

Exploring Foundation Phase Educators' Behaviour Management Strategies for Disruptive Behaviour in a Boys' School

by Claire Michelle Kingwill



*Thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements
for the degree of
Master of Education in Educational Psychology (MEdPsych)
in the Faculty of Education
at
Stellenbosch University*

Supervisor: Lynette Collair

December 2016

DECLARATION

By submitting this thesis electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated), that the reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third-party rights and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it to obtain any qualification.

Date: December 2016

Name: Claire Kingwill

*Copyright © 2016 Stellenbosch University
All rights reserved*

ABSTRACT

Disruptive behaviour and its effect on the academic environment have been well researched internationally and nationally. Not only does disruptive behaviour affect educators, but it also has implications for the learners' emotional and academic development. In addition, research has shown that boys appear to display more disruptive behaviour for a multitude of reasons. Ensuring that educators effectively manage disruptive behaviour is essential. Through the use of a case study of a group of Foundation Phase educators at a local primary school in the Southern Suburbs in the Western Cape, the study explores educators' experiences with disruptive behaviour, as well as their perceptions of effective and ineffective behaviour management strategies.

The study is qualitative in nature and is based on a systems theory and behaviourism or behavioural theories, as both paradigms underlie behaviour management strategies that are aimed at developing an individual's self-discipline and intrinsic motivation for prosocial behaviour. The research findings confirmed the stressful effects of disruptive behaviour on the various levels within the system, as well as the support needed by the educators. In addition, the participants described several effective behaviour management strategies when working with boys in the Foundation Phase, along with those strategies perceived to be ineffective. It would appear that while punitive measures are still used, behaviour management strategies that are positive in nature are more effective in the long-term.

Key words: Educator; learners; Foundation Phase; disruptive behaviour; behaviour management strategies; positive behaviour

OPSOMMING

Ontwrigtende gedrag en die gevolge daarvan op die akademiese omgewing is beide internasionaal en nasionaal deeglik nagevors. Hierdie gedrag beïnvloed nie net opvoeders nie, maar dit hou ook implikasies vir die emosionele en akademiese ontwikkeling van leerders in. Tesame daarmee het navorsing getoon dat dit wil voorkom of seuns meer ontwrigtende gedrag, om verskeie redes, toon. Dit is noodsaaklik dat opvoeders ontwrigtende gedrag effektief bestuur. Hierdie studie bestaan uit 'n gevallestudie van 'n groep grondslagfase-opvoeders, by 'n plaaslike laerskool in die Suidelike Voorstede in die Wes-Kaap. 'n Ondersoek is ingestel na die ervarings van opvoeders wat met leerders met ontwrigtende gedrag werk. Die studie ondersoek ook die opvoeders se persepsies van effektiewe en nie-effektiewe gedragsbestuurstrategieë.

Die studie is kwalitatief van aard en is gebaseer op 'n sisteemteorie en behaviorisme of behavioristiese teorieë. Beide hierdie raamwerke onderskryf gedragsbestuurstrategieë wat mik op die ontwikkeling van 'n individu se selfdisipline en intrinsieke motivering wat pro-sosiale gedrag bevorder. Die bevindinge van hierdie studie bevestig dat ontwrigtende gedrag 'n stresvolle effek op die verskillende vlakke binne verskillende sisteme het en dat opvoeders ondersteuning benodig. Tesame met hierdie bevindinge, het die deelnemers verskeie effektiewe gedragsbestuurstrategieë voorgestel wanneer daar veral met seuns in die grondslagfase gewerk word. Nie-effektiewe strategieë om met ontwrigtende gedrag te werk, is ook deur die deelnemers geïdentifiseer. Dit wil voorkom dat terwyl streng strafmaatreëls steeds gebruik word, gedragsbestuurstrategieë wat meer positief van aard is, blyk om op langtermyn meer effektief te wees.

Sleutelwoorde: Onderwyser; leerders; Grondslagfase; ontwrigtende gedrag; gedragsbestuurstrategieë; positiewe gedrag

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

FP	Foundation Phase
ECD	Early Childhood Development
BMS	Behaviour management strategies
PBM	Positive behaviour management
WCED	Western Cape Education Department

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Throughout this process of completing my thesis, the following people have kept me motivated and helped to reach its conclusion:

My husband, Stuart, has always been there to support me with patience, endless encouragement and taking over the chores.

My parents, Anita and John, Ronnie and Tereen, who always showed interest in my work, provided endless motivation and confidence in my abilities, and continue to be my biggest cheerleaders.

Mrs. Lynette Collair, my supervisor, for encouraging me to complete my thesis even though time was against us. Thank you for your wonderful supervision, support and cups of tea.

My friends, Christi, Belinda and Ilouise provided optimism and help throughout this entire process.

Finally, to the participants who were willing to take time from their busy schedules to share their thoughts and ideas with me. I am grateful for all that I have learned from you.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title page	i
Declaration	II
Abstract	III
Opsomming	IV
List of Abbreviations	V
Acknowledgements	VI
Table of Contents	VII
List of Addenda	XI
List of Tables	XII

CHAPTER 1

CONTEXT AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY	1
1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY	1
1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT	3
1.2.1 Aim of Study	4
1.2.2 Research Questions	5
1.3 THE RESEARCH PROCESS	5
1.3.1 Research Paradigm	5
1.3.2 Research Design	6
1.3.3 Research Methods	6
1.3.3.1 <i>Population and sample</i>	6
1.3.3.2 <i>Data Collection</i>	7
1.3.3.3 <i>Data Analysis</i>	7
1.3.3.4 <i>Data Verification</i>	8
1.3.3.5 <i>Ethical Considerations</i>	8
1.4 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS	9
1.4.1 Foundation Phase	9
1.4.2 Behaviour Management Strategies	9
1.4.3 Disruptive Behaviour	9

1.5 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS	10
1.6 CONCLUSION.....	10

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW	11
2.1 INTRODUCTION	11
2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	11
2.2.1 Behaviourism and Behaviourist Theory	12
2.2.2 Systems Theory	16
2.3 DEVELOPMENT IN THE FOUNDATION PHASE	18
2.3.1 Physical Development.....	18
2.3.2 Cognitive Development	19
2.3.3 Psychosocial Development	20
2.3.4 Emotional Development	20
2.3.5 Moral Development	21
2.3.6 Classroom Implications	22
2.4 DISRUPTIVE BEHAVIOUR	23
2.4.1 Conceptualisation of Disruptive Behaviour	24
2.4.2 Types of Disruptive Behaviour	25
2.4.3 Boys and Behaviour	27
2.4.4 Effects of Disruptive Behaviour	28
2.5 GOODNESS-OF-FIT BETWEEN THE EDUCATOR AND THE LEARNER.....	29
2.6 BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES	32
2.6.1 Theories of BMS	32
2.6.2 Educator Needs and Challenges	34
2.7 CONCLUSION.....	35

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY.....	37
3.1 INTRODUCTION	37
3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM	37
3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN.....	38
3.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	39

3.4.1 Context of the Research	40
3.5 RESEARCH METHODS	40
3.5.1 Selection of Participants.....	40
3.5.1.1 <i>Population</i>	41
3.5.1.2 <i>Sampling</i>	41
3.5.2 Methods of Collection and Analysis	43
3.5.2.1 <i>Procedures</i>	44
3.5.2.2 <i>Data Collection</i>	44
3.5.2.3 <i>Data Analysis</i>	46
3.6 DATA VERIFICATION	48
3.6.1 Credibility	48
3.6.2 Dependability	49
3.6.3 Transferability.....	49
3.6.4 Confirmability	50
3.6.5 Data Verification Strategies.....	50
3.6.5.1 <i>Triangulation</i>	50
3.6.5.2 <i>Audit Trail</i>	50
3.6.5.3 <i>Peer Examination</i>	51
3.6.5.4 <i>Reflexivity</i>	51
3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	51
3.8 CONCLUSION.....	52

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION	53
4.1 INTRODUCTION	53
4.2 RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION	54
4.2.1 Disruptive Behaviour	54
4.2.1.1 <i>Defining disruptive behaviour</i>	55
4.2.1.2 <i>Types of disruptive behaviour</i>	55
4.2.1.3 <i>Possible reasons for disruptive behaviour</i>	57
4.2.1.4 <i>Effects of disruptive behaviour</i>	61
4.2.2 Goodness-of-Fit Between Educators' Personal Style and Learner Behaviours	64
4.2.2.1 <i>Personality</i>	64
4.2.2.2 <i>Being positive</i>	66

4.2.2.3	<i>Life experience</i>	67
4.2.2.4	<i>Stress</i>	67
4.2.3	Educator coping strategies	68
4.2.3.1	<i>Spending time with significant others</i>	69
4.2.3.2	<i>Exercise</i>	69
4.2.4	Educator Support	70
4.2.4.1	<i>Support from family and friends</i>	70
4.2.4.2	<i>Support from colleagues</i>	71
4.2.4.3	<i>Support from the school</i>	73
4.2.4.4	<i>Support from the Western Cape Education Department (WCED)</i>	74
4.2.4.5	<i>Educator supportive needs</i>	74
4.2.5	Behaviour Management Strategies	75
4.2.5.1	<i>Experience in education and behaviour management strategies</i>	76
4.2.5.2	<i>Effective behaviour management strategies</i>	78
4.2.5.3	<i>Ineffective behaviour management strategies</i>	85
4.2.5.4	<i>Effect of behaviour management strategies on the learner</i>	89
4.3	PERSONAL REFLECTIONS	90
4.4	CONCLUSION	91
CHAPTER 5		
CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS		92
5.1	INTRODUCTION	92
5.2	CONCLUDING REMARKS	92
5.3	RECOMMENDATIONS	96
5.4	STRENGTHS OF THE RESEARCH	97
5.5	POSSIBLE LIMITATIONS	97
5.6	FURTHER RESEARCH POSSIBILITIES	98
5.7	CONCLUSION	99
REFERENCES		100
ADDENDA		128

LIST OF ADDENDA

ADDENDUM A

Letter of ethical clearance by the Research Ethics Committee

ADDENDUM B

WCED research approval letter

ADDENDUM C

Letter to the Principal

ADDENDUM D

Consent to Participate in Research

ADDENDUM E

Interview Guide (Educators)

ADDENDUM F

Interview Guide (Vice Principal)

ADDENDUM G

Extract of Transcription with Colour Coding

ADDENDUM H

Extract from Final Themes

ADDENDUM I

Extract from the School's Code of Conduct

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: Description of participants

Table 4.1: Summary of the themes and sub-themes

CHAPTER 1

CONTEXT AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

1.1 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Educator burnout and educator attrition have been the focus of various studies, internationally and nationally (Clunies-Ross, Little, & Kienhuis, 2008; Hastings & Bham, 2003; Tsouloupas, Carson, Matthews, Grawitch, & Barber, 2010). Studies have shown that the inability to manage disruptive behaviour and the frustration that occurs as a result, is one of the most frequently given reasons by educators for leaving the field of education prematurely (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; McKinney, Campbell-Whately, & Kea, 2005; Rose & Gallup, 2007; Weiss, 1999). In addition, research has also indicated that beginner educators find that the greatest challenges they experience are lack of adequate behaviour management training and consequent difficulties with managing disruptive behaviour (Shook, 2012; Tartwijk, den Brok, Veldman, & Wubbels, 2009).

Disruptive behaviour (Arbuckle & Little, 2004; Marais & Meier, 2010), problem behaviour (Chitiyo et al., 2014), misbehaviour (Atici, 2007; Jacobs & de Wet, 2009), challenging behaviour (Alter, Walker, & Landers, 2013; Axup & Gersch, 2008; Prinsloo, 2005) and their impact on education are concepts that have been researched worldwide and continue to present a challenge to educators within the educational environment (Almog & Shechtman, 2007; Marais & Meier, 2010). Prinsloo (2005), along with Marais and Meier (2010) are of the opinion that particularly in South Africa, disruptive behaviour has become a common problem for educators and is an everyday experience of teaching.

Educators teach in environments in which learners may display a multitude of behaviour problems (Obenchain & Taylor, 2005). Learners who engage in disruptive behaviour compromise not only the educators' ability to teach, but also have implications for the other learners in the class and for the school environment as a whole (Marais & Meier, 2010; Reynolds, Stephenson, & Beaman, 2011; Stephenson, Linfoot, & Martin, 2000). Disruptive behaviour distracts other learners in class, as well as prevents the educator from spending the allocated time on teaching and can cause educator exhaustion (Algozzine, Wang, & Violette, 2011; Axup & Gersch, 2008; Clunies-Ross et al., 2008). As a result, the learning process is jeopardised and the environment may become less ordered and safe for other learners in the class (Olive, 2010).

There are various forms of disruptive behaviour that have been explored in previous

studies that compromise learning (Arbuckle & Little, 2004; Jacobs & de Wet, 2009; Marais & Meier, 2010). Levin and Nolan (cited in Marais & Meier, 2010) describe four categories of disruptive behaviour. These include behaviour that interferes with teaching and learning (e.g. through distraction, refusal to follow instructions, aggressive behaviour); behaviour that interferes with the rights of others to learn (e.g. shouting out when the educator is giving instructions); behaviour that is physically or psychologically unsafe (e.g. rocking on their chair, threatening other learners, bullying); and behaviour that causes destruction of property (e.g. vandalism). Alter et al. (2013) defined disruptive behaviour in similar categories that include: verbal general (those that disturb the class); verbal aggression (that cause emotional harm); physical general (body actions that cause disruption in the class); and physical aggression (actions that cause physical or emotional harm).

Jacobs and de Wet (2009, p.63), however, categorise misbehaviour according to the level of seriousness: low-level indiscipline (moodiness, untidy/incorrect clothing, neglect of duty, absenteeism, latecoming); more challenging behaviour (disruptive behaviour, rudeness, dishonesty, improper language, cheekiness, provocative behaviour, disrespect for educators, telling lies); serious misbehaviour (graffiti, vandalism, theft, pornography, smoking, use of alcohol at school, drug abuse); and aggressive behaviour (*crimen injuria* against learners or educators, bullying, violence, gang activities, sexual harassment of peers and educators). As can be seen, disruptive behaviour is displayed in many ways and has an effect not only on educators' experiences of teaching, but also has negative consequences for learners' academic achievement, interpersonal skills and mental health (Stephenson et al., 2000).

As the majority of learners exhibiting the abovementioned disruptive behaviour attend general education schools, it is essential that educators develop and implement effective behaviour management strategies (BMS). Educators, however, come from different backgrounds and have different philosophies and orientations to the way in which they manage disruptive behaviour (Leung & Lam, 2003). Atici (2007) describes various studies in Turkey in which researchers focused on BMS in the classroom for managing disruptive behaviour. These strategies included preventive, corrective and punitive strategies. Punitive strategies, however, have shown to be ineffective and could aggravate the disruptive behaviour (Almog & Shechtman, 2007; Bear, 2011; Carpenter & McKee-Higgins, 1996).

Positive behaviour support has recently been the focus of research as an alternative strategy of behaviour management. From this perspective, the various

circumstances and systems that impact on the learner displaying disruptive behaviour are taken into account. Consequently, more systemic and individualised strategies are employed (Bear, 2010; Chitiyo & Wheeler, 2009). In addition, Tidwell, Flannery and Lewis-Palmer (2003) advise that behaviour management should focus on conflict resolution, guidance, positive behaviour motivational incentives, and providing educators with classroom management training.

Classroom management skills and effective BMS are therefore essential skills for educators to possess, in order to increase academic progress for learners and to decrease stress levels of educators and prevent burnout. Educator burnout is evident when educators experience emotional exhaustion, low levels of occupational accomplishment and begin to depersonalise their learners (Hastings & Bham, 2003; Tsouloupas et al., 2010) and results in educators leaving the profession, or who are at risk for physical and mental health problems (Jacobs & de Wet, 2009; Tsouloupas et al., 2010). Understanding educators' perspectives of disruptive behaviour, as well as their behaviour management strategies employed can lead to the development of effective BMS.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Learners who display disruptive behaviour may receive fewer academic opportunities, as they may be excluded from activities and may not receive instructions. This leads to a limitation in academic progress and may increase the likelihood of future behaviour problems (Algozzine et al., 2011; McIntosh, Flannery, Sugai, Braun, & Cochrane, 2008). In order for successful learning to take place in a classroom, it is essential that there is effective teaching and classroom management (Bucalos & Lingo, 2005). However, many educators find that effective teaching is impeded due to daily challenges experienced in the classroom. These challenges include not only management of educational and curricular difficulties, but also social and emotional problems (Chitiyo et al., 2014; McIntosh et al., 2008; Poulou, 2005). Additionally, it has been shown that there are a number of disruptive behaviours that have been identified (Alter et al., 2013), which have serious consequences not only for the learners, but also for the educators and schools. Loss of teaching time and increased levels of frustration, could lead to educator burnout (Chang, 2012).

