm assumes that one event precedes another and that one can say it "causes" the event. Basically the idea is to draw up a chain of events as cause and effect and, in this way, describe causal connections which remain stable over time and space (Moser, 1999). But the problem with such chains of causality is that they are often woven into a net of conditions and circular processes that make it very difficult to clearly identify what is cause and what is effect. Instead events often have a reciprocal relationship, thus making it often a matter - as the new paradigm maintains - of discovering multi-directional relationships or describing interrelated patterns of behaviour which cannot be given clear attributes (ibid).

Methodologically the traditional paradigm is bound up with processes such as "induction" and "deduction," by means of which it is attempted to explain observations and derive prognoses. In contrast to this, the network thinking of the emerging paradigm is represented by the concept of "abduction," which is more heavily oriented toward puzzle-solving within complexly structured situations (Moser, 1999).

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:54), social research in the 19th century was dominated by the positivist ideals of universal laws, objectivity and quantification. The concept *positivism* refers to scientific claims that have been "posited" (or "postulated") on the basis of empirical evidence as opposed to claims that are based on religious or metaphysical beliefs (ibid:22). Auguste Compte (1798-1857) developed the main ideas of positivism between 1826 and 1829 when he wrote his major work – the *Cours de philosophie positive* (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:21; Neuman, 1997:63). He maintained that all branches of knowledge pass through successive stages: the *theological* (or fictitious), the *metaphysical* (or abstract) and the *scientific* (or positive).

Positivism holds that there is only *one* logic of science, to which intellectual activity aspiring to the title of *science* must conform (Neuman, 1997:63). Further, it sees social science as an organised method for combining deductive logic with empirical observations of individual behaviour in order to discover and confirm a set of probabilistic casual laws that can be used to predict general pattern of human behaviour.

Neuman (1997:64) asserts that modern positivists hold that social and physical reality is real – it exists *out there* and is waiting to be discovered. For them, social reality is not random, it is patterned and has order. Two other assumptions are that the basic patterns of social reality are stable and knowledge of them is additive. The regularity in social reality does not change over time, and laws discovered today will hold in future (ibid:64). With reference to basic nature of human beings, this school of thought holds that people operate on the basis of external causes, with the same cause having the same effect on everyone. Also, *mechanical model of man* or a behaviourist approach assumes that people respond to the external forces that are as real as physical pressures on objects.

In this study, an argument regarding instructionist classroom management will be explored later in Chapters 3 and 4. The principles underpinning traditional classroom management involves a number of mechanistic functions aimed at structuring and managing the classroom in a way where negative behaviour is punished and positive behaviour rewarded, an ideal management style is advocated to which all and sundry

must adhere, etc. Among others, positivist paradigm is underpinned by mechanistic world-view. Black (1999:24) asserts that the understanding of reality in the mechanistic worldview, emerges from the confluence of dualistic rationalism of Descartes, mechanistic physic of Newton, the biological determinism of Darwin, individualistic philosophy of Locke and the materialistic psychology of Freud.

Mechanistic world-view is based on several key principles. Among others, as stated by Black (1999:24), these principles advocate that: (1) scientific knowledge can achieve absolute and final certainty; (2) in the material world and in system, the dynamic of the whole can be understood from the property of the parts; (3) the world is a dualistic world in which the mind is superior to the body, human beings are superior to nature, the rational is superior to the non-rational, male is superior to female and objectivity is superior to subjectivity; and (4) the common good is enhanced when the potential and material wealth of the individual is maximised.

In 1979 Schwartz and Ogilvy undertook a survey that documented changing patterns of thought and belief in terms of research paradigms. The movement charted was from a dominant paradigm which favoured explanations which were simple, hierarchic, mechanical, determinate, linearly causal, based on assembly and objective towards an emergent paradigm which saw explanations as needing to be complex, heterarchic, indeterminate, mutually causal, concerned with morphogenesis and acknowledging perspective. Capra (1989:101) therefore claims that modern science has come to realize that:

> *"…all scientific theories are approximations to the true nature of reality; and that each theory is valid for a certain range of phenomenon. Beyond this range it no longer gives a satisfactory description of nature, and new theories have to be found to replace the old one, or, rather, to extend it by improving the approximation."*

The rise in dissatisfaction with the traditional worldview – or what Capra (1989) calls a crisis of perception and says it occurs when people hold to a mental model, which no

longer achieves their standards of accuracy – made way for a new emerging view that is not only limited to the social sciences, but also found its origin in the natural sciences and quantum physics. Other writers have called this same phenomenon a period of dislocation or a time when we are between "stories" (Moser, 1999).

In contrast to mechanistic world-view, holistic stance sees multiple realities. The realities are socio-psychological constructions forming an interconnected whole. The central image of the world-view is the holon – subsystems which are both wholes and parts (Black, 1999:31). Further, in the holistic world-view, the whole is always greater than the sum of the parts and, paradoxically, the whole is contained in each part while no whole is complete in itself. This world view sees the world as a community of subjects that includes all living beings which share the planet with human kind (Black, 1999:31). In chapters 5 and 6, the discourse will explore features of constructivist classroom management through the lens of the emerging paradigm.

2.5.5 Seeing reality and truth through the humanist lens

In the holistic world view, reality consists of an individual's mental constructions of the objects with which he/she engages, and that engagement impacts on the observer and the situation being observed. According to Neuman (1997:69), in interpretive social sciences, social reality is not something waiting to be discovered, and it is based on people's definitions of it, and is not fixed. This means that reality is interpreted as something that has been shaped over time and history by a series of "social, political, cultural, economic, ethnic, and gender factors and then crystallized into a series of structures that are now inappropriately taken as "real" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994:110; Neuman, 1997:69). The implication is that human life can only be understood from within and not as some form of external reality. Social life and reality as constructed entity is thus, a purely human product and the human mind is the purposive source or origin of meaning.

Romm and Alant (1993:44) posit that the world in which humans live is structured by acts of consciousness as a world of meaning – human consciousness actually reshapes *the*

world into a lifeworld. They maintain that world is the world of meanings – the world is constructed by people in terms of their experiences. The social world therefore, does not exist independent from the human mind and is not predetermined by some independent law of nature. "Reality" as portrayed by qualitative researchers therefore tends to follow the constructivist cue that reality is a social construction, accepts that the researcher cannot be separated from the research and asserting that research findings are *created* rather than *discovered. Truth* is therefore not an objective phenomenon that exists independently of the researcher (Romm & Alant, 1993:44).

Whereas ontological assumptions concern the nature of reality, epistemology relates to how things can be known - how truths or facts or physical laws, if they do exist, could be discovered and disclosed (Romm & Alant, 1993). Epistemology therefore, looks at how one knows reality, the method for knowing the nature of reality, or how one comes to know reality - it assumes a relationship between the knower and the known. For natural scientists, the way of knowing reality is by using the "scientific method" – also known as the experimental design. In contrast to natural scientists, social scientists in knowing the reality use interpretive methods.

For educational researchers using qualitative research methods, the way of knowing reality is by exploring the experiences of others regarding a specific phenomenon – an attempt to see how others have constructed reality by asking about it. Qualitative research as stated earlier, therefore acknowledges an interactive relationship between the researcher and participants (Guba & Lincoln, 1994) as well as between the participants and their own experiences and how they have constructed reality, based on those experiences. Within this worldview, people's stories of their experiences are counted as empirical evidence. This epistemological view acknowledges the assumption that the personal experiences, beliefs and values narratives are biased and subjective, but it accepts it as true for those who have lived through those experiences about which we are collecting empirical data. The stories, experiences and voices of the respondents are the mediums through which we explore and understand (know) reality and these "stories" could be in the form of "academic texts" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

We could visually juxtapose positivist understanding of reality and knowledge with post-modern views of reality and knowledge in terms of the following Table 2.4.

Table 2.4 Positivist and post-modern views of reality and knowledge

Positivist	Post-modern
Both approach research in a planned and systematic manner based on their ontological understanding of reality	
Belief that reality can be studied objectively	Beliefs that reality can only be known subjectively
Thinking tends to be deductive (testing theory)	Thinking tends to be inductive (generate theory)
Search for truths/findings that are generally applicable	Search for findings that reflect an emerging reality

(Adapted from Nieuwenhuis, 2007)

In the light of the above, qualitative and quantitative paradigms seem to have implications for classroom management in terms of ontological and epistemological assumptions. Thus, in dealing with the conceptual key features with the two issues: instructionist vs. constructivist classrooms management, this study will conceptually analyse instructionist classroom management from a positivist stance (in Chapter 3) and constructivist classroom management from an emerging perspective (in Chapter 5).

2.6 RESEARCH METHODS

Given that this study is qualitative, non-empirical and analytical, literature reviews/conceptual historical analysis, conceptual analysis and hermeneutics as research strategies have been used. In theoretical studies, the researcher produces his/her evidence to support argument from existing facts or information (Van der Merwe, 1996:290).

2.6.1 Literature review/ Conceptual historical analysis

The concept “review” is defined as examining critically or thoughtfully; to go over again in the mind (Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary of Current English, 1986:727). In this study, an extensive and relevant literature review is made in an attempt to provide a

theoretical foundation for the study. It is hoped that it will provide scientific explanation to the research questions. A thorough study of the available literature enables the scientist to verify his/her findings and to compare these with the work of others (Manamela, 1993:43).

The study relies on textual data. Textual data includes documents, texts, conversations, and interview transcripts (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:77; Bryman, 2001:369; Van der Merwe, 1996:283). According to Hart (2003) and Creswell (1994:27) the term "documents" covers a very wide range of different kinds of sources, including, personal/human documents (diaries, letters etc.), official documents (deriving from the state and private sources), mass media and virtual output (internet sources), professional journals, scholarly books, monograph and dissertations.

In Neuman's (1997:89) view, literature review is based on the assumption that knowledge accumulates and that we learn from and build on what others have done. Literature review takes various forms, namely: context, historical, theoretical, integrative, methodological and meta-analysis review. Each type of review has specific goals. Neuman (ibid:89) lists the goal of a literature review as follows:

- To demonstrate a familiarity with a body of knowledge and establish credibility;
- To show the path of prior research and how current the project is linked to it;
- To integrate and summarise what is known in an area; and
- To learn from others and stimulate new ideas.

This study employs a historical review which is underpinned by goals two and three of Neuman. Neuman (1997:90) asserts that historical reviews traces the development of an idea or shows how a particular issue or theory has evolved over time. In this research, the purpose of literature review was to explore the widely accepted models/definitions/theories of constructivism, and compare conceptually the key features of the traditional and constructivist classroom management. Also, it was used to investigate what competing theories (traditional/behaviourist and constructivism) say

about classroom management – how classroom management within a constructivist mode differs from traditional classroom management within an instructionist approach.

2.6.2 Conceptual analysis

Through concept analysis, the characteristics or attributes of a concept can be examined. The focus in this section will be on defining and describing concept analysis, and its purpose and uses. Also, research strategies and techniques of concept analysis will be explored.

2.6.2.1 Definition and description

There are multiple definitions of the term "*concept*" in literature. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:109), the process of coming to an agreement is conceptualisation and the result is called a *concept*. Concepts are building blocks of theory (Morse, Mitcham, Hupcey & Tason, 1996:386; Neuman, 1997:39). For some scholars (Neuman, 1997:39; Mouton & Marais, 1993:58; Seaman, 1987:43), it is an idea expressed as a symbol or in words. Mouton and Marais (1993:59) see concepts as primary instruments which we employ in coming to grips with our experiences.

In the opinion of Morse *et al*. (1996:386), a concept is a mental formulation of empirical experience – complex *cognitive representations* of perceptible realities formed by direct or indirect experiences. On the other hand, Walker and Avant, (1994:25) argue that a *concept* is a mental image of a phenomenon; an idea or construct in the mind about a thing or an action. Also, concepts contain within them the defining characteristics or attributes that permit us to decide which phenomena are good examples of the concepts and which are not. They represent categories of information that contain defining attributes.

Neuman (1997:41) avers that a concept has two parts: *symbol* (in form of words or term) and a *definition*. In a similar perspective, Mouton and Marais (1993:58) see two basic

elements or dimensions as connotation (*sense*) and denotation (*reference*). The cognitive mapping of behaviours provides concepts with structural features, and it is these features that are assessed when conducting concept evaluation (Morse *et al*., 1996:386). The structural features are underpinned by (1) a definition, (2) characteristics, (3) boundaries, (4) preconditions and (5) outcomes.

According to Mouton and Marais (1993:102), by means of analysis the constituents of variables or factors that are relevant to understanding the phenomenon or an event are isolated. Walker and Avant (1994:28) states that in "*analysis*", one clarifies or sharpens concepts, statement, or theories. Thus, concept analysis is a strategy that allows us to examine the attributes or characteristics of a concept (ibid: 37). It is a formal, linguistic exercise to determine those defining attributes.

Huysamen (1995:154) asserts that conceptual analysis involves the careful analysis of the constructs (concepts) and their relationships (as postulated by a theory). Conceptual analysis was developed from the work of the analytical philosophers. It requires that the implications of these constructs are clearly spelt out, possible inconsistencies between their definitions be pointed out and modifications to them be proposed (Huysamen, 1995:154).

Nieuwenhuis (2007) contends that the defining characteristics of a conceptual study is that it is largely based on secondary sources, that it critically engages with the understanding of concepts, and that it aims to add to our existing body of knowledge and understanding – it is generative of knowledge. In conceptual analysis studies, the data with which we work are concepts and the understanding thereof and our means of analysis could be discourse analysis, hermeneutic, phenomenological, deconstruction or critical analytic (ibid). Conceptual analysis studies therefore, tend to be abstract, philosophical and rich in their theoretical underpinning (ibid).

2.6.2.2 Purpose and uses

Concepts play a vital role in research. As tools of science, concepts express generalisations from particulars and enable us to impose some sort of meaning on the world: through them reality is given sense, order and coherence (Cohen & Manion, 1989:17). Thus, they form the theoretical realm of a discipline, and they are the means by which, through rigorous developing, testing and modifying, a discipline advances (Morse *et al.*, 1996:386).

According to Huysamen (1995:154), the objective of the conceptual analysis is to identify and to construct a conceptual framework at the point at which theory is formulated and its constructs are operationalised. The basic purpose of concept analysis is to distinguish between the defining attributes of a concept and its irrelevant attributes (Walker & Avant, 1994:38). Concept analysis can be used in a number of cases. According to Walker and Avant (1994:39), it can be useful in refining ambiguous concepts in theory; it can help clarify those overused vague concepts that are prevalent in nursing practice so that everyone who subsequently uses the term, will be speaking the same thing; or used in tool development and in developing nursing diagnosis.

In this study the Wilsonian concept analysis will be used to examine and distinguish between the defining attributes of the concepts "*instructionist classroom management"* and "*constructivist classroom management*" and their relevant attributes.

2.6.2.3 Research strategy and techniques/procedures

There are a number of techniques and approaches in concept analysis. According to Nieuwenhuis (2007), this range from the more positivist type "concept analysis" to deconstruction, critical hermeneutics, analytical concept analysis and conceptual cartography. For Huysamen (1995:154-9), conceptual analysis is constituted by the following three strategies:

- *Generic-type analysis* – It is aimed at defining the essence or core meaning of a concept by defining the features which examples of it have in common and which distinguish it from examples of other concepts;
- *Differentiation-type analysis* – It distinguishes between the basic uses and meaning of the concept and provides a clearer picture of the logical domain covered by such concept; and
- *Conditions-type analysis* – It deals with cases that are termed polymorphous concepts, where there are no indisputable model examples and counter examples of the concept under study.

Nieuwenhuis (2007) contends that the classical concept analysis-type studies (sometimes referred to as Wilsonian) approach their work in a more "step-by-step" approach. Walker and Avant (1994:39) list the following modified 8 basic steps, developed by Wilson, used in concept analysis:

> *(1) Select a concept; (2) Determine the purposes of the analysis; (3) Identify all the uses that you can discover. (4) Determine the defining attributes; (5) Construct a case model; (6) Construct borderline, related, contrary, invented and illegitimate cases; (7) Identify antecedents and consequences; and (8) Define empirical referents.*

Although the approach proposed by Huysamen (1995:154-9) dominates the study, the Wilsonion concept analysis is infused. In this study, I used Generic-type analysis in an attempt to trace the origins, development and the shifting meaning of the concepts "traditional classroom management" and "constructivist classroom management". Through analysis of documents, I traced how the concepts "instructionist management" and constructivist management" evolved over time until its inclusion in the South African education policies (C2005, NCS and RNCS).

In this study, data is classified as non-empirical and secondary. For the purposes and the scope of this study, a typology of non-empirical questions recommended by Babbie and

Mouton (2001:77) in Table 2.5 and Huysamen's (1995:154-9) conceptual analysis steps in Table 2.6 in the next page will be adopted.

Table 2.5 Typology of non-empirical questions

Question type	Question	Examples
Meta-analytic questions	What is the state of the art regarding x? What are the key debates in domain x?	What is the current state of research on constructivism? What are the key debates in constructivist learning environment? What are the leading positions/paradigms in research on constructivist classroom management?
Conceptual questions	What is the meaning of the concept x?	What is the meaning of constructivism? What are conceptually the key features of constructivist classroom management?
Theoretical questions	What are the most plausible theories of/models of x? What are the most convincing explanations of y?	What are the most widely accepted models/definitions/theories of constructivism? What do competing theories (traditional/behaviourist and constructivism) say about classroom management?
Philosophical/normative questions	What is the ideal profile of x?	What is meant by constructivist classroom management?

(Adapted from Babbie and Mouton, 2001:77)

Table 2.6 Conceptual analysis steps

Generic-type analysis	Differentiation-type analysis	Conditions-type analysis
Step 1	***Step1***	**Step1**
• Compile an inventory of the ways (examples) in which the concept is normally used.	• Compile an inventory of the ways (examples) in which the concept is normally used (on the basis of typical examples of the concept).	• Identify examples and counterexamples of the concept in question.
Step 2	**Step 2**	**Step2**
• Divide the examples into subsections to compile a typology of them. • Abstract features common to all the examples of the concept.	• Divide the examples into subsections to compile a typology of them.	• Formulate and abstract conditions
Step 3	**Step 3**	**Step 3**
• Create categories to accommodate all uses of the concept. • Ensure that the concept Does not exclude things should be excluded in terms of intuitive conceptualisation.	• Create categories to accommodate all uses of the concept. • Ensure that the definition concept Does not exclude things should be excluded in terms of intuitive conceptualisation	• Perform a *test of necessity* (on a condition). • Check whether all model examples have this condition in common. • Check whether it can produce examples in which condition in absent.
Step 4	**Step 4**	**Step 4**
• Distinguish features of different categories (of the initially compiled typology). • Perform a ***test of necessity*** in each of the features (and on others which may occur during the course of analysis).	• Distinguish features of different categories (of the initially compiled typology). • Perform a ***test of necessity*** (in terms of examples and counterexamples to ensure that the respective categories are mutually exclusive and exhaustive.	• Perform a ***test of sufficiency*** (by checking if by changing the context, a counter example may be found in which is the feature is still present but the concept no longer applies. • Identify further necessary features – until no context can be conceptualised in which conditions identified as being necessary do not guarantee the presence of the concept in question.

(Adapted from Huysamen, 1995:154-9)

2.6.2.4 Wilsonian concept analysis

In this study, Wilsonian concept analysis (steps) below will be adopted. The steps in conducting the Wilsonian concept analysis will be discussed as if they are sequential. In fact, many of these steps occur simultaneously.

(a) Identify the concept of interest

According to Walker and Avant (1994:40), it is important to choose a concept in which you are already interested, one that is associated with your work, or one that has bothered you. The concepts of *instructionist classroom management* and *constructivist classroom management* have been identified in the research design as the central focus of this study. The concept *instructionist classroom management* has links with views on traditional (instructionist) teaching and learning, objective and/or behaviourist tradition. Also, the concept *constructivist classroom management* has links with views on constructivist teaching and learning and phenomenological or constructivist tradition.

Developments around the concept of *instructionist classroom management* and *constructivist classroom management* appear in chapters three and five respectively.

(b) Determine the aims or purpose of the analysis

The aims and purpose of the analysis are informed by the research question and objectives in section 1.3 (see Chapter 1). The aim of this conceptual analysis is to explore the attributes, antecedents and consequences of the *concepts instructionist* and *constructivist classroom management.* Another aim is to distinguish between the normal, ordinary language usage of the concepts and the scientific usage of the same concepts. Given that the research questions cannot be answered and the research objectives cannot be achieved by the conventional concept analyses of the nursing sciences, conceptual historical research and conceptual cartography will be adopted as alternative research tools of this study.

(c) Identify and select an appropriate realm or sample for data collection

This study takes a literature-based analysis – it employs conceptual historical and concept analysis. The sources are drawn, among others, from the educational management theory, literature, the disciplines of education, law, philosophy, cultural studies and political philosophy, non-governmental organisations and official documents.

(d) Identify uses of the concepts

The uses of the concept of instructionist and constructivist classroom management and its definitional structure are explored in Chapters 3, 4, 5. In the use of conceptual cartography as a methodological innovation, this study highlights the varied and shifting meanings of instructionist and constructivist classroom management as the concepts evolve in different settings.

Analysing the range of meanings of the concept is what Bear and Moody (as quoted by Keet, 2006) prefer to name this phase. It requires extensive reading (see Chapters 3 and 5) to probe the various uses and misuses of the concept (Keet, 2006). In chapters 3 and 5, "related terms will be discovered" and the meanings of "the concept within past and current contexts is explored and the semantic space of the concept is delimited. Rogers (as quoted by Keet, 2006) suggests that data should be of such a representative nature to allow for the identification of "surrogate terms and related concepts" as is the case in this study.

(e) Identify attributes, antecedents and consequences of the concept

The anatomy of a concept is informed by its structural features, namely, definition, characteristics, boundaries, preconditions and outcomes. Morse *et al*. (1996:386) contend that a concept must be labelled and have a meaningful definition. This enables the concept to be referred to, to be communicated and to be recognisable to others (ibid:386).

According to Morse *et al.* (1996:386), all concepts must have characteristics (or attributes, or features) that define the concept. These characteristics must be present in all instances in which the concept appears, but they may be present in different strengths of association and different forms (ibid:386). For Walker and Avant (1994:41), as one reads and make notes of the characteristics of a concept that appear over and over again, the defining attributes are determined. Thus, the concepts that appear under the same label will have the same constituent characteristics, but may be qualitatively different (Morse *et al*., 1996:386).

All concepts are delineated, or have a boundary. Morse *et al*. (1996:386) posit that the boundary is identified when an exemplar is no longer an instance of a particular concept. Also, the boundaries are usually identifiable because (a) all attributes are no longer present, (b) the attributes that are present are weak, and/or (c) new characteristics appear in examples (ibid:386).

Morse *et al*. (1996:386) note that all concepts must be preceded by similar conditions (i.e. have similar antecedents). In addition, it is these conditions that give rise to the behaviours that distinguish the characteristics. The defining attributes are immutable – they may change slightly over time if the concept changes; or they may change when used in a different context that the one under study (Walker & Avant, 1994:41). Something cannot become an antecedent and an attribute at the same time. Antecedents are those events or incidents that must occur prior to the occurrence of the concept; and they are also useful in helping the theorist identify underlying assumptions about the concept being studied (ibid:45).

In Morse *et al*.'s (1996:386) view, all concepts must be followed by similar outcomes (i.e. have similar consequences) that are a result of the concept. Consequences are those events or incidents that occur as a result of the occurrence of the concept; and are useful in determining often neglected ideas, variables or relationships that may yield new research directions (Walker & Avant, 1994:45).

The covert and overt features and assumptions on the concepts of instructionist and constructivist classroom management are embedded within traditional/scientific and emerging worldviews/frameworks respectively. In this study, concepts under investigation will be labelled and given a meaningful definition. Also, structural features of the concepts "instructionist classroom management" and "constructivist classroom management", will be applied in defining their attributes, antecedents and consequences.

(f) Identify a model case of the concept, if appropriate

Walker and Avant (1994:42) note that at about the same time that one is developing the list of defining attributes, one should begin to develop a model case or cases. A case model is a "real life" example of the use of the concept that includes all the critical attributes of the concept (ibid:42). A model case provides an example "of the concept that demonstrates clearly its attributes, antecedents and consequences in a relevant context" (Rogers, as cited by Keet, 2006). In this study a number of model cases of "instructionist classroom management" and "constructivist classroom management" are explored, especially those empirical research in traditional and constructivist teaching and learning classroom. Other cases emanating from the works that have developed outside of this mainstream framework include those from NGOs and the Department of Education.

(g) Define empirical referents

The final step involves determining the empirical referents for the critical attributes. According to Walker and Avant (1994:46), empirical referents are classes or categories of actual phenomena that, by their existence or presence, demonstrate the occurrence of the concept itself. Once they are identified, they are extremely useful in instrument development because they are clearly linked to the theoretical base of the concept, thus contributing to both content and construct validity of any instrument. In this study, "transmission/transfer of knowledge, values and skills" will be used as an empirical referent of "instructionist/traditional classroom management" whilst "socially

constructing own reality and knowledge" will be used as an empirical referent of "constructivist classroom management".

2.6.2.5 Limitation of the Wilsonian Model

This study recognises the limitation of Wilsonian methods. According to Keet (2006), the limited use and value associated with the linear and evolutionary approaches to concept analysis relates to its shallow treatment of the context of the concepts and its inability to view concepts as fluid and floating meaning-making structures on a conceptual map. Morse *et al*. (1996:387) assert that Walker and Avant's method has been criticised as being poorly understood, lacking philosophical foundations and contributing little to 'intellectual progression". For Keet (2006), the discontinuation of using the Wilsonian methods of concept analysis is because of its lack of adequate data; lack of depth in analysis; lack of reasoning; etc. The use of this for concept evaluation is inappropriate – it reveals what is known about the concept and does not provide criteria for evaluating the features of the concept (Morse *et al*., 1996:387).

Thus, in this study, conceptual cartography will be employed to facilitate an in-depth conceptual analysis instructionist and constructivist classroom management.

2.7 CONCEPTUAL CARTOGRAPHY

Conceptual cartography takes the process of critical analytical studies further since cartographies are both analytical tools and products of analysis itself (Nieuwenhuis, 2007 & Keet, 2006). The argument in this case is that a conceptual analysis and concept historical analysis of instructionist and constructivist classroom management, should be enriched and juxtaposed with a conceptual cartography since the meaning of the concepts takes on different shapes as it is deployed within various conceptual frameworks.

Nieuwenhuis (2007) asserts that conceptual historical analysis, for example, is intertwined with conceptual cartography since the historical construction of a concept is

constantly configured and re-configured within the innumerable theoretical temperaments of conceptual orientations (ibid). In addition, the complexity and interwoven nature of different approaches are best illustrated by Paulston and Liebman's (as cited by Nieuwenhuis, 2007) notion of post-modern mapping. Paulston and Liebman (as cited by Nieuwenhuis, 2007) presents us with a 'post-modern' map that situates "paradigms and theories on the spatial surface of paper". They assert that:

> *"This heuristic map identifies intellectual communities and relationships, illustrates domains, suggests a field of interactive ideas, and opens space to all propositions and ways of seeing the social milieu. What appears as open space within the global representation is space that can be claimed by intellectual communities whose discourse is not yet represented on the map".*

According to Keet (2006), the social framework and space presented in the heuristic map is inclusive of mini and meta-narratives. The appropriateness of such a map for this discussion resides in the many spaces and possibilities that are opened up through the map and also the infinite number of relations that are assumed within the spatiality of the map (ibid). Therefore, the grand paradigms or meta-narratives such as positivism, interpretivism and critical theory are represented by the overarching orientations of either "functionalist, radical functionalist, humanist and radical humanist" (ibid). Thus, though the meanings of instructionist and constructivist classroom management are certainly informed by these meta-narratives, they do not necessarily provide the ultimate meaning frameworks for instructionist and constructivist classroom management.

2.8 HERMENEUTIC APPROACH

Hermeneutics is a broad subject. In this section, the focus will be on historical background of hermeneutics and philosophical background of critical hermeneutics.

2.8.1 Definition and description

Hermeneutics, as a method of textual analysis, means to interpret. In etymological perspective, the term "hermeneutics" was derived from two words – the Greek verb

hermeneuein, meaning to interpret, and the noun *hermeneia*, meaning interpretation (Byrne, 2001; Hull, Grondin, 1994:18; Palmer, 1977:13). It has two derivations. One is from the Greek god Hermes in his role as patron of interpretive communication and human understanding, while the other is from the syncretic Ptolemaic deity Hermes Trismegistus, in his role as representing hidden or secret knowledge (Byrne, 2001; Hartill, 1966:7; Neuman, 1997:68). As an approach of textual analysis, it is an artful form of understanding and a process of exposing hidden meanings.

The meaning of the concept "hermeneutics" evolved greatly. From the beginning, the word has denoted the science of interpretation, especially the principles of proper textual exegesis. In chronological order, it has been interpreted as: (1) theory of biblical exegesis; (2) general philological methodology; (3) the science of all linguistic understanding; (4) methodological foundation of *Geiteswissenschaften*; (5) phenomenology of existence and of existential understanding; and (6) the systems of interpretation, both recollective and iconalistic, used by man to reach the meaning behind myth and symbols (Palmer, 1977:33).

2.8.2 Historical background

Hermeneutic tradition has a very rich historical background – it stretches from Medieval interpretation of text, Renaissance, modernism to postmodernism – and has a number of versions. Historically, it has been associated with the interpretation of theological texts (Bryman, 2001:383; Byrne, 2001; Neuman, 1997:68; Palmer, 1977:3). Religious leaders sought to identify the literal or authentic meanings of religious texts so they could explain how to live a *Christian* life. Early monks analysed literary works through a method termed reconstruction (i.e. forming a new perspective) to find the original intended meaning. Hermeneutics has evolved from an analysis of biblical texts to a method used to gain understanding of human nature.

The historical development of hermeneutics as an independent field seems to hold within itself two separate foci: one in the field of understanding and a general sense, and the other on what is involved in the exegesis of linguistic text, the hermeneutical problem

(Palmer, 1977:67). It is rooted in the tradition of Schleiermacher and Dilthey, whose adherents look to hermeneutics as a general body of methodological principles which underlie interpretation. On the other hand, there are followers of Heidegger who see hermeneutics as a philosophical exploration of the character and requisite conditions for all understanding (Palmer, 1977:46). However, there are differences among several forms of hermeneutics, but there are also many underlying similarities.

Hermeneutics, however, takes on a whole different meaning in the eighteenth century, when it moved into secular philosophy with publication of Johann Martin Chaldenius' *Introduction to the Correct Interpretation of Reasonable Discourse and Books,* which sought, with true Enlightenment idealism, to create a system of interpretation that would provide science a unity of understanding (Honeycutt, 1995). This dream is similar to the positivist project of the early twentieth century to use logic in the service of a scientific language of perfect understanding.

Honeycutt (1995) asserts that in the nineteenth century, hermeneutics was built upon a rich tradition of works by such thinkers as Shleiermacher, Humboldt, and Dilthey, who, though they varied in their ideas about hermeneutic understanding, generally agreed on the general process of interpretation, sometimes known as the "hermeneutical circle" This interpretative process involved examining a certain text or event through a systematic investigation of generals and particulars, the results of which, in turn, are related to what is already known by the interpreter (ibid).

In the twentieth century, hermeneutics takes a different path from the earlier hermeneutical tradition, especially with publication of Heidegger's *Being and Time*, which shifted the entire focus of hermeneutics to ontology (Honeycutt, 1995). This paradigm shift in hermeneutics had several results. Firstly, hermeneutics moved from the "epistemological concerns" of the nineteenth century to a phenomenological investigation of existence. Secondly, earlier hermeneutical attempts to build a system of understanding through re-enactment of the relationship between an author and his or her original audience, gave way to extreme scepticism of any such an understanding (ibid).

According to Honeycutt (1995), Heidegger's hermeneutics stressed that language could no longer be seen as a means by which to express experience, but instead *was* experience itself, what Hans-Georg Gadamer has called the "hermeneutic experience". Gadamer studied for a number of years under Heidegger, but strongly disagreed with his mentor's later attempts to transcend metaphysics through the use of quasi-poetical language. Having broken with his master, Gadamer offered his own philosophy of hermeneutics in his 1960 *Truth and Method*, in which he seeks to show how works of art are an "emergence of truth" in that they give enlightening structure to otherwise confusing and chaotic human experiences (ibid).

In the next paragraph, philosophical background to critical hermeneutic, which is employed in this study, is presented.

2.8.3 Philosophical background of critical hermeneutics

Philosophers associated with critical hermeneutic perspectives include Paul Ricoeur, Jurgen Habermas, and Hans-Georg Gadamer. Gadamer's hermeneutics emphasizes the embeddedness of language in our understanding of our world. His work helped extend philosophical hermeneutics to critical hermeneutics by stressing the importance of tradition, background and history in our ways of understanding (Byrne, 2001). In addition, Gadamer believed that understanding comes from interpretations embedded in our linguistic and cultural traditions, which contribute to our inherent prejudices.

Gadamer had a number of philosophical assumptions on the concept “experience”. Palmer (1977:196-8) asserts that Gadamer held that experience is a matter of multi-sided disillusionment based on expectation, negativity and disillusionment which are integral parts to experience; and that every experience runs counter to expectation if it really deserves the name experience. True experience is experience of one’s own historicality. As one experiences the meaning of text, he comes to understand a heritage which briefly addresses him as something over or against him, yet as something which is at the same time part of a non-objectifiable stream of experiences and history in which he stands (ibid:198).

Gadamer's philosophy assumes that understanding is both an epistemological and ontological phenomenon. According to Palmer (1977:215), Gadamer held that the keys to understanding are not manipulation and control, but participation and openness, not knowledge but experience, not methodology but dialectic. For Gadamer, experience has its dialectical fulfilment not in a knowing experience in openness for experience, which is itself set in free play by experience (Palmer, 1977:195). In Gadamer's opinion, it refers to non-objectified and largely non-objectifiable accumulation of *understanding* which we often call wisdom. Gadamer maintained that experience often suggests the pain of growth and new understanding; and has to be constantly acquired and nobody can save us from it.

Two embedded assumptions of hermeneutics are that humans experience the world through language and this language provides both understanding and knowledge (Byrne, 2001). According to Bryman (2001:382), the central idea behind hermeneutics is that the analyst of a text must seek to bring out the meanings of a text from the perspective of its author. As a method of textual analysis, it emphasizes the socio-cultural and historic influences on qualitative interpretation. Also, it exposes hidden meanings.

In Gadamer's opinion, understanding is always a historical, dialectical and linguistic event (Palmer, 1977:215). He perceived hermeneutics as the ontology and phenomenology of understanding; and its purpose is not to put forward rules for "objectively valid" understanding but conceive understanding itself as comprehensively as possible. For Gadamer, understanding is: a historical act and as such connected to the present; not fixed but historically formed.

In the following paragraphs, historical, dialectical and linguistic philosophical perspectives will be presented.

(a) Historical perspective

Grondin (1994:106) claims that in making language the essence of hermeneutics, Gadamer followed the Heidegger's radicalisation of historical throwness. His aim was to reconcile radicalisation with Heidegger's hermeneutical starting point – understanding. In

his work *Truth and Method*, Gadamer argued against the idea fostered by historicism and positivism, that the human sciences had to work out proper methods for themselves before they could attain the status of science.

Gadamer sees the concept of prejudice as prejudgment. Thus, prejudices are preconceived notions of things arising from our past experience and socialisation. Some believe that the way to eradicate prejudice is to maintain objectivity by not considering previous experiences (Byrne, 2001). Gadamer, however, believed this was impossible. He believed that to understand each other, we cannot shed our past experiences, and that these experiences actually enhance our understanding. Gadamer advocated continually striving to identify our prejudices. In support of this, (Byrne, 2001) states that:

> *To be engaged in a conversation with a text is to bring one's prejudices into play. On the basis of one's prejudices' one is able to understand the content of what the text says. The reader is engaged from a definite point of view and is only able to understand the content of the text from this perspective. The very fact that we question the text suggests that we are trying to transcend our own prejudices.*

In a historicist perspective, Gadamer maintained that prejudices or fore-understandings should be considered almost like transcendental “condition of understanding”; and our historicity is not a restriction but the very principle of understanding (Grondin, 1994:111). According Palmer (1977:200), as Gadamer’s critique of historical consciousness indicates, the horizon of meaning within which a text or historical act stands is questioningly approached from within one’s own horizon. Also, one does not leave his own horizon behind when he interprets, but broadens it as to fuse it with that act or text. The heritage itself speaks in the text. The dialectic of question and answer works out a fusion of horizons (Palmer, 1977:201).

Whenever we understand, history effects the horizon, never susceptible of our ultimate clarification of everything that can appear meaningful and worth inquiring into. For Gadamer, history acquires the function of authorizing and affecting each individual act of understanding; and interpenetrates our “substance” in such a way that we cannot

ultimately clarify it or distance ourselves from it (Grondin, 1994:114). Thus, our consciousness is affected by history.

(b) Dialectical perspective

Conversation as a way of coming to an understanding (sometimes called a dialogic structure of understanding) is linked to the work of Gadamer. He describes conversation thus:

> *[It] is a process of two people understanding each other. Thus it is a characteristic of every true conversation that each opens himself to the other person, truly accepts his point of view as worthy of consideration and gets inside the other to such an extent that he understands not a particular individual, but what he says. The thing that has to be grasped is the objective rightness or otherwise of his opinion, so that they can agree with each other on a subject* (Gadamer, 1979: 347).

In conversation, knowledge is not a fixed thing or commodity to be grasped. It is not something *out there* waiting to be discovered. Rather, it is an aspect of a process. It arises out of interaction. The metaphor that Gadamer uses is that of the horizon. He argues that we each bring prejudices (or pre-judgments) to encounters. We have, what he calls, our own 'horizon of understanding'. This is “the ranges of vision that includes everything that can be seen from a particular vantage point” (Gadamer, 1979:143).

According to Palmer (1977:199), in hermeneutical dialogue, the general subject in which one is immersed – both the interpreter and the text – is the tradition, the heritage. In etymological perspective, the concept “dialogue” has its origin in the Greek words *dia* meaning “two or between or across” and *logos* meaning “speech or ‘what is talked about”. Burbules (1993:19) sees dialogue as a speech across, between or through two people. For Romm and Alant (1993:48), dialogue refers to mediations between the past, present and future as acts of consciousness. It entails a particular kind of relationship and interaction. In this sense it is not so much a specific communicative form of question and

answer, but at heart a kind of social relation that engages its participants (Burbules, 1993: 19).

Dialogue and conversation are sides of the same coin. Through dialogue, people are supposed to create new understandings which are explicitly critical and aimed at action, wherein those who were formally illiterate now begin to reject their role as mere "objects" in nature and social history and undertake to become "subjects" of their own destiny. Thus, the purpose of dialogue is to reveal the incoherence in our thought. In so doing, it becomes possible to discover or re-establish a 'genuine and creative collective consciousness. The process of dialogue is a process of "awakening" – it entails a free flow of meaning among all the participants.

To understand another human being requires an insight into the other's subjective view of life, because the phenomena of his experience are at the very heart of his existence (Swanepoel, 1989:35). This suggests that meanings are created in specific situational contexts. Romm and Alant (1993:48) posit that social situations – as structure of meaning – have a fluid character because they become definable only in terms of the people which attribute to them (and these meanings are contextually bound). In a social setting, meaning is not predictable; it is largely hinged on specific conditions that are present. Thus, human behaviour must be understood contextually.

Palmer (1977:200) contends that when a transmitted text becomes an object for interpretation, it places the question to the interpreter which he is trying to answer through interpretation. Thus, to understand the text implies to understand this question. In interpreting the text, the first requirement is to understand the horizon of meaning or of questioning within which the direction of meaning of the text is determined (ibid:200).

(c) Linguistic perspective

Language shapes man's seeing and his thought – both his conception of himself and his world (Palmer, 1977:9). His very vision of reality and shape of his feeling is conformed by language. As a social institution, it provides much more than a pipeline for the distribution of information or messages from one to the other. It confirms the existence

of the human world in which people mutually bring about in their efforts to apprehend and appropriate all that is around them (Alant, 1993:67). Being cultural, language also bears witness to the creative tension, historical form and content and the changing scene of present experience.

Fundamental to Gadamer's conception of language is the rejection of the *sign* theory of the nature of language (Palmer, 1977:201). For Gadamer, language is most itself not in propositions, but in dialogue (Grondin, 1994:120). He held that against propositional logic, in which the sentence consists in a self-sufficient unity of meaning, hermeneutics reminds us that a proposition can never be prescinded from the context of motivation – that is, the dialogue – in which it is embedded and which is the only place it has any meaning (ibid:120).

In the light of the above, Palmer (1977:202) maintains that to see words as signs rob them of their primordial power and make them mere instruments or designators. Everywhere that word is seen in its mere sign function, the primordial relationship of speaking and thinking is turned into an instrumental relationship. The word becomes the tool of thinking and stands over against thinking and the thing designated. No demonstrable organic relationship is seen between the word and what it designates; it is merely a sign (Palmer, 1977:202).

Gadamer's hermeneutics assumed that understanding is *in principle* linguistic, it is because language embodies the sole means for carrying out the conversation that we are and that we hope to convey to each other (Grondin, 1994:120). Understanding, itself is always linguistically formed and dealing with things verbal, must be capable of engaging the whole content of language in order to arrive at the being that language helps bring to expression (ibid:120). The essential linguisticality of understanding expresses itself less in our statements than in our search for the language to say what we have in our minds and hearts.

According to the Gadamer's school of thought, language as a symbolic form, seems to do injustice to what may be referred to as the linguisticality human experience. As static

concept, it robs the word of its character as event, its power to speak, its status as far more than a mere tool of subjectivity (Palmer, 1977:203). Words are not something that belong to man, but to the situation. In Gadamer's view, one searches for words, the words belong to the situation (ibid:203).

Central to hermeneutic linguistics is the notion that the formation of words is not a product of reflection but of experience. It is not the expression of spirit or mind but situation and being. Palmer (1977:203) asserts that the starting and ending point in the formation of words is not the reflection but the matter that is coming to expression in words. Form cannot be separated from content, but when we think of language in instrumental terms, we automatically do so. Thus, Gadamer posited that languages should not be typed according to form but according to what the language transmits to us historically (ibid:204).

Language itself has an intrinsically speculative structure. For Gadamer, it is not fixed and is dogmatically certain, but because it is in process an event of disclosure, it is ever moving, shifting, fulfilling its mission of bringing a thing to understanding (Palmer, 1977:209). Also, the movement of living language constantly is resisting the fixity of bald and final statements.

Mathipa (1994:17) notes that the use of *hermeneutic circles of understanding* helps the pedagogicians to meaningfully understand the information contained in the information contained either in the primary or secondary sources of information. Thus, in this study, the use of this method becomes more important especially when a study of the primary sources of information is undertaken with the aim of explaining the information contained in both primary and secondary sources – through the use of *hermeneutic circles of understanding.* Also, an attempt will be made to interpret the meaning of individual experiences of educative interaction as reflected in the human documents.

In the light of the above, of typology of non-empirical questions mentioned above, the meaning will be established mainly through the three hermeneutic principles: grammatical, historical/cultural and philosophical interpretation.

2.9 CONCLUSION

We can only understand instructionist classroom management if we locate and analyse it in the context of modernity within which it originates just as we can only understand constructivist classroom management by locating it within the emerging paradigm of post-modernism. Chapters 3, 4, 5 and 6, will conceptually locate and analyse the two concepts in their paradigmatic homes but not as diagonally opposed constructs but as evolving constructs that could find themselves within a cartographic conceptual map.

CHAPTER 3

CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS OF TRADITIONAL CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

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

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

3.2 CONCEPTUALISING INSTRUCTIONIST CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

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

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

3.2.1 The concept "instructionist"

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

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

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

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

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

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

• directing learners to *appropriate* learning activities;

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

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

3.2.2 The concept "classroom"

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

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

3.2.3 The concept "management"

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

3.2.4 Defining classroom management

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

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

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

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

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

Doyle (1986:423) contends that:

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

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

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

3.2.5 Distinctiveness of the classroom management situation

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

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

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

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

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

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

3.3 HISTORICAL AND ANALYTICAL PERSPECTIVES ON TRADITIONAL/ INSTRUCTIONIST CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

3.4 ORGANISATIONAL ANALYTICAL PERSPECTIVES ON TRADITIONAL/INSTRUCTIONIST CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

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

3.4.1 Bureaucratization (power and control)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

3.4.2 Taylorism and Fordism (production, productivity and outputs)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

3.5 THE NATURE AND ESSENCE OF TRADITIONAL/INSTRUCTIONIST CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

3.5.2 Views on traditional (instructionist) teaching and learning

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

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

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

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

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

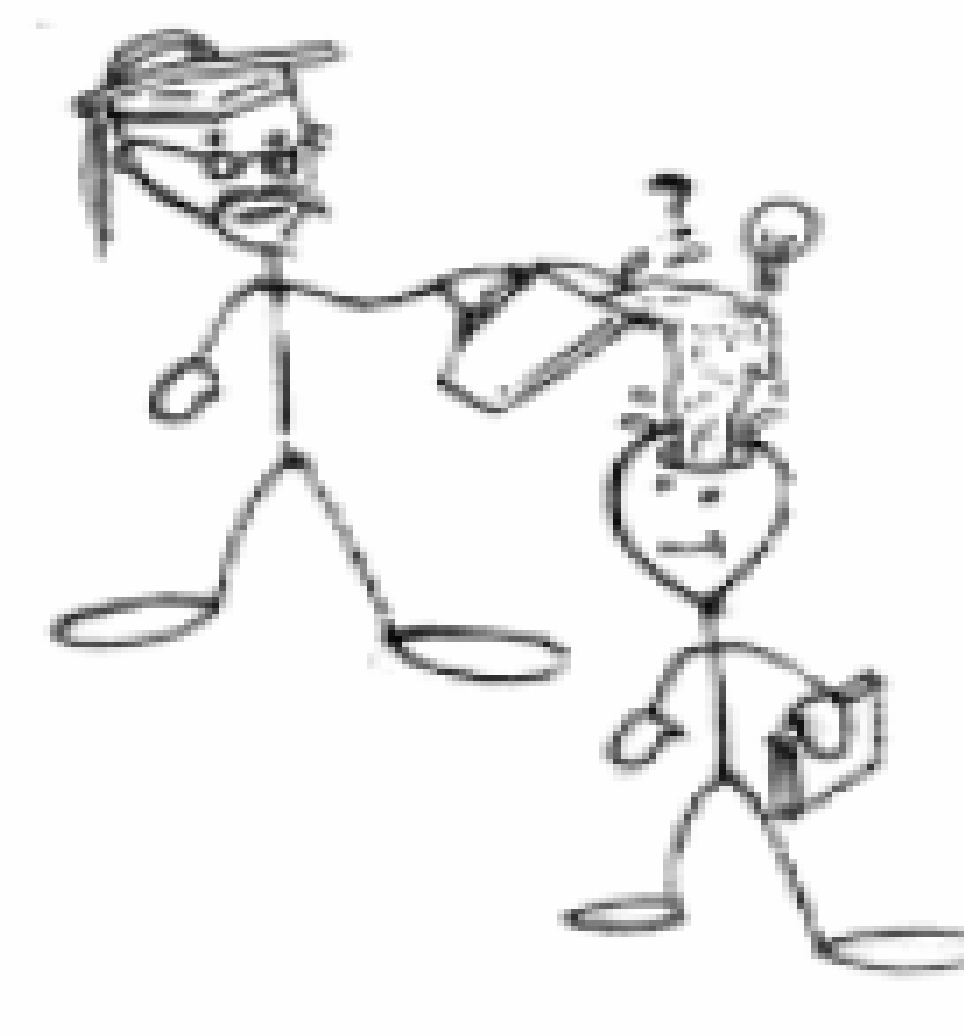
In Wood's (1994:332) opinion, all of these educational practices can be related to an epistemology that contends that knowledge exist in an external world and philosophy that claim information is acquired through processes of perception and representation of the external world. According to Zuber-Skerritt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

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

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

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

Figure 3.1 Traditional learning



(Adapted from Zuber-Skerritt, 2001:13)

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

Table 3.1 Matrix of teaching learning approaches

Role of teacher	Transmitter	Manager	Facilitator	Collaborator
Nature of knowledge	Universal, objective and fixed (independent of the knower	Universal and "objective" (influenced by knower's prior knowledge	Individually constructed; "objective" (contingent on knower's intellectual development)	Socially constructed; "subjective" (distributed across knowers
Grounding theoretical tradition	Behaviourism	Information processing	Cognitive constructivism	Social constructivism
Metaphorical view of learner	Switchboard	Computer	Naïve scientist	Apprentice
Nature of teaching activity	*Present reality to learners* • disseminate information incrementally • demonstrate procedures • reinforce habits during independent practice	*Help learners to process reality* • assemble information • model expert memory and thinking strategies • foster metacognition	*Challenge learner's conception of reality* • promote disequilibrium with discrepant objects and events • guide learners through problem solving activities • monitor reflective thinking	*Participate with learners in constructing reality* • elicit and adapt to learners (mis)conceptions • engage in open-ended inquiries with learners • guide self and learners to authentic resources and procedures
Nature of learner activity	*Replicate reality to learners* • listen • rehearse • recite	*Manipulate reality* • perceive through senses • Practice thinking and memorizing activities • Practice self-regulatory strategies	E*xperience reality during physical and social activity* • Assimilate information • Develop new schemes and operations to deal with novel experiences • Reflect on physical, social, and intellectual discoveries	*Create reality during physical and social activity* • Manufacture "situated" (cultural understandings • Actively engage in open-ended enquiries with peers and teachers • Reflect on constructed meaning

(Adapted from Scheurman, 1998:7)

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

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

3.5.3 Leadership roles of the teacher in instructionist setting

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

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

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

3.6 PHILOSOPHICAL APPROACHES TO CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

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

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

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

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

3.6.1 Teacher power bases

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

3.6.1.1 Attractive/Referent power

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

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

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

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

3.6.1.2 Expert power

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

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

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

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

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

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

3.6.1.3 Legitimate power

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

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

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

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

3.6.1.4 Reward/Coercive power

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

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

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

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

Table 3.2 below illustrates the different teacher power bases.

Table 3.2: Teacher Power Bases

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

(Adapted from Levin and Nolan, 2000:81)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

3.6.2 CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT THEORIES

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

3.6.2.1 Learner-directed management

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

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

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

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

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

3.6.2.2 Collaborative management

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

3.6.2.3 Teacher-directed management

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Table 3.3 Theories of classroom management

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

(Adapted from Levin & Nolan, 2000:92)

3.7 MODELS OF CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Table 3.4 Management theorists and Management Models

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

(Adapted from Wiseman & Hunt, 2001:60)

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

3.8 CONCLUSION

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

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

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

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH ON INSTRUCTIONIST AND CONSTRUCTIVIST CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to critically discuss some of the empirical research undertaken into classroom management practices. The purpose of this discussion is to review the available evidence with the view to answer the question: does research indicate a need to adopt different classroom management practices to those used traditionally.

From my own teaching and classroom management experiences in the traditional/content-based curriculum, behaviourist tradition seems to dominate classroom management principles and processes. For example, in planning a lesson plan, the focus, among other things, is on the techniques and methods that could be used in a step-by-step manner to create individualised and competitive learning environment; and on that which would make the transmission of new knowledge effective (rote learning, teach/re-teach, mastering of skills). Also, learning material, content and new knowledge to be transferred to the learners is organised in a way that is relevant to proven and accepted learning principles (from known to the unknown, from simple to the complex, from concrete to the abstract, from particular to the general, and from the general to the particular). Control is teacher-centered, locating the greater power in the hands of the teacher to exercise discipline. Evaluation, on acquired knowledge, is in the form of external examinations and tests. In this tradition, tests and examinations measure educational progress, according to the amount of knowledge acquired or understood, following a course of instruction (Elliot, 1984:61).

The behaviourist approach to classroom management, in which I was trained at the training college, is informed and guided by a number of assumptions. Among others, this approach sees a learner a *tabula rasa*, teachers authority is informed by the doctrine of *in loco parentis*, *Christian*-orientated characteristic that sees managing and regulating

learner behaviour/activity as a scriptural mandate, and dogmatic view of knowledge that underpins mechanistic worldview.

In this chapter some of the empirical research undertaken into classroom management practices will be reviewed. Research conducted on classroom management, in both developed and developing countries, ranging from 1980 to 2005 into instructionist and constructivist classroom management practices, have been grouped. In the analysis of the empirical studies, the focus in each case will be on the following questions:

- What was the context within which the study was undertaken?;
- What was the purpose of the study?;
- What was the situation investigated (including the type of classroom management practices used)?;
- What did they find and do the findings suggest an alternative approach to classroom management; does it offered a critique of the practices in used?; and
- What is my own reflective critique on the findings.

4.2 INSIGHTS ON INSTRUCTIONIST CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT TEXTS

The purpose of this analysis is to find studies rooted in the traditional classroom management paradigm. There is a considerable volume of research on instructionist classroom management. The focus, among others, is on staff/teacher development; classroom behaviour and academic performance, criterion referenced assessment; management of classroom behaviour problems and discipline; academic performance and learner behaviour; motivation and academic performance; implications of classroom climate on diverse, linguistic and socio-economic background.

In this study, thirty articles have been reviewed. Of these thirty articles, fifteen have been used, to illustrate the trends in terms of the methodology and their findings (see the cases 1 to 15). In this analysis, Tables 2.1 to 2.3 dealing with Positivist and Interpretivist/Phenomenological Research Paradigms, Differences between traditional

and emerging worldviews and Matrix of paradigmatic value systems respectively were used as tools to classify the studies in terms of their paradigmatic roots.

4.2.1 Cases

The cases (1 to 15) below deal with studies conducted on instructionist classroom management.

Case 1

Grossman's (1984) research is **quantitative** in nature and it used **survey** methodology. It was undertaken in the context of cultural perspective on classroom management. The purpose of this study was to explore what counsellors, teachers, psychologists and others should know about the Hispanic culture in order to work more effectively with Hispanic learners and their parents. The findings suggest that instruction affects classroom management of Hispanic learners, the assessment of Hispanic learners, and the counselling of the learners and their parents.

Case 2

Evertson's (1988) research is **quantitative** in nature and used **field experiments**. This study was undertaken in the context of classroom organisation and management. It was aimed firstly to validate research-based principles of classroom organization and management found in correlational research to be related to instructional and managerial effectiveness in elementary classrooms (grades 1-6); Secondly, to determine if school district personnel and other teachers could conduct management workshops and collect data on teachers' use of the principles and thirdly, to assess whether professional development workshops in classroom management could provide additional skills to teachers already trained in the state's instructional skills programme. The findings showed that workshops and classroom observations could be accomplished by personnel, and that the experimental group that exceeded the control group in the use of key management principles, had better learner task engagement, and had less inappropriate behaviour.

Case 3

Clea, McNeely, Nonnemaker and Blum's (2002) study was undertaken in the **quantitative** approach in the context of discipline, and it employed the **survey** method**.** The purpose of the study was to explore the classroom management programme that increased school connectedness and promoted self-discipline. Its findings suggest that learners who participate in extracurricular activities, receive higher grades, and do not skip school, they feel more attached to the school. As learners grow older, they feel less attached to the school.

Case 4

Murchú's (2002) research is **quantitative** in nature and was undertaken in the context of classroom management teacher roles. This study used **survey** (electronic-questionnaire) in the collection of data. The purpose of this study was to analyse how the roles of teachers and learners in different classroom settings are altered as a result of computer-based technologies. The findings from this randomly chosen sample of in-service teachers in a variety of elementary schools, reveal that technology is being used in a variety of ways to improve classroom instruction in the Gaelic language. Teacher and learner roles are being altered in ways that are reflective, not only of the presence of technology, but also of the efforts at spontaneous and systematic school and curriculum reform.