Much research has focused on disruptive behaviour within elementary and high schools (Arbuckle & Little, 2004; Axup & Gersch, 2008; Henricsson & Rydell, 2004; Raskauskas, Gregory, Harvey, Rifshana, & Evans, 2010; Schulze & Steyn, 2007; Spilt,

Hughes, Wu, & Kwok, 2012). Additionally, research has shown that boys tend to engage in more problematic behaviour than girls and as such, more BMS are needed when teaching boys (Arbuckle & Little, 2004). Consequently, the researcher will explore the BMS employed by Foundation Phase (FP) educators in boys' schools. FP includes grades R to 3. In doing so, the researcher aims to determine which strategies are perceived to be more effective, so that recommendations for the development of training programmes can be made to the principals of the schools, as well as, other FP educators, in order to manage disruptive behaviour more effectively.

From the researcher's experience of teaching at a boys' primary school and witnessing the various BMS employed by educators (effective and ineffective), as well as from conducting a literature review, it seems imperative that research be focused on learners within the FP of primary school. As educators and the classroom environment play a significant role in the learners' social, emotional and cognitive development, it is essential that educators effectively use BMS when managing disruptive behaviour, in order to ensure effective academic, social and emotional learner development (Bucalos & Lingo, 2005; Lewis, Roache, & Romi, 2009), as well as to prevent educator burnout and decrease staff turnover. As there appears to be little research on FP educators' BMS within the South African context, more research is necessary in this area, as frequently dealing with disruptive behaviour has been associated with educator burnout (Jacobs & de Wet, 2009), which has its own implications for education in South Africa.

1.2.1 Aim of Study

The purpose of this study is to explore and gain a better understanding of educators' BMS employed for disruptive behaviour in the classroom, which educators perceive to be most effective. As educators come from various backgrounds and have varying degrees of experience, it is important to gain an understanding of how educators experience disruptive behaviour. The focus is therefore on gaining insight into the meaning-making processes that influence the educators' realities.

The overarching aim of this study is to generate knowledge on which BMS are deemed effective, in order to develop training programmes and intervention strategies for other primary school educators in similar contexts. It is therefore important to understand what challenges educators may face with regards to disruptive behaviour and what recommendations they may have for effective behaviour management.

1.2.2 Research Questions

Based on the given problem statement and the above description of the problem, this study aims to answer the following question:

What BMS do FP educators employ when boys display disruptive behaviour?

Furthermore, sub-questions to be explored are identified as:

What do FP educators perceive to be disruptive behaviour?

What effect does the disruptive behaviour have on the educators?

Which BMS do FP educators perceive to be effective?

1.3 THE RESEARCH PROCESS

1.3.1 Research Paradigm

The chosen research paradigm is based on three philosophical assumptions – ontological, epistemological and methodological – that influence the researcher's reality. Having an understanding of these interrelated assumptions is, therefore, important. Ontology is defined as the nature of reality, while epistemology is the branch of philosophy that is concerned with the nature of knowledge, and methodology refers to the specific procedures that the researcher must follow, in order to acquire knowledge (Botma, Greeff, Mulaudzi, & Wright, 2010; Nieuwenhuis, 2007c).

The researcher agrees with Botma et al. (2010) that individuals attach their own personal meaning to the world and construct their own reality through their lived experiences (ontology) and develop their knowledge through the interactions with others, thereby constructing their own meaning of the experiences (epistemology). Therefore, for the purpose of this study, an interpretive research paradigm or social constructivism paradigm is implemented, as the researcher seeks to understand how the participants give subjective meaning to a particular phenomenon (Botma et al., 2010; Creswell, 2007; Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006), i.e. to explore educators' experiences with regards to BMS when dealing with disruptive behaviour, through interviews and observations.

In addition, this study is qualitative in nature (methodology), as according to Terre Blanche et al. (2006), as well as Nieuwenhuis (2007), qualitative research methods are best suited for the interpretive paradigm. Denzin and Lincoln (2005) define qualitative research as an approach that aims to understand the meaning that individuals ascribe to their environment through observations and interactions with these individuals in their

natural setting. Nieuwenhuis (2007) further describes qualitative research as the gathering of rich descriptive data on a specific phenomenon. In this study, BMS employed by FP educators in boys' schools will be explored to gain a better understanding of the phenomenon of behaviour management. Creswell (2007) also indicates that researchers using qualitative methods immerse themselves in the environment and are a key instrument of data collection and make interpretations that are, in turn, influenced by their own experiences and worldviews.

1.3.2 Research Design

A qualitative case study design will be used in this study, as the researcher aims to explore the participants' experiences of BMS for disruptive behaviour (Botma et al., 2010; Creswell, 2007; Nieuwenhuis, 2007c). Nieuwenhuis (2007) describes a case study as a way of gaining a holistic understanding of the way in which participants interact with one another, as well as the way in which meaning is given to the specific phenomenon being studied.

The research will be exploratory and descriptive in nature (Botma et al., 2010; Creswell, 2007). According to Fouché and de Vos (2011), exploratory research is used to gain further insight into a situation when there appears to be little information, as in the area FP educators employing BMS at a boys' school. Descriptive research allows the researcher to describe a specific situation accurately and in detail (Fouché & de Vos, 2011). The study will be contextual, focusing on FP educators at a boys' primary school in the Southern Suburbs of the Western Cape Province of South Africa.

1.3.3 Research Methods

As this research study is framed within the qualitative paradigm, the research methods will be selected in coherence with the research design and research questions. These methods will include purposeful sampling techniques, various data collection methods and qualitative thematic analysis. These will be discussed in further detail.

1.3.3.1 Population and sample

The population (Strydom, 2011) for this study consists of FP educators working at a boys' primary school in the southern suburbs of Cape Town. For the purpose of this study, convenience and purposive sampling methods (Botma et al., 2010) will be employed to select the participants. The school will be selected through convenience sampling, while the participants were selected through purposive sampling. According to Greeff (2011)

and Strydom (2011), participants in purposive sampling are recruited according to criteria that are specific to the research objectives. The educators selected will be the participants interviewed. The criteria for inclusion of the participants will be:

- Participants must be FP educators working at a boys' school
- Educators must have worked as an educator for at least a year at a boys' school, in order for them to have had experience working with boys

1.3.3.2 Data Collection

A literature review will be conducted, in order to gather information on primary school educators, disruptive behaviour, boys' schools and BMS. A boys' primary school will be identified and ethical approval will be obtained from the Stellenbosch University's Ethical Committee. The researcher will then contact the primary school, in order to gain consent from the participants. The participants who meet the selection criteria will be contacted and asked to participate in semi-structured interviews regarding the various BMS employed when working with disruptive behaviour. A semi-structured interview guide with four broad themes will be developed and used with each participant. Interviews will be conducted with six participants, each between 45 and 60 minutes in duration. Each interview will be recorded for transcription purposes. The researcher will take care to follow the ethical guidelines as described by Strydom (2011), as well as ensure that consent is obtained from all participants.

1.3.3.3 Data Analysis

Data analysis and interpretation can be a challenging part of the research process. It involves integrating the data in a systematic way in order to provide information that relates effectively to the research questions (Greeff, 2011). The interviews will be recorded and transcribed verbatim. The data analysed will come from these transcripts, tapes, notes and various documents (such as the school's code of conduct and grade-level meeting notes).

The data collected from the semi-structured interviews will be analysed using Braun and Clarke's method of thematic analysis (2006), whereby the researcher repeatedly reads the transcripts and identifies themes and sub-themes that emerge. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), the themes assist in identifying information that is significant in relation to the research question. The themes further signify a level of patterned response or meaning within the data and assist in minimising, organising and describing the data set in rich detail. Once the researcher identifies the themes and sub-themes, the researcher's

supervisor will review them, in order to avoid researcher bias (Botma et al., 2010). The researcher will also take into consideration her field notes. The themes and sub-themes will be refined before being defined and named (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

1.3.3.4 Data Verification

Trustworthiness is an essential part of any research study. As such, Guba's propositions will be implemented by using the strategies of credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (cited in Shenton, 2004). In order to ensure trustworthiness of the study, the researcher will make use of triangulation, a process that is "designed to get at an objective truth" by looking "at an object from more than one standpoint" (Miller & Fox, 2004, p.36). This includes using various sources for gaining data, including a literature review, interviews and a review of documents; asking participants to verify the data collected; and keeping notes (Nieuwenhuis, 2007c).

1.3.3.5 Ethical Considerations

Ethics are a "set of moral principles which is suggested by an individual or group" that is "widely accepted" and which "offers rules and behavioural expectations about the most correct conduct towards" the participants and other various role players (Strydom, 2011, p.114). Consequently, the researcher will attempt to ensure the following according to Strydom (2011):

- No participants will be harmed in any emotional way. In order to prevent emotional harm, participation will be voluntary and the participants will be fully informed of the research process.
- Participants will be approached by the organisation and asked if they will be willing to participate in the study. Only when the participant agrees will the researcher contact him or her. This helps to prevent participants feeling exposed and uninformed.
- The participants will give written, informed consent to the researcher.
- Consent will also be given by the organisation identified.
- Any contributions will remain anonymous and confidential. The information gained from these discussions will only be available to the researcher and the organisation. No names will be used in any field notes or transcription.
- Data analysis and interpretation will follow accepted ethical procedures to minimise bias and subjectivity.
- Ethical approval will be obtained from the Ethical Committee of the Stellenbosch University before the research commences.

1.4 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

1.4.1 Foundation Phase

According to the Department of Education (2008a), education in the FP in South Africa takes place between the years five to nine (Grade R to Grade Three). During this phase, learners develop physically, emotionally, mentally and socially (Department of Education, 1995). FP learners learn to master rules and the laws of society and ways of behaving appropriately in social contexts. It is during this phase, known as early childhood development (ECD), that the learners first experience formal schooling whereby certain rules and structures need to be followed (Marais & Meier, 2010). Thus, in order to understand the child in the FP, it is important to take into account the various aspects of development. This will be explained using Erikson's and Piaget's stages of development.

1.4.2 Behaviour Management Strategies

BMS refer to the techniques and strategies implemented by educators, in order to manage disruptive behaviour. Studies have shown that BMS for disruptive behaviour can include positive and negative incentives (Moberly, Waddle, & Duff, 2005; Olive, 2010; Poulou, 2005); can be categorised into more detailed categories of positive-focused strategies, non-physical punishment, referral of the learner to another educator, and liaison with parents (Martin, Linfoot, & Stephenson, 1999); and may vary across grade levels (Marais & Meier, 2010; Martin et al., 1999).

For the purpose of this study, BMS refers to those strategies (positive or negative) educators employ to manage disruptive behaviour in the classroom.

1.4.3 Disruptive Behaviour

Disruptive behaviour has been defined in many ways, from merely inappropriate behaviour such as task avoidance, inattentiveness or shouting out (Gordon & Browne, 2004) to more serious behaviour such as being physically aggressive towards others (Jacobs & de Wet, 2009). Although 'disruptive behaviour', 'misbehaviour', 'problem behaviour', and 'antisocial behaviour' have been used interchangeably in the literature when referring to behaviour that causes problems in the classroom, for the purpose of this study, the term 'disruptive behaviour' will be used as the term of preference.

Defining 'disruptive behaviour' in an absolute manner can be restrictive, as educators have differing perceptions of what disruptive behaviour entails. However, for

this study, disruptive behaviour will be defined as any activity that may cause stress for educators, interrupt the learning process and lead to interference of the rights of other learners to learn (Arbuckle & Little, 2004; Marais & Meier, 2010).

1.5 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

This research report will be structured in the following way:

Chapter 1 will introduce the reader to the study.

Chapter 2 will provide an in-depth review of existing literature pertaining to this research study. The literature review will be discussed within a specific theoretical framework.

Chapter 3 will contain an explanation of the chosen research design and the methodology.

Chapter 4 will present a discussion of the research findings along with the researcher's interpretations. Included in this chapter will be a discussion of the themes that may have emerged during the course of the data analysis.

Chapter 5 will provide a summary and overall conclusion of the research study. The research questions will be answered. In addition, there will be a discussion of any limitations that may have arisen throughout the research process, along with recommendations for further research.

1.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter introduces the reader to the motivation for the study, as well as discuss the background and context of the study. Furthermore, the aims of the study and the research questions are presented. In order for the reader to have a clear understanding of the research procedure, a brief overview of the research process is discussed. Lastly, there is a conceptualisation of concepts.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses current and past literature relating to behaviour management of disruptive behaviour, as well as the theoretical framework of systems theory and various behaviour management theories. The aim of the literature review is to contextualise the research study, as well as to identify a possible area in which the study could contribute to the research area. Furthermore, a comprehensive literature review is seen as a prerequisite for research, as it uses existing knowledge to further the understanding of the research area (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Henning, van Rensburg, & Smit, 2004).

The literature review of this study first describes the theoretical framework of the study, namely behaviour management theory and systems theory. The researcher will elaborate on the relevance of these frameworks for this particular study. A description of development in early childhood will be given, to gain an understanding of appropriate developmental expectations of boys in the FP. In addition, to understand behaviour management strategies for disruptive behaviour, disruptive behaviour as a concept will be explored, as well as the effects of this behaviour on educators. As the focus of this thesis is on educators and their behaviour management strategies, the chapter will close with various types of behaviour management, as well as support that educators need to successfully implement behaviour management strategies.

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Theories are constructed hypotheses or systems of ideas used to explain certain phenomena (Tulloch, 1996). As such, a researcher uses a theoretical framework as a structure, in order to explain the problem being studied, why that problem exists, as well as the findings of a study. Furthermore, a theoretical framework can be explained as a group of interconnected frames. The first frame refers to the body of literature from which one orients his study. The second frame is embedded within the whole framework and is related to the problem statement. The final frame that is stated within the problem statement is the aim of the study (Merriam, 2009).

In order to explore and understand educators' behaviour management strategies,

one should have an understanding of the theoretical underpinnings of behaviour management. Although there are a number of theories upon which behaviour management is built (Olsen & Cooper, 2001), the researcher is of the opinion that systems theory and behaviour management are two influential theories that have led to the modern approaches of managing behaviour. Consequently, the researcher will first discuss the behaviour management theories, followed by a more in-depth discussion of systems theory.

2.2.1 Behaviourism and Behaviourist Theory

Behaviourism is a theoretical paradigm that focuses on behaviour, which can be observed, as well as the underlying causes that trigger such behaviours. Accordingly, behaviourists believe that disruptive behaviour is the result of environmental factors and external stimuli. Thus, the behaviour stems from outside the learner. Theorists, such as Watson and Skinner, developed the concepts of classical and operant conditioning as ways of changing behaviour. Classical conditioning is based upon the works of Pavlov, whereby behaviour is elicited through stimulus-response principles. Operant conditioning, however, is different in that the stimulus is not always presented and reinforcement is made when the desired behaviour occurs due to choice (Buckler & Castle, 2014; Olsen & Cooper, 2001). As such, the consequences of behaviour (i.e. rewards and punishments) lead to changes in the occurrence of that behaviour (Dad, Ali, Janjua, Shahzad, & Khan, 2010).

According to Skinner's principles of operant conditioning, rewards or punishments (known as reinforcers) are given when a response occurs. Reinforcers are any stimuli that follow an operant response and must reinforce or strengthen behaviour. There are five basic operations underlying operant conditioning. These include: positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, extinction, response-cost punishment and punishment with aversives. In positive reinforcement, positive reinforcers, such as rewards, are received as a result of good behaviour, thereby increasing the desired responses when added to the situation. An example of positive behaviour would include a learner receiving a sticker for good behaviour. Negative reinforcement refers to the removal of an unpleasant stimulus (such as homework). Thus, learners are rewarded for working well by not having to complete homework. With regards to disruptive behaviour, negative reinforcement may inadvertently lead to an increase in the disruptive behaviour. For example, a learner may become disruptive as a way of avoiding the stimulus (e.g. work that he finds challenging).

Should the educator remove the learner from the classroom for a time-out (the punishment), the educator has inadvertently reinforced the disruptive behaviour, as the learner has accomplished the avoidance of the work (Boghossian, 2006; Dad et al., 2010).

Extinction refers to the occurrence of behaviour decreasing when the reinforcement that has been maintaining it is removed. Through the strategy of planned ignoring, an educator can decrease negative behaviours that have been reinforced. For example, the educator reprimands a learner who often shouts out. As the educator pays attention to the negative behaviour, it is reinforced. By ignoring the behaviour, however, the reinforcement is removed. Extinction is only useful when used in conjunction with positive reinforcement of desired behaviour (such as praising the learner for raising his hand, instead of shouting out).

While positive reinforcement and planned ignoring are the more preferred approach, most effective BMS include some level of punishment to deal with disruptive behaviour that cannot be ignored. Consequently, response-cost punishment and punishment through aversives are often used (Landrum & Kauffman, 2011; Merrett & Wheldall, 1990). Punishment is used to decrease undesired responses through the introduction of an unpleasant reinforce or the removal of a stimulus, but is not always effective in eliminating the undesirable behaviour (Dad et al., 2010). Response-cost punishment refers to the removal of an already earned reinforcement (e.g. a token or team points). Punishment through aversives, although the less preferred method, refers to the application of an aversive following disruptive behaviour (Landrum & Kauffman, 2011). Punishment as a negative reinforcer can, however, produce negative effects such as anger, resentment and aggression in the learners, particularly when there is not alternative reinforcement. It is, therefore, essential for punishment to be accompanied with alternative strategies for behaving (Dad et al., 2010; Merrett & Wheldall, 1990).