Case 5

Brouwers, and Tomic's (2000) study is **quantitative** in nature and used **experiments** and was undertaken in the context of self-efficacy in classroom management The aim of the study was to examine the direction and time-frame of relationships between perceived self-efficacy in classroom management and the three dimensions of burnout among 243 secondary school teachers. The results show that the direction and time-frame (five months longitudinal or synchronous) of relationships between the variables were different for the three burnout dimensions.

Case 6

Jonnavithula and Kinshuk's (2005) study employed **experiments** and is **quantitative** in nature. The study was undertaken in the context teaching and learning approach. Its purpose was to explore the multimedia technology and the Nintendo generation entering schools in recent years, creating opportunities to transform the current traditional practices. Its findings suggest the traditional idea that teacher, as a provider of all relevant information and monitor of each learner's learning, requires reconsideration.

Case 7

Collen's (1994) research employed **quantitative** approach and used a **survey** method; it was undertaken in the context of in-service training. It was aimed at improving classroom management skills by means of Inset programmes. Its findings suggest that teacher/s increasingly complex role as classroom manager, needs revision and analysis; and teachers have more challenging, diversified and larger responsibility for the instructional programme.

Case 8

Pfiffner *et al.*'s (1985) study is **quantitative** in nature and used **experimental** methodology. It was undertaken in the context of behaviour and academic performance of eight, second- and third-grade children with behaviour problems. The purpose of this study was to investigate the question of, whether or not, an all-positive approach to classroom management can be effective. Results indicated that an all-positive approach that relied primarily on praise, was not effective. When an individualized reward system was used, the children's rates of on-task behaviour were high and stable. Similar effects were observed for academic productivity.

Even though traditional classroom management is informed and guided by scientific worldview, other studies conducted in traditional classroom management are qualitative in nature – consistent with the emerging paradigm (see cases 9 to 15).

Case 9

Schaverien and Cosgrove (1997) research used **quantitative and qualitative approaches (mixed method research)** and used **case study** and **experimental** methodology. This study was undertaken in the context of professional development and in-service teacher education. The purpose of the study was to explore professional development and in-service teacher education. Its findings dialog that there is a significant difference in a mentor supported teacher as she aligned her former instructionist teaching methods with a generative style of learning.

Case 10

Evertson (1994) study is **qualitative** in nature and used **case studies;** it was undertaken in the context of classroom organisation, management and discipline. Its purpose was to investigate the essential features of classroom organization, management and discipline. Its findings suggest that text emphasizes prevention through planning and addresses decisions teachers must make in the typical classroom, e.g., arranging physical space, choosing rules and procedures, planning and conducting instruction, maintaining appropriate behaviour, using good communication skills, dealing with problem behaviour, and managing special groups.

Case 11

Kameenui and Darch (1995) research used **qualitative** approach and employed **action research** methodology. This study was undertaken in the context of instructional classroom management. Its purpose was to explore the basic concepts and strategies for thinking about instructional classroom management and reviews general strategies for rethinking and reorganizing a classroom to reflect an instructional classroom management approach. The findings of the study suggest that instructional classroom management approaches the learner behaviour are based on the premise that strategies for teaching and managing social behaviour are not different from strategies for teaching subject matter.

Case 12

Richardson and Fallona's (2001) study is **qualitative in nature and** used **case study** and **observations**. The purpose of this study was to investigate classroom management as method and manner. The findings suggest that there is a trend towards a more holistic view of the teacher on his/her conducts. Teachers classroom management practices are influenced by his/her set of value systems and beliefs.

Case 13

Undertaken in the context of cooperative setting, Doyle's (1980) research used **content analysis** and is **qualitative** in nature. The purpose of this study was to investigate a foundation for effective classroom management and focuses on some of the basic processes involved in creating a cooperative atmosphere in the classroom. The findings of the study indicate that effective management requires: (1) extensive knowledge of what is likely to happen in classrooms; (2) ability to process a large amount of information rapidly; and (3) skill in carrying out effective actions over a long period of time.

Case 14

Glasser (1993), in the context of management and leadership, using **qualitative** approach employed **content analysis** and **case study**. The purpose of this study was to explore specific suggestions to teachers who are attempting to relinquish old boss-management systems by putting the newer lead-management theory into practice in their classrooms. The results of the study showed that leading, rather than bossing, creates classrooms in which learners not only do competent work but also begin to do quality work.

Case 15

Sandholtz' (1990) research was undertaken in the context of change management. It used **content analysis** and **case study** and is **qualitative** in nature**.** The purpose of this study was to investigate management changes that occurred in teaching and learning in the new computerized classroom environment. It is concluded that teachers learned to use the technology to enhance learner motivation, interest and learning, and incorporated

technology in their teaching in such a way that they could not imagine teaching without it.

4.2.2 Findings

Emerging from the analysis, most of the studies conducted in the instructionist classroom management has a number characteristic features. Among others, these studies largely depart on a quantitative and positivist framework. Neuman (1997:63) asserts that positivist researchers prefer precise quantitative data and often use experiments, survey, and statistics. According to cases 1 to 8, a significant number of studies adopted research methods such as: survey, questionnaires and field and/or laboratory experiments where samples were used.

The other feature is that of variables – dependent and independent variables. Analytical research is concerned with determining the relationship between two or more variables. Also, analytical research follows from the descriptive research, instead of only describing, it analyses and explains the phenomena by measuring the relations of variables. This type of research relies implicitly on the cause and effect relationship. Almost all studies deal with two or more variables, for example, the relationship between the variables include: classroom organization, management, and discipline; instruction and classroom management; roles of teachers and computer-based technologies; classroom organization and management; the direction and time-frame of relationships and self-efficacy in classroom management; multimedia technology and transformation of current traditional practices; classroom management skills and insert programmes.

The other distinguishing feature is that of the hypotheses. The hypotheses in these studies have several characteristics: have at least two variables, express a casual relationship or cause-effect relationship between the variables, expressed as a prediction or an expected future outcome, logically linked to the research question and falsifiable.

In a positivist tradition, human behaviour is a quantifiable construct. Neuman (1997:63) claims that positivism reduces people to numbers and is concerned with abstract laws or formulas. In cases where survey and experimental methods were employed in traditional management studies, the use of inferential and descriptive statistics is involved. Results are presented in terms of numbers, graphs, and charts. Qualitative researchers, as observed by Sechrest and Sidani (1995:79), regularly use terms like many, most, frequently, several, never. These results have a tendency of being generalisable, especially beyond the sample, and are used to predict a particular behavioural pattern.

Interestingly, Schaverien and Cosgrove's (1997) study finds itself trapped between the two competing paradigms. Even though traditional classroom management is largely informed and guided by the scientific paradigm, other studies (Doyle, 1980; Richardson & Fallona, 2001; Glasser, 1993; Evertson, 1994; Sandholtz, 1990; Kameenui & Darch, 1995) broke away from the quantitative framework. They used qualitative methodologies such as, case study, observations, action research and content analysis.

A significant number of researches on traditional classroom management are mechanistic in nature. Among others, these studies are characterised by linear cause-effect and unidirectional interaction, explained by deductive reasoning; and is sometimes referred to as explanatory research. Thus, research on traditional classroom management fits through scientific paradigmatic lens.

From these studies, I have gained a number of ideas in instructionist classroom management: Among, other things, it could be concluded as follows:

(1) Instruction affects classroom management;
(2) The use of key management principles, have better learner task engagement and less inappropriate behaviour;
(3) Learners who participate in extra-curricular activities, receive higher grades,
(4) There is a significant difference in a mentor supported teacher as he/she aligned his/her former instructionist teaching methods with a generative style of learning;

(5) Text emphasizes prevention through planning and addresses the decisions that the teachers make in the typical classroom;
(6) Instructional classroom management approaches learner behaviour based on the premise that strategies for teaching and managing social behaviour are not different from strategies for teaching subject matter;
(7) Teachers classroom management practices are influenced by his/her set of value systems and beliefs;
(8) Effective classroom management requires: (1) extensive knowledge of what is likely to happen in classrooms; (2) ability to process a large amount of information rapidly; and (3) skill in carrying out effective actions over a long period of time;
(9) Leading, rather than bossing, creates classrooms in which learners not only do competent work but also begin to do quality work; and
(10) The use the technology to enhance learner motivation, interest and learning.

Interestingly, the last three (8,9 &10) findings are indicative of a move towards the emerging paradigm as an evolutionary process rather than a discontinuous jump (mutation) to a new paradigm. Even though instructionist classroom is trapped in the traditional paradigm, there appears a need for a change in practice. From the analysis I have learned the following:

(1) Teacher and learner roles are being altered in ways that are reflective, not only of the presence of technology, but also of the efforts at spontaneous and systematic school and curriculum reform;
(2) Traditional idea that a teacher as a provider of all relevant information and monitor of each learner's learning requires reconsideration;
(3) Teacher/s increasingly complex role as classroom manager needs revision and analysis; and
(4) When individualized reward system is used, the children's rates of on-task behaviour are high and stable.

4.3 INSIGHTS ON CONSTRUCTIVIST CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT: DERIVING FORM ANALYSIS OF TEXTS

An array research has been conducted on the subject of constructivism, among others, these include studies on instructional methods, assessment, classroom management and interactions with learners. In this study, fifty articles, ranging from 1980 to 2005, from both local and international literature, dealing with aspects of classroom management in constructivist teaching and learning situation, were reviewed. Of these fifty articles I have used twenty-eight to demonstrate the trends in terms of the research focus, methodology and findings (see cases 1 to 28). In this analysis, Tables 2.1 to 2.3 dealing with Positivist and Interpretivist/Phenomenological Research Paradigms, Differences between traditional and emerging worldviews and Matrix of paradigmatic value systems respectively were used as tools to classify the studies in terms of their paradigmatic roots.

4.3.1 Cases

The cases presented below, focus on studies conducted on constructivist classroom management.

Case 1

Akar and Yildirim's (2004) study, undertaken in the context of change management, is **qualitative** in nature and used **a case study methodology**. The purpose of this study was to investigate the conceptual change teacher candidates went through in the process of a constructivist-learning environment in Classroom Management Course. This study showed that the learning environment and the classroom culture might have an impact on the teacher candidates' conceptions of classroom management.

Case 2

Stipek and Byler's (2004) research, undertaken in the context of assessment, used both **qualitative** and **quantitative** approaches, and employed case **study and survey** methods. The purpose of the study was to assess a new measure of early childhood classroom

practice in 127 kindergarten- and first-grade classrooms. The findings indicate that the measure produced reliable scores and meaningful, predictable associations were found between scores on the observation measure, on the one hand, and teachers' self-reported practices, teaching goals, relationships with children, and perceptions of children's ability to be self-directed learners, on the other.

Case 3

In the context of the school, Dollard and Christensen's (1996) study was undertaken in the **qualitative** approach and used **case study, interviews, observations and field notes** as research methods. The aim of the study was to explore the importance of constructive classroom management for a meaningful dialogue and relationship among teachers, learners, administrators and other school personnel, changes in the vision of schooling; constructivist approach; cognitive restructuring; and behavioural techniques. The findings of this study indicate that positive relationships are characterised by trust, respect and understanding. Learner-teacher relationships are transformative – provide context for personal growth for learners. Dialogue is a vehicle for shared understandings and a tool for building trusting relationships in which learners feel safe in expressing their perspectives. Behavioural techniques are increasingly portrayed and interpreted as nefarious instruments of a curriculum control.

Case 4

Bloom, Perlmutter, and Burrell (1999) study used **phenomenological** methodology and was **qualitative** in nature. It was undertaken in the context of discipline. The purpose of this study was to explore strategies for managing classroom behaviour of children with behavioural problems; teachers' concerns about the inclusion of children with special needs; application of a constructivist approach by capitalizing on the social context and social activity in a classroom; and strategies for teaching children how to manage their own behaviour and be responsible members of a community. The findings revealed that teachers, who provide nurturing climates, communicate clear expectations, create a partnership with their learners, and build self-worth, might find the inclusion of children

with special education needs an asset rather than a nightmare. Inclusive classrooms can provide a rich context for learning about diversity and taking care of each other.

Case 5

Brewer and Daane's (2003) research is **qualitative** in nature and used **individual interviews field notes, observations, video tapes** in collecting data. The study was undertaken in the context of teaching and learning mathematics. The aim of the study was to determine if eight primary-grade mathematics teachers articulate a constructivist philosophy of teaching and learning mathematics. From the interviews, emerged four main themes concerning the teachers' perceptions: (1) The learning is an active, constructive process; (2) new knowledge is built on prior knowledge; (3) autonomy is promoted; and (4) social interaction is necessary for knowledge construction.

Case 6

Au's (1998) study, undertaken in the context of school literacy of learning of learners from diverse background, adopted **qualitative** approach and used **content analysis** methodology. The purpose of this study was to explore the school literacy of learning of learners from diverse background. The findings of this study suggest that the philosophical tensions are evident in the very framing of the problem of the literacy achievement gap. In addition, tensions reside in differing perspectives of mainstream researchers and researchers from the underrepresented groups.

Case 7

Kruger's (2003) study was undertaken in the **qualitative** approach in the context of the school culture. It used **semi structured interviews, observations and examination of documents**. The purpose of this study was to explore instructional management programme in building a productive school culture. The results suggest that in both schools, there is an apparent emphasis on academic aspects of both teachers and principals. The principal's direct involvement in instructional matters are very limited, virtually non-existent, and they influence the culture of teaching and learning in a more formal way. As a result of increasing responsibilities, the principals' instructional task is

being shared with the teachers. The requirements of the new curricular have also contributed to new initiatives of curriculum leadership where senior teachers bear the responsibility for instructional leadership and curriculum management. Subject departments are the structural elements of instructional leadership and management.

Case 8

Kotze's (1999) study, undertaken in the context of assessment, is located in the **qualitative** approach and adopted **observations, document analysis** as research methods. The aim of this study was to investigate assessment in outcomes-based approach. The results of this study suggest that assessment in its traditional form will have to be expanded to provide for the aspirations of an outcomes-based approach. In addition, new assessment methods will have to be developed in order to evaluate performances and processes, cognitive skills and problem solving strategies.

Case 9

Nakabugo and Sieböger (1999) study was undertaken in the context of assessment in Curriculum 2005. It is **qualitative** in nature and used **pre-investigation interview, pre-investigation observation, video observation** and **document analysis** as research methods. Its purpose was to investigate continuous and formative assessment on OBE. The results indicated that formative assessment appears to require shift from regarding teaching as the transmission of knowledge, to viewing teaching as an interactive activity in which both the teacher and the learner participate in the teaching and learning process.

Case 10

Onwu and Stoffels (2005) used a mixed method approach, drawing on both **quantitative** and **qualitative** methods – **semi structured, open-ended questionnaires** and **teachers' reflection** on how their science lessons were typically structured and sequenced. This study was undertaken in the context of subject (science and mathematics) classroom practice in OBE. Its purpose was to investigate the perceptions/attitudes of teachers in instructional functions in large, under-resourced sciences outcomes-based classes in South Africa. The findings suggest that teachers of large under-resourced science classes

resort to instructional functions dominated by lecturing and demonstration science teachers may hear about constructivist teaching, outcomes-based teaching and inquiry science learning, but for them they appear to be no more than just words.

Case 11

Alleman and Brophy's (1998) study is **qualitative** in nature and used **historical** methodology; and was undertaken in the context of classroom techniques and constructivist learning. The aim of the study was to trace historical perspectives of classroom management, and investigate the teacher and learner roles, classroom techniques and constructivist perspectives on learning. The results showed that management systems and learner roles should support instructional systems and learner roles should be clearly articulated in the planning process for instruction, taking into account learners' roles emphasised in social constructivist classroom.

Case 12

Osborne's (1997) study is **qualitative** in nature and used the **case study** method; it was undertaken in the context of cooperative learning setting**.** Its purpose was to explore balancing individuality and individual ability to work within a group. The study suggests that the roles present a number of dilemmas for the teacher – how to construct these experiences so that all children can participate and contribute, how to reward both individual and group actions, and how to maintain control in the classroom where freedom is important.

Case 13

Youssef's (2003) research, in the context of classroom management beliefs and practices, classroom discipline, was undertaken in the **qualitative** approach using **case study, analysis of document and artefacts, classroom observations and interviews** (teachers and learners). The purpose of this study was to explore teachers' and learners' classroom management beliefs and practices, classroom discipline as a comprehensive part of classroom management. The results showed that the influences of teachers' classroom management beliefs on their classroom management practices need to be more probed in

order to explore how other understandings that teachers hold, might have influence on their classroom practices. In this study, one teacher's understanding influenced her class management practices more than her classroom management beliefs.

Case 14

Mintrop's (2001) research, in the context of constructivist teaching, adopted mix methods approach, using both **quantitative** and **qualitative** approaches – **case study and experimental** methods. The study explored a teacher education programme module that cantered on an ambitious constructivist teaching model. The findings suggest that the programme generated a great deal of inspired pioneering; but technical skill and keen observation was submerged at times in ideological commitment. Novices maintained their vision and motivation for the constructivist model.

Case 15

Combrinck's (2003) study is **qualitative** in nature – it used **qualitative and descriptive interviews**. It was undertaken in the context of outcomes-based assessment. The purpose of this study was to examine the realities and problems surrounding outcomes-based assessment, both in theory and practice, in selected overseas countries where OBE is implemented. The findings of the study suggest that, in general, it seems that parents and teachers accepted the new assessment approach, although they will always be those people reacting negatively to the new system; overwhelming consensus from all the teachers that (all) the new assessment approach increases workload of the teacher but at the same time acknowledges that it promotes creativity. A major problem is the lack of in-service training. Also, this study found that a proper policy and implementation process would probably solve assessment problems.

Case 16

Haney and McArthur's (2002) research was undertaken in the context of constructivist classroom practices. It was aimed at investigating the emerging constructivist beliefs and classroom practices. This study employed a mix methods approach, using both **quantitative** and **qualitative** approaches **– case studies, classroom observations,**

document analysis, interviews and survey (questionnaire). The findings from the case studies suggest that at least two kinds of beliefs were in operation: central beliefs and peripheral beliefs. The central beliefs were defined as those dictating subsequent teaching behaviours whereas peripheral beliefs were those that were stated but not operationalized.

Case 17

The purpose of Clare and Aschbacher's (2001) study was to explore **qualitatively** the technical quality of using assignments and learners' work as indicators of classroom practice where **case study** and **classroom observations** were used as research methods. Results suggest that the quality of assignments was statistically associated with the quality of observed instruction and learner work. The method of using assignments and learners' work as indicators of classroom practice shows promise for use in large-scale evaluation settings and identifies important dimensions of practice that could support teacher self-evaluation and reflection.

Case 18

A **qualitative** study, in the context of teacher-training and assessment, undertaken by Hollingsworth (1989) used **interview and observations** as data gathering instruments. This longitudinal study aimed at investigating the changes in pre-service teachers' knowledge and beliefs about reading instruction before, during and after a fifth-year teacher education programme. It further explored the management, assessment and facilitation of learner learning through text. The findings include the importance of understanding pre-service teachers' prior beliefs to inform supervision and university course design, the value of cognitive dissonance in practice teaching context, the need to routine classroom management knowledge before attending to specific subject pedagogy, and the importance of the academic tasks as part of the teaching knowledge base.

Case 19

Pintrich *et al.*'s (1993) study, in the context of teaching and learning, is **qualitative** in nature and used **conceptual analysis.** The purpose of this study was to explore the role of motivational beliefs and classroom contextual factors in the process of conceptual

change. The findings of the study suggest that learners' prior conceptual knowledge influences all aspects of learners processing information for their perception of the cues in the environment.

Case 20

Rhodes and Roux's (2004) study is **qualitative** in nature and employed **analysis of documents and artefacts**, and **classroom observations**. It was undertaken in the context of teaching and learning. Its purpose was to investigate the values and beliefs in outcomes-based curriculum in C2005 and NCS. The results of the study indicate that there is a need for teachers to be sensitised to the different values embedded in each belief system and all cultural orientations. The prevalence of values and beliefs systems in OBE curricular of C2005 and the NCS will have to be acknowledged, identified and promoted.

Case 21

Schulze's (2003) study, in the context of teaching and learning, was undertaken using a mixed method approach – **quantitative** and **qualitative** – where **case study and survey** (**structured questionnaire**) were used for data collection. The aim of this study was to investigate a move from content-based to outcomes-based education in distance education The finding of the study suggest that many lecturers are used to struggling in isolation with design issues; and favour traditional teaching practices with which they are familiar. Resistance to change is aggravated by heavy workloads during a time when transformation issues may impact negatively on positive attitudes; and basic knowledge of understanding contemporary learning theories, e.g., constructivist learning theories, are important.

Case 22

Rainer, Guyton and Bowen's (2000) study examined how primary school teachers implemented constructivist education into their kindergarten through second-grade classrooms. In this study, a mixed method approach, using both **quantitative** and **qualitative** approaches was employed, i.e. **classroom observations, interviews and**

surveys were used as data gathering instruments. The findings revealed that three teachers used more traditional approaches and three used more constructivist approaches. All scored high on the constructivist teaching scale of the Teachers' Belief Survey. The traditional teachers scored just as high on the behaviourist scale, whereas the constructivist teachers scored significantly lower. Teaching processes varied between the two groups, although both groups respected children, motivated hands-on activities, and provided effective management.

Case 23

File and Gullo (2002), in the context of classroom practices, employed **a** mixed method approach (**quantitative** and **qualitative)** and used **interviews and a survey as data gathering tools.** The purpose of this study was to examine the viewpoints of 119 pre-service teachers at the beginning or end of the programmes in early childhood (ECED) or elementary education (ELED). The findings showed that compared to ELED learners, ECED learners favoured primary education practices more consistent with constructivist nature of NAEYC guidelines in several areas. Learner teachers favoured more frequent use of less developmentally appropriate behaviour management strategies than did beginning learners.

Case 24

LeBlanc, Lacey, and Adler's (2000) research is qualitative in nature and employed **case study, interviews** and **classroom observations**. It was undertaken in the context of classroom management and discipline. The purpose of this study was to evaluate a second grade teacher and her learners and investigate the implementation of a conflict resolution programme in the classroom. The findings indicated that the teacher improved her effectiveness in classroom management and discipline: learners felt safe, and both the teacher and the learners successfully used conflict resolution.

Case 25

Akyurekoglu's (2000) study, in the context of teaching and learning, is **qualitative** in nature and used **interviews**. Its aim was to examine the perceptions of middle school

teachers at the Miami Shores/Barry University Charter School (Florida) toward using computers in a classroom environment. The data revealed an overarching theme of using computers as tools for different purposes; and computers are perceived as teaching tools, classroom management tools, and communicative tools.

Case 26

Jensen (2000) used a mixed method approach, drawing on both **quantitative** and **qualitative** methods (**case study, interviews, observations and survey questionnaires**). This study was undertaken in the context of teaching and learning in cooperative setting. Its purpose was to explore classroom management using small group theory selected based on its ties to constructivist pedagogy. The findings of the study suggest the overall, participants learned best from cases about which they had prior knowledge. They found experiential learning very important and considered discussion moderately helpful.

Case 27

Foster's (1998) research was undertaken in the context of leadership in constructivist setting. The aim of this study was to investigate how learners, parents, and staff of 2 schools with reputations for success (they were among 21 schools in the Canadian Education Association's Exemplary School Project) experience and understand constructivist leadership. This study is **qualitative** in nature – **interviews** with staff members, learners and parents; regular **observations** of classroom, hallway and extracurricular activities, observations of school meetings were adopted as research methods. The results of the study showed that teacher leadership was found to be important. The principal, learner and parent respondents in both schools believed that each school's reputation for success was due largely to the efforts and expertise of the teachers. They also believed that the small size of the schools was a critical factor in supporting respectful relationships and a positive school environment.

Case 28

Fleener's (1995) study undertaken in the context of teaching and learning, **qualitatively** examined 65 pre-service teachers' metaphors for describing roles of the mathematics

teacher using **interviews, observations** and **field notes**. The findings of this study reveal that learner metaphors were not systematic across the three roles. Actualising visions of mathematics learning consistent with constructivist pedagogy will require teachers and pre-teachers to reconcile beliefs with personal interactions and roles in the classroom by engaging in critical reflection about teacher roles.

4.3.2 Findings

In the light of the cases presented above, research on constructivist classroom management covers a variety of aspects in different cultural settings within the organisational framework. Among others, it deals with the conceptual change teacher candidates went through in the process of a constructivist-learning environment in classroom management course; how primary school teachers implemented constructivist education into their kindergarten through second-grade classrooms; the role of motivational beliefs and classroom contextual factors in the process of conceptual change; changes in pre-service teachers' knowledge and beliefs about reading instruction before; strategies for managing classroom behaviour of children with behavioural problems; realities and problems around outcomes-based assessment, both in theory and practice; investigates values and beliefs in outcomes-based curriculum in C2005 and NCS; and teachers' and learners' classroom management beliefs and practices, classroom discipline as comprehensive part of classroom management.

There seems to be multiple characteristic features common in research conducted in constructivist classroom management. A significant number of the studies conducted in constructivist classroom management appear to fit through the lens of the emerging paradigm – they are largely qualitative in nature and adopted dialogical research methods. Most distinguishing paradigmatic features in these studies are that they used small samples; were conducted in a natural setting; deal with generalising theories and generalises from one setting to another; used rich and subjective data, and have low credibility and trustworthiness in terms of the findings. Also, these studies are holistic in

nature; deal with non-linear relationships and mutual causality; and see relationship between entities as fluid, systematic and integrative orders.

According to cases 1 to 28, a significant number of qualitative methods were used. In these studies, combinations of two or more approaches were used. These approaches include: case studies, classroom observations, document analysis, interviews, survey (questionnaire), conceptual analysis, pre-investigation observation and video observation. The findings are richly descriptive. Research efforts emphasize the cultural framework of social and subjective reality. Almost in all cases, words rather than numbers are used to convey what the researcher has learned about the phenomenon.

From these studies, I have gained a number of ideas in constructivist classroom management. Among other things, it could be inferred that:

(1) Management systems and learner roles should support instructional systems;
(2) Learner roles should be clearly articulated in the planning process for instruction taking into account learners' roles emphasised in social constructivist classroom;
(3) Formative assessment requires a shift from regarding teaching as the transmission of knowledge, to viewing teaching as an interactive activity in which both the teacher and the learner participate in the teaching and learning process;
(4) Teachers, who provide nurturing climates, communicate clear expectations, create a partnership with their learners, and build self-worth, may find the inclusion of special children an asset rather than a nightmare;
(5) Inclusive classrooms provide a rich context for learning about diversity and taking care of each other;
(6) Social interaction is necessary for knowledge construction;
(7) The principals' instructional task is being shared with the teachers;
(8) There is a need for teachers to be sensitised to the different values embedded in each belief system and all cultural orientations;
(9) Assessment in its traditional form will have to be expanded to provide for the aspirations of an outcomes-based approach; and

(10) New assessment methods will have to be developed in order to evaluate performances and processes, cognitive skills and problem solving strategies.

4.4 CONCLUSION

From the analysis of studies conducted on instructionist classroom management, it emerged that a significant number of studies are corroborating traditional approaches and practices to management that are anchored in the traditional paradigm. In contrast, the main insights and the emerging trends on constructivist classroom management studies are calling for a new approach that is anchored in the emerging paradigm. Thus classroom management in outcomes-based setting should depart on an emerging paradigm plane.