Behaviourism as a paradigm in education places emphasis on rewards and punishment, particularly in the era in which corporal punishment existed. The assumptions are grounded in the belief that learner discipline will be fostered and maintained through the use of rewards for desired behaviours and punishment for undesired behaviours (Irby & Clough, 2015). Today, although corporal punishment has been abolished, certain principles of behaviourism are still used in classrooms to manage behaviour (Buckler & Castle, 2014).

The behaviourist approach to effectively managing disruptive behaviour involves

teaching the learner prosocial or positive behaviour through operant conditioning. Operant conditioning makes use of reinforcement to modify behaviour and includes positive and negative reinforcement, as well as positive and negative punishment (Buckler & Castle, 2014; Dad et al., 2010). Buckler and Castle (2014), however, note that operant conditioning works as long as the rewards are available. Many school systems are organised around incentives and praise (e.g. reward systems, class parties, receiving prizes etc.), to motivate learners to perform to the best of the abilities, academically and behaviourally. Should learners display undesired behaviours, the school system relies on punishment and coercive rewards to change the learners' behaviours (e.g. time-outs, detention, exclusion from excursions etc.). Examples of disciplinary approaches that rely on the use of external stimuli to manage behaviour in schools are that of the zero-tolerance approaches and the positive behavioural supports (PBS). Zero-tolerance approaches make use of positive and negative reinforcement to teach learners what is not acceptable. The PBS approach is a three-tiered response-to-intervention aimed at thinking about and responding to behaviour problems (Irby & Clough, 2015; McKinney et al., 2005).

Another of the more effective behavioural approaches to behaviour management used is the A-B-C model. That is, one analyses the *antecedent* to the behaviour, the *behaviour*, and the *consequence* of the behaviour. The aim of the strategy is to change either the antecedents or the consequences so as to change the behaviour (McKinney et al., 2005; Olsen & Cooper, 2001; Roffey, 2006). There is a relationship between the behaviour and the action occurring before the behaviour, namely the antecedent. The antecedents stimulate behaviour and consequences follow as a result. The consequences affect that probability that the behaviour will increase or decrease. In order for the consequences to be effective, however, they must be applied consistently (Carpenter & McKee-Higgins, 1996; Osher, Bear, Sprague, & Doyle, 2010).

Although early behavioural approaches relied more heavily on punishment, more modern behavioural approaches focus on positive behaviour reinforcement. Positive behaviour management (PBM) focuses on the development of a positive atmosphere in the classroom through the involvement of the learners in the educational process. PMS is based upon the behaviour modification principles of traditional behaviourism, but with an emphasis on positive reinforcement and rejects punitive disciplinary approaches. Inappropriate behaviour is therefore ignored rather than punished. Furthermore, PMS aims to change problem behaviour by changing the conditions maintaining the behaviour,

as well as the antecedent conditions. Consequently, positive behaviour is encouraged (Atherley, 1990). Merrett & Wheldall (1990) state, however, that educators must aim to reduce the frequency of the reinforcement. Should the positive reinforcers be readily available, learners become less responsive. Consequently, the reinforcers should be used infrequently once the desired behaviours occur regularly.

Positive reinforcement, in particular, underlies many of the effective BMS and classroom management. Merrett and Wheldall (1990) believed that through the accentuation of the positive, educators could reduce the need for the negative. Verbal reinforcement, such as praise, is a tool that educators often use as a way of reinforcing positive behaviour. Praise, however, must be sincere and natural. According to Hayes, Hindle and Withington (2007), verbal reinforcement is effective because it is meaningful for learners and increases motivation more so than tangible rewards.

Carpenter and McKee-Higgins (1996, p.196) are of the opinion that effective behaviour management programs are responsive to individual and group behaviours and are proactive in nature. In addition, the behaviour programs should make use of instructional techniques to develop the desired behaviours, promote a positive climate to motivate learners, should be dynamic and responsive to learners' changing behavioural skills and must make use of collaboration with other staff members to support the BMS. Through the use of the above principles, educators can influence the behavioural outcomes for the individual learner.

Educators play an essential role in helping learners modify their behaviours (Dad et al., 2010). Studies have shown, however, that despite empirical underpinnings, many educators do not always reinforce positive behaviour as often as they could or do so inconsistently (Atherley, 1990; Irby & Clough, 2015; Landrum & Kauffman, 2011). Rather, there appears to be higher rates of disapproval and reinforcement of negative behaviour by paying attention to it (Dad et al., 2010; Hart, 2010; Landrum & Kauffman, 2011). In addition, educators may not select appropriate rewards or punishments due to limited training or knowledge (Dad et al., 2010).

The behaviourist approach has been criticised for concentrating on the external stimuli and does not take into consideration the learner's personality, thought patterns and individuality. In addition, punishment and a focus on extrinsic rewards do not always develop intrinsic motivation to change or to self-manage disruptive behaviours (Hart, 2010; Roffey, 2006). Research, however, has indicated that rather than the total abandonment

of punishment and rewards in behaviour management, there should be a combination of these principles with other approaches (Irby & Clough, 2015).

While behaviourism has been criticised, behavioural research has changed considerably from the beginnings of Watson and Skinner. Research into effective behaviour management has become attuned to the contextual aspects of behaviour and has begun to incorporate aspects of other theories such as constructivism, social learning theory and cognitive theory (Landrum & Kauffman, 2011).

2.2.2 Systems Theory

A general systems theory approach provides a useful framework in which to view and understand disruptive behaviour and ways of managing it, as it explores the complex interactions that occur in education, schools and classrooms (Burden, 1981; Green, 2001b; Marais & Meier, 2010; Paterson & Perold, 2013; Sabol & Pianta, 2012). Society as a whole is conceptualised as a system of interrelated and interdependent levels that are in a state of constant flux. This system is comprised of various components that have reciprocal influences on one another. Systems continuously develop, change and reorganise themselves over time, whereby change in one component results in change in the others. Therefore, the functioning of the whole system is dependent on the way in which the components interact (Burden, 1981; Donald, Lazarus, & Lolwana, 2010; Green, 2001b).

There are a number of processes that characterise human systems. Each system describes complex causal relationships that exist between various factors. As such, the system is seen as a whole and the whole is greater than the sum of the parts. This indicates that each part cannot be seen as functioning independently. Rather, the parts are interdependent. An individual is, therefore, viewed as a single entity that is a bound system, but is also a part of various other systems such as a family system, a school system and a peer system (Green, 2001b).

Furthermore, within each system there are subsystems that interact with other subsystems. The relationships between the systems are embedded within a multileveled system. Each level, such as the individual, family, classroom and community levels, has a reciprocal influence on the relationships that exist between them. These interactions can influence the way in which the educator and the child interact with one another, as well as the relationship that forms between them (Marais & Meier, 2010; Sabol & Pianta, 2012).

Sabol and Pianta (2012, p.214) are of the opinion that children are “embedded in organised and dynamic systems that include multiple proximal and distal levels of influence” and that the relationship between the educator and the learner is influenced by individual characteristics, which reciprocally influence one another.

In order to understand the relationships between the systems (i.e. that of the educators and the learners they teach), one needs to analyse and explore the various elements of each system and determine if the interactions between these systems are unhealthy. This requires looking at learners’ disruptive behaviour (the element) in the system (the classroom) and educators (element) in the system (school) (Burden, 1981; Marais & Meier, 2010; Paterson & Perold, 2013). As the system strives for equilibrium and stability through self-regulation, the system will seek ways to change circumstances if there is a threat. Disruptive behaviour poses a threat to elements (the educator) and the system (the classroom). Therefore, it is essential that various behaviour management strategies are explored, to allow for change in the system and allow the system to function at its optimum (Marais & Meier, 2010).

Burden (1981) is of the opinion that the systems theory approach has a number of advantages when exploring disruptive behaviour within the school system. Firstly, it provides the framework within which the functioning of large complex organisations such as schools can be understood. Secondly, it takes into consideration the context in which the system functions, as well as the complex relationship between the various components of the system as a whole. Furthermore, this approach “emphasises the need to study relations rather than the entities” (p.31), along with the changes and process that are involved. Finally, systems theory allows for change to take place, since it views disruptive behaviour within a context and sees behaviour outcomes as predictable when the system has been analysed.

Systemic approaches to disruptive behaviour provide the framework for understanding and managing behaviour, as the focus is on behaviour in relation to social interactions, the environment’s reaction to the behaviour and social cognitions and skills (Hart, 2010; Marais & Meier, 2010). As such, when trying to manage disruptive behaviour, the educator should consider the behaviour within the learner’s context and try to understand how the context has shaped the learner’s development (Naong, 2007). System theorists further believe that in order to understand and manage disruptive behaviour, one needs to explore the links between the child and the people in his world. The interventions then involve all the systems, looking to change the way in which those

around the child respond, interact and communicate during the disruptive behaviour (Hart, 2010; Olsen & Cooper, 2001).

The systems approach views people as integrated and complex biological, emotional, intellectual and spiritual systems. When used as an approach to manage disruptive behaviour, the systemic approach will also employ behavioural, social and cognitive interventions that are aimed at changing the behaviour. As such, behaviourist strategies based on punishment and reinforcement are important, but should be used in conjunction with strategies that promote a positive climate, self-discipline and social problem-solving strategies (Bear, 2010; Hart, 2010; Olsen & Cooper, 2001).

2.3 DEVELOPMENT IN THE FOUNDATION PHASE

In order to gain an understanding of disruptive behaviour displayed by learners in the classroom, one needs to understand the physical, cognitive, psychosocial and emotional characteristics of children. According to Neaum (2010), the various aspects of a child's learning are "interrelated, inseparable and interdependent". Furthermore, Neaum (2010) is of the opinion that development in these areas occurs simultaneously, with each aspect impacting the development of the other aspects. A discussion on these characteristics will subsequently follow, along with a discussion on disruptive behaviour commonly displayed by children in the FP of school.

Children in the FP fall within what is known as early childhood development (ECD). According to White Paper 5 (Department of Education, 2008b), ECD is defined as stage in which children grow and develop physically, mentally, emotionally, morally and socially. Children in this period are usually between the ages of 0 and nine years old, and experience important cognitive, social, and emotional development. Furthermore, children enter new social environments as they enter school, where they spend a large portion of their time. While the family still plays a vital role, the school's influence on the various areas of development can have a lasting impact (Colle & Del Giudice, 2011; Green, 2001a; Louw, van Ede, & Ferns, 1998; Shonkoff, 1984). For the purpose of this study, a discussion on FP children's' development will be discussed, with a focus on children that fall within the ages of six to nine years.

2.3.1 Physical Development

During these formative years, children experience a more regular, gradual rate of physical growth than in earlier childhood. Taking into account individual differences, one

of the most significant characteristics of this period is the rapid growth of the arms and legs in comparison to the torso. While the growth rate of boys and girls is similar during early childhood, there are differences that occur during this time. In addition, the brain also reaches its mature size and weight, with the frontal cortex increasing in capacity (Green, 2001a; Louw, 1997).

It is also during this developmental stage that children begin to acquire and refine their psychomotor skills due to an increase in muscle control, strength and co-ordination. As such, children begin to take part in sporting activities, have a large amount of energy and enjoy being active. Boys generally develop their motor skills at a faster rate than girls at this stage of development, as they have greater muscle tissue density. Children's motor development plays an important role in their cognitive and social development and can have implications in the classroom as will be discussed in subsequent sections (Green, 2001a; Louw, 1997; Louw et al., 1998; Shonkoff, 1984).

2.3.2 Cognitive Development

As stated in Piaget's Cognitive Developmental Theory, there are four distinct stages of development. These include: the sensorimotor stage (birth to two years), the pre-operational stage (two to six years), followed by the concrete operational stage (seven to eleven years), and the formal operational stage (11 years and older) (Collins, 1984; Louw, 1997). Accordingly, children in the FP are in the concrete operational stage whereby children develop the capacity to use operations that lead to logical reasoning when applied to concrete objects, develop reversibility and decentration, as well as conservation. While children are able to make logical deductions, they are only able to do so when the operations are applied to concrete objects and events (Green, 2001a; Louw et al., 1998; Shonkoff, 1984).

Piaget's theory, however, does not take into account social and cultural influences on cognitive development. Vygotsky was of the opinion that cognitive development takes place through social interaction and that meaning is socially constructed (Donald et al., 2010). FP is therefore seen as an important period in which children consolidate and expand their language, as well as gain attitudes for learning, through active participation in their own development and learning, and through "collaborative construction of meaning in particular social contexts" (Green, 2001a, p. 84).

According to the information-processing approach, cognitive development in the FP

consists mainly of increasing short-term and long-term memory capacity, which are linked to learning and problem solving. Furthermore, children have the ability to become aware of and monitor their own thinking and learning, leading to an increase in self-regulation and self-control. Consequently, when given the correct strategies, children are able to control their impulsivity (Green, 2001a).

2.3.3 Psychosocial Development

Erikson's Psychosocial Theory defines eight stages of psychosocial development and takes the social context into account. Each stage of development is characterised by a different psychological crisis or challenge, whereby the individual is confronted with a problem that is specific to his developmental stage. These challenges are resolved according to the individual's past experiences and his social context at that particular point in time and influence his social relationships and personality formation. Once the individual has resolved the challenge, he moves onto the next stage (Donald et al., 2010; Louw, 1997).

During the FP years, the central developmental challenge is to acquire a sense of industriousness, rather than a sense of inferiority. Children at this stage develop an interest in learning and must develop competencies and skills to complete tasks. Educators should provide opportunities for learners to practise these skills and develop a sense of mastery. If the child successfully completes tasks, he will develop a sense of industry, while a failure may lead to a sense of inferiority, feeling inadequate and unworthy (Green, 2001a; Louw et al., 1998; Marais & Meier, 2010).

Children in the FP are also in the phase where they begin to focus more on their peers than on their parents. As such, they begin forming social networks and peer hierarchies, organising their behaviour according to shared rules such as co-operation, social roles and competition (Colle & Del Giudice, 2011). Through social interactions, children begin to develop a sense of accomplishment and a feeling of competence and belief in their skills. The development of such social networks may have implications for the classroom and behaviour development, as learners begin to experiment with behaviour. Consequently, this may result in behaviour that is perceived to be disruptive.

2.3.4 Emotional Development

Greater emotional maturity occurs in the FP as children become more independent and self-sufficient. Children also develop more emotional flexibility and greater emotional

differentiation. As such, during this phase, children are better able to express their emotions and behave in ways that are socially expected. Furthermore, children become more sensitive toward others and more aware of how others perceive them (Louw et al., 1998).

During this phase, children are able to identify a greater number of emotions, become aware that internal causes can lead to emotional expression, are better able to interpret others' facial expression, begin to understand that emotional states can be changed and start realising that multiple emotions can be experienced simultaneously. Gender-role stereotyping and cultural expectations, however, influence the way in which emotions are expressed. This may lead to children avoiding emotions that may lead to humiliation or ridicule. For example, boys may avoid crying as it may be seen as showing weakness in certain cultures (Green, 2001a; Louw et al., 1998). Aggression, in particular, is no longer only used as a means of achieving an instrumental goal, but rather to hurt. Boys are generally more aggressive during this phase, which is attributed to biological and cultural variables (Louw et al., 1998).

2.3.5 Moral Development

Having discussed the cognitive, psychosocial and emotional development, one must consider the importance of moral development when understanding disruptive behaviour. Morals refer to having an understanding of what is right and wrong and following what is deemed 'right' by society, culture, families and individuals. Once the child has acquired a sense of morality through this distinction, he can behave accordingly. Moral development includes emotional responses such as guilt, empathy and fear of negative consequences. Cognitive and social development play an important role in moral development, as the child needs to have an understanding of right and wrong and does so through their social interactions (Fleming, 2008; Shelton & Brownhill, 2008).

Piaget was of the opinion that moral understanding occurred through the process of development and consequently developed a three-stage theory of moral development. The first stage was the *pre-moral* stage, whereby children up to the age of four years had no understanding of rules or what was right and wrong. The second stage referred to the *moral realism* stage, from the ages four to ten years. During this stage, rules are set, cannot be broken and are based on consequences. Punishment in this stage should occur directly after any wrongdoing. In the final stage, children move into *moral subjectivism* with the understanding that rules can be adjusted through compromise and

mutual agreement. At this stage, children have internalised the social rules and boundaries and can behave according to their social setting (Fleming, 2008; Shelton & Brownhill, 2008).

Kohlberg further refined Piaget's stages, arguing that Piaget's work was limited with regards to the transition from moral realism to moral subjectivism. Consequently, although his theory also consisted of three levels, he identified six stages of moral development. The three levels included the *preconventional level*, with stage one (punishment and obedience orientation) and stage two (individualism and instrumental orientation); the *conventional morality level*, with stage three (understanding shared feelings) and stage four (understanding the larger social system); and finally the *postconventional level*, including stage five (understanding rules and their function) and stage six (reasoning rooted in ethical fairness) (Fleming, 2008; Shelton & Brownhill, 2008).