CHAPTER 5

CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS OF CONSTRUCTIVIST CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Although education has witnessed a large number of technological advances over the past 50 years, the concept on which the education system is based did not change, especially, at classroom level. Jonnavithula and Kinshuk (2005) note that schools are still organised in very traditional ways. Teaching generally precedes with the assumption that all relevant information can be provided by the teacher together with the few books that can be made available in school. Research by Dollard and Christensen (1996:1) indicates that while considerable attention has been given to constructive teaching strategies, very little has been given to managing classrooms that are based on constructivist philosophy. Also, Henning's (1995:128) research on classroom (from the view of social constructivism) suggests that the emphasis in South African research seems to have been on the content of the curriculum and on policy and governance, but the nitty-gritty of methodology and management in the classroom have not been researched rigorously.

This chapter, among others, presents a literature review and conceptual historical analysis of constructivism; theories compatible with constructivist thinking; characteristic features of constructivist classroom management; the roles of the teacher in a constructivist classroom management; and organisational perspectives on contingency viewpoint.

5.2 CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS OF "CONSTRUCTIVISM"

In this section, the definition, the philosophical and historical background of constructivism, constructivist assumptions on knowledge and the most widely accepted models/ theories of constructivism will be explored.

5.2.1 The concept "constructivism"

Constructivism is a very broad concept and has many definitions. Despite these multiple definitions, there is greater overlap than there are variations. Prawat (as quoted by Woolfolk, 1995:481) indicates that most agree that it involves a dramatic change in the focus of teaching, putting the learners' own efforts to understand at the centre of the educational enterprise.

There are numerous scholarly writings on the concept constructivism. Considerable literature (Prawat & Floden, 1994:37; Larochelle & Bednarz, 1998:3; Riesbeck, 1996:49; Jonassen, Myers & McKillop, 1996:94; Morrison & Collins, 1996:107; Jonassen, 1991b:28) perceive constructivism as learning theory based on the assumption/idea that knowledge is actively constructed by the learner. In essence it is claimed that constructivism involves a process whereby learners *construct their own reality or* at least interpret it based upon their perceptions of experiences. (http://members.lycos.co.uk/jmoreea/im2141.htm). For Fleury (1998:157), it is a range of ideas about the *production of knowledge and its construction by groups and individuals*. According to Kamii (as quoted by Aldridge, 1999:1), in the Piagetian Framework of constructivism, *knowledge is constructed from the inside*, in interaction with the environment, rather that internalising it directly from the outside. Brewer and Daane (2003:417) see constructivism as a theory according to which each child *builds* knowledge from the inside, through his mental activity, in the environment.

In another perspective, constructivism is perceived as a philosophy of learning that is founded on the premise that we all *construct our own understanding* of the world we live in, through reflection of our experiences (http://ss.uno.edu/SS?Theory/Construc.html); and a theory of knowledge with roots in philosophy, psychology and cybernetics, where *knowledge is constructed by the individual* through his/her interactions with the environment (Murphy, 1997a).

According to Spivey (1994:314), theory of discourse portrays both comprehending and composing as the building, shaping and configuring of meaning. People construct meaning when they compose texts and when they read text and hear texts, and, whether in the role of the composer or comprehender (interpreter), they build their meanings on the basis of knowledge that they bring to the task and develop when performing it in some context (ibid:314). Jonassen, Myers and McKillop (1996:95) contend that the knowledge that we build depends upon what we already know, which depends on the kinds of experiences that we have had, how we have organised those experiences into knowledge structures, and what we believe about those experiences. We construct our understanding of the world through interpreting our experiences in the world (ibid:95).

For the purpose of this study, constructivism will mean a process whereby the learner constructs his/her own understanding, reality and knowledge of the world he/she lives in, through reflection of his/her experiences and through his/her interactions with the environment.

5.2.2 Historical background of constructivism

According to Duit (1994:271), constructivism has a long-standing tradition in the philosophy and practice of education, and also in empirical research. However, there are varying insights about its origin. It is a theory of knowledge rooted in philosophy, psychology and cybernetics, anthropology, the natural sciences, semiotics, socio-linguistics and education (Steier, 1994:69; Boethel & Dimock, 2004:5). Slavin (1994:225) and Duffy and Jonassen (1992:4) suggest that constructivist revolution has deep roots in the history of education. In Heylighen's (1997:3) view, it has its roots in Kant's synthesis of rationalism and empiricism, where it is noted that the subject has no direct access to direct reality, and can only develop knowledge by using fundamental built-in cognitive principles to organise experience. In Maia, Machado and Pacheco's (2005) opinion constructivism was originally conceived by Jean Piaget, as a result of research that began in the 1940's. His observations of how children construct their knowledge have, over the years, formed the basis for his work (ibid).

For most scholars (Aldridge, 1999:1; Slavin, 1994:225; Terwel, 1997:196; Woolfolk, 1995:277; Von Glasersfeld, 1998:25; Von Glasersfeld, 1994:6; Scheurman, 1998:8; Slavin, 1994:225; Perkins, 1992:49; Brewer & Daane, 2003:417; Maia, Machado & Pacheco, 2005; DeVries, 2002:3; Confrey, 1994:199; Steffe, 1994:511), constructivist perspectives are grounded in the research of Piaget, Vygotsky, the Gestalt psychologists, Bartlett and Bruner and as well as the educational philosophy of John Dewey. In Slavin's (1994:225) opinion, constructivism draws heavily on the work of Piaget and Vygotsky, both of whom emphasised that cognitive change only takes place when previous conceptions go through a process of disequilibration in the light of new information; and the social nature of learning and both (Piaget and Vygotsky) suggested the use of mixed ability learning groups to promote conceptual change. Constructivist approaches emphasising discovery, experimentation, and open-ended problems have been successfully applied in mathematics, science, reading, writing and other subjects (ibid:125).

From the first experiments, Piaget developed many theories, describing the stages of a child's cognitive development (Maia, Machado & Pacheco, 2005). Supported by his extensive research work, Piaget established an analysis methodology that set the basis for his learning theory, which is known as Genetic Epistemology (ibid). Literature (Von Glasersfeld 1998:23; Von Glasersfeld, 1994:6; Fleury, 1998:157) indicates that constructivism arose from Piaget (as well as Giambattista Vico, the pioneer of constructivism at the beginning of the 18th century) out of profound dissatisfaction with the theories of knowledge in the tradition of Western philosophy. Giambattista Vico was the first philosopher to speak explicitly of reason as a human activity that constructs scientific knowledge (Von Glasersfeld 1998:25).

Lev Vygotsky is considered to be the most influential figure in the constructivist camp. According to Scheurman (1998:8), accepting Piagets' view of how individuals built private understanding of reality through problem solving with others, Vygotsky further explained how social or cultural contexts contribute to a public understanding of objects

and events. In addition, reality is no longer objective, while knowledge is literally co-constructed by, and distributed among, individuals as they "interact with one another and with the cultural artifacts, such as pictures, texts, discourse and gestures" (ibid:8).

In the following paragraphs, philosophical foundation of constructivism will be explore.

5.2.3 Philosophical foundation of constructivism

Fundamental to understanding the constructivist philosophy, are the answers to the following questions: *How do we come to know that we know? What is knowledge? What is truth? What is reality?* Von Glasersfeld (1994:6) contends that from the beginning, in the 5th century B.C., the sceptics have shown that it is logically impossible to establish the *truth* of any particular piece of knowledge. The necessary comparison of the piece of knowledge with reality it is supposed to represent cannot, be made because the only rational access to that reality is through yet another act of knowing.

Constructivism is a theory of knowledge used to explain how we know what we know. In a complex and multicultural society, *truth* takes many forms, where different contexts and different subcultures support different ways of constructing knowledge, and different ways of understanding what it means to "*know*" something (Morrison & Collins, 1996:108). Vico (as cited by Confrey, 1994:195) holds that "*veum ipsum factum*", which means that the "*truth*" is the same as the made. By implication, this suggests that what passes for truth at one society may be dismissed as hearsay at another.

Von Glasersfeld (1994:6) contends that at the turn of the 20th century, American pragmatists and a number of European thinkers broke away from the traditional concept of knowing. Constructivists hold that there is something wrong with the old concept of knowledge, and proposes to change it rather than to continue the same hopeless struggle to find the solution to the perennial paradox (ibid:6). The change, according to Von Glasersfeld (1994:6), consists of this:

> *Give up the requirement that knowledge represent an independent world, and admit that knowledge represents something that is far more important to us, namely, what we can do with our experiential world, the successful ways of dealing with the objects we call physical and the successful ways of thinking with abstract concepts.*

In this school of thought, knowing an object does not mean copying it – it means acting on it (Confrey, 1994:196). Also, it means constructing systems of transformations that can be carried out on or with this object. For Von Glasersfeld (1994:7), knowing is an adaptive activity. Thus, knowledge should be seen as a compendium of concepts and actions that one has found to be successful, given the purposes one had in mind. In the constructivist stance, *knowledge* and *reality* do not have an objective or absolute value or, at least, that we have no way of knowing this reality (Murphy, 1997a). Von Glasersfeld (1994:6) contends that in a constructivist perspective, the word *"reality"* is defined differently – it is made up of the network of things and relationships that we rely on in our living, and on which, we believe, others rely on, too. In the same vein, Confrey (1994:197) holds that knowing "*reality*" means constructing systems of transformations that correspond, more or less adequately to reality.

Constructivists believe that human reality is in a sense "created" by interpretation and dialogic process (discursive practices) through which people – bound and influenced as they are by the context of their lives – form and modify meanings (Jordaan & Jordaan, 1998:60). In addition, the facts that do exist about human reality are not facts about fixed reality out there – they are shared by means of which people agree on how to interpret their ever changing reality (ibid:60).

In the light of the above, what particular society calls knowledge does not represent some absolute or ultimate truth, but are simply the most viable interpretation of the experimental world. Meaning is seen as rooted in, and indexed by experience.

5.2.4 Constructivist assumptions on knowledge

Constructivism is not just a theory of learning; it is a theory of knowledge (Confrey, 1998:106). However, it has been applied to educational settings, especially on cognitive development programmes. Central to the vision of constructivism is the notion of the organism as "*active*" – not just responding to stimuli, as in behaviourist rubric, but engaging, grappling and seeking to make sense of things (Perkins, 1992:49).

Constructivists maintain that there are many ways to structure the world, and there are many meanings or perspectives for any event. In this school of thought, meaning is seen as rooted in, and indexed by experience (Duffy and Jonassen, 1992:2). Knowledge is absorbed by progressive structuring of the experience, evolving by means of an interactive process of construction (Maia, Machado and Pacheco, 2005). According to Piaget's theories, knowledge, at any level, is generated by a radical interaction between the individual and their environment, departing from structures previously existent in the individual (ibid).

In McMahon's (1997:3) view, learners do not transfer knowledge from the external world into their memories, rather, they create interpretations of the world based upon their past experiences and their interactions in the world. Also, constructivism does not deny the existences of "objective knowledge" since there are many ways to structure the world, and many perspectives or meanings for any event or concept. Advocates of constructivism generally claim that knowledge is not discovered and, the ideas the teachers teach do not correspond to the objective reality (ibid:3).

Given that constructivism comes in varying shades, its advocates have a considerable number of assumptions about knowledge. These, among others, include the following:

- Knowledge does not attempt to produce a copy of reality, but it serves the purpose of adaptation (Von Glasersfeld, 1998:24);

- Knowledge cannot be transmitted; it cannot be neutral either (Larochelle & Bednarz, 1998:6);
- Knowledge is treated as the *object which is known* (by the scholar or teacher), and it belongs either to the external reality or the subject (Morf, 1998:30);
- Knowledge is the legitimised ways of making sense of experience that have proven to be viable from the perspective of the knower and which guides future actions (Confrey, 1998:106);
- Knowledge is actively built by a cognising subject (Fleury, 1998:157);
- Knowledge is constructed from experience (Merrill, 1992:102);
- Constructivism holds that knowing is an adaptive activity (Von Glasersfeld, 1994:7);
- Knowledge is the end product of a series of intervening processes (Prawat & Floden, 1994:41); and
- Knowledge does not reflect an "objective" ontological reality, but exclusively an ordering and organization of the world constituted by our experience (Confrey, 1994:195).

The essence of constructivist theory is the idea that learners must individually discover and transform complex information if they are to make it their own (Slavin, 1994:225). Constructivism is made up of a number of assumptions, among others, it holds that:

- We do not learn from experience but from our reflection on experience;
- learning is how a person interprets the world;
- learning is an active process where meaning is developed for the basis of one's own experience;
- the growth of knowledge evolves through social interactions where multiple perspectives are shared and our own perspectives change through collaborative learning, for an example in cooperative learning; and
- learning should be situated in realistic settings, and testing should be integrated with the task and not the separate activity (http://members.lycos.co.uk/jmoreea/im2141.htm ; Merrill, 1992:102).

The mind is instrumental and essential in interpreting events, objects and perspectives on real world and those interpretations constitute a knowledge base that is personal and individualistic. Constructivist theories of learning hold that learners must individually discover and transform complex information if they are to make it on their own (Jonassen, 1992:38; Slavin, 1994:225). These theories see learners as constantly checking new information against the old rules and then revising the rules when they no longer work. In epistemological perspective, knowledge is not passively received either through senses or by way of communication, but it is built up by cognising the subject (Heylighen, 1997:1). Thus knowledge is only a perception and; it is not a transferable commodity and not a conveyance.

5.2.5 What are the most widely accepted models/ theories of constructivism?

Like many ideas in education, the concept "constructivism" has several significantly varying versions, underpinned by different assumptions, namely: trivial constructivism, radical constructivism, cultural constructivism, social constructivism, critical constructivism, etc. Killen (2000:xviii) notes that originally, constructivism was used to describe a theory of learning. More recently, it has become associated with a theory of knowledge that says that the world is inherently complex, that there is no objective reality, and much of what we know is contrasted from our beliefs and the social milieu in which we live in (Borich & Tombari as quoted by Killen, 2000:xviii).

Research (Au, 1998:315) suggests four sources of tension in the varying versions of constructivism: Firstly, it arises from the ontological, epistemological, and methodological differences between the competing paradigms constructivism and critical theory. A related source of tension arises because of differences in the political ideologies associated with liberalism and radicalism. Thirdly, another source of tension resides in the differing perspectives of mainstream researchers and the researchers from the underrepresented groups. Lastly, the final source lies between the world of academy and

the world of the school and centers on whether researchers should keep distance from, or be in, the situation being studied.

Despite these multiple versions, the only common link connecting all versions is the premise that knowledge is a social product. There is very little agreement about the basic process: what aspects of knowledge best lent themselves to negotiation, and what it means to negotiate this knowledge (Prawat & Floden, 1994:37). These versions are categorized into three groups.

5.2.5.1 Categories of constructivism

There are many forms of constructivism, which appear to differ along several dimensions including the relative importance of human communities versus the individual learner in the construction of knowledge (Au, 1998:299). From constructivist stance, there are many ways to structure the world, and there are many meanings or perspectives for any event or concept. Hence, there are constructivist approaches in science and mathematics education, educational psychology and anthropology, computer-based education, etc. According to Woolfolk (1995:277-9), there are three categories of constructivism: endogenous, exogenous and dialectical constructivism and these are discussed below:

1 Endogenous constructivism

Endogenous constructivism assumes that new knowledge is abstracted from the old knowledge, and it is not shaped by accurately mapping the outside world. Further, it holds that knowledge is not a mirror of the external world, even though experiences influence thinking and thinking influence knowledge and; exploration and discovery are more important than teaching.

2 Exogenous constructivism

Exogenous constructivism focuses on the ways that individuals reconstruct outside reality by building accurate mental representations, such as, network, schemas and condition-action production rules. Also, it considers learning as building accurate mental structures that reflect "*the way things really are*" in the real world.

3 Dialectical constructivism

Dialectical constructivism suggests that knowledge is constructed based on social interactions and experience and reflects the outside world as filtered through and influenced by culture, language, beliefs, interactions with others, direct teaching and models. In addition, coaching as well as individual's prior knowledge, beliefs and thinking affect learning.

In the next section, we will look at the type of constructivism on which OBE is based – *social constructivism.*

5.2.5.2 Social constructivism

Lev Vygotsky, a Russian psychologist and philosopher in the 1930's, is most often associated with the social constructivist theory. He emphasises the influences of cultural and social contexts in learning and supports a discovery model of learning. According to Vygotsky (1978), culture gives the learner the cognitive tools for development. This type of model places the teacher in an active role while the learners' mental abilities develop naturally through various paths of discovery. In a similar view, Woolfolk (1995:277) notes that social constructivist approaches consider the social context in which learning occurs and emphasize the importance of social interaction and negotiation in learning. In essence, it holds that learning is inherently social and embedded in a particular cultural setting.

For Vygotsky (1978), learning occurs on two planes: from social to individual and from public to private. Learning happens first on the social plane where, through interactions with more knowledgeable others, learners come to understand new concepts and strategies. Individuals eventually use and extend these concepts and strategies to other contexts but meanings and interpretations have been initiated in social interaction rather than in solitary action. Similarly, what is learned transpires first in the public domain, where it is used by more knowledgeable members of the culture and made visible to learners. Through such interactions within a public domain, individuals adopt and adapt what has been observed and begin to use it privately.

Social constructivism views learning as a process of enculturation brought about through social interaction (Duffy & Jonassen, 1992:3; McMahon, 1997:1). Salomon (as quoted by Kampulainen & Mutanen, 2000:144) shares a similar view that learning is not only a construction process that takes place in the mind of an individual but also an enculturation process embedded in the socio-historical and socio-cultural context.

Constructivism goes beyond the study of how the brain stores and retrieves information to examine the ways in which learners make meaning from experience (ibid). At the heart of constructivism is a concern for lived experience, or the world as it is felt and understood by social actors (Schwandt as cited by Au, 1998:299). Constructivists reject the naïve realism of the positivists, the critical realism of the post-positivists, and the historical realism of the critical theorists, in favour of a relativism based on multiple mental constructions formulated by groups and individuals (Au, 1998:299).

Learners can, with the help from adults (parents and teachers) or children who are more advanced, master concepts and ideas that they cannot understand on their own efforts. Hence teachers and parents are regarded as the conduits for tools of culture. In essence, Vygotskian Principles in the Classroom hold that:

- Learning and development is a social and collaborative activity that cannot be “taught” to anyone. It is up to the learner to construct his or her own

understanding in his or her own mind. It is during this process that the teacher acts as a facilitator;

- The zone of proximal development can be used to design appropriate situations during which the learner can be provided with the appropriate support for optimal learning;
- When providing appropriate situations, one must take into consideration that learning should take place in meaningful contexts, preferably the context in which the knowledge is to be applied; and
- Out of school experiences should be related to school experiences. Pictures, news clips, and personal stories incorporated into classroom activities provides the learners with a since of oneness between their community and learning (http://www.massey.ac.nz/~Alock/virtual/wittvyg.htm).

Au (1998:299) states that social constructivism includes the idea that there is no objective basis for knowledge claims, because knowledge is always a human construction. The emphasis is on the process of knowledge construction by the social group and the intersubjectivity established through the interactions of the group (ibid:299). In Hofman's view (as quoted by Mikusa and Lewellen, 1992), tenets of modern social constructivism indicate the following:

- The learner constructs his/her own meaning;
- Learning is contextual;
- Learning is dependent on prior conceptions the learner brings to the experience;
- The key elements of conceptual change can be addressed by specific teaching methods;
- Greater emphasis should be placed on "learning how to learn" than on accumulating facts;
- Teachers can utilise one or more key strategies to facilitate conceptual change; and
- Effective teaching involves learners' existing cognitive structures and providing learning activities to assist them.

In the light of the above, knowledge is socially constructed through interaction with the environment. Learning is not purely an internal process, nor a passive shaping of behaviours, but it is a social construct that is mediated by language via social discourse. Therefore, there is a need for collaboration between teachers and parents to allow authentic learning to occur. In order to effect constructivist classroom management in an OBE setting, this study holds that a thorough understanding of the social construction of knowledge is essential.

5.3 THEORIES COMPATIBLE WITH CONSTRUCTIVIST THINKING

This section presents theories compatible with the constructivist thinking. Complexity theory and chaos theory, and postmodernism will be explored.

5.3.1 Complexity and chaos theory

Basically, complexity theorists are interested particularly in open systems which operate on the "edge of chaos" complex adaptive systems or as exhibiting self-organised criticality. Underlying complexity theory is the assumption that systems are hierarchical and that higher levels may be more than the sum their lower level constituents (Cunnigham, 2001:7). Complexity includes systems which are non-linear and inherently evolutionary; and assumes that order emerges out of chaos, stability is punctuated by rapid change. According to Claassen (1998a:35), traditional modernist view of science is that it discovers immutable laws and truths. Traditional modernism assumes that all science is certain, evident knowledge. Also, it rejects knowledge which is merely probable and judge that only those things should be believed that are perfectly known and about which there can be no doubt. In contrast, complexity theory rejects a linear, reductionist view and accepts that there is no scientific certainty (Jansen and Lukacs as quoted by Claassen, 1998a:35).

Complexity implies the existence of self-organising, unpredictable or random aspects in dynamic matters (Claassen, 1998a:35). Self-organisation becomes possible when a

complex structure, a person or an organisation, is free to interact with its environment. For this reason, constructivists perceive that learning is the result of self-organisation and that verbal explanation cannot lead to understanding. Given that modernist view, education practice relies heavily on individualism and competition, complexity theory implies dramatic implications in traditional education practice. Van Niekerk (as referenced by Claassen, 1998a:37) asserts that complexity theory recognises the holistic unity, totality and interdependence among constituent parts of the system (teaching) that is characterised by dynamic interaction. As a consequence on many years of study, researchers now know that learning through interaction is a promising option (Terwel, 1999:197). In essence, complexity theory rejects reductionism with its concomitant values of individualism and competition (Claassen, 1998a:35).

5.3.2 Postmodernism

According to Claassen (1998a: 38), OBE stands in direct contrast to the previous curriculum as it rejects the modernist roots of the previous curriculum. It has an interpretive epistemology as opposed to the empiricist epistemology of the dominant modernist paradigm (Arjun, 1998:25). In the case of the OBE model for South Africa, Geyser (2000:35) asserts that it has very strong roots in the philosophy of pragmatism.

Postmodernism is a reaction to modernism. However, it has dramatic implications for education (modernist) in terms of aims of education and epistemology, philosophical perspectives on learning theory, teaching methods and more specifically, classroom management. Although, modernism has improved and contributed positively to the quality of the learning theory, it occurred at the expense of other people's quality of learning. Claassen (1998b:127) notes that in the past decades, there has been a gradual shift away from the stark rationalism of modernism to postmodernism which acknowledges doubt, complexity and mystery.

Postmodernism is a philosophical movement or paradigm that came into prominence in the 1960s (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:40; Theron, 1996:71). According to Theron (1996:71), postmodernism is an aesthetic, cultural and intellectual phenomenon; and encompasses a particular set of styles, practices and cultural forms in art, literature, music, architecture, philosophy and broader intellectual discourse. It sees crisis in culture, celebrates an iconoclastic outlook that breaks with claims of universality, and rejects objective certainty (Ozmon & Craver, 1999:349).

Postmodern consciousness responds negatively to behaviourism for its totalising view of scientific objectivity and its reduction of human intentions and actions to a technology on behaviour; and to analytic philosophy because of its affinity with positivism and objectivism (Ozmon and Craver, 1999:352). In a different view, Babbie and Mouton (2001:40) asserts that postmodernism rejects appeals to meta-narratives, celebrates local, specifics and differences, and accepts the link between inquiry and power as given.

The constructivist assumption that "reality" depends on interpretation seems to be compatible with postmodern thought. Tarnas (1991:397) expresses the current postmodern view as follows:

> *In this understanding the world cannot be said to possess any features in principle prior to interpretation. The world does not exist as a-thing-in-itself, independent; rather, it comes into being in and through interpretations … the human mind is never outside the world, judging it from an external vantage point. Every object of knowledge is already part of a pre-interpreted context, and beyond that context are only other pre-interpreted contexts.*

Postmodernity is a social condition – comprises of particular patterns of social, economic, political and cultural (including educational) relations. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001:40), postmodern approach is a social theory that defends the following claims:

- social scientists are intrinsically linked to their social and historical contexts – any form of value-free social inquiry is mistaken and impossible;

- social reality is constructed and social scientific knowledge is a similar construct of social inquiry; and
- knowledge and power are closely related and mutually independent (this implies that naturalist account of objectivity is totally inappropriate for social science).

With reference to methodology and curriculum, Babbie and Mouton (2001:365) hold that postmodernism hold that the curriculum should not be viewed as discrete subjects and disciplines, but instead should include issues of power, history, personal and group identities, cultural politics, and social criticism leading to collective action. From the postmodernist perspective, the issue of the curriculum is not simply an argument for or against established canons of knowledge, but one that remakes the meaning and uses of canons of knowledge (ibid:365). Babbie and Mouton (2001:363) claim that generally, critical pedagogy urges the teachers to be sceptical of claims to be "objective" knowledge purported to be outside time and ideology because it places knowledge outside the history of human experience and put such knowledge claims beyond criticism and dialogue.

Literature (Claassen, 1998b:127) suggests that postmodernism has dramatic implications for education. In the modernist stance, definition of education is the transmission of knowledge from the teacher to the learner, where it is assumed that there is objective truth that the teacher knows and the learner does not. According to Claassen (1998b:127), the experience ("voice") of the learner is negated. In contrast, in a postmodernist stance, the concept "education" is seen as helping the learner to construct his/her knowledge own knowledge. Also, knowledge is negotiated because it is a subjective self-construct. This implies that if the learner sees truth in a particular way, the teacher cannot simply discard it (ibid:127).

5.4 CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES OF CONSTRUCTIVIST CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

The goal-oriented, rational model of management and organisation and the cause and effect understanding of management which is imbued with the values of the mechanistic

worldview, have been questioned over time (Black, 1999). For example, patriarchal institutions such as political empires, the institutional church, the nation state and the modern corporation seem to be profoundly affected by what has happened in the development of human process.

In the traditional school of thought, knowledge can achieve absolute and final certainty; the world is a dualistic world in which the mind is superior to the body; human beings are superior to nature; rational is superior to the irrational; male is superior to the female; and objectivity is superior to subjectivity (Black, 1999). In a mechanistic worldview, leadership is equated with management and represents a symbol of authority, order and control, the powerful means of improving the performance of anything that the energetic manager touches (Rees as cited by Black, 1999).

However, the holistic worldview, in contrast, operates in a reverse direction. Leadership and management are situational variables. With reference to its characteristic features, and the view of knowledge, constructivist classroom management appears to be compatible with the beliefs and assumptions of the holistic worldview. Therefore, constructivist classroom management can be typified as fitting through the lens of emergent paradigm. Both concepts of leadership and management are guided and informed by contingency viewpoint – it rejects a notion that a particular viewpoint, (e.g. traditional or behavioural or systems), is a one size fits all management approach.

Given that reality is seen to be created through processes of social exchange, historically situated, social constructivists are interested in the collective generation of meaning among people (Au, 1998:299). Thus, the characteristic feature with a view of knowledge is relational, tentative and largely perceptual.

Constructivist classroom management has holistic and artistic features. According Black (1999), the holistic worldview takes its distinctive features from the dimensions of any artistic event. Central to the emergent paradigm is the distinctive feature of contextuality. Maykut and Morehouse (1994:13) stress that qualitative research values context

sensitivity, that understands a phenomenon in all its complexity and within a particular situation and environment. Thus the view of phenomena is complex, holistic, ideational and is a product of empirical process.

In the scientific worldview, relationships between entities are characterised by discrete units' hierarchical orders. In contrast, emergent worldview sees the world as a community of subjects that includes all living beings which share the planet with humankind (Black, 1999). It sees reality in terms of relationships which is more concerned with the subjective, with the feeling, with the values and with consciousness (ibid). Leadership from the perspective of holistic worldview is characterised by collaborative partnerships rather than by competition, by process rather than productivity, by learning rather than efficiency (Black, 1999). The contours of the terrain traversed by leaders is shifting as machines and pyramids give way to circles, spheres and fields(ibid). In essence, leadership and management approaches in a constructivist setting, take place on a situational viewpoint. Thus, relationships between entities can be typified as fluid, systemic, integrative orders and largely heterarchical.