From a behaviourist viewpoint, moral development and moral behaviour stems from a child's past conditioning rather than his character. Thus, through social reinforcement (rewards and punishment), a child learns morality. Initially, the child's parents reinforce morality with social approval or criticism. As the child develops and begins to interact with wider social levels, educators at school and the wider community, cultural and religious beliefs begin to reinforce morality. With regard to gender, morality is learned through the observation and reinforcement of the actions of adults and peers. As there are various gender roles and expectations, children are rewarded for role-appropriate behaviour or punished for inappropriate behaviour (Fleming, 2008). Such viewpoints could have implications in the classrooms, particularly in an all-boys' school.

2.3.6 Classroom Implications

As children enter school for the first time, there are various adjustments that have to be made. Educators take on the role of a new authority figure in the child's life and each educator will have their own rules, expectations and discipline style. As such, there may be differences in behavioural expectations at home and in the classroom, to which the child will need to adjust (Louw et al., 1998). For example, children that come from homes in which parents have an authoritarian discipline style, may find it difficult to cope within an authoritative classroom. Educators that are more authoritarian, however, may promote self-esteem and the child whose parents are authoritative may struggle to adjust when they are back home (Green, 2001).

The attachment style that a child has with his mother will influence how a child adjusts to the educational environment. Ainsworth and Bowlby (1991) collaborated on attachment theory and define attachment as the profound and enduring emotional bond that takes place between two people, usually between the child and its mother (Bergin & Bergin, 2012; Louw, 1997). A more detailed description of attachment is beyond the scope of this study. Bergin and Bergin (2012, p.212) are of the opinion that this parent-child attachment, along with the child's temperament, "forms the foundation for a child's personality and emotional well-being in the classroom".

Research has shown that attachment can influence the way children socialise and relate to others, as well as how compliant they may be with adults. Additionally, the relationship between the educator and the child may also be determined by the attachment style or quality. Educators who have secure attachments with their learners, may experience learners as cooperative and able to accept comfort when needed. Avoidant relationships may result in learners ignoring requests or moving away when comfort is offered. Learners who have resistant relationships with their educator may become demanding of attention or frustrated easily. This may result in children exhibiting behaviour that is perceived to be disruptive in the classroom (Bergin & Bergin, 2012; Hughes, Cavell, & Willson, 2001; Pianta & Nimetz, 1991; Sabol & Pianta, 2012).

In addition to the above, children who experience inadequacy and inferiority according to Erikson's developmental stages, are more likely to exhibit behaviour that does not conform to the expectations of society and may become disruptive. FP learners learn through doing and touching and may therefore find it difficult to sit still, leading to the perception that learners are misbehaving or being disruptive in class (Marais & Meier, 2010). Furthermore, considering the discussion of moral development, it may be more accepted for boys to be more boisterous, outspoken or aggressive at home due to gender roles and expectations. In the classroom, however, the educator may view the behaviour as disruptive and punish such behaviour.

In the following section, disruptive behaviour will be discussed in further detail.

2.4 DISRUPTIVE BEHAVIOUR

From the above, it can be said that learners should ideally come to school with certain skills that are necessary for success in the classroom, such as the ability to cooperate, control impulsivity, follow directions, interact socially in a positive manner,

control anger and have a respect for physical boundaries (Jacobsen, 2013). This, however, is not always the case and often educators are faced with learners who display behaviour that is disruptive.

Disruptive behaviour is not a new phenomenon. Socrates stated, “Children now love luxury. They have bad manners and contempt for authority. They show disrespect for their elders and love chatter in place of exercise” (cited in Merrett & Wheldall, 1990). Numerous studies and reports in the media indicate that educators are constantly battling with learners that are disruptive in class, resulting in less learning taking place and higher levels of burnout in educators (Bergin & Bergin, 2012; Clunies-Ross et al., 2008; Hastings & Bham, 2003; Jacobs & de Wet, 2009; Lewis et al., 2009; Olsen & Cooper, 2001; Schulze & Steyn, 2007).

Children spend almost a quarter of their time at school (Seligman et al., 2009). In most classrooms, there is an emphasis on cooperation and consent, in order for learning to take place and for educators and learners to interact harmoniously. There are times, however, when disruptive behaviour interferes with this harmonious relationship and learning is interrupted (Olsen & Cooper, 2001). Attitudes towards children and the management of disruptive behaviour have changed over the years and have become less authoritarian. This, however, brings with it its own challenges (Merrett & Wheldall, 1990).

In order to understand disruptive behaviour, a definition of disruptive behaviour will be discussed. This will be followed by the conceptualisation of boys and the way in which they behave.

2.4.1 Conceptualisation of Disruptive Behaviour

Behaviour refers to one’s actions and what one says (Mukherji, 2001), in order to function in a particular way (O’Reagan, 2006). Problem behaviour or disruptive behaviour has been defined in various ways. From a social constructivist approach, however, determining a definition of disruptive behaviour can be challenging, as it is mostly those who experience the disruptive behaviour that determine the definition. Behaviour that may be seen as disruptive to one educator may be seen as a challenge or acceptable to another (Merrett & Wheldall, 1990; O’Brien, 1998; O’Reagan, 2006).

‘Misbehaviour’, ‘problem behaviour’, and ‘disruptive behaviour’ are often used interchangeably in the literature. For this study, ‘disruptive behaviour’ is the preferred term. Donovan, Jessor and Costa (1991) define disruptive behaviour as behaviour that

has been determined as a problem socially or as undesirable as seen by social norms. The occurrence of disruptive behaviour usually elicits a social control response. Atici (2007) describes disruptive behaviour as any behaviour that threatens classroom order.

The above definitions are confirmed in other studies. Merrett and Wheldall (1990), along with Esturgó-Deu and Sala-Roca (2010) are of the opinion that behaviour is regarded as disruptive if it interferes with the child's learning, if it interferes with others' learning and if it prevents the educator from teaching the class to the best of his or her ability. Gordon & Browne (2004), however, view disruptive behaviour as behaviour that is merely inappropriate. Other definitions of disruptive behaviour refer to behaviour that is destructive, may be a manifestation of psychological disorders, inappropriate behaviours etc. (Esturgó-Deu & Sala-Roca, 2010; Jacobsen, 2013; Marais & Meier, 2010).

For the purpose of this study, based on the researcher's own experiences and perceptions, disruptive behaviour refers to those behaviours that interfere with the teaching and learning process.

2.4.2 Types of Disruptive Behaviour

In order to understand and develop behaviour management strategies, it is important to review the ways in which disruptive behaviour manifests in the classroom. Research has also shown that there are certain types of disruptive behaviour that are common throughout schools (Merrett & Wheldall, 1990; Prinsloo, 2005), but the most disruptive behaviour for educators appears to be that of talking out of turn, followed by the disruption of other children (Merrett & Wheldall, 1990). Although various types of disruptive behaviour have been identified in the literature, disruptive behaviour manifests covertly or overtly (Jacobsen, 2013; Merrett & Wheldall, 1990) and there are various categories into which disruptive behaviour may fall.

According to O'Reagan (2006), disruptive behaviour can be categorised into three areas. These include *overall behaviours*, *learning behaviours*, and *socialisation behaviours*. *Overall behaviours* include interfering with others, talking all the time, being restless or fidgety, a lack of self-control, distractible, stealing, lying and being demanding. *Learning behaviours* include forgetting instructions, being off task, not being able to get started, not completing tasks, disorganisation, avoidance and poor motivation. Examples of *socialisation behaviours* are being anxious, egocentric, rude, thoughtless, or having low self-esteem, lacking empathy and not taking turns.

Rayment (2006), on the other hand, divides disruptive behaviour into the four categories of *attention seeking*, *power seeking*, *revenge seeking* and *escape by withdrawal*. *Attention seeking* is viewed as the most common disruptive behaviour whereby the learner may shout out, show off, be physically offensive towards other learners or teachers and distract the class. As boys tend to have a shorter attention span than girls, they may become restless and bored, leading to difficulty in remaining in their seats. *Power seeking* includes behaviours such as being argumentative or defiant, and bullying. Learners that become destructive, cruel and sometimes violent exhibit *revenge seeking* behaviour. Learners will try to devalue or intimidate others through revenge-seeking tactics. Finally, *escape through withdrawal* behaviour is exhibited through daydreaming, not wanting to complete work and giving up easily.

As mentioned in Chapter One, other categories of disruptive behaviour include behaviour that disrupts learning and teaching, behaviour that interferes with other learners' rights to learn, physically and psychologically unsafe behaviour and destructive behaviour (Marais & Meier, 2010). Disruptive behaviour may also be categorised according to verbally disruptive behaviour and physically disruptive behaviour (Alter et al., 2013). Physical violence against other learners, however, appears to occur less often than the more frequent, minor disruptive behaviours discussed (Merrett & Wheldall, 1990).

Moreover, disruptive behaviour has been categorised according to the level of seriousness ranging from low-level disruptive behaviours such as moodiness or incorrect clothing, to more challenging disruptive behaviours such as rudeness, disrespect, lying or inappropriate language, to more severe aggressive behaviour against other learners or educators (Jacobs & de Wet, 2009). However, studies have shown that the above-mentioned behaviours are not experienced as equally serious due to differences amongst educators' abilities, experience and personality, as well as differences in cultural norms (Ding, Li, Li, & Kulm, 2010; Jacobs & de Wet, 2009). Furthermore, research studies have also indicated that for some educators, the behaviour that is most concerning is not necessarily those behaviours that are major infringements, but behaviours that are minor transgressions and repeated disruptions (Arbuckle & Little, 2004). Educator understandings, perceptions and expectations may also determine the categories of behaviour. Consequently, creating strategies that target specific disruptive behaviour will be more effective and can be modified accordingly (O'Reagan, 2006).

2.4.3 Boys and Behaviour

Various studies have found that boys tend to be more overtly disruptive in the classroom than girls (Biddulph, 1998; Esturgó-Deu & Sala-Roca, 2010; Francis, 2000; O'Reagan, 2006; Osler & Vincent, 2003; Rayment, 2006). Merrett and Wheldall's research study (1990) illustrated that boys were 76% more disruptive than girls in the classroom. O'Reagan (2006) further found that boys are 12 times more likely to shout out and at least four times more likely to have learning and behavioural difficulties than girls. Biddulph (1998) is of the opinion that this is due to delayed growth in the left cortex of the brain. Rayment (2006) elaborates on this statement, stating that girls' inter-neural connections between the two halves of the cortex are better established than boys' and these connections are needed for the management of issues that need both sides of the brain to work together, such as skills needed for emotional control.

As such, boys who struggle academically may misbehave to avoid boredom or hide signs that they are not achieving. In addition, boys tend to have a shorter attention span and more likely to leave work unfinished as a result of restlessness and boredom. Increased levels of testosterone in boys also lead to higher levels of aggression and assertion. Esturgó-Deu and Sala-Roca (2010) also indicate that girls tend to show greater emotional maturity than boys and therefore less disruptive behaviour. It is important to note, however, that the neurological and behavioural differences between boys and girls are slight and do not always apply to all individuals (O'Reagan, 2006).

Grossman (2004) reports that boys are more likely to engage in rough and tumble behaviour, as well as choose loosely structured activities with few externally imposed rules. In addition, boys relate to each other differently than girls in that boys tend to be more aggressive and assertive when wanting others to perform a task for them. Additionally, boys appear less responsive to the educator than girls. Harrop and Swinson (2011) further state that in the primary school, boys receive more attention from the educators than do girls. The attention may come in the form of disapproval or being spoken to about their disruptive behaviour. Furthermore, it would appear that educators pay more attention to boys, as they are seen to be more of a management challenge when compared to girls.

With regards to gender roles for behaviour, as previously mentioned, there are differences with expectations of behaviour. While educators may expect and accept that girls talk more, boys are often punished for the same behaviour. Research has also

indicated that female educators are particularly less tolerant of the more assertive, competitive behaviour that boys display, leading to increased punishment for the behaviour (Grossman, 2004; Spilt, Koomen, & Jak, 2012).

2.4.4 Effects of Disruptive Behaviour

Although educators experience joy, satisfaction and pleasure when learners in their class make progress, disruptive behaviour can lead to the experience of anger or frustration (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). Disruptive behaviour also has serious repercussions in the school system. It affects not only the teaching and learning process, but also the other children and the educators (Gotzens, Badia, Genovard, & Dezcallar, 2010; Prinsloo, 2005). Behaviour and learning are interdependent and should not be seen as separate entities. Educators that view these concepts as functioning independently from each other may feel that disruptive behaviour is a personal attack against them and begin to feel “de-skilled”. In turn, this may lead to behaviour management strategies that are oppressive rather than responsive (O’Brien, 1998).

Educators spend a large amount of their time trying to manage learners’ behaviours rather than on teaching. This results in less time spent with those learners who need support and the disruptive learner gains no benefits from what has been taught. Educators may become discouraged and lose motivation if they feel there is a loss of control in the classroom and if the learning process is being hampered. This in turn leads to higher levels of educator stress (Esturgó-Deu & Sala-Roca, 2010; Evertson & Weinstein, 2011; Merrett & Wheldall, 1990; Prinsloo, 2005).

The relationship between the educator and learners is often the place from which stress arises (Savage & Savage, 2010). Research has shown that educators may experience stress and anxiety due to lack of discipline and to high levels of disruptive behaviour, resulting in educator burnout and job dissatisfaction (Evertson & Weinstein, 2011; Schulze & Steyn, 2007). Axup and Gersch (2008), however, found that while educators experienced stress, disruptive behaviour was seen as part of the job.

Disruptive behaviour can become time-consuming, frustrating and exhausting for educators (Merrett & Wheldall, 1990). Consequently, educators may experience burnout, which could further lead to increased physical and mental health problems. These problems may even begin to affect educators’ personal lives and relationships (Hastings & Bham, 2003). As such, there is an increased rate of educator absenteeism and a number

of educators leave the field of education (Rayment, 2006).

It is of the utmost importance that educators have the proper training and are empowered to successfully manage disruptive behaviour in the classroom. Without this, there will be a lack of enthusiasm to teach and inadequate circumstances for learning. In addition, educators should also reflect upon their own teaching practices, expectations, as well as the relationships they develop with their learners and how these may impact disruptive behaviour in their classrooms.

2.5 GOODNESS-OF-FIT BETWEEN THE EDUCATOR AND THE LEARNER

The way in which learners relate to their educators is fundamental to teaching and can determine the extent to which learners adjust in school (Pianta & Nimetz, 1991). As such, when exploring the goodness-of-fit between the educator and learner, one has to take systems theory into consideration. Systems theory posits that the relationships between the levels within a system are dynamic and interrelated, whereby changes in one level will result in changes in another (Marais & Meier, 2010; Pianta & Nimetz, 1991; Sabol & Pianta, 2012). Therefore, the relationship between the educator and the learner is viewed as embedded within the multilevel system and the interactions between the various levels can shape the patterns of interactions between learners and educators (Sabol & Pianta, 2012). Thomas and Chess (1977) developed the goodness-of-fit model to investigate the relationship between temperament and the demands of the environment (cited in Churchill, 2003). They were of the opinion that if the demands and expectations of the environment are consistent with an individual's abilities, motivations, capacities and temperament, there will be positive psychological functioning and development (Churchill, 2003; Lerner, 1984). This model assists in the understanding of the relationship between educators and learners, and how the educator affects learners' behaviours.

As mentioned in a previous section, educators experience higher levels of stress, frustration and burnout due to disruptive behaviour. In addition, studies have shown that the consequences of heightened levels of stress can lead to experiences of depression, exhaustion and lack of motivation. This is important to note because learners are aware of and influenced by their educators' expression of negative emotions. Learners have reported experiences of shame, embarrassment, guilt, hurt and sadness when an educator shouts as a result of disruptive behaviour. Such experiences lead to an increase in disruptive behaviour rather than a decrease. On the other hand, when educators express positive emotions such as caring and joy, learners experienced a greater sense of

motivation, cooperation and self-control (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003).

When analysing what constitutes disruptive behaviour, it is imperative that educators reflect on their own beliefs and values that are reflected in their teaching practices and interventions with learners (McKinney et al., 2005). In addition, educators should consider that their expectations for acceptable behaviour may differ from the learner's parents. For example, educators may misinterpret behaviours due to a lack of cultural understanding (McKinney et al., 2005). In addition, as adults have varying tolerance levels for behaviour, studies demonstrate that reactions to behaviour also differ. When educators have similar expectations, learners enter the classroom already knowing what is expected of them, thereby increasing the likelihood of developing a positive relationship (Churchill, 2003; Lerner, 1984).

Research has revealed that learners who have positive relationships with their educators are better adjusted and more likely to engage in classroom activities. Positive educator-learner relationships can also act as buffers against behavioural problems. Conversely, learners with negative relationships are at risk of academic underperformance, as well as increased behavioural problems. Studies have further shown that boys are more influenced by the quality of their relationship with their educator than girls, as boys are more likely to have behavioural difficulties throughout primary school. Thus, boys would benefit more from a supportive, positive relationship with the educator so as to decrease disruptive behaviour. In addition, through a supportive relationship with the learner displaying disruptive behaviour, peers are more likely to interpret the learner's behaviour in a more favourable light (Hughes et al., 2001; Sabol & Pianta, 2012; Spilt et al., 2012).