Constructivist classroom management has metaphorical descriptive features of a holon. The holon provides the basis for a new principle in the holistic worldview, namely, the whole is always greater than the sum of the parts and paradoxically, the whole is contained in each part while no whole is complete in itself (Black, 1999). Wholeness is the primary reality in the holistic worldview (ibid).

Within the holistic metaphor, the leader is not simply the manager who is responsible for increased efficiency, productivity and profit, but rather an artist (Black, 1999). The leader as an artist is more concerned with insight, symbolism, intuition and stories than with economic performance. For Bremmer (as cited by Black, 1999), the leader the leader is not simply a manager who is responsible for increased efficiency, product and profit, but rather a key artist. The role of the leader as an artist, according to Bremmer (as cited by Black, 1999), is equivalent to that of the conceptual artist who utilises extensive communication systems in the creation of the work so that extremely complex signs,

symbols, images, text and various form of media are designed to include the viewer-consumer in sharing or completing, or consuming complex codes of meaning or services.

Leadership, in this school of thought, is not a position, nor is it a possession. For Blank and Smith (in Black, 1999), it is rather a process, a relationship, a field of interaction in which everyone must learn when it is appropriate to exercise the following part of leading and the leading part of following. Taken further, Rost (in Black, 1999) sees leadership as a relationship – an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect mutual purpose. In Hames' (in Black, 1999) opinion, leadership is not a role played by a small number of charismatic people, it is a process of sharing and appreciation – of creating meaning and communicating purpose; a process shared by both leaders and followers.

In the scientific framework, view of causation departs on a linear cause-effect and unidirectional interaction, and explained by deductive reasoning. In contrast, in the emerging paradigm, it is characterised by mutual causation, with multi causal factors, and explained by deductive, inductive and integrative reasoning. In this school of thought, leadership is situational. Wheatly (in Black, 1999) posits that leadership is always dependent upon the context, but the context is established by the relationships.

Leadership, in the emergent paradigm, recognises the ecological connections that exist in the postmodern world. As a process or relationship, it demands a new understanding of power (Black, 1999). This power is underpinned by the principle of subsidiarity. Handy (in Black, 1999) defines subsidiarity as the reverse of empowerment, as the principle whereby the higher order body does not take into account itself as the responsibilities which properly belong to a lower order body. In Black's (1999) view, subsidiarity in not abrogation or delegation of power – power is assumed to lie at the lowest point in the organisation and it can be taken by agreement. Central to this framework of thought, is the assumption in the concept of subsidiarity that power is redistributed because no one in the group has all the wisdom or all the competence. Handy (as cited by Black, 1999)

notes that most energy is out there, away from the centre, and down there, away from the top.

According to Starrat (as quoted by Black, 1999), in a holistic worldview, the leader recognises the limitations of rationality which can solve some problems but cannot ground reasons why one solution is preferable to another in a creative and multi-dimensional view of organisational and social life. In Hermes's (as cited by Black, 1999) view, holistic leadership cannot limit creativity by a narrowly rational approach and is obliged to facilitate the organisation's "capacity for learning for predictable change and variety of possible alternative future".

In scientific paradigm, leadership has its focus in the achievement of organisational goals; and insists on the orientation towards transformation of consciousness and social change. In contrast, leadership in emergent paradigm focuses on both social and global transformation (Black, 1999). The emergent paradigm sees leadership's ultimate aim/goal as the refinement and the achievement of human community. Thus, the view of change/ orientations to - the future is indeterminate, unpredictable and morphogenetic.

5.5 ORGANISATIONAL PERSPECTIVES ON CONTINGENCY VIEWPOINT

Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnely and Konopask (2003:395) posit that the demands of a situation are termed contingencies. However, there exists a number of assumptions and views about contingency theory in literature. Contingency theory, among others, according to Theron (1996:50), assumes that: all organisations are open systems; there is no one best universal way of organizing and administering a school; different (management) approaches may be appropriate in subparts of the same organisation; and different leadership styles are appropriate for different problematic situations. For Luthans (1998:532), contingency theories are proactive and are analogous to the development of contingency management as a whole; and relate to specific organisation structures.

This school of thought holds that the most appropriate structure system of management depends upon the contingencies of the situation for each particular organisation. In Ivancevich, Donnely and Konopask's (2003:395) opinion, the contingency viewpoint is aimed at getting away from the dilemma of choosing between the mechanistic and organic models. At the heart of this school of thought is the assumption that there is no best universal structure of management or leadership; and management practices must be tailored to fit the exact nature of each situation (Mullin, 2005:634; Greenberg & Baron, 2003:362; Nelson & Quick, 2003:398; Shermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 2000:7; Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson, 1996; Hellriegel & Slocum, 1991:61).

Literature (Mullin, 2005:634; Greenberg & Baron, 2003:362; Nelson & Quick, 2003:398; Shermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 2000:7; Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson, 1996) highlights a number of unique and common characteristic features about the contingency approach. Among others, it emphasises the need for flexibility and seeks to explain how one attribute or characteristic depends upon another. Also, it seeks ways to meet the demands of different management situations; and rejects the existence of one "best" or universal way of managing people and organisations.

Classical approach to management suggests one best form of structure and places emphasis on a general set of principle while the human relations approach gives attention to all the structures (Mullin, 2005:84). In contrast, contingency approach suggests a renewed concern with the importance of the structure as a significant influence on the organisational performance (Mullin, 2005:84). At philosophical level, it appears to be compatible to the emerging worldview and the postmodern view of the school as an organisation. This approach, among others, sees the school as: an organised anarchy, an organisation characterised according to structural and outcome variables, metaphoric organizations, and as organisations within the symbolic frame (see Theron, 1996:37-74).

The postmodern view of the school is characterised by flexibility, adaptability, creativity, opportunism, collaboration, continuous improvement and a positive orientation towards problem-solving (Theron, 1996:72). Also, it is characterised by: decision making which

is widely participative; control is exercised through interaction of involved persons; authority is shared and determined by consensus; nature of organisation is flexible; and climate is open (Theron, 1996:56).

To sum up, the concept of "classroom management" is fluid – it takes the shape of the container. Situational variables determine management approach, leadership style, and more specifically leadership roles of the teacher. In essence, classroom management is approached from a holistic view – it moves away from mechanistic approach, and linear cause-effect and unidirectional interaction. Thus, in constructivist setting where the contingency approach is applicable, different situations require different management practices and allowing the use of the other viewpoints separately or in combination to deal with various classroom management problems.

5.6 THE ROLES OF THE TEACHER IN CONSTRUCTIVIST CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

The teacher is the key figure in promoting an environment (climate) within the classroom that is conducive to teaching and learning. Lemmer (1998:38) notes that effective teaching and learning depends largely on the establishment of a sound relationship between the teachers and the learners in the classroom. A significant body of research suggests that academic achievement and behaviour are strongly influenced by the quality of teacher-learner relationships (ibid:39). Thus, positive teacher-learner relationships are fundamental in effecting the roles of the teacher in a constructivist classroom. Classroom rules and procedures, alone, are not the only social tools in regulating and managing the learner behaviour.

The roles of the teacher, as a classroom manager, seem to be in a state of transition – shifting from traditional/modern to constructivist/postmodern framework of thought. However, the implementation of constructivist curriculum holds incisive implications for classroom management. The organisational structure of the traditional education system will impede the implementation of OBE as the old framework of education system will

not suffice. For Gallie (1999:183), it involves a whole new look at what teachers are supposed to do and the challenges that traditional ways of managing schools; and the way of reporting to parents. This immediately poses the question “What should be changed in classroom management?”

This study holds that at conceptual level, OBE represents a move from an instructionalist approach to classroom management to a constructivist approach to classroom management. The main difference could be related to the leadership role to be performed by teachers. This movement will require that teachers move from a traditional teacher-centred classroom to a learner-centred classroom and that, this raises issues of classroom control and discipline and a change in the traditional teacher-leader role to shared leadership and new social interaction in the classroom, placing high demands on both teachers and learners on the creation and redefinition of classroom roles.

The roles of the teacher in constructivist classroom management vary greatly as compared to traditional classroom management. In traditional practice, the teacher’s role as dispenser of knowledge is to transmit information and direct learners’ actions. In contrast to the traditional practice, Gore (2001:2) notes that the constructivist teacher role, as coach and facilitator, is to help learners process information, facilitate learner thinking. For Smith (1999), the constructivist teacher is described as follows:

- The facilitator that needs to have faith in his or her learners. He/she should see each child as a different person that can succeed in their own unique way;
- Encouraged to ask open-ended, probing questions that encourages the learner to share their knowledge and experiences with other members of the class schema; is an encourager and moderator and helps children feel confident in whatever they can do;
- Provides a "meaningful path" for the learners by providing assistance to help learners create their own understanding; and
- Provides the message that nobody is perfect, and it is alright to make mistakes; and the teachers need to have open communication with each other, the

administration, and other teachers in the district – where they can share their problems, concerns and ideas.

There are many roles that are applicable to the constructivist teacher, among others, they include to do the following:

- Encourage and accept learner autonomy;
- Use raw data and primary sources along with manipulative, interactive and physical material;
- Allow learners responses to drive lessons, shift instructional strategies and alter content;
- Inquire about learners' understandings of concepts before sharing their own understanding of those concepts;
- Use cognitive terminology such as *classify, analyse, predict and create* when framing tasks.
- Encourage learners to engage in dialogue both with the teacher and with one another;
- Seek elaboration of learners initial responses;
- Engage learners in experiences that might engender contradictions to their initial hypothesis and then encourage discussion;
- Provide time for learners to construct relationships and create metaphors; and
- Nurture learners' curiosity through frequent use of the learning cycle model. [http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/areas/issues/methods/assment/as7const.htm]

Having outlined the roles of the constructivist teacher, the following section will focus into the constructivist ideas about teaching and learning.

5.7 CONSTRUCTIVIST IDEAS ABOUT TEACHING AND LEARNING

Constructivism is often related to the philosophies of Dewey and Rousseau, and inspired by Piaget and Vygotsky whilst instructivism is related to the faculty of psychology and

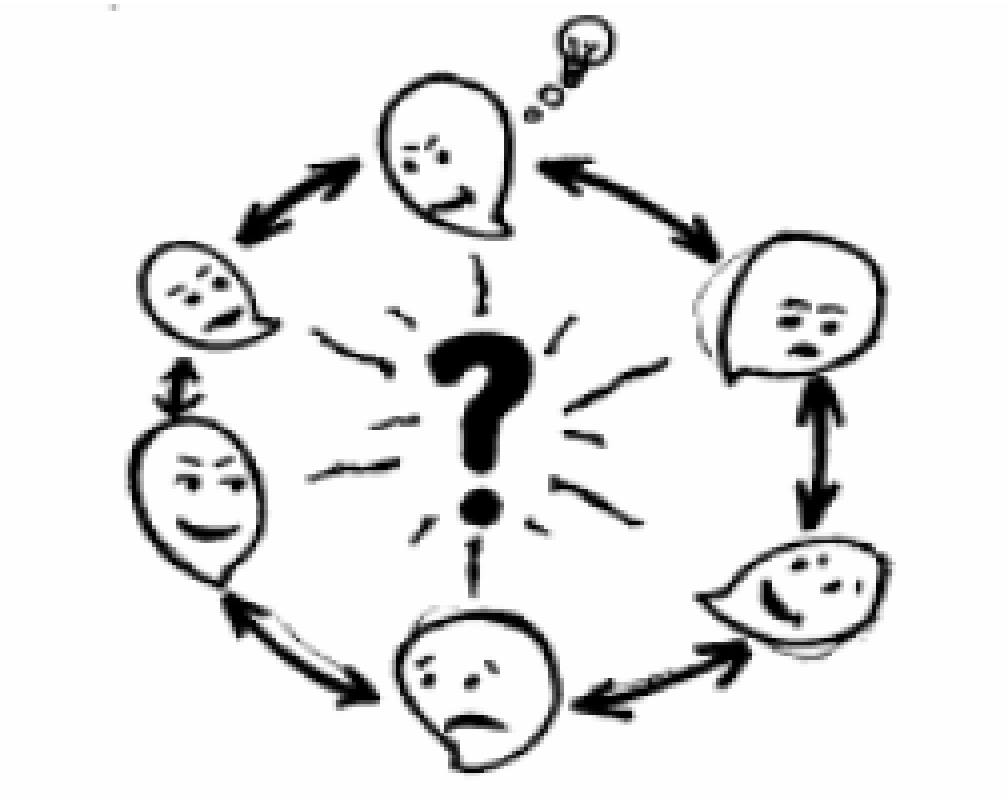
behaviourism. Terhart (2003:34) states that learning goals in constructivist didactics are guided by the fundamental principle that "the interaction with the environment (its subjective construction) has sole goal of securing the survival of the learner as an autopoietic system. From a didactical perspective, a teacher is a presenter of knowledge, whilst from a discovery perspective, he/she is simply a provider of experiences (Driver 1994:399). Thus, in constructivist approach, both these functions are combined – the teacher provides the necessary experience to enable the learners' understanding to relate events and phenomena.

Wood (1994:334) notes that in constructivist settings, learning occurs during social interaction in which participants are expected to take perspectives of another; and when learners alter their cognitive products to form a different configuration of meaning. An important requirement for constructivist learning environments is that learning must be generative (Dunlap & Grabinger, 1996:67). Many of the teaching strategies used in constructivist teaching fall under *generative learning* – a theory that emphasises the active integration of new material with existing schemata. Generative learning strategies teach learners specific methods of doing mental work with new information (Slavin, 1994:227). Morrison and Collins' (1996:114) research on epistemic fluency and constructivist learning environments suggests that generative of learning predicts deep understanding (true knowledge construction) which is more likely to occur when individuals actively transform information and integrate it into existing cognitive structures.

By implication, learning is a constructive process in which the learner is building an internal representation of knowledge. It is developed on the basis of experience. The only tools available to a knower are the senses. It is only through seeing, hearing, touching, smelling and tasting that an individual interacts with the environment. With these messages from the senses, the individual builds a picture of the world. Therefore, in constructivist stance, knowledge resides in individuals and cannot be transferred intact from the head of a teacher to the heads of learners. The learner tries to make sense of what is taught by trying to fit it with his/her experience.

Figure 5.1 illustrates how knowledge is constructed in a constructivist setting.

Figure 5.1 Learning through discussion and questioning insight (construction of knowledge)



(Adapted from Zuber-Skerritt, 2001:13)

At the heart of constructivist classroom, rests a characteristic feature of learner-centredness. Learner-centred educational theory is rooted in radical dissatisfaction with traditional educational practice. According to Magadla (1996:87), teaching in constructivist paradigm is interested in knowing how the learner thinks, and for this reason, listens carefully to what the learner has to say. The teacher tries to elicit explanations from the learner by asking questions such as “what do you mean?” “how does that relate to ….?” “how did you come to that conclusion?”, and so on.

Because we live in the fast-moving, technological society, the way we teach young people has to change (Wayman & Pulliam, 1997:1). Teachers can no longer merely function as dispensers of information because there is too much information to dispense - it is changing as quickly as it is created. Thus, constructivist teaching challenges teachers to become facilitators of learning who show learners how and where to access information quickly and efficiently.

There are multiple specific aspects of constructivism when relating it to the classroom and the learner, at whatever age. Research (Smith, 1999) highlights that constructivist classroom is characterised by the following:

- *Socialization and interaction* (which are the essential parts of the classroom). The learner uses his or her social activity to be influenced or influence other learners' beliefs and values. Also the socialization assists in "problem solving and conflict resolution" techniques;
- *Cohesiveness* – Learners can develop rules, and mission and goal statements for their classroom. In addition, the teacher may assist by providing parameters and suggestions, but it is the learners who learn self management techniques and unity with others;
- A *loud environment* made-up of small groups conversing and connecting ideas – where collaborative learning can take place. The teacher and the learners can share their prior knowledge in a group setting, where questions can be asked and explanations can be made; and
- *Relevance and creativity*. Learning is based on the learners' creativity from their prior knowledge and experiences. In reaching the creative side, the teacher needs to assist in bringing about some new skills to coincide with the prior skills, "challenge their pre-conceived notions and beliefs, and possibly re-examine their worldly outlook".

Constructivist learning has distinctive attributes. Disney Learning Partnership (http://www.thirteen.org/edonline/concept2class/month2/index_sub2.html) suggests that

in a constructivist classroom learning is constructed, active, reflective, collaborative, and inquiry-based. However, teaching that relies on self-discovery requires more time than traditional methodologies (Bower & Lobdell, 1998:50). The significant differences lie in the basic assumptions about knowledge, learners and learning. Table 5.1 below compares traditional classroom to the constructivist one.

Table 5.1 Comparison between traditional and constructivist classroom.

Traditional classroom	Constructivist classroom
Curriculum begins with the parts of the whole. Emphasizes basic skills.	Curriculum emphasizes big concepts, beginning with the whole and expanding to include the parts.
Strict adherence to fixed curriculum is highly valued.	Pursuit of learner questions and interest is valued
Learning is based on repetition	Learning is interactive, building on what the learner already knows.
Teachers disseminate information to learners; learners are recipients of knowledge.	Teachers have a dialogue with learners, helping learners construct their own knowledge.
Teacher's role is directive, rooted in authority.	Teacher's role is interactive, rooted in negotiation
Assessment is through testing, correct answers.	Assessment includes learner works, observations, and points of view, as well as tests. Process is as important as product.
Knowledge is seen as inert.	Knowledge is seen as a dynamic, ever changing with our experiences.
Learners work primarily alone.	Learners work primarily groups

(Adapted from DoE, 2000d:12 and Disney Learning Partnership (http://www.thirteen.org/edonline/concept2class/month2/index_sub1.html).

In the background of the above, there seems to be a shift with reference to basic principles, philosophical perspective, ways of learning, roles of the teacher and the learner, and the entire structure of the education methodology. The significant differences are in basic assumptions about knowledge, learners and learning. In a constructivist teaching, learners take on an active role in acquisition of knowledge and thus take the ownership of it; and the teacher's role changes as well (Wayman & Pulliam, 1997). The teacher functions as a facilitator who coaches, mediates, prompts and helps learners develop and assess their understanding and thereby their learning (http://www.thirteen.org/edonline/concept2class/month2/index_sub1.html).

5.8 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS OF A CONSTRUCTIVIST EPISTEMOLOGY FOR TEACHING

A movement from traditional (objectivist and behaviourist) to constructivist approach appears to have significant implications for classroom practice. Research emanating from Bednar, Cunningham, Duffy and Perry (1992:30), suggests that the implications of constructivism for instructional design are revolutionary rather than evolutionary; and viewed from contrasting epistemologies, constructivism replace rather than add to our current understanding of learning. In a more detailed account, most scholars (Scheurman, 1998:6; Smith, 1999; Slavin, 1994:225; Kampulainen & Mutanen, 2000:144; Woolfolk, 1995:346; Bentley, 1998:243; Duffy & Jonassen, 1992:6; Bednar *et al.*, 1992:22: Dick, 1992:91; Perkins, 1992;52; Duffy & Bednar, 1992:131) suggest that constructivism has many implications: for classroom practices (teaching and learning), for the definition of knowledge, for the relative emphasis on the individual versus social learning, for the role of the teacher, and for the definition of successful instruction.

In a constructivist stance, teaching is viewed as more than providing information and checking to see if it has been acquired by learners, rather, it becomes a matter of creating situations in which children actively participate in scientific, mathematical, or literary activities that enable them to make their individual constructions (Wood, 1994:337). Teaching effectively in a constructivist perspective, requires teachers to acquire knowledge about their learners' constructions. This could be effected by the creation of setting that encourage children's sensorimotor and mental activities and providing social situations in which communication takes place (ibid).

Gergen (1994:17) posits that social constructivism abandons the traditional views, invites a new range of theoretical departure, and favours communal as opposed to individualist value investments. In addition, it represents a radical break with both exogenic and endogenic orientations to knowledge, and thereby suggests a substantially altered agenda

in terms of scholarly inquiry and educational practice. For Wood (1994:337), constructivist epistemology views teaching as more than providing information and checking to see if learners have acquired it.

With reference to assessment in a social constructivist classroom, Alleman and Brophy (1998:32) contend that challenges for teachers using constructivist teaching involve ensuring that learners collaborate thoughtfully as they strive to construct new understandings; and how to measure individual effort as each learner builds his/her own unique representation of what was constructed in a group setting. Research (Wood, 1994:336) in mathematics highlights that the alternative perspective that constructivism offers by defining learning as a process of personal construction of meaning, offer a potentially powerful way in which to rethink educational practice. Incorporated into this pedagogical practice, a constructivist view of learning must necessarily imply specific implications for the teacher's role and the nature of the activity of teaching.

Wood's research (1994:336) suggests that the underlying assumptions of constructivism for learning as a cognitive position and to which theorists agree are the following assumptions:

- The knowledge of writing, mathematics and science are actively constructed by the individual;
- Learners create their own individual interpretations of writing, mathematics and science; and
- Learners create new meanings by reflecting on their physical and mental activity; and their major conceptual reorganizations have genesis in problematic and goal setting situations.

According to Wood's research (1994:336), the alternative perspective that constructivism offers by defining *learning* as a process of personal construction of meaning, offers a potentially powerful way to rethink educational practice. Incorporated pedagogical practice, a constructivist view of learning must imply specific implications for the

teacher's role and the nature of the activity of teaching. Some of these implications are the following:

- Teachers should provide instructional situations that bring forth children's literary, scientific or mathematical activity;
- Children's actions constitute rationales and teachers should attempt to view learners solutions from the latter's perspective;
- Teachers should recognize that what seems like errors and confusion indicate children's current understanding; and
- Teachers should realize that substantive learning occurs in periods of confusion, surprise, over long periods of time and during social interaction.

Perkins' (1992:49) research suggests that in the constructivist learning environment, the learners bear much more responsibility for their own task management than in more conventional settings, and the roles of the teachers shift to something more like that of a coach. In the case of an electronic classroom of the future, Dick (1992:91) contends that the roles of the teacher and learner will change dramatically as learning becomes more interactive.

Beyond the above mentioned implications, there seems to be multiple challenges for teachers using social constructivist model. Scheurman's research (1998:6) in the social studies classroom suggests that constructivism has a natural affinity with approaches to teaching that are directed toward open-ended inquiry and that encourage creative reflection on objects, events and cultural experience. A particular version one adopts has implications for classroom practice, for the definition of knowledge, for the relative emphasis on individual versus social learning, for the role of the teacher, and for the definition of successful instruction (ibid, 1998:6).

Given that most South African teachers have been trained in the traditional (objectivist) paradigm, the discourse above implies drastic challenges – for the teachers to switch from instructionist to constructivist classroom. There seems to be significant implications for

the teacher's role, teaching, learning, etc. Thus, there is need to rethink the teachers' role and management theory compatible to the constructivist philosophy.

5.9 INSIGHTS FROM CONSTRUCTIVIST CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

Brophy and Alleman (1998) discuss classroom management and social constructivism in a social studies classroom. They tackle the issue, not in the traditional classroom characterized by the teacher acting as the transmitter of knowledge, but in classrooms based on social constructivism. In such classrooms, the teacher acts as a collaborator in the production of knowledge within the classroom. The premise is that when teachers help learners construct knowledge through social interaction, classroom discourse will deepen through more reflective discussion (ibid:56). Especially in a social studies classroom, teachers and learners collaborate to develop rules, often formalizing them into a classroom constitution (ibid:56).

When constructivists talk about constructing knowledge, they are referring both to the content of knowledge (for example, properties of objects or relative values of numbers) and to the structure of knowledge (for example, the understanding of relationships such as transitivity, seriation and correspondence) (DeVries, 2002:2). Constructivists take the view that it is through active reasoning, that both content and structure are constructed simultaneously (ibid:2).

Brophy and Alleman's (1998:56) research indicates that discipline emanates mostly from the individual as teachers and learners share leadership roles. In raising the question of whether teachers can use established principles of classroom management, their answer is a qualified yes, if implemented appropriately. Brophy and Alleman (1998:56) emphasize that teachers must focus on instructional goals rather than functioning primarily as disciplinarians (interesting to note is that most authors that deal with classroom management link it to *discipline and control* issues and do not see it in a broader perspective). In a constructivist classroom, discipline is especially linked to moral and intellectual goals (DeVries, 2002:5). In order to promote autonomy and prevent an

overbalance of heteronomy, constructivist teachers consciously monitor their interactions with children (ibid:5).

Brophy and Alleman (1998:57) point out that the teachers need to engage in thoughtful analysis, to determine how to apply basic principles of good classroom management to engaging instructional innovations. Their research makes clear that to ensure that the principles support the goals of constructivist or other non-traditional approaches to teaching, teacher can (1) begin by identifying what learners are expected to do in order to engage optimally in learning activities, and (2) work backward from this description of desirable learner roles to determine what forms of managerial instruction or assistance are needed (ibid:57).

Dede (1996) argues that educational technologists have often stated that an effective way to integrate technology into the teaching and learning process, is to follow a constructivist model. Although teachers may have technical skills, they may not understand how constructivism translates into meaningful classroom practice (ibid). When one integrates learner experiences with technology into the curriculum, the role of the teacher changes. The teacher no longer has to be in charge every minute, but can give some of the control over to the learners and the technology. If approached in a constructivist manner, the teacher's job becomes one of a facilitator or architect (Norton & Wiburg, 1998). Instead of telling learners the answer, the teacher asks questions to help them discover the answer themselves. For this type of teaching to be successful, teachers need to give learners time to explore the material and construct meaning from the experience (ibid). Also, teachers sometimes, are concerned about such a shift; they worry about losing control, not fulfilling their role or being seen as less effective by parents, principals or supervisors.

In a constructivist classroom, learners are more actively involved than in a traditional classroom. They share ideas, ask questions, discuss concepts, and revise their ideas and misconceptions (Jonassen, 1996). Such activity involves collaboration, with occasional competition, among learners. Collaborative environments can encourage the knowledge construction needed for more lasting learning (ibid). For Wyssusek, Schwartz and

Krallmann (2000:3), constructivist classroom management differs radically from instructionalist classroom management. They assert that many of the modernist assumptions on which traditional classroom management is based, do no longer hold in our world today and this led philosophers to questioning modern issues using a different paradigm. In addition, classic (i.e. modern) conceptions of knowledge, regarding it as an objective entity, are superseded by conceptions which view knowledge as culturally determined, subjective or social (Wyssusek, Schwartz & Krallmann, 2000:3).

5.10 CONCLUSION

The classroom management strategies compatible to constructivist classroom are not new, but they are ones that enable teachers to create safe, caring environments in which learners are the focus. In constructivist environment, classroom management strategies appear to be dictated by learners' needs, not by the teacher's beliefs and preferences. Teachers are more like coaches, creating situations that facilitate learning. Teachers share their control with their learners, and learners are expected to control themselves.

A change from instructionist to constructivist approach suggests a refocus and redefinition of roles. In constructivist tradition, the roles of the teacher (planning, organizing, control and evaluation) seem to take on a new meaning. Instead of planning a lesson, the teacher needs to engage more in strategizing the lesson. This means that the teacher needs to contemplate what strategies could be used to create collaborative learning environments, what strategies would facilitate the construction of new knowledge, etc. Organising move from organizing learning material or the transmission of new knowledge, to contemplating ways in which the class could be grouped so that cooperative learning, team learning, etc. could be secured. Control as teacher directed moves to created emphasis on group control and locating greater power in the hand of learners to exercise self-discipline. Evaluation in the form of external examination and testing is replaced with ideas such as self-assessment, peer-assessment, diagnostic assessment etc. Thus, a change from instructionist to constructivist approach does posit a new range of classroom management principles and processes.

CHAPTER 6

POLICY ISSUES: THEORY AND PRACTICE

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to investigate whether classroom management in OBE should be constructivist in nature or whether traditional classroom management practices could be maintained. In seeking appropriate answers for the research questions, this chapter is presented in two parts. In the first part, the theoretical perspectives on OBE are presented. It focuses on issues, among others, such as the historical and philosophical backgrounds, models and critics of OBE, origin and general characteristic features of philosophies underpinning OBE. In the second part, policy issues are explored. Insights on the implementation of Policy: theory and practice, perspectives on political symbolism and critical analysis of C2005, NCS and RNCS policies were explored.

6.2 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON OBE

OBE is a system that involves a movement away from a content-based towards outcomes-based approach. Its essence lies in its shift away from typical school practices, where performance is based primarily on covering varying sets of requirements in a fixed period of time (McGhan, 1994:70). OBE is one of the nine principles that underpin the Revised National Curriculum Statement Policy (DoE, 2001a:17; DoE, 2002a:3; DoE, 2002b:9). As policy, it was introduced by South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) and bounds all providers of education to implement it. In General and FET phase, it was the task of DoE to develop an OBE based curriculum and C2005 and RCNS is the response to this.

6.2.1 Defining Outcomes-Based Education (OBE)

OBE is a broad concept and interpreted in many different ways. Informed by the assumption that there is more than one version of the description includes some debates

on the nature and purpose of OBE. Marshall (1994:79) claims that OBE means different things to different people. The concept "base" refers to the "bottom; foundation; the lowest part of anything, especially the part on which something rests or supported (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English, 1986:65). Inferred in this definition is the assumption that operational elements of OBE systems are relegated or dismissed to lower subordinate roles, serving only as means towards the achievement of predetermined results/outcomes (Malan, 2001:40). The dictionary definition, in terms of educational application, would imply that outcomes constitute the foundation of all learning activities. This implies that curriculum content, teaching methodologies, school timetables and/or teaching-learning resources would have one function only, that is, to ensure that the desired outcomes (learning results) are realised (ibid:40).

Given that OBE comes in varying versions, there is more to OBE than relatively simple dictionary definitions suggest. The term OBE, according to some scholars like King and Evans (1994:13), can be applied to a range of educational reforms, all of which have outcomes as a point of departure. The official definition as in the Government Gazette (1998), (Gazette No. 19640, Notice No1718) sees OBE as a learner-centred, results-orientated approach to education, premised on the expectation that all learners can learn and succeed. It implies that learning institutions have the responsibility to optimise the conditions for success.

For Van Niekerk and Killen (2000:93), OBE can be viewed as a theory of education, as a systematic structure for education or as a classroom practice. Literature (Smith, 1995:24; Towers, 1992:89; Baron & Boschee, 1996:574; Fakier & Waghid, 2004:55) defines OBE as a results driven, competency-based system which describes, in clear terms, what learners are expected to learn, how learning is evidenced. Fakier and Waghid (2004:55) concede that it is a system which is based on the belief that individuals have the capacity to learn, as well as, to demonstrate learning after having completed an educational activity.

The use of the concept "OBE" is much more particular, that it refers specifically to the issues of curriculum, accountability, systematic reform and/or institutional management (Malan, 2002:1). The proliferation of management jargon in Spady's transformational version suggests that it is no more that an approach to educational management (ibid:41).

6.2.2 The concept "Outcomes"

There are multiple views on what "outcomes" are. According to Spady (1994a:18), "outcomes" are high-quality, culminating demonstrations of significant learning context. In a similar view, Kotze (1999:31) sees outcomes as the end products of a learning process. An outcome is not a score or grade, but an end product of a clearly defined process that the learner carries out. Musker (1997:10) defines an outcome as the demonstration in context of learning experience, and capabilities that derive from and underpin that learning experience.

The official definition of the term "outcomes", according to Government Gazette (1998), (Gazette No. 19640, Notice No1718), implies the end products of a learning process. In outcomes-based education, learners work towards agreed, desired outcomes within a particular context. These state clearly what the learner should be able to demonstrate. Outcomes are of two types: critical and specific.

Government Gazette (2002a:23) and Gazette No. 23406, note that:

> *[A] Learning outcome is derived from the critical and developmental outcomes. It is a description of what (knowledge, skills and values) learners should know, demonstrate and be able to do at the end of the General Education and Training band. A set of learning outcomes should ensure integration and progression in the development of concepts, skills and values through the assessment standards. Learning outcomes do not prescribe content or method.*

6.2.3 Basic principles of OBE

Understanding the current emphasis on OBE is fundamental to understanding ideological and philosophical assumptions governing OBE. With this understanding, it will be possible to explore a move from instructionist to constructivist approach in terms of classroom management. According to Killen (1997:26; 2000:vii), the concepts that underpin OBE are not new; many of them are in and out of favour with teachers for the past half-century. OBE proponents consider it as a reform strategy and curriculum model. Malan (2000:26) maintains that OBE offers a dialogue between the learner and the curriculum where the learner interacts with sources of knowledge, reconstructs knowledge, and takes the responsibility for his/her own learning. Thus, the teacher becomes the facilitator instead of acting as the source of information, transferring content to learners.

A large volume of literature (Killen & Hattingh, 2004:72; Spady and Marshall, 1991:67; Van der Horst and McDonald, 1997:7; Gultig *et al*., 1999:26; Killen, 1997:26; Killen, 2001:2; Naicher, 1999a:47; Malan, 2001:51; http://www.futurekids.co.za/obe.htm) suggests that OBE is founded on the following three basic premises:

- All learners can learn and succeed (but not on the same day and in the same way),
- Success breeds success, and
- Schools control conditions of success.

From these basic assumptions/premises, considerable literature (Killen & Hattingh, 2004:72-73; Vandeyar & Killen, 2003:123-124; Malan, 2000:24; Malan, 2001:63-65; Spady, 1994b: 96; Killen, 2001:3; Kudlas, 1994:33; Brandt, 1993:66; Van der Horst and McDonald, 1997:21-22; http://www.futurekids.co.za/obe.htm) suggests that the following four essential principles of OBE were developed:

Clarity of focus – means that teachers need to establish a clear picture to the learning they want learners to absorb; and learners' success becomes a priority for planning, teaching and assessment;

Designing back – requires defining what the system wants all learners to be able to do by the end of the learning experience; and the building blocks for the culminating outcomes essential to the learners' performance success;

High expectations – need time to be used as a flexible resource, not a predefined absolute, in order to cater for learners' differing learning rates and aptitudes. It aims at getting rid of the bell-shaped curve; and

Expanded opportunities – implies that outcomes should present a high level of challenge, for learners, which all should be expected to accomplish eventually and be given credit for their performance at the stage it occurs.

Other points that could be added to the above are philosophical principles suggested by Killen (1997:26; 2001:3) and these are as follows:

- All learners have talent and it is the job of the schools to develop it;
- The role of schools is to find ways for learners to succeed, rather than finding ways for learners to fail;
- Mutual trust drives all good outcomes-based schools;
- Excellence is for every child and not just a few;
- By preparing learners every day for success the next day, the need for correctives will be reduced;
- Learners should collaborate in learning rather than compete;
- As far as possible, no child should be excluded from any activity in a school; and
- A positive attitude is essential.

In South African instance, the general principles of OBE as outlined by Lubisi, Parker and Wedekind (1999:54) include the following:

- Education is a lifelong process;
- Qualifications reflect competence, not time taken to complete one's studies;
- OBE is a flexible approach, emphasising integration and transfer of skills and knowledge; and
- Competence is a combination of thinking, doing and attitude, and outcomes can be separated into critical cross-field and specific outcomes.

In the light of the above exposition, OBE, among others, calls for an instructional methodology that will encourage collaboration (cooperation) and integrate outcomes; encourage construction of knowledge through social interaction (social constructivism) and ways for learners to succeed, rather than finding ways for learners to fail.

Having explored the basic principles of OBE, the following section will focus on the models of OBE in practice.

6.2.4 Why so many OBE models?

According to McNeir (1994:30), there is no single authoritative model of OBE. Malcolm (1999:79) claims that OBE has many meanings and models which vary significantly across the boarders, in countries such as Scotland, Australia, Holland, South Africa, USA, etc. Variations in OBE models arise from different choices of outcomes and different management systems to achieve them.

OBE is a complex and a multi-faceted approach to educational provision with wide variation in its implementation (Pretorius, 1998:99). The models vary, depending on the contexts in which they are implemented. According to Malcolm (1999:105), the decisions countries make to develop or reject the basic ideas of OBE, and what models to consider are largely hinged on politics, cultural norms, interest groups, history, the committees and individuals who provide education leadership.

Education in many countries is changing to curricular that emphasises broad competencies and management system that promotes devolution to schools and accountability of schools (Malcolm, 1999:80). Prior to changes, government defined syllabuses and resources (input models) were used. However, a small number opted for outcomes models (specifying what learners should know and be able to do). Among these outcomes approaches, there are significant variations, but whether they are called "*National Curriculum*" (UK and New Zealand), "*OBE*" (USA, Canada, South Africa), or "*National Standards*"(USA), they share some common features and motivation (ibid).

The types of outcomes formulated influence OBE systems according to whether the approach is traditional, transitional or transformational. The approaches to OBE are hierarchically classified according to the kind of performance in the culminating outcomes – in the sense that transformational OBE inevitably subsumes competencies and knowledge, whilst traditional OBE might not (and traditionally does not) address role performances (Malcolm, 1999:86).

The South African version of OBE is aimed at stimulating the minds of young people so that they are able to participate fully in economic and social life. It is intended to ensure that all learners are able to develop and achieve to their maximum ability and are equipped for lifelong learning. (Government Gazette, 2002:21).

6.2.5 Models of OBE in practice

Over the last four decades, three broad models of OBE have become dominant, though it should be recognized that there are variations of these models – traditional, transitional and transformational models. These three broad models are representative of most of the models currently in use, and also represent the broad paradigmatic tensions in the outcomes-based education debate. As Malcolm (1999:79) indicates, the variations in the models of OBE arise from different choices of outcomes and different management systems to achieve them. In addition, teams who are more broadly representative of the community design these outcomes. What the learners are to learn is determined by macro and micro business, government, environmentalists and parents.

6.2.5.1 Traditional OBE

Traditional OBE is similar to the old “objectives” approach to education. The emphasis is on knowledge and skills in traditional subjects (Malcolm, 1999:85; Innerst, 1994:13; Brady, 1996:5; Fakier & Waghid, 2004:57). As Fakier and Waghid (2004:57) observe, the focus here is on the mastery of content which puts emphasis on understanding. Essential to this model is the focus on clearly defined “outcomes” but these are narrow

(rather than holistic) and are often not linked to the learner's ability to use this learning in work or life (DoE, 1997c:17). The outcomes are drawn direct from the content of an existing syllabus and enable learners to master small sections of content or discrete skills, and do not give a clear picture of the long-term outcomes. The challenge of this approach is that the culminating demonstration is frequently limited to small segments of instruction which makes each an end in itself while the curriculum content remains unchanged (Pretorius as cited by Fakier & Waghid, 2004:57).

The Traditional OBE does not provide teachers and learners with an understanding of why learning is important. It focuses on recalling content, and does not integrate skills, knowledge and values. According to Evans and King (1994), Traditional OBE typically has exit outcomes reflective of an academically competent graduate (e.g. learners will demonstrate the knowledge, skills and behaviours essential to communicate with words, numbers, visuals, symbols, and sounds). In addition, Furman (1994) asserts that Traditional OBE may produce "major increases" in learner achievement, but "outcomes are synonymous with traditional content-dominated categories that do not relate to real-life demands and living experience".

6.2.5.2 Transitional OBE

Its roots, according to Fakier and Waghid (2004:57), can be traced back to the early 1980s. It moves away from existing curricula and identifies outcomes which reflect higher order competences that cut across traditional subjects (ibid:57). According to Innerst (1994:13), transitional OBE de-emphasises subject-matter tests and factual recall as indicators of learner success. At the heart of this model is the emphasis on broad competencies such as problem solving and using technology (Malcolm, 1999:85). Pretorius (as quoted by Fakier & Waghid, 2004:57) asserts that the result is outcomes which do the following:

> [*Emphasize*] *broad attitudinal, affective, motivational and relational qualities or orientations as well as critical thinking, effective communication, technological applications, and complex problem solving (my addition).*

In transitional OBE, the exit outcomes based upon "higher-order competencies" replace subject-content mastery as the definition of achievement (Innerst, 1994:13). Spady and Marshall (1991:69) contend that the Transitional OBE lies in the Twilight Zone between the traditional subject-matter curriculum structures and planning processes and the future-role priorities inherent in the Transformational OBE. Further, it focuses on the qualities learners will need to operate competently in society, and begins to look at critical outcomes. The DoE (1997d:18), claims that Transitional OBE emphasises the knowledge, skills and attitudes the society has agreed on for all its citizens and not the existing curriculum. The subject content becomes the vehicle for cultivating such skills as critical thinking, problem solving and effective communication (Innerst, 1994:13).

After identifying the critical outcomes, the teacher uses the existing syllabus to help the learners to achieve competencies. The teacher designs activities that assist learners to achieve the outcomes. Transitional OBE begins with critical outcomes and the syllabus, always asks whether the outcomes have any value in the society, focuses mainly on knowing, doing and feeling required in the learning environment. The Transitional OBE reflects outcomes that focus on higher level processes; e.g. learners will demonstrate their ability to solve a problem (Evans & King, 1994; Furman, 1994). The traditional curriculum is not discarded, but is adapted to serve the goal of achieving the higher level outcomes. In the long term, transitional OBE produces curricular changes as curriculum development efforts are guided by the defined outcomes.

6.2.5.3 Transformational OBE

Spady (as quoted Fakier & Waghid, 2004:57) refers to this form of OBE as the highest form because it demands a radical change to existing structures and operations in schools. Unlike the transitional and traditional approaches, transformational OBE does not acknowledge subjects but focuses rather on role performances in order to meet the demands of society (ibid:57). In Spady and Marshall's (1991:68) view, it is a collaborative, flexible, trans-disciplinary, Outcomes-based, open-system, empowerment-

orientated approach to schooling. Its main aim is to equip all learners with the knowledge, competence and orientation needed for success after they leave school.

Advocates of Transformational OBE assert that they are people whose thinking is future oriented and visionary (Spady and Marshall, 1991:68). In addition, they are optimistic and oriented to growth and success; embrace, rather than fear, change in education; and are "paradigm pioneers". Spady (quoted by Malcolm, 1999:86) considers this approach as a high form of OBE because it requires the greatest change to the existing structures and operations in schools and to the learning required for the graduation.

Central to Transformational OBE is the emphasis on "role performances", for example, authentic life contexts, settings and experiences (Malcolm, 1999:85; Spady, 1994b:94). It has its roots in the future-scanning procedures found in well-designed strategic planning and design models (Spady & Marshall, 1991:69). In addition, it prepares learners for life and work in a rapidly changing society, and produces learners who can contribute to the vision of a transformed society. The critical outcomes list packages of knowledge, skills and attitudes that will make learners function as critical citizens (DoE, 1997c:19). Local districts choose any content and use a wide variety of teaching methods, as long as they develop learners who display the agreed-upon critical outcomes.

According to Van der Horst and McDonald (1997:20), transformational OBE is future-oriented, and hopes to create learners who will be able to do as follows:

- involved citizens who will contribute towards improving their own welfare and that of others and the quality of life in their own societies and global environments,
- self-directed achievers who will live and work independently and with responsibility towards achieving goals based on positive values, and
- problem solvers who will be able to anticipate, identify and solve problems using critical skills.

Exit outcomes for transformational OBE describe collective visions of future-oriented graduates, e.g. Quality Producers, who create intellectual, artistic, practical and physical products which reflect originality, high standards, and the use of advanced technologies (Evans & King, 1994). Thus, in the rhetoric of the movement, excellence connects to the types of outcomes that teachers enable their learners to achieve.

Transformational OBE, according to Furman (1994), represents the highest evolution of the OBE concept. In this model, exit outcomes serve as the bottom line for teaching and assessment in every area of study. Defining exit outcomes that are future-driven and designed to equip all learners with the knowledge, competence and orientations needed for success after they leave school, is the first step in transformational OBE. These exit outcomes then drive the design of the educational programme, including the curriculum, instructional methods, performance indicators and assessment strategies (Furman, 1994).

In the light of the above ideas, it can be deduced that Transformational OBE is context driven, placing high importance on, not only, *why* the learner is learning for the future, but also *where* learning actually occurs. Based on the latter view, learners perform in real-life context. For this reason, research (Malan, 2001:44) suggests the purpose of Transformational OBE as a means to provide labour market with the kind of employees who are globally competitive.

In the following paragraphs, philosophical background of OBE will be explored.

6.2.6 PHILOSOPHICAL BACKGROUND OF OBE

The concept of outcomes models and systems are not new. OBE does not have any single historical legacy (Jansen, 1999a:146). However, there is a large body of research suggesting diverse opinions on the origin of OBE. According to Malan (2000:23), outcomes models and systems date back at least to the craft guilds of the Middle Ages. Research (Ramolefe, 2004:17) concurs by claiming that the world is filled with examples of outcomes-based models, and that outcomes-based system goes back to at least 500

years to the craft guilds of the Middle Ages. A significant majority of scholars (Spady, 1994b:81; Spady, 1994b:82; Malan, 2001:41; Towers, 1992:90; Waghid, 2001:127; Killen, 1997:26; Fox, 1996; King & Evans, 1991:73; Brady, 1996:4; Naicher, 1999a:47; Brady, 1996:4) claim that OBE emerged in the late 60s and early 70s in the writings of Bloom and Block. Others (Malcolm, 2001:209; Olivier, 1999:20) perceive OBE as a management strategy from the 1950's notions of "*management by objectives*" and more recent concepts of "*total quality management*".

Considerable literature (Jansen, 1999a:146; Spady, 1994b:82; Fox, 1996; Manno, 1994:4; Van der Horst & McDonald, 1997:9; Jacobs, 2000:120; Fakier & Waghid, 2004:55; Killen, 2000:vii) suggests that OBE originates from the theories of Benjamin Bloom, James Block, BF Skinner, John Dewey, and Ralph Tyler. In most cases, Benjamin Bloom is stated as the first followed by others. Benjamin Bloom viewed "*good teaching is the teacher's ability to challenge the learner's fixed beliefs*" (Fox, 1996).

King and Evans (in Capper & Jamison, 1993:427) trace the roots of OBE back to that part of the USA education system which has developed over a period of thirty years (1970s – 1990s) and which includes the work of Tyler and Bloom. On the other hand, some authors (Hold, Marzano, Robinett, Garret, Bigton as referenced by Naicher, 1999a:46; Manno, 1994:4; Gultig *et al*., 1999:23) claim that OBE originates from Spady's ideas and consider him as its architect/founder. For an example, Manno (1994:8) asserts that Spady began to work on the OBE approach in the late 1960s after the release of the Coleman Report. In a different perspective, some authors (Malan, 2000:23; Geyser, 2000:24; Van der Horst and McDonald, 1997:9) maintain that the basic OBE philosophy for curriculum design is firmly rooted in both Tyler's and Wheeler's models.

According to Manno (1994:4), OBE is deep rooted in the philosophy of progressivism, mainly in the thoughts of John Dewey that schools should develop a new social order. Dewey's ideas on education were always practice- and activity-orientated and viewed that education must be thoroughly adjusted to fit the changing demands placed upon the

society. Ozmon and Craver (1999:156) state that many observers equate pragmatism with progressivism and progressivism with John Dewey.

In a philosophical perspective, OBE is grounded in two systematic approaches to instruction, namely Competency-Based Education and Mastery Learning, Criterion Referenced Assessment and Educational Objectives (Towers, 1992:90; Towers, 1994:625; Malan, 2000:22-24; Van der Horst & McDonald, 1997:9; Killen, 1997:26; King and Evans, 1991:73; Brady, 1996:4; Ramolefe, 2004:17).

Competency-Based Education is a general term applied to instructional and assessment efforts aimed at defining and evaluating learner performance. Mastery Learning is a form of individualized instruction in which learners are allowed the time to master each unit of the curriculum; involves organising instruction, providing learners with regular feedback on their learning progress, (Towers, 1994:1992; Van der Horst & McDonald, 1997:11). Also, Mastery Learning provides extra challenges for learners who have mastered the material and gives guidance and direction to help learners correct their individual learning difficulties.

In Guskey *et al.*'s (as quoted by Malan, 2000:23) view, Mastery Learning was initially introduced to provide intervention programmes for learners with mild disabilities and those who were at risk in traditional settings. In addition, the applicability and the value of Mastery Learning provide learners at all levels with similar individualized assistance. For Guskey and Towers (in Ramolefe, 2004:13):

> *[Mastery] learning is an instructional process; it involves organising instruction, providing learners with regular feedback on their learning process, giving guidance and direction to help learners correct individual learning difficulties, and providing extra challenges for learners who have mastered the material. [my insertion]*

The mastery process operates on the proposition that almost every learner can learn the basic skills and knowledge that is the core of the school curriculum, when the instruction

is of good quality and appropriate for him (her) and when he (she) spends adequate time in learning (Fakier & Waghid, 2004:55). The assumption here is that ability (intelligence) does not set a cap on the amount that a learner can learn, but rather on the time needed to master the material (Capper & Jamison as quoted by Fakier & Waghid, 2004:55).

Mastery Learning is an integral part of OBE. Hence, understanding the principles of Mastery Learning is fundamental to understanding OBE. Criterion Referenced Assessment and Educational Objectives deal with testing in which learners' scores or results are compared to a set standard or performance. In essence, criterion referenced assessment measures the mastery of very specific objectives (Van der Horst & McDonald, 1997:12). Educational Objectives include the taxonomies such as Bloom's that provide teachers with frameworks according to which objectives could be used for instructional use and especially for assessment (Van der Horst & McDonald, 1997:12). The inference drawn from the views presented above is that Competency-Based Education, Mastery Learning, Criterion Referenced Assessment and Educational Objectives constitute the theoretical foundation of OBE. Central in the OBE idea is the integration of the four approaches.

Not all OBE models are created equal. Every education model/system has a theoretical basis. Quite often, many education models are underpinned by more than one philosophy. In the case of the South African OBE, literature (Steyn & Wilkinson, 1998:203-205; Claassen, 1998a:34; Arjun, 1998:23; Meyer, 2001:6; Geyser, 2000:32-35; Malcolm, 1999:87-106; Monteith & Weldon, 1999:66) suggests that the model is based on four philosophical assumptions, namely, behaviourism, social reconstructionism, critical theory and pragmatism.

Some scholars (Malcolm, 1999:90-95; Morrow, 1999:40) claim that OBE models in the USA developed from mastery learning, behaviourism, logical positivism and content-based curriculum. In the case of Australia, the models support theories of post-modernism, constructivism and organic approaches in the classroom, but also allow behaviourist, teacher-centred approaches (Malcolm, 1999:98; Morrow, 1999:40). In the

light of these, OBE functions completely different from one model to the other, making comparison between and among countries difficult.

With reference to South Africa, Malcolm (1999:102) contends that the General Framework of Curriculum 2005 (C2005) is similar to the Ontario one – having similarities in eight learning areas and critical outcomes (communicating, problem-solving, critical thinking, environmental and social responsibility, etc.). In learning area frameworks, only levels are defined, namely, Foundation Phase (grades R-3), Intermediate Phase (grades 4-6) and Senior Phase (grades 7-9).

In the following paragraph, the focus will be on the origin and general characteristic features of philosophies underpinning OBE

6.3 ORIGIN AND GENERAL CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES OF PHILOSOPHIES UNDERPINNING OBE

A considerable literature (Moll, 2001:6; Messerschmidt, 2003: 107; Mackrory, 2000: 13; Malcolm, 1999: 103; Arjun, 1998: 25) suggests that, from a philosophical perspective, OBE learning assumes constructivism. Contrary to this claim, it was earlier indicated that literature (Steyn & Wilkinson, 1998:203-205; Claassen, 1998a:34; Arjun, 1998:23; Meyer, 2001:6; Geyser, 2000:32-35; Malcolm, 1999:87-106; Monteith & Weldon, 1999:66) suggests that the South African version of OBE is a hybrid, based on four philosophical assumptions, namely, behaviourism, social reconstructionism, critical theory and pragmatism. This ingrained tension of views cannot easily be reconciled or swept over. In the following paragraphs, the characteristic features of: pragmatism, social reconstructionism, critical theory and behaviourism will be explored and analysed using Table 2.3 (Matrix of Paradigmatic Value Systems).

6.3.1 Pragmatism

The concept "pragmatism" is derived from the Greek noun "*pragma*" meaning "works or deeds" (Steyn *et al*., 1986:101; Landman *et al*., 1990:74; De Vries, 1986:135). Pragmatism, is also referred to as experimentalism, is based on change, process and relativity (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998:35; Akinpelu, 1995:143). As Ornstein and Levin (1999:98) put it, it is a philosophy that (1) judges the validity of ideas by their consequences in action; and (2) encourages us to seek out the processes and do the things that work best to help us achieve desirable ends. On the other hand, Audi (1996:638) sees it as philosophy that stresses the relation of theory to praxis and takes the continuity of experience and nature as revealed through the outcome of directed action as the starting point.

Pragmatism, according to Steyn and Wilkinson (1998:205), came into being as a reaction against ideals and idealism, which cannot be implemented practically. Its roots can be traced back to the ancient Greek philosopher, such as Protagoras of Abdera (485-415BC), who rejected the existence of the absolute truth. Protagoras held that true ideas must be verifiable in practice (Engelbrecht *et al*., 1989:116; De Vries, 1986:135). This school of thought searches for a philosophy which bestows dignity and grandeur upon the struggle of human life (Engelbrecht *et al*., 1989:116).

Pragmatism is underpinned by a number of viewpoints. Dewey and the pragmatists believed that education is a necessity of life. For Dewey, education's sole purpose is to contribute to the social growth of individuals (Ornstein & Levine, 1999:138; Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998:83; De Vries, 1986:139); and it renews people so that they can face the problems encountered through their interaction with the environment (Ozmon & Craver, 1999:150). Dewey considered schools as neutral institutions that could serve the ends of either freedom or repression and authority (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998:83).

At the heart of pragmatism is the assumption that, through experience, one continuously creates reality. The pragmatic view of reality is that one's reality is what one experiences

– nothing exists beyond his experience (Steyn *et al*., 1986:101). For the pragmatists, eternal, absolute and perfect reality does not exist (Steyn *et al*., 1986:101; Engelbrecht *et al*., 1989:116; Landman *et al*., 1990:74; Ornstein & Levin, 1999:398; Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998:35; De Vries, 1986:136; Akinpelu, 1995: 146; Geyser, 2000:34).

A number of views about pragmatic knowledge and truth exist. Central to this school of thought, is the notion that knowledge and truth are in the constant process of change – they are not fixed constructs (Steyn *et al*., 1986:101; Engelbrecht *et al*., 1989:116; Landman *et al*., 1990:74; Ornstein & Levin, 1999:399; Akinpelu, 1995: 146; Kelly, 1989:33). The pragmatic view of knowledge and truth assumes that knowledge is dependent upon its usefulness and serviceableness. According to Steyn *et al*. (1986:101), access to knowledge can only be obtained by means of experimental approach, and experimental approach is the only epistemological method.

Pragmatists view human experience as the true means of discovering truth. As Engelbrecht *et al*. (1989:116) point, pragmatism sees truth as relative to every situation and, therefore, relative to everyone who accepts it. Literature (Steyn *et al*., 1986:101; Ornstein & Levin, 1999:398; Akinpelu, 1995:146; De Vries, 1986:139) suggests that truth is man-made and consists of the workability of ideas; it does not possess any intrinsic value; and exist for man's sake.

In the light of these, pragmatism belongs to the emerging paradigm. It does not recognise permanent reality; it assumes that knowledge is tentative and subject to revision; and views knowledge and truth as evolving and a social construct. In essence, truth is neither absolute nor of divine origin; it is man-made and can be corrected by further future evidence. Thus, the truth of a thought is proved by the practice to which it leads.