Educators are more inclined to perceive their relationships with male learners as more conflictual than with female learners according to previous studies. Studies have found that educators tend to reprimand boys more often than girls and are more likely to use physical punishment (Grossman, 2004). This may be due to boys having less developed self-control skills and exhibiting more externalising behaviour than girls. Moreover, qualities that are more accepted (such as cooperation, compliance and attentiveness) tend to favour girls (Hagekull & Hammarberg, 2004; Spilt et al., 2012). Externalising behaviours leading to conflict with educators may lead to a cycle of conflictual interactions, as the conflict can exacerbate the behaviour, which then increases the negative relationship (Poulou, 2014; Sabol & Pianta, 2012). Furthermore, studies have revealed that there is an association between the number of boys in a classroom and

the level of perceived control that the educator has in handling disruptive behaviour. That is, the more boys in the class, the lower the perceived control. Perceived lack of control can lead to the issuing of commands without explanation as to the motive for the desired behaviour (Hagekull & Hammarberg, 2004).

Contrary to the above studies, however, it has been determined that the learners' positive experiences with their educator can, in fact, change externalising behaviours, as learners are capable of learning new behavioural strategies through the relationship (O'Connor, Collins, & Supplee, 2012). Furthermore, when exploring effective BMS, Grossman (2004) suggests that educators are more accepting of the fact that boys are different than girls in the way they learn and socialise. As boys tend to be more competitive than girls, such competitive behaviour (without being destructive) should be accepted and used to help develop a sense of achievement. The way in which boys play together should also be fostered and allowed once they demonstrate self-control.

An interesting study conducted by Osler (2000) took the perspective of the learners' (aged 10-11 and 13-15 years) and their views of their relationships with the educators. The results of the study indicated that although the learners reported good relationships with their educators, they had some recommendations for improving disruptive behaviour. These included: giving praise for positive behaviour, listening to the learners, taking time to understand the causes of any conflict or fights between learners, caring more, investigating before giving punishment and showing respect for all learners. The learners further indicated that the relationship between the learner and their educator was closely linked to school discipline. The findings of this research study highlighted the importance of including learners in the development of effective BMS.

From the systems theory perspective, educators form an integral role in the learners' social environment and can, therefore, be instrumental in influencing learners' behaviours (Hughes et al., 2001; Poulou, 2014). Moreover, educators' relationships with the learners may also influence peer acceptance or rejection. For example, an educator who has a positive relationship with a learner who has behavioural problems and may experience peer-rejection, can influence the way the learner is perceived by others more positively. Educators may be hesitant to accept such a role, however, as by implication this assumes that if behaviour does not improve, it may be due to the educator's teaching style or the relationship with the learner. Consequently, causes of disruptive behaviour in the classroom may be placed with the learner and his parents (Hayes et al., 2007).

In order for BMS to be effective, it is critical that the relationship between the educator and the learner be taken into consideration. The goodness-of-fit model provides a useful way of conceptualising how educators relate better to some learners and are able to establish a more positive relationship (Churchill, 2003).

2.6 BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Teaching is not only about delivering knowledge or about the latest curriculum. It also involves managing the classroom, motivating learners to learn and become independent, meeting the needs of each individual, particularly those who may need more attention than others, as well as socialisation of learners (Brophy, 1996; O'Reagan, 2006). Savage and Savage (2010, p.8) refer to discipline as the "development of self-control" and acceptance of responsibility in response to disruptive behaviour.

Many authors are of the opinion that in order to have a successful and productive classroom, behaviour management and discipline are essential (O'Brien, 1998; O'Reagan, 2006; Olsen & Cooper, 2001; Savage & Savage, 2010). As corporal punishment was abolished through legislation, educators have had to find alternative strategies to manage disruptive behaviour in the classroom (Marais & Meier, 2010; Schulze & Steyn, 2007). In order to manage behaviour, educators try to change or influence a learner's disruptive behaviour. This is done for a number of reasons, such as helping learners develop strategies to behave in ways that enable them to function within society or develop skills needed for working (Mukherji, 2001; Olsen & Cooper, 2001).

2.6.1 Theories of BMS

Prinsloo (2005) asserts that while classification of disruptive behaviour is possible, educators cannot predict which disruptive behaviours will occur in the classroom or use behaviour management strategies that have been predetermined. Rather, educators must be able to respond to disruptive behaviour by using strategies that are appropriate to that particular situation. As such, it is important for educators to have sound theoretical knowledge of various behaviour management strategies and be able to use them accordingly.

Wolfgang (2001) identified three philosophical orientations towards behaviour management: relationship-listening, confronting-contracting, and rules and consequences. The *relationship-listening* philosophy is grounded in humanism whereby the child is viewed as inherently good. Therefore, when a learner displays disruptive behaviour, it is due to

the inability of the learner to find the balance between his own needs and the needs of the class and curriculum. The educator's strategy to manage the learner's disruptive behaviour would be to help the learner negotiate his own goals and to find the balance. The theories of Carl Rogers and Alfie Kohn are consistent with this philosophy.

Educators who follow the *confronting-contracting* strategies also view disruptive behaviour as the learner's inability to manage his own internal needs in relation to external pressures. Educators, however, try to help the learner understand the nature and importance of the external pressures and work with the learner to develop shared goals. This philosophy is consistent with the social learning perspective (Wolfgang, 2001).

From the *rules-consequences* philosophy, educators view good behaviour as the result of learning from experiences of consequences. The educator decides on behaviour that is needed and actively teaches, monitors and provides consequences through rewards and punishment. Disruptive behaviour is viewed as a reflection of problems with the established system of rules. Skinner's theory and applied behaviour analysis are consistent with this philosophy (Wolfgang, 2001).

When disruptive behaviour is viewed as being attributed to internal causes (such as lack of motivation), educators may believe that the learner is able to control the disruptive behaviour and is therefore responsible for the outcome. This may lead to increased levels of anger and frustration in the educator and punishment for the disruptive behaviour. Educators that view disruptive behaviour as stemming from external causes that are beyond the learner's control (such as family dysfunction) are more likely to feel sympathetic towards the learner and help the learner to find more appropriate behaviours, rather than being punitive toward the disruptive behaviour (Woolfolk Hoy & Weinstein, 2011). In order to design effective behaviour management strategies, educators must take into account various factors such as individual and school pathology, gender, social, economic and cultural, as well as psychological and biological factors (O'Brien, 1998).

From the behavioural paradigm, effective BMS make use of reinforcements that promote positive behaviour. Carpenter and McKee-Higgins (1996) are of the viewpoint that educators should aim to develop a positive climate within the classroom whereby learners are encouraged to interact with others. As many classrooms have diverse learner populations, it is further recommended that educators provide structure with positive reinforcement to promote prosocial or positive behaviours. Should disruptive behaviour continue despite the reinforcement, BMS must correspond to the severity and importance

of the problem. For example, prevention, praise and ignoring are suggested for mild disruptive behaviour. BMS such as contingencies, parental involvement and exclusion, are recommended for more intrusive disruptive behaviours.

Behaviour management strategies should aim at long-term, rather than short-term solutions. As such, it is important to identify and address the cause of the disruptive behaviour, instead of wanting to stop the behaviour (Savage & Savage, 2010). Marais and Meier (2010) agree and further elaborate that by understanding the causes of disruptive behaviour, educators will be better equipped to manage the behaviour. As such, it is of vital importance that there is parental involvement. The school should provide support and education to parents on how to effectively communicate values and morals to their children. Moreover, behaviour management strategies must be aimed at the developmental level of the learners. Class rules are also effective management strategies, however, the rules must be explicitly explained to the learners.

When dealing with disruptive behaviour, a multi-systemic approach is effective. By using this approach, educators will employ behavioural and cognitive interventions aimed at changing the disruptive behaviour in collaboration with the learner's parents, as well as the school community. Furthermore, it is essential to take into account the historical and organisational context in which they are working, the larger institutions as well as the culture (Marais & Meier, 2010; Olsen & Cooper, 2001; Prinsloo, 2005).

2.6.2 Educator Needs and Challenges

As the education system in South Africa has moved toward Inclusive Education, educators need to be more accepting of learners with diverse needs and challenges. In addition, educators are expected to be able to recognise and control emotional, social and cognitive variables that impact learning and make up for poor parenting, poverty and learning difficulties (Holliday, 2005). Consequently, many first year educators may feel overwhelmed and frustrated. They begin to feel teaching is not as they expected, after experiencing disruptive behaviour (Evertson & Weinstein, 2011; Savage & Savage, 2010). In fact, managing disruptive behaviour is often seen as one of their biggest challenges (Savage & Savage, 2010). As research shows how disruptive behaviour can have negative effects on the whole system, it would seem imperative that behaviour management strategies or general classroom management be taught in educator preparation programs. This, however, is not always the case.

It would appear that there is a lack of preparation for beginner educators during their formal training. Often the topic of classroom management and behaviour management strategies is only given in a few sessions during the educator preparation programs. It is further shown that there is a debate on what should be included in behaviour management courses, as some educators prefer to focus on skills and strategies that prevent and deal with disruptive behaviours, whereas others prefer looking at various classroom management models (Evertson & Weinstein, 2011).

Beginner educators may experience 'unrealistic optimism' that interferes with their ability to judge their own effectiveness when managing disruptive behaviour. Unrealistic optimism refers to the tendency for beginner educators to believe that disruptive behaviour experienced by others would not happen in their class. As a result, beginner educators may experience disbelief when faced with disruptive behaviour. In addition, beginner educators may feel a sense of conflict between wanting to show care and the need for control in the classroom, as they view caring and order in the classroom as mutually exclusive. It is important, however, for educators to understand that care can be shown through the creation of a safe, orderly classroom where behaviour management strategies are being established (Woolfolk Hoy & Weinstein, 2011).

Olsen and Cooper (2001) state that while educators can learn skills to help them manage disruptive behaviour, it is important for these skills to be practised regularly over time and applied when appropriate. Rayment (2006) further elaborates that new educators may lack the experience, while experienced educators may have an occasional bad day. As such, educators need to continuously reflect and reassess their teaching skills, in order to keep up to date with current issues and strategies.

2.7 CONCLUSION

Disruptive behaviour has serious consequences for teaching and learning, affecting all levels of the system. Educators spend too much time trying to discipline those learners that are exhibiting disruptive behaviour, instead of teaching. It is, therefore, important that educators be provided with sufficient training in behaviour management strategies. The behaviour management strategies should focus on the promotion of behaviour that is desirable, with a particular emphasis on prevention of disruptive behaviour.

Using systems theory as an approach is a useful way of addressing disruptive behaviour in the school. The learner is viewed as functioning within a system that is

comprised of interrelated and interdependent elements. Therefore, the learner displaying disruptive behaviour should not be seen in isolation, but within the context in which it occurred. Rather, behaviour management strategies should be aimed at helping the learner develop more positive ways of exhibiting behaviour or emotions.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

As discussed in Chapter One, this research study is aimed at investigating FP educators' behaviour management strategies for disruptive behaviour in a boys' school. This chapter describes the research paradigm for the study, its design, followed by the process of inquiry, including the research methodology and design. Ethical procedures followed throughout the research process are also discussed.

In order for a discussion to take place, the research questions that were formulated in Chapter One are revisited. The research questions were as follows:

- What do FP educators perceive to be disruptive behaviour?
- What effect does the disruptive behaviour have on the educators?
- Which behaviour management strategies do FP educators perceive to be effective?

3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

Paradigms are defined as “a set of assumptions or beliefs about fundamental aspects of reality which give rise to a particular world-view” (Nieuwenhuis, 2007, p.47) and influence the researcher's choice of approach when answering a research question (Botma et al., 2010). In order to provide a detailed discussion of the research paradigm for this particular study, one needs to understand the philosophical position. The chosen research paradigm, namely the interpretative paradigm, is based along three dimensions - ontology, epistemology and methodology. Each of these dimensions will be discussed in further detail.

Ontology refers to the nature and form of reality, which will have various definitions depending on the research methodology and approach to research. According to the qualitative research paradigm, however, reality is socially constructed through subjective experiences. That is, it is how people's mental ideas and concepts are understood, as well as the deeper meaning that is attached to social actions (Botma et al., 2010; Nieuwenhuis, 2007b). Therefore, Merriam (2009, p.6) is of the opinion that as reality is socially constructed, there can be “no single, observable reality. Rather, there are multiple realities, or interpretations, of a single event”. This, in turn, has implications for the

epistemological dimension within the interpretive paradigm, as these multiple realities need to become accessible to the researcher.

Epistemology is defined as the process in which reality can become known and assumes a “relationship between the knower and the known” (Nieuwenhuis, 2007, p.55). In order to explore the subjective experiences of others, the researcher interacted with the participants through asking questions about their reality and the meaning they have attributed to their experiences (Henning et al., 2004). As such, the methodology required to facilitate such interaction relies on specific methods.

The methodology used in qualitative research differs from the more precise, systematic quantitative methods, as qualitative researchers argue that all situations and contexts are unique and different meanings are ascribed to the same event (Nieuwenhuis, 2007b; Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Therefore, qualitative methods such as interviews and observations allow for patterns and themes to emerge from the research process. The emphasis is placed on the participants’ view of knowledge, which arise through interaction between the researcher and the participant (Nieuwenhuis, 2007b).

From the above, the researcher chose to use the interpretative paradigm as a framework, as the participants’ subjective realities and the experiences of their realities were of interest. Although Creswell (2007) proposes that constructivism and interpretivism are used interchangeably, the researcher shall refer to the interpretative paradigm in the study.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Nieuwenhuis (2007, p.70) is of the opinion that a research design is the “plan or strategy, which moves from the underlying philosophical assumptions” and the research questions to the implementation of the research. It is an essential element of the research study, which consists of various dimensions, including: the purpose of the study, the theoretical paradigm and the research methods employed (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

As the researcher chose to use qualitative research, it was essential to be cognisant of the different qualitative research designs. The researcher selected a qualitative case study design, so as to achieve the aims of the study. Case study research aims at having an in-depth understanding of the way in which participants interact with one another in particular situations, as well as how meaning is ascribed to a phenomenon (Nieuwenhuis, 2007b). Case studies are unique in that the researcher provides detailed,

dense descriptions of and analyses a single unit or bounded system. Cases are bounded by time and activity. While the researcher places the unit or system within a larger context, the focus remains on the case or a topic that is illustrated by the case. In addition, case study researchers have knowledge of the relevant literature before entering the field to conduct the field research (Botma et al., 2010; Merriam, 2009).

Detailed, in-depth data collection methods that include multiple sources such as interviews, documents, observations or archival records allow for the exploration and description of the case (Fouché & Schurink, 2011). Within this broad research design is phenomenology, a strategy in which the “researcher identifies the essence of human experiences about a phenomenon” (Botma et al., 2010, p.190). Making use of this strategy has implications for the research methodology, which will be described in more detail below.

3.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Marais and Mouton (1998) describe research methodology as the way in which the research is accomplished. These methods may be qualitative or quantitative in nature. The research methodology specifically describes the procedures that the researcher follows, in order to meet the aims of the research study. For the purpose of this study, the researcher followed the qualitative research methodology, as it was the best method suited to the interpretive approach. Botma et al. (2010) explain that this method of research produces data in words that are related to the phenomenon that is being studied, differing from quantitative research, which aims to provide a more general explanation.

Furthermore, through qualitative research, the researcher is able to provide a thick description of the phenomenon that is being explored. As such, the researcher and the participants become the essential instruments of data collection. Through the interaction between the researcher and the participants, the researcher explores various meanings and ways in which participants socially construct their experiences (Botma et al., 2010; Merriam, 2009). As such, the researcher aims to understand how the educators experience disruptive behaviour, the meaning they attach to disruptive behaviour and how they make sense of managing disruptive behaviour.

The researcher followed the qualitative methodology, as it was important to understand the meanings that participants had constructed of their experiences (i.e. the behaviour management strategies employed to manage disruptive behaviour in their classrooms). The researcher concurred with Merriam (2009) that meaning is entrenched

within the participants' experiences and through mediation and member-checking, the researcher is able to bring that meaning to the fore.

3.4.1 Context of the Research

Botma et al. (2010), state that qualitative studies are contextual in nature and cannot be generalised due to the data being valid only for a specific context. The researcher is focused on a specific, single phenomena and the way in which it is socially constructed. This research study is, therefore, contextual, focusing on the behaviour management strategies for disruptive behaviour that FP educators employ within a boys' school.

The context of this research was a former Model C (i.e. a semi-private school that is state run) all-boys' school situated within the southern suburbs of the Western Cape. The language of teaching at the school is English and currently there are nine FP educators teaching at the school. The FP educators and the Deputy Principal were invited to participate in semi-structured interviews. Further information regarding the demographics of the participants will be provided in a subsequent section of this chapter. The semi-structured interviews allowed for the exploration of the multi-faceted and diverse perspectives of the participants (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). The following section will look more closely at the specific methods used in this research study.

3.5 RESEARCH METHODS

The research methods used for this study were selected according to the qualitative research design and research questions. These methods included purposeful sampling techniques, three data collection methods (semi-structured interviews, field notes and a review of documents) and qualitative thematic analysis. Each of the methods will be discussed in further detail.