6.3.2 Social reconstructionism

Literature (Ozmon & Craver, 1999:179; Ornstein & Levin, 1999:403; Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998:56; Steyn & Wilkinson, 1998:204; Geyser, 2000:33) suggests that social

reconstructionism is rooted in pragmatism and it is aimed at reconstructing the society. However, it is underpinned by a number of assumptions. According to Steyn and Wilkinson (1998:204), it operates from the assumption that the existing social structures strive to maintain the present position of power or the *status quo*.

Like other philosophies, social reconstructionism is underpinned by a number of assumptions. Among other things, social reconstructionism operates from the assumption that no universal, objective, final truths or values exist (Steyn & Wilkinson, 1998:204; Geyser, 2000:33). In this school of thought, knowledge and values are not regarded as being universal and final; and, it believes in moral relativism. Moral relativism is a constructivistic view that allows for plurality of moral facts and truths (Audi, 1996:243).

In Ornstein and Hunkins' (1998:50) view, the reconstructionist philosophy is based on early socialistic and utopian ideas of the 19th century. This philosophy, according to Ozmon and Craver (1999:176), contains two major premises: (1) society is in need of constant reconstruction or change; and (2) such social change involves both a reconstruction of education and the use of education in reconstructing the society. Further, reconstructionist philosophy on the whole is strongly inclined towards utopian thinking. Reconstructionists have a penchant for utopian thinking which manifests itself in the desire for an ideal world, free of anger, strive and inhumanity (Ozmon & Craver, 1999:179:184).

Social reconstructionism argues that human kind has reached a serious cultural crisis of global dimensions; and holds that if schools continue to reflect traditional concepts and values, they will transmit social ills – exploitation, war, violence – that are symptoms of our cultural crisis (Ornstein & Levin, 1999:407; Geyser, 2000:33). Ozmon and Craver (1999:178) posit that social reconstructionists advocated that education should reconstruct the society by integrating new technological and scientific developments with those parts of the culture that remain viable.

For the reconstructionists, education's overriding goal is to create a world order in which people control their own destiny by applying their practical intelligence (Ornstein & Levin, 1999:407; Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998:51). Furthermore, in identifying social problems, this school of thought advocates that teachers should lead their learners on a searching examination of culture and society, both domestically and globally. For our own survival, Ornstein and Levin (1999:408) assert that the social reconstructionists believe that we must become social engineers, plotting our future and then using our scientific and technological expertise to reach the defined goals.

In education, the idea of learning as a process is widely accepted; learners do not passively receive information, but instead actively construct knowledge as they strive to make sense of their worlds (Geyser, 2000:33; Steyn & Wilkinson, 1998:204). The learning theories of social constructivists emphasise the aspects, such as, the supporting role of the teacher as facilitator in the learning process, cooperative learning, and the importance of learning in an authentic or real-life context (Hamilton & Ghatala and Good & Brophy as quoted by Steyn & Wilkinson, 1998:204). The official document on OBE (DOE. 1997a) acknowledges that teachers are perceived as facilitators and not as authoritarian sources of knowledge. Furthermore, it states that learners should be empowered to become involved in the construction of their own meaning and knowledge.

Reconstructionism has implications for the classroom teacher. Since reconstructionists see schools as agencies that will create a new social order (Geyser, 2000:33), they do not define education in exclusively academic terms (Ornstein & Levin, 1999:410). Instead, reconstructionist teachers encourage learners to diagnose the major problems confronting human beings on the planet Earth: pollution, environment, warfare, famine, terrorism, violence and the spread of epidemic diseases such as AIDS (Ornstein & Levin, 1999:410). Also, the role of teachers, according to Ornstein and Levin (1999:410), is to encourage learners to share their cultural heritage and to build knowledge base incorporating the contributions of many diverse ethnic, racial and language groups. Through this process, reconstructionist teachers stress the use of democratic procedures (Ornstein & Levin, 1999:410).

Against the above background, social reconstructionism fits through the lens of the emerging paradigm. At the heart of this philosophy is the assumption that no universal, objective, final truths or values exist. It sees knowledge as a social construct and emphasises the aspects, such as, the supporting role of the teacher as facilitator in the learning process, cooperative learning and the importance of learning in an authentic or real-life context.

6.3.3 Critical theory

Critical theory is often linked to neo-Marxism and postmodernism as it is aimed at raising consciousness about critical issues (Neuman, 1997:73; Ozmon & Craver, 1999:327; Ornstein & Levin, 1999:403; Gibson, 1986:7; Steyn & Wilkinson, 1998:204). Geyser (2000:34) posit that the key focus areas in the philosophy critical theory are the change and emancipation of societies and individuals from being regulated and indoctrinated towards being and questioning.

According to Carr (2000:208), the concept “critical theory” has a two fold meaning. It is used to refer to a “school of thought”. The “school of thought” with which critical theory is associated, is commonly referred to as “the Frankfurt School”. The concept “critical theory” was probably first applied to the work of Frankfurt school (Ozmon & Craver, 1999:327; Gibson, 1986:21; Huckle, 1993; Steyn & Wilkinson, 1998:204). The second meaning of the concept “critical theory” – which also simultaneously includes, as perhaps the major instance, the work of those associated with the Frankfurt School – is one which resonates with a particular process of critique, the origins of which owe multiple allegiances (Carr, 2000:209). At one and the same time it also refers to self-conscious critique that is aimed at change and emancipation through enlightenment and does not cling dogmatically to its own doctrinal assumptions (Geuss, 1981; Giroux, 1983).

Critical theory has a number of assumptions. Among others, as Ornstein and Levin, 1999:417) point, critical theory sees the school as a place where different groups are in conflict over the curriculum. For example, civil rights, environmentalists, feminists,

counterculture, basic education, etc. Critical theorists argue that many structures in contemporary society, including educational institutions, are used by powerful groups to control those who lack power (Ornstein & Levin, 1999:417). Furthermore, the power holders seek to impose their knowledge, beliefs and values on those who lack economic and political power; and the power holders in the corporate capitalist sector dominate political process and the media. On the basis of their critique, critical theorists advocate a reform agenda to empower those who lack control over their own lives and destinies (Ornstein & Levin, 1999:147; Gibson, 1986:5).

Critical theory involves both critique and reform. As a critique, it examines the issues of control of educational institutions and control (Ornstein & Levin, 1999:417). At the heart of critical theory, lie four fundamental questions: (1) *Who makes policies that govern the school? (2) Who controls the school? (3) Who determines the ethical, social and economic goals of education? and (4) Who sets the curriculum?* Once this question is answered, according to Ornstein and Levin (1999:417), critical theorists turn to the motivations behind this control.

Critical theorists argue that the conventional curriculum has been dominated by Eurocentric, white male perspective that is contaminated by racism, sexism and imperialism (Ornstein & Levin, 1999:418). Rejecting perennialist argument that the curriculum must feature the classics of Western civilisation, critical theorists see these classics as period pieces that legitimise the cultural dominance of one group over another (Ornstein & Levin, 1999:418). For them, the curriculum needs to be deconstructed or taken apart, and then reconceptualised to include different cultural experiences and perspectives, especially those neglected in the past by the dominant power structures (Ornstein & Levin, 1999:418).

Ornstein and Levin (1999:418) assert that critical theorists believe that all children and adolescents must attend school, but they want schools to become liberating rather than indoctrinating agencies. They (critical theorists) contend that schools have been and continue to be controlled by dominant groups that impose their version of knowledge as

means of social control; and propose that schools be transformed into "democratic spheres" where young people become conscious of the need to create a more equitable society for all people (Ornstein & Levin, 1999:419; Gibson, 1986:5).

For critical theorists, teachers, like learners, need to be empowered so that they can use methods that open students to social alternatives rather than mirroring the *status quo* (Ornstein & Levin, 1999:418; Gibson, 1986:5). They attack mechanisms such as standardised testing teacher competency assessment, and top-down administration-controlled schools as disempowering teachers. Like other philosophies, critical theory has implications for today's classroom teacher. Among others, Ornstein and Levin (1999:420) assert that critical theorists want teachers to examine ideologies that connect education to wider social and political issues. In emphasising cultural diversity, critical theorists would lead learners on knowledge explorations that begin with their own unique multicultural experiences (Ornstein & Levin, 1999:420).

Critical theory has distinctive features about truth and knowledge. According to Carr (2000:214), the founding members of the Frankfurt School embraced the Hegelian foundation of dialectics, they did, however, reject his claims to absolute truth, preferring a historical contextual interpretation. Truth was a mediated truth, and part of that mediation was the historical period (Carr, 2000:214). Part of that "truth" also came from the ideologies that were distributed through a "culture industry" and yet another part was to be found in the material reality of those needs, desires and wants that bear the inscription of history. That is, history is to be found as "second nature" in those concepts and views of the world that make the most dominating aspects of the social order appear to be immune from historical socio-political development (Giroux, 1983: 32).

The focus of critical theory, according to Carr (200:211), is simply not to mirror "reality" as it is, which is what traditional theory seeks to do, but to change it – the goal of critical theory is "the emancipation of human beings from the circumstances that enslave them". It is noted that critical theory aims to produce a particular form of knowledge that seeks to realize an emancipatory interest, specifically through a critique of consciousness and

ideology. It separates itself from both functionalist/objective and interpretive/ practical sciences through a critical epistemology that rejects the self-evident nature of reality and acknowledges the various ways in which reality is distorted (Carr, 2000:209).

Critical theory has dialectic and historical aspects. For the Frankfurt School, as Carr (2000:214) observes, critical theory and dialectic optic was needed to unmask forms of psychological and social domination and simultaneously engender liberation. Further, for the Frankfurt School, to embrace the critical theory's attention to the issue of dialectics is to embrace a perspective that draws attention to the social totality and our mediated existence (Carr, 2005:214). This school of thought holds that no aspect of our life world can be understood in isolation - life world has both a synchronic and diachronic features. The synchronic aspect, according to Carr (2005:214), is that we are drawn to consider the interrelationship of components of a society within a totality. In addition, the diachronic aspect is that we are drawn to consider a historical dimension of society. Geuss (1981:22), in similar vein, notes that one of the senses in which the critical theory is said by its proponents to be dialectical (and hence superior to its rivals) is just in that it explicitly connects questions about the "inherent" truth or falsity of a form of consciousness with questions about history, origin and function in society.

In the background of the above, critical theory seems to be an approach that offers guides to human action that aim to produce enlightenment and are inherently emancipatory; and offers a form of knowledge that is multidimensional, avoiding the reduction of knowledge to linear, quantitative-empirical perspectives. Also, it rejects claims to absolute truth and functionalist/objective knowledge. In essence, it sees knowledge as a historical, dialectical and a social product. Therefore, it is compatible to the emerging paradigm.

6.3.4 Behaviourism

Literature (Steyn & Wilkinson, 1998:203; Geyser, 2000:32) suggests that the philosophy of behaviourism has a strong psychological bias, focusing on external human behaviour,

which can be observed. As Steyn and Wilkinson (1998:203) put it, it is a philosophy which deliberately breaks away from the previous interpretations which explain human behaviour as driven by deep-seated internal motives such as power, fear, anger, sex, love, etc.

The principles of behaviourism and the techniques for behavioural engineering go back to at least Pavlov and Watson, but Skinner pioneered their implementation in many fields of contemporary life (Ozmon & Craver, 1999:222; Bargh & Ferguson, 2000:926; Barnes-Holmes, 2003:146). Ozmon and Craver (1999:222) posit that Skinner saw behaviourism extending to politics, economics and other social organisations; and he strongly championed it as an educational method that is more practical than any other. The primary aims of behaviourist techniques is to change behaviour and point it in more desirable directions (ibid:224).

Behaviourism is constituted by a number of assumptions. For the behaviourist, among other things, human behaviour is overt, observable and measurable (Brennan, 1991:327; Geyser, 2000:32; Steyn & Wilkinson, 1998:203). In addition to this, is a belief that measurable and observable behaviour is informed by the stimuli from the environment. As Ozmon and Craver (1999:223) notes, behaviourists view the learner to be an organism who is already highly programmed before coming to school. This programming is accomplished by, among others, influences, parents, peers, siblings and television. For Skinner, one reason why people have trouble making decisions is that the programmings they have received on morality have been contradictory – parent often say one thing and do another (Ozmon & Craver, 1999:223). Against this background, Skinner wanted to replace erratic and haphazard conditioning that most people receive with something systematic and meaningful (Ozmon & Craver, 1999:223).

Skinner drew distinction between education and conditioning. He did not believe that the mind is free to begin with. Whatever kinds of critical judgements or acceptance of ideas learners make, are already predicated on ideas with which they have been previously conditioned (Ozmon & Craver, 1999:223). Although many behaviourists use positive and

negative methods of reinforcing behaviour, Skinner advocated positive reinforcement (Ozmon & Craver, 1999:224; Barnes-Holmes, 2003:149).

Behaviourism finds its paradigmatic home in the mechanistic worldview. It sees human behaviour as overt, observable and measurable construct; and assumes the existence of absolute truth and objective knowledge. Embedded in it, among others, is a linear cause-effect and unidirectional interaction, explained by deductive reasoning. Thus, behaviourism fits through the lens of the scientific paradigm.

In the light of the preceding paragraphs on pragmatism, social reconstruction and critical theory, there appears to be apparent contradiction in the underlying principles rendering the claim that OBE include these elements unbearable. In essence each of these approaches, requires the need to change the classroom management practices – it is only in the case of behaviourism that such a change would not be required.

6.4 CRITICS OF OBE

Central to understanding issues relating to the implementation of OBE in the South African context, it essential to give an overview relating to critics. This study acknowledges that every new idea or approach is not necessarily another paradigm and every change in mind-set is not a “paradigm shift”. Though South African outcomes-based curriculum (C2005, RNCS, and NCS) is a hybrid from various philosophical groundings, but whether or not this represent a major “paradigm shift”, this study maintains that a hybrid cannot constitute a paradigm shift and that the claims that it is, is false – or a clear indication of political symbolism.

OBE has received a fair deal of criticism since its introduction to schools in countries such as the United States of America and Australia during the eighties (Van der Horst & McDonald, 1997:16). In the South African context, its critics range across racial and ideological spectrum. According to Jansen (1999c:11), the criticism OBE covered much wider issues than those encountered in the United States of America. These include:

ideological and philosophical assumptions governing OBE; implementation contexts of OBE and the need to establish adequate resourcing strategies if OBE is to work; and the equity consequences of OBE with the likelihood of it succeeding in white privileged schools and further disempowering those working in black, marginalised schools.

The OBE approach is considered by some to be a drastic change from the traditional perspective to learning, while others see it as a superficial system which is not much different from the traditional education and training (Meyer, 2001:1). Geyser (2000:23) states that critics object to the idea that OBE is a radical "paradigm shift"; and others see little or no change and insist that "this is how we have been teaching all along". The central idea of the argument is that OBE does not have the depth and magnitude to constitute a "paradigm shift".

In the South African context, some of the criticisms listed include the following:

- Arjun (1998:25) sees no major "paradigm shift" associated with the new curriculum – curriculum planners are still opting for Tyler's "means-end" paradigm;
- Malan's (2000:24) concern is: "Does replacing the previous system with an OBE approach represents a *paradigm shift*? Are OBE and its philosophy and practice so different that being promoted as educational paradigm being warranted?";
- Bellis (2000:10) poses the question "Is it not rather that old practice is dressed up in new, politically correct language?";
- Malan (2000:28) perceives OBE as an approach firmly rooted in the past educational approaches, and does not represent a "paradigm shift" as advocated by its proponents;
- Waghid (2001:128) sees no sufficient changes in education in South Africa "based on the fact that OBE is trapped in an instrumentally justifiable view of education";
- Arjun (1998:25) claims that the curriculum actually displays technocratic characteristics that are similar to the old order, the dominant paradigm, not the logic of the new, emergent paradigm;

- Innerst (1994:10) contends that critics equate OBE with "mastery learning" in which teachers teach until every learner has learned the concept and passed the test on it; and
- OBE will fail, not because politicians and bureaucrats are misinformed about the conditions of the South African schooling, but because the policy is driven by political imperatives which have little to do with the realities of classroom life (Jansen, 1999a: 147; Jansen, 1998). In addition, it will undermine the already fragile learning environment in schools and classrooms of the new South Africa (ibid.).

Contrary to these arguments, those claiming that OBE is indeed a "*paradigm shift*" argue that the essence of OBE lies in its shift away from typical school practices where performance is based primarily on varying sets of requirements in a fixed period of time (McGhan, 1994:70; Mohlakwana, 2002:1). The shift is towards learning rather than teaching; to provide experience rather than information; move from normative, paper-based examinations towards outcomes-based assessment as reflected in National Standards (Meyer, 2001:1). In detailed tables of comparison of the old and new curricula – focusing on basic principles, methodology and assessment, Geyser (2000:26-30) claims as follows:

- the shift can be seen in terms of learning, time allocation, the roles of the teacher and the learner, standards, and entire structure of education;
- the shift from content, the teacher, and what and how the learner learns; and
- the shift from norm-referenced assessment to criterion-referenced assessment, single attribute assessment to multi-dimensional assessment.

6.5 INSIGHTS ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF POLICY: THEORY AND PRACTICE

The issues surrounding the dilemma of translating educational policies into classrooms, as Hariparsad (2004:12) notes, are not new. The problem and complexity of implementing policies were first described in the early 1970s by Jeffrey Pressman and

Aaron Wildavsky who, in their investigation on the complexities of policy implementation, found that implementers did not always do as they were told, nor did they always act to maximise the policy objectives, but "responded in what often seemed quite idiosyncratic, frustratingly unpredictable, if not downright resistant ways" (ibid:12). Thus, there is a gap between the view of policy makers and implementers.

Understanding policy implementation is essential to this study for the purposes of implementing OBE policy successfully. According to Smith (2001:ii), educational policy for educational change only becomes a reality once it is implemented at micro (classroom) level. In addition, the teachers are indeed role-key players in this implementation phase and are unfortunately, more often than not, the silent voices in this process, ignored and discounted in this stage of educational change. Despite the growing literature on educational change, relatively little has been done on the experiences of primary school teachers and policy change in the context of developing countries such as South Africa (Smith, 2001:ii).

Implementation of policy is more complex than policy development (Molale, 2004:34). Mokhaba (2005:112) concurs with Molale (2004:34) when he states that policy implementation is a much more demanding task than policy formulation – there are more impediments blocking intended actions by the government than there are to materialise results. Research (Molale, 2004:34) on South African education policies, indicates that policy practitioners (teachers) often find themselves operating in different contexts from the policy makers (bureaucrats). In most cases, teachers are under-resourced, poorly skilled and do not share the same meaning with the policy makers.

O'Connell (1999:21) notes that any policy, if it is to be of more than symbolic value, must be supported by a realistic implementation plan. Failure to do this, particularly in the case of a large scale, critical innovation like major curriculum changes, will almost certainly ensure the failure of the project (ibid:21). Bak (1999:6) states that policy is made at national level, often with very little consideration of local conditions. In addition, unless policy resonates with what teachers are doing, the policy is unlikely to achieve its

goals. Bak's (1999:4) view, in terms of policy formation and implementation is as follows:

- the best policy puts minimum resources;
- the best policy sets clear objectives about what we want to achieve and why; and
- policies must be clear, understandable and accessible.

Policy implementation does not take place in a vacuum (Molale, 2004:34). As Mokhaba (2005:129) observes, policies are implemented under specific political, social, economic and legal setting. The process under which a policy is implemented may impact positively or negatively. Hence, the contextuality of policy implementation is an important factor to be studied for policy implementation (ibid:129). Research (More, 2004:ii) states that Policy implementation became one of the most difficult challenges South Africa had to contend with. Furthermore, it necessitated the development of the capacity of the state and its people to implement policy.

Allington's (2002:12) findings on studies of policy implementation, suggest that few policies are faithfully implemented. He uses the concept of "policy collision" to describe contrary mandates produced by the policy. Another view of policy implementation, according to Mokhaba (2005:114), is based on the top-down approach (for example, cascade model) and the bottom up approach. The bottom-up approach is the reaction to the top-down approach. It studied the weaknesses and proposed the alternatives to eradicate the shortcomings (Mokhaba, 2005:114). This approach, according to Brynard and Erusmus (1995:169), holds that policy implementers, because of their location, are in a better position to propose modification of polices to suite the need of their local needs. Both approaches have strengths and weaknesses. Mokhaba (2005:114) claims that these approaches to policy implementation reveal that they are not mutually exclusive – both provide useful insight into policy implementation. Therefore, the identification and utilization of the strengths of both approaches could lead to an improved policy implementation (Mokhaba, 2005:114).

The line of demarcation between policy development and implementation creates a top down conception of the policy process. As Mokoena (2005:158) states, in the policy process the teachers are seen as receivers and implementers of the policies, which is a way of thinking adopted when following a linear approach. This study holds that, declaring and generating curriculum policy is not the same thing as achieving it; and declared policies without the fundamentals of educational support leads to more confusion. Also, policies must be understandable, clear and accessible – OBE policy should make sense to the teacher. Thus, policy makers need to acknowledge that implementing what they view as best practices, do not necessarily lead to development, competence and commitment which are important in the policy implementation (Mokoena, 2005:158).

Hariparsad's (2004:10) research reviewed a considerable number studies, both from the developing and developed countries. Many of these studies claim that policy reforms designed to improve the quality of schooling are more rhetorical than substantive in their impact in classrooms and schools, thus exposing dissonance between policy intention and policy outcome at the level of practice. These findings suggest that policy is not self-executing. Also, in South Africa, a similar trend with education policies emerged. Jansen (2002:199) states that:

> *[Despite] unprecedented investments in policy making and policy production … in South Africa, there appears to be very little change in the daily routines in the classrooms of the nation.* [my insertion]

Darling-Hammond (as quoted by Molale, 2004:101) contends that policy is not so much implemented (as planned) as it is re-invented at each level of the system. Furthermore, what ultimately happens in schools and classrooms is less related to the intentions of the policy makers than to leadership and motivations that operate in local context. In the light of this contention, socio-political framework will be employed as lens through which implementation of OBE will be explored. The use of socio-political framework is hinged on several factors. Policies are not only socially oriented, they are also the products of the

political systems; and they involve a contested field of power or influence to allocate resources (Molale, 2004:101).

A significant number of explanations for the policy gaps exist in both local and international literature. In the South African case, Jansen (2001b; 2001d) attributes the construct of "political symbolism" to the failure of educational policies as a direct result of over-investment of the state in political symbolism rather than in its practical implementation. According to Sayed (2001a:189), such (symbolic) policies signal and provide images of the desired educational outcomes and focus on "frameworks" rather than specific content of educational policies.

Political patterns have unfortunate implications for both the design and the implementation of educational policies (Lucen, 2003:32). Therefore, there exists a serious problem between policy makers (bureaucrats) and policy implementers (teachers) because, in many instances, implementers are expected to implement policies which they were not party to their formulation. Hariparsad (2004:21) states that:

> *[Our] own tendency as policy advisors and policy makers is to overshoot noble goals with too many simultaneously announced rapid fire policy change and forget how to implement these*. [my insertion]

From a post-modern organisational perspective, the school is seen as an organisation within the symbolic frame. Symbolic frame, according to Theron (1996:66), differs significantly from traditional organisational theories of rationality, certainty and linearity. Bolman and Deal (as cited by Theron, 1996:66) assert that it is helpful in understanding the dynamics of the educational organisations; and based on unconventional assumptions about the nature of organisations and human behaviour. Among others, symbolic frame assumes that the most important aspect of any event is *not* what happened, but "what it means"; events as meanings are loosely coupled; and are faced with uncertainties and ambiguity, human beings create "symbols" to resolve confusion, increase predictability, and provide direction. Thus, symbolic frame could be held accountable to

"implementation slippage of the educational policy in schools" – whether or not the policy is implementable does not count most, but what it means or symbolises.

Research (Laauwen, 2004:23) states that several postulations why policies do not get off the ground or are subject to "implementation slippage" exist in the literature. These postulations break away from the traditional view that policy fails simply because there are no resources. To sum up, OBE is a political symbol to demonstrate curriculum reform which was a priority in 1994.

6.6 CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF C2005, NCS AND RNCS POLICIES

In this analysis, C2005, NCS and RNCS Policies using a "political symbolist" lens were explored. Understanding the weaknesses of educational policy and practice is necessary to enhance the understanding of the long-term implications and effects of political symbolism. In Motala's (2001:240) view, such understanding is important because it:

> *concerns questions about the value of learning in the formation and transformation of societies. It would enable analysts to evaluate whether the stated objectives of national policy and constitution of the country itself are being achieved in practice.*

The discrepancy policy and practice seems to be a recurring theme in education policy attention in the literature (Molale, 2004:1). In addition, too often policy-makers and politicians are focused on the desired outcomes of educational change but neglect the contextual factors that influence implementation. In South Africa, much attention has been focused on policy formulation without indicating how to translate such policies into measurable outcomes (Molale, 2004:1). Welton (2001:179) notes that at grassroots level, there is a greater familiarity with the jargon of transformation than practical understanding of what it means and how it can be implemented.

As in many developing countries, curriculum reform in South Africa has resulted in several structural and policy tensions within the system (Cross *et al.*, 2002:172). These

tensions, among others, include vision *vis-à-vis* the countries realities; symbolism *vis-à-vis* mass expectation; the curriculum framework *vis-à-vis* applicability, conditions of implementation and actual practice in schools; expected outcomes *vis-à-vis* capacity of teachers to translate them into reality; and budget concerns *vis-à-vis* commitment to values such as equity, redress and massification (Cross *et al*., 2002:172).

Cross *et al*. (2002:172) contend that since the establishment of the new political dispensation, the South African government has placed emphasis on the introduction of policies and mechanisms aimed at redressing the legacy of a racially and ethnically fragmented, dysfunctional and unequal education system inherited from apartheid. Within this schooling system, the most significant of these was a radical departure from apartheid education through an outcomes-based curriculum (Cross *et al*., 2002:171).

An analysis of official documents (DoE, 1997a; 1997b; 1997c; 1997e; 1997f; 2000c; 2000d; 2001a; 2001b; 2002a; 2002b; 2003a; 2004) on OBE suggests that although learner-centred (constructivist) teaching is emphasised, there is currently a conspicuous absence of classroom management strategies that will address the teachers' needs in order to ensure successful implementation of a constructivist curriculum. However, DoE (2002a:19) only states that teachers should have an understanding of how people learn and of learning models such as Experimental Learning, Constructivism, Multiple Intelligences and other models.

DoE (2000c:16) focuses on classroom management. The policy seems to assume that teachers are familiar with constructivist philosophy. Given that almost all teachers have been trained and taught in, a traditional context, very few are adequately equipped for the reality of constructivist teaching and classroom management. It is, therefore, of crucial importance that teachers in the OBE environment should acquaint and equip themselves with knowledge, skills and competencies compatible with constructivist classroom management - required to facilitate optimal learning.

With reference to the planning and classroom management, there seems to be a missing link – documents give very little, if any, or no conceptually key features of classroom management in a constructivist learning. The DoE (2002a:7) only states that each teacher is responsible for drawing up his/her own plans for what will happen in his/her classroom during each period of the day. In the same vein, DoE (2003:4) highlights that teachers will prepare their own lesson plans to support teaching, learning and assessment in their particular classroom. The two statements lack that substance or feature of managing learners constructing own knowledge. This implies that most teachers still rely on traditional ways of managing classrooms.

Official documents (DoE, 2001a; DoE, 2002b) seem not to be addressing classroom management within a constructivist environment. They appear to assume a simple logic between policy and practice, i.e. policy moves logically and naturally from intention to realisation. The policy appears to have little, if any, practical guidelines on leadership roles of the teacher in a constructivist classroom. Though the policy is not prescriptive, it does not provide clear constructivist guidelines on basic classroom management.

DoE (2003a:1) contends that curriculum and teacher development theories in recent years have focused on the role of the teacher and specialists in the development and implementation of effective teaching, learning and assessment practices and materials. In the RNCS Grades R-9 (school), mention has been made that these will now be called Teacher's Guide for the Development learning programmes (ibid:1). Even though DoE (2002a:7) states that there is no single correct way of drawing up plans for the classroom as all teachers have personal preferences; what works for one person may not work for others; the documents give roles of teachers that lack essential and characteristic features of constructivist and/or contingency management approach. It leaves more discretion to the teacher. Thus, it assumes that teachers are conversant with the constructivist philosophy.

RNCS documents (DoE, 2000c; 2000d; 2001a; 2001b; 2002a; 2002b; 2003a) suggest that OBE classrooms should be inclusive. This implies a significant change in both teacher

roles and the traditional ways in which classrooms were managed. DoE (2002a:9) holds that effective management of this diversity is a critical element of teaching because this helps to make this diversity an asset and resource for learning. In addition, this according to DoE (2002a:9), necessitates teachers to plan for: diversity in learning styles; managing the pace of learning; differences in levels of achievement and development; cultural and language diversity; gender diversity.

DoE (2001a; 2002b) seems to overstress largely symbolism paying little and/or no attention to implementation issues (see chapter 4 and chapter 2 respectively), specifically at classroom level. According to the RNCS policy (DoE, 2001a:18), the envisaged teachers should be socially and politically critical and responsible, professionally competent and in touch with current developments in his/her area of expertise. In addition, they should be open to views held by learners and other peers and should subscribe to the notion of lifelong learners.

According to Malan (2001:200), Curriculum 2005 is informed by a vision of unity, justice and prosperity. From a policy context, it is largely invested on political symbolism, paying little insufficient attention to issues of implementation (Sayed, 2001a:189; Sayed, 2001b:252; Jansen, 1999a:154: Jansen, 1999d:89; Jansen, 2001:272; Jansen, 2001c:13; Jansen, 2001d:47). Malan (2001:211) asserts that the features of the South African OBE (transformational) policy are concerned with systematic transformation rather than with curriculum development. In addition, it places more emphasis on personal and social development than on cognitive development. Similarly, Jansen (1999a:147) holds that this policy is being driven by political imperatives which have little to do with the realities of classroom life.

Fundamental to this study, is an assumption that OBE classroom management should move towards constructivist policy guidelines. There is need to establish guidelines that will place constructivism at the centre of the development of teaching and learning policy for South African schools. The study proposes for leadership roles that will effect the shift in terms of classroom management from instructionist to constructivist paradigm.

Many thinkers and teachers, both ancient and modern, have asserted that our thoughts create reality (Belvel & Jordan, 2002:4). This study holds that the shift from instructionalist to constructivist paradigm; and the inconsistency between the RNCS policy symbolism and philosophical principles of constructivism will be problematic, unless classroom management policies are rethought within constructivist principles.

6.7 CONCLUSION

OBE is a hybrid from various philosophical groundings, namely behaviourism, social reconstructionism, critical theory and pragmatism; and finds itself stretched in the two competing paradigms. On one hand, behaviourism seems to fit through the lens of the scientific paradigm - seeing human behaviour as an overt, observable and measurable construct; and assuming the existence of absolute truth and objective knowledge. On the other hand, social reconstructionism, critical theory and pragmatism appear to be compatible with the emerging worldview. Central to these philosophies, among other things, is the rejection of the existence of the absolute truth and objective knowledge. Knowledge is seen as an historical, dialectical and a social product. In essence, the philosophies and the roles of the teacher in outcomes-based classroom call for a dramatic shift in classroom focus, away from the transmission model of teaching toward one that is much more complex and interactive. Therefore, a hybrid classroom management approach is apposite.

CHAPTER 7

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This aim of this study is to conceptually interrogate the notion of constructivist classroom management and investigate how classroom management within a constructivist mode differs from traditional classroom management within an instructionist approach. The current problem is that constructivist classroom management is required to support the implementation of OBE and, thus, should have been included in the training of classroom teachers if success with OBE implementation is to be achieved. In this study, a conceptual analysis based on the analysis done and the reflection on the data it is posited that classroom management within a constructivist setting needs to move from traditional to contingency classroom management approach has been presented.

Chapter 1 provides the introduction and motivation, problem statement, aims of the study, research methodology employed, credibility and authenticity, clarification of key concept and plan of the thesis.

Chapter 2 focuses on the research methodology. This study is qualitative, non-empirical and analytical in nature. It made use of literature reviews/conceptual historical analysis, conceptual analysis and hermeneutics as research strategies. A typology of non-empirical questions recommended by Babbie and Mouton (2001:77), Huysamen (1995:154-9) conceptual analysis steps, and Wilsonian concept analysis were used to examine and distinguish between the defining attributes of the concepts "*instructionist classroom management"* and "*constructivist classroom management*" and their relevant attributes. Given that Wilsonian model has limitations, conceptual cartography was employed to facilitate an in-depth conceptual analysis instructionist and constructivist classroom management. In this study, the Matrix of Paradigmatic Value Systems was used as a tool/lens to categorise "instructionist classroom management" and "constructivist

classroom management" in terms of their paradigmatic roots. Credibility and authenticity, in this study, was achieved through crystallisation instead of triangulation

Chapter 3 is devoted to conceptualising instructionist classroom management and the historical and analytical perspectives on traditional/ instructionist classroom management. It commences with the definitions of the concepts: instructionist, classroom, management and classroom management, followed by historical and analytical perspectives on traditional classroom management. Organisational analytical perspectives on instructionist/traditional classroom management are explained.

Attention is also paid to the nature and the essence of instructionist/traditional classroom management, where the origins and characteristic features of traditional/instructionist classroom management; views on traditional (instructionist) teaching and learning; and leadership roles of the teacher in instructionist setting are explored. This chapter concludes by investigating the philosophical approaches to classroom management; classroom management theories; and models of classroom management.

Chapter 4 deals with an analysis of studies conducted on instructionist and constructivist classroom management. On the one hand, articles were selected to analyse as case. Within these articles, studies conducted on instructionist classroom management, in both developed and developing countries ranging from 1980 to 2005, into classroom management practices were used. In this study, thirty articles were reviewed. Of these thirty articles, fifteen have been used, to illustrate the trends in terms of the methodology and their findings.

On the other hand, regarding constructivist classroom management, fifty articles, ranging from 1980 to 2005, from both local and international literature, dealing with aspects of classroom management in constructivist teaching and learning situation, were reviewed. Of these fifty articles, twenty-eight have been used to demonstrate the trends in terms of the research focus, methodology and findings.

Chapter 5 explores the conceptual analysis of constructivist classroom management. It starts with the definition of constructivism, followed by the historical background of constructivism; philosophical background of constructivism; constructivist assumptions on knowledge and the mostly accepted models/theories of constructivism. Also in this chapter, theories compatible with the constructivist thinking; characteristic features of constructivist classroom management; organisational perspectives on contingency viewpoint; the roles of the teacher in constructivist classroom management; and constructivist ideas about teaching and learning are explored. This chapter concludes by examining the practical implications of a constructivist epistemology for teaching and the insights from constructivist classroom management.

Chapter 6 is devoted to policy issues – theory and practice. The focus in this chapter is on the theoretical perspectives on OBE, philosophical background and models of OBE; origin and general characteristic features of philosophies underpinning OBE; insights on the implementation of Policy: theory and practice; and the critical analysis of C2005, NCS and RNCS Policies.

7.2 FINDINGS

Instructionist classroom management was conceptualised from a historical and modernist organizational perspective. In a modernist framework, the nature of knowledge is universal, objective and fixed (independent of the knower) and is grounded on the theoretical tradition behaviourism. At philosophical level, traditional teaching and learning are, among others, informed and guided by objectivistic/modernistic and/or behaviourist principles and John Locke's ideas. From the literature it emerged that the teacher's role is directive and rooted in authority; and is not limited to imparting (transferring) knowledge, but passes on the values, beliefs and norms of the society. In this tradition, teaching and learning are informed and guided by the scientific paradigm.

From an organisational perspective, this study investigated the origins and characteristic features of traditional/instructionist classroom management. Literature suggests a

considerable number of distinguishing attributes. Among others, educational management, which informs and guides instructionist classroom management, is rooted in positivist, objectivistic/modernistic and/or behaviourist and *Christian*-orientated philosophy. In addition, it emerged that the nature and the structure of traditional classroom management seem to be rooted in the mechanistic/scientific worldview.

In this tradition, the school is seen as a machine and the classroom as a part of the "machine bureaucracy"; the teacher is seen as a supervisor and the learner as a worker. Also, this tradition uses external examinations as quality measuring tools, and employs ranking of learners' performance and competition. At school level, authority is hierarchically transmitted. Also, the patriarchal and hierarchical social pattern is maintained by systems of command and control at all levels of the hierarchy. Discipline and authority, in this school of thought, are informed and guided by ontic laws

The first finding is that the characteristic features of the instructionist classroom management are compatible to the scientific paradigm.

In the analysis of the empirical studies, within the chosen texts in both instructionist and classroom management, the focus was on: *what context within which the study was undertaken*; *what was the purpose of the study*; *what was the situation investigated (including the type of classroom management practices used)*; and *what did they find and do the findings suggest an alternative approach to classroom management*.

A considerable volume of research on instructionist classroom management exists, focusing on a variety of aspects. Emerging from the analysis, most of the studies conducted in the instructionist classroom management have a number characteristic features. Among others, these studies are quantitative in nature and are located in the positivist framework, i.e., in survey, questionnaires and field and/or laboratory experiments samples used.

Other outstanding characteristic features are that of variables (dependent and independent variables) and the hypotheses (expressing a casual relationship or cause-effect relationship between the variables; expressed as a prediction or an expected future outcome; and logically linked to the research question and falsifiable. On the other hand, in these studies, human behaviour is a quantifiable construct – it has reduced people to numbers and deals with abstract laws or formulas. In survey and experimental traditional management studies, inferential and descriptive statistics were used where results are presented in terms of numbers, graphs and charts.

In general, a significant number of studies done on traditional classroom management are mechanistic in nature. Among others, these studies are characterised by linear cause-effect and unidirectional interaction, explained by deductive reasoning; and sometimes referred to as explanatory research.

Other studies (Doyle, 1980; Richardson & Fallona, 2001; Glasser, 1993; Evertson, 1994; Sandholtz, 1990; Kameenui & Darch, 1995), though conducted in the scientific paradigm, broke away from the quantitative framework and used qualitative methodologies such as, case study, observations, action research and content analysis. The findings from these studies are indicative of a move towards the emerging paradigm as an evolutionary process rather than a discontinuous jump (mutation) to a new paradigm. For example, these studies suggest that effective classroom management requires: (1) extensive knowledge of what is likely to happen in classrooms; (2) ability to process a large amount of information rapidly; and (3) skill in carrying out effective actions over a long period of time; Leading, rather than bossing, creates classrooms in which learners, not only do competent work, but also begin to do quality work; and (3) The use the technology to enhance learner motivation, interest and learning.

The second finding is that a significant number of studies conducted on instructionist classroom management seems to be compatible to the scientific paradigm.

Research on constructivist classroom management covers a variety of aspects in different cultural settings within the organisational framework. However, a number of common characteristic features exists in research conducted in constructivist classroom management. Among others, they are largely qualitative in nature and adopted dialogical research methods. The most distinguishing paradigmatic features in these studies are that they used small samples; were conducted in a natural setting; dealt with generalising theories and generalised from one setting to another; used rich and subjective data, and had low credibility and trustworthiness in terms of the findings. Also, these studies are holistic in nature; they deal with non-linear relationships and mutual causality; and see relationship between entities as fluid, systematic and integrative orders.

Kruger's (2003) study yielded interesting findings supportive or justifying the changing roles of the stakeholders in the classroom. For example, the results suggest that management systems and learner roles should support instructional systems and learner roles should be clearly articulated in the planning process for instruction taking into account learners' roles emphasised in social constructivist classroom.

The third finding is that a majority of the studies conducted in constructivist classroom management appears to fit through the lens of the emerging paradigm.

These conceptual understandings could be juxtaposed with the insights gained from the analysis of constructivism. In conceptually analysing "constructivism"; its historical background, philosophical foundations, assumptions on knowledge and constructivist models and theories characteristic features of constructivist classroom management were illuminated. In addition, the roles of the teacher in constructivist classroom management and the manner in which constructivist classrooms are managed were explored.

A conceptual analysis of the concept "constructivism" suggests a number of characteristic features. Among others, it includes a process whereby the learner constructs his/her own understanding, reality and knowledge of the world he/she lives in, through reflection of his/her experiences and through his/her interactions with the environment. This school of

thought sees as a compendium of concepts and actions that one has found to be successful, given the purposes one had in mind. According to Murphy (1997a) *knowledge* and *reality* do not have an objective or absolute value or, at least, that we have no way of knowing this reality. Also, knowledge does not represent some absolute or ultimate truth, but are simply the most viable interpretation of the experimental world. Where meaning is seen as rooted in, and indexed by experience, insights on constructivism suggest that knowledge is socially constructed through interaction with the environment. Learning is not purely an internal process, nor a passive shaping of behaviours, but it is a social construct that is mediated by language via social discourse.

From an organisational perspective, an attempt to explore attributes that inform and guide constructivist classroom management was made. Emerging from the literature, a number of characteristic features exists in constructivist classroom management. Among others, it is informed and guided by contingency theories. In this tradition, the concept "classroom management" is fluid – it takes the shape of the container; and is approached from a holistic view – it moves away from the mechanistic approach, and linear cause-effect and unidirectional interaction. Insights from contingency approach suggest that different situations require different practices and allow the use of other viewpoints separately or in combination to deal with various classroom management problems.

Constructivist classroom management, among others, emphasises situational variables, rejects a notion that a particular viewpoint, (e.g. traditional or behavioural or systems), as a one size fits all management approach; and is characterised by holistic and artistic features, discrete units, hierarchical orders, mutual causation, with multi-causal factors, and explained by deductive, inductive and integrative reasoning.

Seen against the background that most teachers were trained in the traditional approach to classroom management, the emerging paradigm poses significant challenges to teachers to equip themselves with new knowledge and skills for classroom management, especially the teacher's management roles, approach to teaching, learning, etc. This is even more vital if teachers were to accept the fact that learners have to be more actively

involved than in a traditional classroom - they share ideas, ask questions, discuss concepts, and revise their ideas and misconceptions. In Jonassen's (1996) view, activities in such teaching and learning settings involve collaboration, with occasional competition among learners.

The forth finding is that constructivist classroom management is informed and guided by contingency theories. Situational variables determine management approach, leadership style, and more specifically leadership, roles of the teacher in constructivist classroom management practice.

Based on the conceptual analysis undertaken on instructionist and constructivist classroom management, I then proceeded to interrogate the current OBE policy in South Africa by focusing on aspects, such as theoretical perspectives on OBE, philosophical background and models of OBE; origin and general characteristic features of philosophies underpinning OBE; insights on the implementation of Policy: theory and practice; and the critical analysis of C2005, NCS and RNCS Policies.

Emerging from the literature, OBE appears to be a broad concept. According to Malcolm (1999:79), it has many meanings and models which vary significantly across the boarders, in countries such as Scotland, Australia, Holland, South Africa, USA, etc. It is founded on three basic premises: all learners can learn and succeed (but not on the same day and in the same way), success breeds success, and schools control conditions of success. McNeir (1994:30) asserts that there is no single authoritative model of OBE. There are the models of OBE in practice – traditional, transitional and transformational models. In Malcolm's (1999:79) view, the variations in the models of OBE arise from the different choices of outcomes, and different management systems to achieve them. It also emerged from the literature that OBE originates from the theories of Benjamin Bloom, James Block, BF Skinner, John Dewey, and Ralph Tyler. In a philosophical perspective, OBE is grounded in two systematic approaches to instruction, namely Competency-Based Education and Mastery Learning, Criterion Referenced Assessment and Educational Objectives

The South African version of OBE is a hybrid, based on four philosophical assumptions, namely, behaviourism, social reconstructionism, critical theory and pragmatism. It finds itself stretched between the two conflicting paradigms. The analysis of the paradigmatic characteristic features of: pragmatism, social reconstructionism, critical theory and behaviourism clearly revealed a tension and a contradiction that spawns a system that, in essence, tries to straddle to irreconcilable alternatives, nullifying any claim that it constitutes a paradigm shift (see Table 2.3: Matrix of Paradigmatic Value Systems).

Social reconstructionism, critical theory and pragmatism fit through the lens of the emerging paradigm. For example, pragmatism does not recognise permanent reality; it assumes that knowledge is tentative and subject to revision; and views knowledge and truth as evolving and a social construct; social reconstructionism fits through the lens of the emerging paradigm – it holds that no universal, objective, final truths or values exist; and sees knowledge as a social construct and emphasises the aspects, such as, the supporting role of the teacher as facilitator in the learning process, cooperative learning, and the importance of learning in an authentic or real-life context. Also, critical theory rejects claims to absolute truth and functionalist/objective knowledge; and sees knowledge as a historical, dialectical and a social product. In contrast, behaviourism is fit through the lens of the scientific worldview. It sees human behaviour as an overt, observable and measurable construct; and assumes the existence of absolute truth and objective knowledge.

The fifth finding is that the South African version of OBE is a hybrid from four philosophical assumptions (behaviourism, pragmatism, social reconstructionism, critical theory) and finds itself stretched between the two conflicting paradigms.

In this study, OBE was analysed using “political symbolist” as lens to explore C2005, NCS and RNCS Policies. Official documents (DoE, 1997a; 1997b; 1997c; 1997e; 1997f; 2000c; 2000d; 2001a; 2001b; 2002a; 2002b; 2003a; 2004) on OBE revealed that a significant gap exists between the theory and practice in terms of policy formulation and

policy implementation processes, more specifically, in classroom management – the policies do not address implementation issues at classroom level.

The sixth finding is that in the C2005, NCS seem to give little if any or no classroom management strategies that will address the teacher's needs in order to ensure successful implementation of a constructivist curriculum.

7.3 REFLECTIONS

On reflecting about this research, it became clear to me that OBE in South Africa is a hybrid from various philosophical groundings; and that classroom management can be seen as belonging to two conflicting paradigms, namely, scientific and emergent worldviews. On the surface, basic management principles such as, planning, organising, leading and control, appears to be similar, but this is a myth. Planning, seen from its traditional defining terms, approach classroom management as a step-by-step process under control and directed by the teacher. Such an approach is too limited and may restrict the degree to which learners become collaborators in the teaching and learning situation. Planning should thus, be substituted by strategising in which the teacher allows flexibility and fluidity that opens opportunities for collaboration without relinquishing to a situation where an "everything goes" approach could override quality lessons. Strategising focuses on developing a range of strategies that could be utilized in the classroom, to support and enhance effective teaching and learning. It is responsive to the emergent needs of learners in the classroom, but remains strongly focused on the outcomes to be achieved. In this sense, it calls on the teacher to use his/her knowledge and skills to assess the situation and facilitate the teaching and learning in a responsive manner.

In constructivist classroom management, organising as a management function, focuses on issues of group work and collaborate learning. In Van der Horst and McDonald's (1997:86) view, the new methods for organising must not only focus on the learner outcomes, but should also accommodate the diversity of learners and settings. Given that

managerial and instructional functions are the sides of the same coin, instructional task associated with cooperative group calls for behaviour on the part of the learners that are different from the behaviour required for working alone to learn a new skill.

Control moves to accountability (where learners become part of the development of class rules and partners in ensuring order and discipline). Successful classrooms, as Van der Horst and McDonald (1997:86) observe, generally have an organisation and management plan, developed ahead of time by the teacher, communicated to the learners at the start of the school year, and maintained consistently throughout the year. In these classrooms, efficient routines and procedures are clearly and consistently followed, the teacher and the learners clearly understand expectations about the learner behaviour, and rules and procedures are enforced and reinforced. In accomplishing this, the teachers must know what their management plan will be, teach it to the learner, and watch over them until they have learnt and accepted the system (ibid:97).

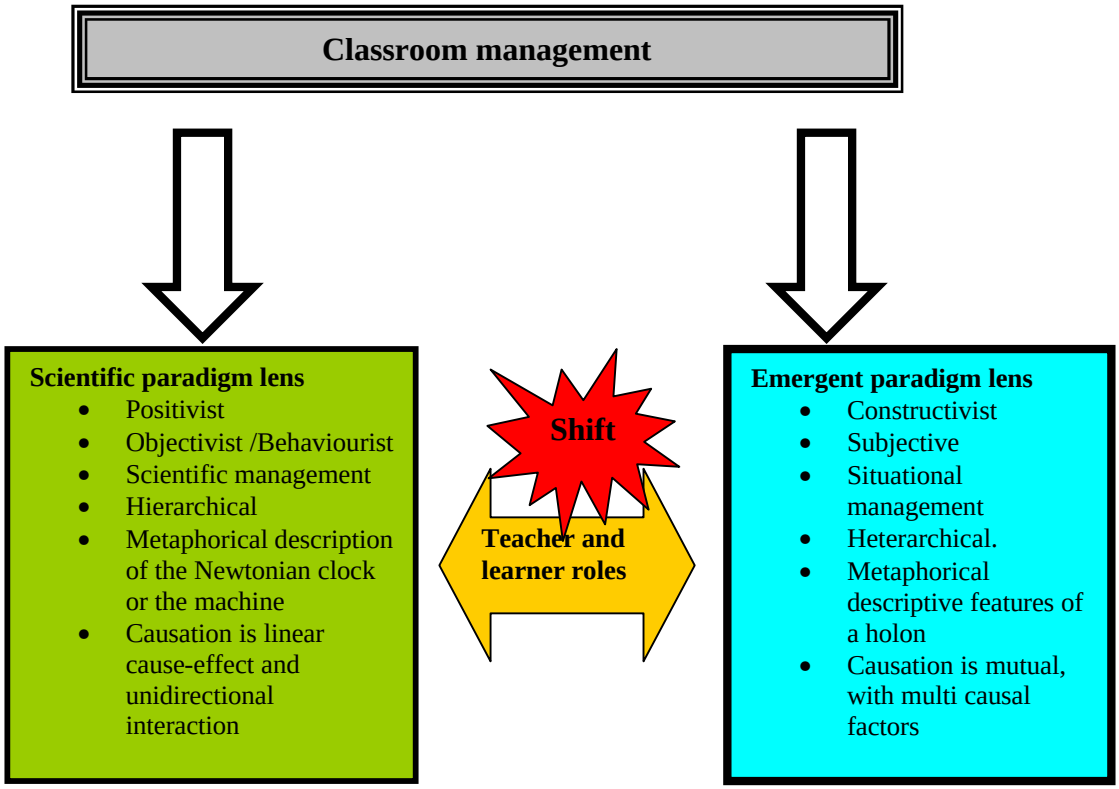
Evaluation moves to ongoing assessment and feedback as a strategy to ensure continuous improvement and the facilitation of the construction of new knowledge. The approach to continuous assessment, in Nakabugo and Siebörger's (2005:288) view, requires that decisions on a learner's progress be based on an ongoing formative assessment, associated with the helpful feedback on how a learner tackles various learning tasks rather than on results of a single end-of-session test or examination. In addition, it should not focus on what the learners have achieved, but should also be used to support and increase learners' learning.

Given that modernist assumptions on which traditional classroom management is based do no longer hold in constructivist classroom management, this study proposes rethinking a set of principles compatible to the emergent paradigm. Against the contingency theory background, this study sees classroom management as a fluid and malleable construct – it should be flexible to fit context. This study, holds that classroom management, specifically in constructivist setting, should be underpinned by theories supporting the post-modern philosophy.

In terms of the diagram below, the move from instructionist to constructivist classroom management, with reference to planning organising, control and evaluation, calls for the new set of principles. This new set of principles should be informed and guided by the contingency theory; be situational (contextual) in order to accommodate a diversity of learners from different cultural backgrounds, and be subjective and holistic in nature. Also, these principles should not only support the construction of knowledge in the constructivist setting, but should also promote a feeling of individual accountability, face-to-face interaction and a feeling of positive interdependence in cooperative groups.

Classroom management belongs to scientific and the emerging worldviews. Figure 7.1 on the next page illustrates the difference between instructionist and constructivist classroom management.

Figure 7.1 Difference between instructionist and constructivist classroom management



There seems to be a policy and practice discrepancy. According to the critical analysis done on RNCS and C2005 policy, even though its originators label this shift as a "paradigm shift", it appears that they assumed that scientific management is applicable or compatible to the constructivist setting. Thus, for the successful implementation of OBE in South African schools, this study holds that new management principles, with conceptually key features to the emerging paradigm, be developed.

7.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This research study has noteworthy implications for social researchers, teachers, principals and policy makers. There is need to open a dialogue on the concept of constructivist classroom management in its broadest sense, for the purposes of acquiring theoretical (philosophical) and practical understanding, informed and guided by research. Further, research is required to investigate new innovative ways of training teachers on constructivist classroom management. Also, there is a need to explore the effect and impact of political symbolism on classroom practice, especially in the previously disadvantaged schools. In the form of action research, teachers need to be involved in various management aspects, among others, such as, assessment, learner-behaviour, discipline, and programme design in constructivist setting.

7.5 CONCLUSION

Constructivism appears to have a significant number of implications for classroom management, more specifically to the roles of the teacher in outcomes-based classroom. Among other things, it calls for a dramatic shift in classroom focus, away from the transmission model of teaching toward one that is much more complex and interactive. Also, the implementation process demands the management function of the teachers, principals, district officials and policy formulators coupled with their leadership style, consistent with the emergent paradigm.

As Wyssusek *et al*. (2000:3) observe, many of the modernist assumptions on which traditional classroom management is based, do no longer hold in our world today and this led philosophers to questioning modern issues using a different paradigm. This requires that classroom management in a constructivist setting, be approached from a situational approach perspective. Thus, a new set of principles is apposite.

APPENDIX A: ***Letter to the supervisor***

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Date : 26 March 2007
To : The Supervisor

I, Maureen Matlakala Ledibane, hereby certify that I have edited the Thesis entitled "A Conceptual Analysis of Constructivist Classroom Management", submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree PHILOSOPHIAE DOCTOR in the Department of Education Management and Policy Studies in the Faculty of Education at the University of Pretoria, submitted by Victor Justice Pitsoe.

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.....
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APPENDIX B: Clearance Certificate

ANNEXUI

UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	**CLEARANCE NUMBER :** EM0407/01
DEGREE AND PROJECT	PhD Education Management and Policy Studies Classroom management in OBE: from an instructionist to a constructivist approach
INVESTIGATOR(S)	Victor Justice Pitsoe
DEPARTMENT	Education Management
DATE CONSIDERED	04 November 2004
DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE	APPROVED

This ethical clearance is valid for 3 *years and may be renewed upon application*

CHAIRPERSON OF ETHICS COMMITTEE	Dr S Human-Vogel
DATE	25 July 2005
CC	Dr J Nieuwenhuis Mrs Jeannie Beukes

This ethical clearance certificate is issued subject to the following conditions:

1. A signed personal declaration of responsibility
2. If the research question changes significantly so as to alter the nature of the study, a new application for ethical clearance must be submitted
3. It remains the students' responsibility to ensure that all the necessary forms for informed consent are kept for future queries.

Please quote the clearance number in all enquiries.

APPENDIX C: Thesis title

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2006.10.19

Mr V J Pitsoe
P O Box 2095
LICHTENBURG
2740

Dear Mr Pitsoe

TOPIC: THESIS

I have pleasure in informing you that the following has been approved:

TOPIC: **A conceptual analysis of constructivist classroom management**

SUPERVISOR: **Dr F J Nieuwenhuis**

CO-SUPERVISOR

The appropriate regulations for the requirements of a thesis appear in the General Regulations of the University.

Shortened guidelines for the submission and technical details of theses are attached.

Your enrolment as a student must be renewed annually until you have complied with all the requirements for the degree, preferably during the official period of enrolment but before **February 28**. No re-registrations will be accepted after **February 28**. You will only be entitled to the guidance of your supervisor if annual proof of registration can be submitted.

Yours sincerely

Wiida Stander
for DEAN
FACULTY OF EDUCATION

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