3.5.1 Selection of Participants

Denzin and Lincoln (2005) are of the opinion that qualitative research samples are purposefully selected. Thus, the researcher selected participants and settings where the specific processes being explored occurred. It is further stated that data gathering and data analysis occurred simultaneously. Should the researcher wish to provide a denser description of the phenomenon, he or she may return to gather more data. Sampling focuses on the population, sample size and the types of sampling methods used in the

study (Botma et al., 2010).

3.5.1.1 Population

The population of a study refers to the set or collection of elements that meet certain criteria as set out by the researcher. The elements may include individuals, objects, organisations, social events, cultural objects or interventions (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Botma et al., 2010). The population for this study (FP educators at a boys' school) were selected according to specific inclusion and exclusion criteria, which will be discussed in the subsequent section (Nieuwenhuis, 2007c).

3.5.1.2 Sampling

The process in which participants are selected from the population is referred to as sampling (Nieuwenhuis, 2007c; Terre Blanche et al., 2006). In qualitative research, sampling differs from quantitative research in that it is based on non-probability or purposive sampling approaches. In addition, the researcher is aware that knowledge is dynamic and depends on the particular context being explored, and, as such, is not generalizable to all cases or situations (Nieuwenhuis, 2007c; Taylor & Francis, 2013). As the researcher is interested in understanding a particular phenomenon and the meanings participants attach to it, the sample for the study is usually smaller, so as to gain more in-depth data. The researcher made use of two types of sampling, convenience and purposive sampling, each of which will be discussed.

In order to select an appropriate school, the researcher made use of convenience sampling. Convenience sampling refers to situations where the population elements are selected based on convenience and ease (Botma et al., 2010). The specific school was selected because it was an all-boy school with a diverse group of slightly more than 700 learners. The majority of the learners within the school come from middle-income socio-economic backgrounds whose home language is English. In addition, the researcher selected the school where she was an educator and the members of staff were interested in participating in the study.

The participants in this study were selected through purposive sampling. Purposive sampling, one of the more common sampling methods used in qualitative research, is the selection of participants according to defining characteristics pre-determined by the researcher (Nieuwenhuis, 2007c). Participants are selected because they are regarded as “knowledgeable or an expert about issues under study or the lived experience” (Botma et

al., 2010, p.201). Purposive sampling enables the researcher to explore and gain deeper understanding through obtaining the “richest possible source” of information, in order to answer the research questions (Nieuwenhuis, 2007b, p.79).

To achieve a sample that can lead to data providing deeper insight into the behaviour management strategies that FP educators employ, criterion-based purposive sampling was implemented (Merriam, 2009). According to Nieuwenhuis (2007b), criterion sampling is one of three most common types of sampling. This type of research entails the researcher making the decision during the research design phase to select participants for the research based on certain criteria (characteristics or qualities). The selection criteria should aim at choosing those participants who will provide the knowledge or experience that matches the purpose of the study.

As this was a case study, six to eight educators and the vice principal within a single boys’ primary school in the Western Cape were required. For the participants to be selected, they had to be willing to participate voluntarily and have some knowledge or experience of behaviour management strategies. The following criteria was formulated, in order for the researcher to select the sample for this study:

- Participants must be FP educators working at a boys’ school
- The vice principal of the school must have been working at the school in that position for at least five years
- Educators must have worked as an educator for at least a year at a boys’ school, for them to have had experience teaching boys

Upon reflection of the sample criteria, the researcher acknowledged her role in the research process and how her position as a Grade Head may influence the study and the participants’ engagement in the process. As such, it was decided to exclude educators that were teaching in the same grade as the researcher, so as to limit the discomfort that participants may experience. The exception to this exclusion criterion was that of the head of department (HoD), who was also teaching Grade Two, as the educator was the researcher’s senior.

The rest of the educators in the FP (except one who was a new teacher) were invited to participate in the study. The researcher met with all of the educators to discuss the research project and they were given an outline of the study, as well as the research aims. From this, the educators made an informed decision as to whether or not to participate. Of the 10 FP educators that met the criteria, six volunteered to take part. In

addition, the vice principal also volunteered. A brief outline of the demographics of participants is included in the table below:

Table 3.1 Description of participants

Participant	Gender	Age	Position at School	Qualifications	Years Experience
1	Female	30	Grade 2 teacher	BEd Foundation Phase	6 years
2	Female	28	Grade 1 teacher	BEd Foundation Phase	6 years
3	Female	27	Grade 1 teacher	BEd Foundation Phase	5 years
4	Female	27	Grade R teacher	BEd Foundation Phase	2 years
5	Female	34	Grade 2 teacher, HoD FP	BEd Foundation Phase	10 years
6	Female	35	Grade 3 teacher	BEd Foundation Phase	5 years
7	Male	50	Vice Principal	HDE IV PS	13 years

3.5.2 Methods of Collection and Analysis

In Chapter One, the researcher outlined various data collection methods that would be implemented in this study. Methods of data collection during the research process should reflect the research paradigm and the methodology of the study. The predominant method of data collection within qualitative research included individual interviews, to gain a deeper understanding of the participants' knowledge about the phenomenon of disruptive behaviour and the strategies used to manage the behaviour (Botma et al., 2010; Merriam, 2009). In addition, the following data collection methods were employed during the research process: reflexive notes and documents collected from the school.

In the following section, a discussion of the procedures implemented to access the participants and the specific methods of data collection and analysis will take place. This will provide an audit trail of the research process.

3.5.2.1 Procedures

The researcher requested permission from the WCED to conduct research in the school sampled. The Directorate of Research, Dr Wyngaard (see Addendum B), granted permission and the principal of the school was contacted. In addition, the researcher applied to the Ethics Committee of Stellenbosch University and permission was granted to continue with the study (reference number: REC-050411-032). The researcher provided the principal with a letter describing the research process (see Addendum C for an example of this correspondence). Once the principal consented to the research, the FP educators that met the criteria for selection were given a summary of the study's purpose and the procedure for the study, as well as informed consent forms. Thereafter, appointments were made with those educators who were willing to participate in the study. A total of seven participants agreed to take part and completed the written consent forms prior to the interview (see Addendum D). All of the participants were informed that they would be invited to an optional feedback session on the research findings.

3.5.2.2 Data Collection

As mentioned previously, documents, reflective notes, field notes based on observations the researcher made, as well as individual interviews were used to collect the research data. Initially, the researcher hoped to conduct focus groups with FP educators, so as to have an in-depth discussion with the group of participants with the aim of sharing experiences, gaining ideas from the group and to have multiple viewpoints on behaviour management strategies (Botma et al., 2010; Merriam, 2009; Nieuwenhuis, 2007c). Upon reflection, it was decided that a focus group might impact on the responses given by the participants, as participants may feel concerned about the way in which their colleagues would perceive their behaviour management strategies used in the classroom. In addition, the researcher reflected on the implication this may have on the participants once the research study was completed. After engaging with some of the participants on this matter, it became clear that individual interviews might be more beneficial, as participants expressed that they would feel more comfortable discussing the topic in a one-on-one situation. As such, in order to minimise any discomfort or embarrassment, the researcher made the decision to implement individual interviews, whereby the participants could discuss their experiences more freely.

- **Semi-structured interviews**

Semi-structured interviews were the primary means of data generation used in this study, as the researcher aimed to explore topics pertinent to the research study. The use of semi-structured interviews helped the researcher gain an in-depth understanding of the participants' perceptions and accounts of behaviour management strategies that were employed to manage disruptive behaviour. The researcher made use of an interview schedule with pre-determined, open-ended questions relating to the research topic. A limited number of open-ended questions allowed participants to discuss the issues that they deemed important. In addition, this form of questioning allowed the researcher to clarify uncertainties and create a less formal interview situation. The interview schedule was determined beforehand, based on a literature review and the research questions and allowed for flexibility when the researcher conducted each interview with the participants (Botma et al., 2010; Merriam, 2009; Nieuwenhuis, 2007c). The researcher developed the initial semi-structured interview schedule once she had reviewed the literature. The schedule was presented to the researcher's supervisor, in order to determine if the questions addressed the overarching research questions. In addition, the schedule was then piloted on a colleague to test the sequence of questioning, ensuring the questions provided the specific information needed for the study. The interview schedule was then further refined before being presented to the participants (Greeff, 2011).

The researcher provided each participant with a copy of the interview schedule prior to the interview and again during the interview, so the participant could determine where he or she would prefer to start (Botma et al., 2010). It also allowed the researcher to focus on the participants' responses, in order to identify, probe and explore new lines of interest (Nieuwenhuis, 2007c). A copy of the interview schedule is provided in Addendum E and F. Once convenient meeting times and meeting places had been agreed upon with the participants, each of the participants was interviewed. The majority of the participants chose to be interviewed at the school once the learners departed. While the participants were interviewed once, they were given the opportunity to meet again should they wish to add further information, ask questions or modify what was said previously. All interviews were recorded on dictaphones with the permission of the participants. The researcher then transcribed the recordings verbatim for data analysis (see Addendum G for an excerpt from a transcript). In addition, the researcher took notes, reflecting on non-verbal expressions and observations made during the interview. The hard copies of the interviews were stored safely at the researcher's home and the only other person to

access the interviews was the researcher's supervisor.

- **Documents**

The use of documents in research allowed the researcher to explore a system in-depth through the analysis of "authentic written material" (Botma et al., 2010, p.219). The researcher made use of school policy documents such as the school's Code of Conduct (see Addendum I), which is provided to all the learners, their parents and the educators, as well as each grade's policy with regard to behaviour management strategies. The documents referred to in this research study were the secondary method of data gathering. The researcher used the documents to gain further insight into and information about the school's policy on behaviour management. The document review was particularly useful, as they provided information that was not necessarily discussed in the interviews.

- **Reflective Notes**

The researcher made use of reflective field notes, which are written accounts of what was heard, seen, experienced and thought about during the interviews, as a method of data collection (Greeff, 2011; Merriam, 2009). The reflective notes were written after each of the interviews with the participants and included observational notes, methodological notes, and personal notes. The researcher recorded empirical observations and her interpretations for each interview. Doing so allowed the researcher to reflect on the educators' comments, as well as the researcher's own experiences with disruptive behaviour and the BMS used when she was teaching. This process reflected the interpretative paradigm, as discussed in Chapter One.

3.5.2.3 Data Analysis

In qualitative research, the researcher aims to understand the way in which participants make meaning of the phenomenon under study through the analysis of their knowledge, experiences and perceptions (Nieuwenhuis, 2007a; Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Once the interviews were transcribed, the researcher went back to the purpose of the research study, as the purpose determined the depth of data analysis (Botma et al., 2010). As data collection and data analysis are usually conducted simultaneously in qualitative research, the researcher began looking for patterns or themes that began to emerge from the data. This ensured that the researcher was able to return to participants

until data saturation was achieved (Botma et al., 2010; Merriam, 2009; Nieuwenhuis, 2007a). In Chapter One, the researcher indicated that Braun and Clarke's (2006) method of thematic analysis would be used to analyse the data collected from the interviews.

Thematic analysis aims to identify, analyse and report patterns (called themes) that emerge from the data. Before analysis took place, the researcher needed to consider certain questions. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), questions to consider and to remain reflexive about throughout the data analysis process included:

- What counted as a theme?
- Was there a rich description of the data set or a detailed account of a specific aspect?
- Would inductive or theoretical thematic analysis take place?
- At what level would the themes be identified? Semantic or latent?
- What epistemological approach would be followed?

The researcher reflected on these questions before collection of the data occurred. For this study, a theme was identified when it captured an important element of behaviour management strategies. In addition, the researcher chose to provide a rich thematic description of the whole data set, to provide the reader with an understanding of the predominant themes that emerged. As the researcher was coding for a specific research question and was mindful of her theoretical interest in the research topic, theoretical analysis took place. Considering the research paradigm for this study, themes were identified on a latent level. Finally, as discussed previously, the epistemological approach aimed at exploring the participants' subjective experiences (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

The researcher furthermore followed the steps set out by Braun and Clarke (2006), with regard to analysing the data:

- Once the transcriptions were completed, the researcher ensured that she became familiar with the content. This included active, repeated reading of the transcriptions and field notes, searching for patterns and meaning.
- Data was organised into meaningful groups and initial codes were constructed. This included assigning clear codes to the units of meaning by using different coloured highlighters for each code.
- Once the data was coded and collated, the codes were analysed and sorted into potential themes. The researcher created a table of overarching themes with sub-

themes and data extracts to demonstrate each theme.

- These themes were then reviewed carefully, with further refinement of the codes and themes.
- The essence of each theme was identified and analysed. Themes were then clearly defined and named, to give the reader an idea of the relation of each theme.

Once the researcher had completed the abovementioned steps, the final themes and categories were used as the basis for the study, from which the conclusions were drawn.

3.6 DATA VERIFICATION

Reliability and validity of research instruments are essential aspects within quantitative research. Qualitative research, however, is based on different epistemological assumptions and the researcher becomes the research instrument, consequently leading to research of a more subjective nature. As such, the quantitative terminology of validity and reliability has been changed to reflect the subjective nature of qualitative research. Taylor and Francis (2013) state that Lincoln and Guba rephrased that terms 'validity' and 'reliability' into trustworthiness. Further, Lincoln and Guba (cited in Taylor & Francis, 2013) asserted that trustworthiness (the alternative term for rigour) is essential for qualitative research and should be evident in the study. In addition, it was argued that the key criteria of trustworthiness includes credibility, applicability, dependability and confirmability (as cited in Nieuwenhuis, 2007b, p.80). Babbie and Mouton (2001) and Merriam (2009) agree with Lincoln and Guba (1983), arguing that strategies such as triangulation, peer examination, audit trails, engaging with the data, reflexivity and the use of thick descriptions will lead to trustworthiness.

In order to understand how trustworthiness in this study was achieved, a description of credibility, dependability and transferability will be given. Following that, the strategies used to achieve these criteria will be described.

3.6.1 Credibility

In qualitative research, credibility is equivalent to the quantitative term internal validity and is achieved when there is correlation between the researcher's findings and the reality of the participants' lived experiences (Merriam, 2009; Taylor & Francis, 2013; Terre Blanche et al., 2006). The researcher implemented various strategies to establish

credibility. These strategies included triangulation, member checking, in-depth engagement with data collection, reflexivity and peer reviews (Botma et al., 2010; Merriam, 2009; Taylor & Francis, 2013). The participants in this study were informed beforehand that participation was voluntary and that they had the right to withdraw at any given time. In addition, in order to verify the information the researcher implemented member-checking, whereby the participants were asked to confirm the researcher's interpretation of the data (Merriam, 2009).

3.6.2 Dependability

Dependability in qualitative research refers to the reliability or consistency of a research study (Botma et al., 2010; Merriam, 2009). The term 'reliability' within quantitative research refers to the ability of a study to be repeated with different participants and under different circumstances, producing the same results (Botma et al., 2010). Due to the nature of qualitative research, however, the term reliability is referred to as dependability. Dependability indicates the degree to which the findings of the study will be consistent if the study were to be duplicated with the same participants and within a similar context (Babbie, 2007; Botma et al., 2010). In order for dependability to be found within a research study, credibility needs to be established (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Strategies used in this research study to increase dependability included an audit trail, triangulation, peer review, and reflexivity. Each of these will be discussed in further detail in a subsequent section.

3.6.3 Transferability

Transferability is the strategy used to increase applicability, i.e. the degree to which the findings of the study can be applied to other contexts or groups. Quantitative research aims for the research findings to be transferred or generalised to a wider population. However, reflecting again on the nature of qualitative research and the sample sizes used within such studies, generalizability becomes challenging (Botma et al., 2010; Merriam, 2009). The researcher, therefore, does not propose to generalise the research findings to the wider population. Rather, the findings may be transferred to similar contexts should the contextual influences be well documented and applicable to comparable circumstances. Merriam (2009) indicates that transferability may be promoted should the following strategies be implemented: purposive sampling, as well as rich, thick descriptions of the context and meanings as ascribed by the participants. The researcher in this study attempted to provide rich descriptions of the perceptions of the selected participants, as

well as achieving data saturation.

3.6.4 Confirmability

The degree to which there is freedom of bias within a study refers to confirmability. The criterion of confirmability parallels that of neutrality or objectivity in quantitative research. As the researcher plays an active role within qualitative research, objectivity is called into question. Therefore, every effort should be made for the researcher to reflect on the way in which his or her own assumptions may influence the research process. In addition, it is essential for the researcher to ensure that the research findings reflect the participants' meaning ascribed to the phenomenon, rather than those of the researcher's (Botma et al., 2010). The strategies employed by the researcher of this study included triangulation, reflexivity and an audit trail.

3.6.5 Data Verification Strategies

In order for the above criteria of trustworthiness to be achieved, it is essential for the researcher to implement the relevant data verification strategies. The strategies implemented in this research study will be discussed below.

3.6.5.1 *Triangulation*

Triangulation of data is a process that involves the use of various data sources, which may include interviewing participants about a phenomenon. This strategy improves the credibility of a study, by ensuring that multiple forms of triangulation are used, such as data, investigator, theory and methodological triangulation (Merriam, 2009; Taylor & Francis, 2013). According to Merriam (2009), triangulation rather than crystallisation, is the main strategy for ensuring credibility and dependability in qualitative research, particularly when the researcher collects data through an interpretive-constructivist lens.

In order to ensure trustworthiness in the study, the researcher used various sources of collecting data, which included an in-depth literature review, observations, interviews, a review of documents, as well as making use of member-checking and maintaining reflective notes (Nieuwenhuis, 2007c).

3.6.5.2 *Audit Trail*

Merriam (2009), along with Taylor and Francis (2013), postulate that an audit trail or auditability allows other researchers to use a similar approach and reach similar or

comparable conclusions. An audit trail is a description of the researcher's decision-making process with regards to the data collection and data analysis used in the research study. Botma et al. (2010) agree with Merriam (2009) that an audit trail allows other researchers to examine this audit trail, to determine the extent to which the study has achieved consistency. In this research report, Chapters Three and Four detail the research process and data analysis and provide the audit trail.

3.6.5.3 Peer Examination

Another strategy used to ensure trustworthiness is peer examination or peer reviews (Botma et al., 2010). Inherent in the completion of a thesis is supervision, whereby the researcher's work is reviewed and commented upon. In addition, members of the faculty may be co-supervisors, offering further feedback. Once the thesis has been completed, an external examiner will review the final product to assess whether the findings of the research are indeed plausible based on the data collected. Receiving feedback allows for different perspectives, as well as the identification of areas of concern (Merriam, 2009).

3.6.5.4 Reflexivity

In qualitative research, the researcher is seen as an "instrument" within the process of gathering data. As such, the researcher becomes immersed through his or her involvement with the participants. It is, therefore, important for the researcher to reflect on his or her own beliefs and assumptions and the way in which these may influence the research process and conclusions reached in the study. This may be done through reflective notes. Reflective notes may include the researcher's personal thoughts about the strategies and methods used, making sense of observations while in the field, as well as reflections on his or her own perceptions or feelings while in the field (Botma et al., 2010; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Merriam, 2009). The researcher's reflections of her positions and beliefs are illustrated and discussed throughout the research report.

3.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

When conducting research with human participants, it is essential that the participants be protected against possible harm that may come from participating in the study. It is of particular importance that the researcher gains approval from the organisations involved, obtain informed consent from the participants, and ensure the

confidentiality of the participants' identifying characteristics (Merriam, 2009).

As was previously mentioned, the researcher gained permission from the Western Cape Education Department to conduct research in the school identified. In addition, ethical clearance from the Ethics Committee of Stellenbosch was gained before research commenced. Written permission was obtained from the principal of the school, as was informed, written consent gained from the participants. Within the informed consent, participants were made aware of the following: the purpose of the research; the expected duration of the study; their right to withdraw from the study or decline to partake; the potential risks or discomfort of participating in the study; the limits of confidentiality; whom to contact with regards to any questions that they may have. In addition, participants were assured that information gained from the research study will be anonymous and any identifying details would be removed from transcripts (Botma et al., 2010; Merriam, 2009; Strydom, 2011).

3.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter focused on the empirical study's research paradigm and the research methodology. It also included a discussion on the research design and the way in which the researcher attempted to answer the research questions. Furthermore, the researcher discussed the ethical considerations made and issues of trustworthiness in qualitative research as it related to this particular study. In the following chapter, the researcher will present and discuss the findings of the study.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to present the findings that emerged from the study. The data collected will be presented according to the themes and sub-themes identified during the process of qualitative thematic analysis. A discussion of these findings will be interpreted in relation to existing literature, so as to answer the research questions posed in the previous chapters. The sub-themes that emerged from the data analysis process were grouped into five main themes and are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Summary of the themes and sub-themes

Themes	Sub-themes
1. Disruptive behaviour	Defining disruptive behaviour Types of disruptive behaviour Possible reasons for disruptive behaviour Effects of disruptive behaviour
2. Goodness-of-fit between educators' personal style and learner behaviours	Personality Being positive Life experience Stress
3. Educator coping strategies	Spending time with significant others Exercise
4. Educator support	Support from family and friends Support from colleagues Support from the school Support from the WCED Educator supportive needs
5. Behaviour management strategies (BMS)	Effective BMS Ineffective BMS Effect of BMS on the learner Experience in education and BMS

4.2 RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The theoretical framework on which this study is based is systems theory, as well as behavioural theories. As such, the interpretation and discussion of the research findings will be structured from within these perspectives, placing the findings within the relative context of literature. The systems theory perspective is useful for understanding the way in which complex systems (such as schools) interact, as well as aiding the exploration of the reciprocal relationships between the systems (Burden, 1981; Green, 2001b; Marais & Meier, 2010; Sabol & Pianta, 2012). The systems in this study include the learner, the parents, the educator, the school and the broader educational context. Although behavioural theories have been criticised for being limited to shaping behaviours, behaviourists have expanded their principles. As many of these principles are still in use in contemporary classrooms across the world, behavioural approaches provide useful insights into effective behaviour management (Hayes et al., 2007; Landrum & Kauffman, 2011).

The research findings will be presented according to the themes identified in the data analysis process, as seen in Table 4.1. The five themes identified from the interviews reflect the FP educators' and the vice principal's subjective realities that participated in the study. The data presented in this section was taken from the semi-structured interviews with the FP educators and the vice principal and the review of documents. Further discussion on the school's Code of Conduct is not the intention of the study. Consequently, the documents that were reviewed and that related to the themes are referred to in subsequent sections. The responses that have been quoted in this chapter have been presented verbatim and have not been edited.

4.2.1 Disruptive Behaviour

Identifying and describing disruptive behaviour is important for the development of effective BMS. The first theme that arose from the data gathered included the educators' perceptions of disruptive behaviour. When discussing disruptive behaviour, the participants gave their opinions of what disruptive behaviour meant for them, their perceptions of disruptive behaviour, the possible reasons for disruptive behaviour and the effects of disruptive behaviour. Each of these sub-themes will be discussed in further detail.

4.2.1.1 Defining disruptive behaviour

From a social constructivist approach, educators will define disruptive behaviour based on the way in which it is experienced (Botma et al., 2010). As such, the participants in this study had their own definitions of disruptive behaviour. For several of the participants, disruptive behaviour was defined as behaviour that led to the infringement on other learners' rights to learn, reflecting definitions found in previous research (Clunies-Ross et al., 2008; Esturgó-Deu & Sala-Roca, 2010). One of the participants explained her perceptions of disruptive behaviour as follows:

“Something that is interrupting learning. Interrupting learning in the classroom. And interrupts on the kids’ right to learn” [Participant 1].

“Taking other children’s attention away from where their attention should be” [Participant 6].

“[It] prevents another boy from being able to learn or listen or being able to take part in our class activities” [Participant 5].

In addition to preventing other learners from learning, disruptive behaviour was defined as that which led to distraction in the classroom and consequently, a loss of concentration (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). Furthermore, it would appear that most of the participants define disruptive behaviour as that which prevents learning in the classroom. As such, the participants' definitions of disruptive behaviour encompass externalising or overt types of behaviour rather than internalising or covert types of behaviour (Jacobsen, 2013; Merrett & Wheldall, 1990). The participants discussed in further detail the various types of behaviour perceived to be disruptive, which will be explored in the following section.

4.2.1.2 Types of disruptive behaviour

According to the educators in the study, various types of disruptive behaviour were experienced on a daily basis. These types of behaviours support the research identified in the literature review in Chapter Two (Clunies-Ross et al., 2008; Jacobsen, 2013; Merrett & Wheldall, 1990; O'Reagan, 2006; Prinsloo, 2005; Rayment, 2006; Stephenson et al., 2000). Similar to the findings of Henricsson and Rydell (2004), the participants in the current study identified types of behaviours that can be categorised as externalising behaviour and internalising behaviour. Internalising behaviours include disengaging or not

following instructions, while externalising behaviours include shouting out, talking out of turn, physical disruption and an increased noise level.

Few examples of internalising behaviour (Paterson & Perold, 2013) were identified as disruptive for the educators, but included learners not following instructions or the disengagement from the planned activities.

“Not following instructions in the sense that they are then doing something else” [Participant 3].

Most of the types of disruptive behaviour described by the participants appeared to be externalising in nature, correlating with research indicating that boys exhibit more externalising types of disruptive behaviour (Arbuckle & Little, 2004; Monroe, 2005). According to the participants, talking out of turn, physical disruptions, shouting out and an increased noise level were perceived to be disruptive, which Rayment (2006) refers to as attention seeking behaviour. Talking out of turn or talking while the educator was giving instructions was listed by most of the participants as being one of the more frequent types of disruptive behaviour, supporting the findings of previous studies (Esturgó-Deu & Sala-Roca, 2010; Merrett & Wheldall, 1990; Stephenson et al., 2000).

“I am trying to explain something, someone shouts out” [Participant 3].

“If they’re at their table and scream and shout at me from their table” [Participant 5].

While most of the participants found talking to peers instead of focusing on the task at hand to be disruptive, one participant allowed a certain level of noise. This would suggest that while talking too loudly may be seen as disruptive, some talking was acceptable.

“When they’re working I allow them to talk quietly, but if the level gets a bit too noisy and then that’s disruptive” [Participant 5].

Of interest to note, one participant was aware of her sensitivity to noise. She recognised that talking was important for learning, reflecting the importance of understanding the learners’ developmental level when teaching (Marais & Meier, 2010).

Physical disruption included moving around the classroom, physically interfering with another learner or moving about on the mat during mat time. This supports the findings of previous research (Biddulph, 1998; Esturgó-Deu & Sala-Roca, 2010; Francis, 2000) that claim that boys tend to be more overtly disruptive than girls.

“[Boys are] tripping others. You know the boys can be quite physical, so the one’s

tackling the others” [Participant 3].

“Getting out of their seats to talk to somebody else” [Participant 1].

From the data collected it would appear that the types of disruptive behaviour experienced in the classroom may not be serious transgressions; however, they take time away from teaching and infringe on the other learners’ rights to learn (Arbuckle & Little, 2004; Merrett & Wheldall, 1990). Participants in the study attributed the types of disruptive behaviour to various possible reasons.

4.2.1.3 Possible reasons for disruptive behaviour

The participants in the study hypothesised several reasons for disruptive behaviour in the classroom. It was noted that these were the participants’ own perceptions and based on their experiences. The reasons included: the fact that the learners are boys, the learners’ developmental stage, lack of attention skills due to the learners’ developmental stage, the need for attention, parenting skills, emotional maturity, cultural influences and environmental factors.

“They’re young, their attention span is not very long already” [Participant 1].

“The respect level I think was higher when I started teaching... kids question a lot more ... because I think they’re allowed to do that at home” [Participant 5].

“He might know this content already and is bored and doesn’t want to be there” [Participant 1].

“Specific diagnoses like Autism and ADHD” [Participant 6].

“When a teacher comes into your classroom to talk to you or whatever and they will get unruly” [Participant 5].

As such, the participants’ perceptions and experiences of underlying reasons for disruptive behaviour are in line with the systems theory, whereby the disruptive behaviour occurs as a result of the system, rather than from within the child alone (Burden, 1981; Donald et al., 2010; Green, 2001b; Marais & Meier, 2010). In addition, Marais and Meier (2010) maintain that the learner develops from the interactions within the learner (internal systems) and from outside the learner (external systems).

Internal factors

One of the reasons underlying disruptive behaviour that was perceived to be due to the internal system was that of the developmental stage of the learners, whereby the

learners need to move and talk with their peers. These opinions are consistent with the literature, as according to Vygotsky, learners in the FP learn through social interaction. As such, active participation is needed for learning to take place, which may lead to the perception that learners are disrupting the class (Donald et al., 2010; Green, 2001a; Marais & Meier, 2010). Some of the participants expressed this sentiment in the following quotes:

“It’s just the way boys are programmed - they do move more, they are more playful, ... and I think that adds to how long they can also then sit still, and when their behaviour then starts becoming disruptive, ‘cause they can’t focus anymore”
[Participant 2].

“It’s not of their own doing, it’s just that that is their make-up. Genetically, there is something that needs them... that they need to, in order to keep them calm”
[Participant 7].

In addition, emotional immaturity and the developing ability to control their behaviour were also cited as possible reasons for disruptive behaviour. Thus, findings of this study are in line with previous research (Colle & Del Giudice, 2011), which indicated that learners in the FP are learning how to self-regulate, and boys and girls differ in the way in which they use emotion regulation strategies.

The need for attention or recognition also falls within the internal system. Participants described how some learners became disruptive in class when they felt they were not getting enough attention from the educator. One participant explained that in her experience, learners that were an only child may become attention seeking, which is consistent with research (Merrett & Wheldall, 1990) showing that a learner’s disruptive behaviour may be reinforced by the attention gained from the educator’s reprimands.

“Only children sometimes get all the attention all the time whenever they demand it, so they expect the same at school, so they demand your attention but you’re not giving it” [Participant 3].

An additional internal factor leading to disruptive behaviour was that of learners’ emotional difficulties. Participants indicated that specific diagnoses such as Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) and Autism might lead to disruptive behaviour. Learners with ADHD may have difficulty with impulsivity and hyperactivity (Seabi, 2010), while learners who are on the Autism Spectrum have difficulty with social relationships and the expression of their needs (Carr, 2005). As such, these difficulties could result in the

learner exhibiting behaviour that would be perceived as disruptive. In addition, learners who were believed to lack self-confidence or who were sensitive to others' behaviour were also seen as possible causes for disruptive behaviour.

External factors

The systems around the learner were also described as possible reasons for disruptive behaviour, representing the external systems. These included the influence of educators, parents, a broader cultural belief system and environmental influences (Burden, 1981; Donald et al., 2010; Green, 2001b; Marais & Meier, 2010; Poulou, 2014). As in previous research (Pianta & Nimetz, 1991; Sabol & Pianta, 2012), participants often discussed parenting as a source of disruptive behaviour in the FP classroom. Parenting skills, parenting styles, parent ages and working parents were some of the factors believed to have consequences on the learners' behaviour at school. It was believed that the way in which parents disciplined their child would have consequences for the way in which the child responded to the educators' discipline at school.

“The parents also struggle with following through with consequences of their actions so the kids don't know, their kids don't have their own responsibility, they don't make up their beds, some of them don't sleep in their bedrooms, and for me that's a big thing. If the kid can't do things for himself he's going to struggle in the classroom” [Participant 5].

One participant felt that the disruptive behaviour was perhaps linked to the level of respect learners had for their parents and the educator.

“The manner in which a child is allowed to speak to his parents', he mimics at school and thinks that it's ok to speak in that way” [Participant 7].

Furthermore, the participants discussed the influence of both parents working and how it could relate to behaviour problems. One participant described that with both parents working, homework was done later, leading to a late bedtime, which in turn could result in tiredness in the classroom the next day. Another participant also had experience with this in her classroom, describing how one learner in particular was always exhausted and so lost concentration. These findings are consistent with current research (Marais & Meier, 2010; Rieg, Paquette, & Chen, 2005).

It is interesting to note that two of the participants acknowledged that the educators' themselves may be part of the underlying causes for disruptive behaviour through scapegoating, thereby perpetuating the cycle of disruption, which is consistent with

previous research (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Participants agreed that some learners have been “labelled” as disruptive from previous educators. As such, when there was a disruption in the classroom, the educator may inadvertently blame a learner that was assumed to be causing the disruption. This sentiment was expressed as follows:

“Maybe, sometimes I think that teachers are to blame? I think teachers are to blame in the manner in which they deal with [disruptive behaviour]. Um, because sometimes their first reaction is based on, is based on history of the learner, and it’s not really giving the child a fair chance. So, what happens, the poor child gets the blame for everything, because he is looked at as being the most disruptive” [Participant 7].

Cultural factors were also included as possible causes of disruptive behaviour. Some participants explained that cultural differences between the learners and the educator might explain disruptive behaviour, as well as cultural beliefs.

“The problematic behaviour I experienced, I think, had a lot to do with the culture as well...you know sort of the male um...dominance almost, and that sort of attitude” [Participant 2].

Exposure to the media and technology was also included in the cultural influences on disruptive behaviour, as participants felt that learners were exposed to negative influences seen in the media. This finding is in line with Chitiyo et al. (2014).

“There is just too much out there that... that sort of encourages children to ... to do wrong. Because I believe our papers or our media is, everything is negative. Nothing is really positive” [Participant 7].

In addition to the above, environmental factors were also considered to be a cause of disruptive behaviour in the classroom. Some of the participants explained that at times learners would become disruptive if the educator had not planned a lesson well enough. Lesson disruptions were also discussed as possible reasons. For example, a participant described how learners in her class would become disruptive when another educator came into the classroom to discuss something with her. Another participant further explained that if she had to leave her class for a meeting and a substitute educator came to look after the class, the learners’ behaviour would become disruptive, as the substitute educator might not have control of the class. Such factors were interesting to the researcher, as previous literature examined had not highlighted these as possible causes for an increase in disruptive behaviour and could have implications for the development of

preventative BMS.

Understanding the possible causes of disruptive behaviour can lead towards the development of BMS that are aimed directly at specific types of disruptive behaviour or to prevent similar disruptive behaviour (Martin et al., 1999).

4.2.1.4 Effects of disruptive behaviour

Disruptive behaviour in the classroom has been consistently discussed as one of the leading causes of educator stress and educator burnout (Almog & Shechtman, 2007; Chang, 2012; Clunies-Ross et al., 2008; Hastings & Bham, 2003; Jacobs & de Wet, 2009; Kokkinos, 2007; Marais & Meier, 2010). The findings of this study validated these claims, as the participants commented on disruptive behaviour leading to loss of teaching time, the experiences of frustration, guilt and exhaustion, as well as self-doubt and self-blame. In addition, it was noted that the disruptive behaviour also had an effect on the parents of the learners as well.

During the interviews, the participants described how disruptive behaviour affected them physically and emotionally. Frustration due to disruptive behaviour appeared to be a theme common to many of the educators, validating previous research findings (Carton & Fruchart, 2014; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). The following quotes reflect the frustration experienced by participants in the study:

“Enough’s enough. He’s pushed you to the limit” [Participant 3].

“I don’t particularly enjoy my job those days – I definitely have the odd day, you know, where I think ‘Jiss, I don’t know if I wanna teach for the rest of my life” [Participant 1].

Surprisingly, however, one participant found that the frustration led to reflectivity with regards to her teaching practices. Research has shown that educators who are authentically reflective (i.e. think about their teaching) are seen to be more successful in their teaching practice and can become more resilient as a result (Sellars, 2014).

Other participants experienced negative feelings of guilt due to the disruptive behaviour in the classroom. While one participant felt guilty toward the other learners in the class, another participant felt guilty that she constantly needed to reprimand the learner being disruptive, thereby becoming negative (Axup & Gersch, 2008; Schulze & Steyn, 2007). According to previous research (Clunies-Ross et al., 2008; Salkovsky, Romi, & Lewis, 2015), educators who are negative in their approach to behaviour

management are more likely to experience increased levels of stress. In addition, constant experiences with negative emotions have been shown to lead to early retirement from teaching (Kristjánsson, 2012; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000).

Exhaustion was also experienced as a consequence of the behaviour and generally accepted as part of the education profession. According to research, exhaustion is a symptom of burnout and should be effectively managed, as it can become detrimental to the system as a whole (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009).

As in past research (Arbuckle & Little, 2004; Martin et al., 1999; Schulze & Steyn, 2007), many of the participants' experiences of disruptive behaviour in the classroom led to self-doubt with regards to their abilities as an educator. Several participants made mention that dealing with disruptive behaviour almost daily resulted in feelings of despondence, lack of confidence and decreased enjoyment in their work (Axup & Gersch, 2008; Schulze & Steyn, 2007). In addition, one participant began to lose confidence in her ability to manage the disruptive behaviour, while another was uncertain as to how to manage the emotional outbursts of one particular learner. These findings are in line with the findings of Arbuckle and Little (2004), who found that educators' confidence decreased as hyperactivity and disruptive behaviour increased, particularly in male learners. This would be particularly relevant to note, as the current study was based at an all-boys' school and the results may hold key information for developing BMS in which educators can become confident through its implementation. Upon answering what effects disruptive behaviour might have on the participant, a participant replied that at times her BMS was effective, yet on other days it was not, causing a sense of despondence:

"You almost feel despondent - you've been saying the same thing over and over, and you're using things that have worked every other day that are not working now. So you know, what are you doing wrong?" [Participant 2].

Contrary to this, one participant acknowledged that although she had initially experienced some feelings of self-doubt at the start of her teaching career, being able to manage the disruptive behaviour resulted in positive emotions:

"It's very rewarding when you feel like you are getting on top of things, like when you feel like 'I actually do... I actually can control a bunch of 30 kids easily', you know so it was so nice to could get to a point where I felt confident" [Participant 1].

Many of the participants agreed that the effect of disruptive behaviour also filtered into their personal lives. The general feeling of the comments indicated that participants spent a lot of time outside of work hours worrying about, discussing and finding ways of managing disruptive behaviour.

“Socially you end up talking about your children all the time, so you take it home with you” [Participant 3].

One participant, on the other hand, felt that she was able to leave the stress of disruptive behaviour at work, which is in concordance with the findings of Axup and Gersch (2008), whereby 60% of the participants in their study found that disruptive behaviour had no effect on their home life.

“I’m really good with putting things in boxes so it doesn’t really affect me. I really don’t take it personally anymore and I don’t take my work home, so when I leave the classroom, I don’t think about it. I’m much better with compartmentalizing things. I don’t think it affects me really” [Participant 5].

The researcher explored the educators’ experiences with parents of learners who displayed disruptive behaviour in the classroom. From the data collected, it became evident that the participants had differing experiences with parents when it was reported that their child was perceived to be disruptive. When educators described their experiences of learners’ disruptive behaviour to parents, parental reactions were mostly understanding and accepting; however, there were reports that some parents reacted with denial and disbelief. One participant described the different responses:

“Some parents will accept and acknowledge the fact that this is a similar experience that they are having at home. Right? And they’ll try and assist you and they’ll try and work with you and we try and work out a strategy that potentially, that potentially could help him. Other parents obviously are again, go into defence mode, because this is not what they’ve taught the boy. I mean, some parents believe that the children at home are the same children that are at school. Yet they are not the same children at school” [Participant 7].

Participants recounted, however, that parents were more often than not accepting of reports of disruptive behaviour and were willing to work together with the educator to manage the disruptive behaviour. The data therefore indicated that the reports of disruptive behaviour to parents led toward a collaborative approach to managing the behaviour, in an effort to decrease the level of stress on the learner and the educator.

While little research has been found on the effect of disruptive behaviour on parents, the findings of this study appear to substantiate claims that parental involvement is critical for there to be a change in disruptive behaviour, not only in the classroom, but in the home as well. This further validates the need to make use of a systems theory framework as a lens when exploring disruptive behaviour (Marais & Meier, 2010; Sabol & Pianta, 2012).

In the following section, the theme of goodness-of-fit between the educators' personal style and the effect on learner behaviours will be discussed.

4.2.2 Goodness-of-Fit Between Educators' Personal Style and Learner Behaviours

While exploring the goodness-of-fit was not an explicit part of this research study, the theme arose spontaneously from the data collected. Participants reflected on the influence of personality, being positive, amount of experience and stress on their perceptions and experiences of disruptive behaviour. As mentioned in Chapter Two, the goodness-of-fit model proposes that positive, adaptive outcomes will result when the characteristics of a child fit with the demands and expectations of the environment. This model is helpful in understanding how some educators and learners are more easily able to develop positive relationships than others (Churchill, 2003; Lerner, 1984; Sabol & Pianta, 2012).

4.2.2.1 Personality

An important component of the goodness-of-fit model is that of the educator's and learner's personality or characteristics, which can consequently determine the quality of the educator-learner relationship (Churchill, 2003). Research has shown that the educator-learner relationship plays an important role in the way in which learners behave toward each other, as well as preventing disruptive behaviour (Poulou, 2014; Spivak & Farran, 2012). The findings of this study are in agreement with the above statement, as the participants were cognisant of how their own personality and traits affected the relationships with their learners.

'I think teachers click with certain kids and bring out the best in certain kids'
[Participant 1].

"Maybe the child related to me better than the previous teachers or whatever it was"
[Participant 2].

Having a positive educator-learner relationship is contingent on the educators'

individual personality traits, characteristics and interpersonal skills (Sabol & Pianta, 2012). Educators that develop a warm and supportive relationship with their learners are beneficial for those learners who are perceived to be disruptive, as the relationship becomes an important protective factor for disruptive behaviour (Sabol & Pianta, 2012; Salkovsky et al., 2015). This statement is reflected in the following quote:

“Just that bond you make with the child, the hugs at the end of the day, and if they tell you they’re going to the dentist or something, you ask them about it, or they tell you they were in a competition and you’re interested in the things that interest the children and just the way you treat them, I think is important” [Participant 6].

Educators have a certain perspective or worldview with regards to the way learners should behave in the classroom (Churchill, 2003). This, in turn, will determine what each educator perceives to be disruptive behaviour. While one participant in this study indicated that she was more tolerant of noise in the classroom, another found that she was sensitive to noise and, consequently, preferred to have a quiet classroom.

“I think my classes tend to be more disruptive than other kids or other classes because I’m a very relaxed teacher... I don’t mind the chatting and the talking because I think I was quite talkative at school so I understand that. If you walk into my classroom, it looks like chaos, organized chaos, but I think I’ve got quite good control over my kids” [Participant 5].

“Especially because of my sensitivity toward noise, my idea is that a quiet class environment is a more productive class environment” [Participant 4].

In addition, it was worth noting that the personality of the educator was a determinant of class allocation for learners. One participant observed that learners who were seen to be more disruptive than the other learners were often put into her class. The participant surmised that perhaps it was because she was better able to manage the disruptive behaviour, as she was more tolerant and patient. This finding lends support to Sabol and Pianta (2012), who are of the opinion that learners exhibiting disruptive behaviour benefit from a positive, supportive relationship with an educator, as the relationship becomes a protective factor for disruptive behaviour.

When asked about the possible underlying causes of disruptive behaviour in the FP, the vice principal pointed out that the educators’ personalities could have an impact on the learners’ behaviour over the years. He commented, that while a learner may have had a good relationship with one educator, different personalities could lead to the learner

becoming disruptive in another educator's class.

“Everyone's relationship between teachers and children differ from year to year. And it is maybe just because of personalities. You know? Similar personalities or personalities that can't gel” [Participant 7].

The above quote lends support to research establishing that when educators are warm and supportive toward the learners in their class, learners are more likely to develop a sense of connectedness to the school and develop a sense of security to explore ideas and take risks, both of which are essential to learning. On the other hand, if the relationship between a learner and educator is perceived to be negative, learners are at a greater risk for developing disruptive behaviour (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; Pianta & Nimetz, 1991).

4.2.2.2 Being positive

For some of the participants, remaining positive despite experiencing disruptive behaviour was seen to be important for enhancing positive behaviour. This data is consistent with studies indicating that learners who have a positive relationship with their educators are more likely to exhibit positive behaviour and better learning (Hughes et al., 2001; Sabol & Pianta, 2012; Spilt et al., 2012). This, in turn, reflects Vygotsky's principle that learning takes place through social interactions and is most effective when learning occurs within the learner's zone of proximal development (Rudasill, Rimm-Kaufman, Justice, & Pence, 2006). Being positive is expressed in the following statement:

“I try to be very positive in my class because I find if you're positive, the kids who are being disruptive will sort of look for that positive attention as well and get in line” [Participant 5].

In addition, one participant tried to view the disruptive behaviour in a more positive light, once more reflecting the various ways in which educators view disruptive behaviour, influencing the goodness-of-fit model (Churchill, 2003; Sabol & Pianta, 2012).

“I don't think it's a child being naughty. I think he's obviously enthusiastic about the lesson and I see it in a more positive way” [Participant 6].

One participant explained, however, that although she tried to remain positive, at times it became challenging.

“I try to be positive. I try my best to be positive but I really...sometimes I just lose it.

I understand that it's the worst thing I could possibly do" [Participant 3].

Research has shown that the educator-learner relationship is adversely influenced by educators' negative affect. That is, the more educators expressed negative emotions such as anger, the more the learners exhibited disruptive behaviour (Rudasill et al., 2006). There is also evidence that an educator's experience in teaching can influence the goodness-of-fit between the educator and learner.

4.2.2.3 Life experience

Throughout the data collection process, it became clear that educators compared the amount of life experience to their perceptions of disruptive behaviour. It would appear that as educators gain experience, the more tolerant they become of behaviour that would otherwise be viewed as disruptive. These types of reflections are in line with Churchill's (2003) research findings that although disruptive behaviour is more likely to provoke negative reactions in educators, this may not be true for all educators.

"I also think that as you get older, you get... I think you can overlook a bit more, you get more patient" [Participant 3].

"You just get more comfortable in your own skin and you give them that time to go crazy and then you say 'right, now it's work time', so having that more realistic perspective of yourself" [Participant 6].

Changing perceptions of disruptive behaviour has interesting consequences for the way in which educator-learner relationships are experienced, not only by the educator and learner in question, but also by other learners in the classroom. Hughes et al. (2001) noted that educator-learner relationships affect peer relationships and acceptance within the classroom. If the relationship between the educator and learner is conflictual, the learner's peers will less likely accept him. The converse, however, is also true. Learners who are usually perceived as disruptive, but have a supportive, less conflictual relationship with the educator will become more accepted. Therefore, according to Bear (2011), it would be essential that educators develop the ability to create more accepting relationships, so the learner may experience a sense of belonging.

4.2.2.4 Stress

Although much research has shown that disruptive behaviour is a causal factor in educator burnout (Evertson & Weinstein, 2011; Schulze & Steyn, 2007), many of the

participants in this study observed the opposite, describing that as their stress levels increased, so too did the disruptive behaviour. This would indicate that perhaps the educators' increased levels of stress led to an increase in disruptive behaviour, which is in accordance with results found in previous research (Hastings & Bham, 2003; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Reflections of the impact of the participants' stress levels are expressed in the following quotes:

"If I'm stressed and I've got a lot to do, then I can't, then I find every little thing disruptive" [Participant 5].

"The more worked up I get, the more worked up they get, the more despondent they get" [Participant 1].

Furthermore, research demonstrates that the way in which an educator copes with stressful situations may compromise their ability to sustain positive relationships with their learners (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; Lewis et al., 2009). For example, one participant placed blame upon herself, taking responsibility for the disruptive behaviour or feeling that she was not dealing with the disruptive behaviour adequately. Consequently, she experienced a high level of stress, lending support to Austin et al. (2005), who found that educators who accept responsibility are more prone to stress, as well as Lewis et al. (2009), whose study revealed that educators most interested in developing learners' self-efficacy reported more stress.

"I'm the kind of person who won't blame the child. I'll say 'well maybe I should have done something different'" [Participant 6].

It is, therefore, essential to remember that the learner brings with him his own attributes (such as behaviour inhibition ability), while the educator brings her own perceptions, beliefs and experiences into the relationship, which can influence the overall goodness-of-fit (Marais & Meier, 2010; Rudasill et al., 2006).

4.2.3 Educator coping strategies

From the data gathered, it would appear that the educators found various ways of coping with the stress (Lewis et al., 2009; Shen, 2009) and the challenges that inevitably come with teaching (Austin, Shah, & Muncer, 2005; Axup & Gersch, 2008; Clunies-Ross et al., 2008). While mindfulness and researching how to cope with disruptive behaviour were mentioned by two different participants respectively, the coping responses most often referred to in this study included taking part in physical exercise and spending time with

significant others. It is worth noting that the coping strategies employed by the participants in this study were positive in nature rather than negative (such as avoidance or drinking), contradicting previous studies (Austin et al., 2005; Carton & Fruchart, 2014; Griffith, Steptoe, & Copley, 1999; Richards, 2012).

4.2.3.1 Spending time with significant others

The participants in this study described how they relied on the relationships with their significant others as a way of coping with the stress experienced at work. Significant others included friends and family, reflecting the way in which the dynamic relationships within the system can lend support to one another. While the majority of the participants spoke of family and colleagues as support structures that helped to cope with the stress in relation to disruptive behaviour, these will be discussed under the theme of Educator Support in a subsequent section. Spending time with significant others in this theme related specifically to relaxing with family and friends, without discussing work or the effects of the disruptive behaviour.

“Friends, going out for dinner and my kids, definitely taking my kids to the park and just chilling with them, my husband” [Participant 6].

“Once I go home I relax with my kids, I go to gym, watch TV series, like I’m a series junkie. That de-stresses me” [Participant 5].

Taking time to relax with social support systems was a common strategy used to cope with the stress of teaching and is in accordance with previous research (Lewis et al., 2009; Rieg et al., 2005; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015). According to Richards (2012), it is important for educators to take time for themselves, in order to sustain emotional and mental health.

4.2.3.2 Exercise

Many of the participants in this study used physical exercise after work hours to cope with the stress of being an educator, which is in accordance to Rieg et al. (2005). Physical exercise ranged from going to the gym, going for a run or going for a walk. Research has shown that physical activity helps to relieve stress and increase one’s overall health and sense of well-being. In addition, individual’s who participate in exercise regularly report lower stress levels than those who do not exercise (Austin et al., 2005; Richards, 2012).

Salkovsky et al. (2015) are of the opinion that educators who take part in physical activity, have a sense of humour, focus on the positive and take time to relax are less likely to feel inhibited in managing disruptive behaviour. From observations during the interviews, the researcher noted that many of the participants retained a sense of humour even when discussing the negative effects of disruptive behaviour. This could imply that even though humour did not emerge as a distinct theme in the data, it is possible that many of the participants use humour as a way of coping.

In addition to an awareness of the effects of disruptive behaviour and ways in which each educator coped with disruptive behaviour, the participants indicated that they received support from various levels within the system. Each of these levels of support will be explored, followed by the supportive needs identified.

4.2.4 Educator Support

As discussed in the previous section, educators make use of various strategies to cope with stress related to teaching and disruptive behaviour. Coping with stress effectively is important for the overall wellbeing of educators, and studies have shown that factors affecting coping strategies are self-efficacy and social support (Shen, 2009). Social support refers to interpersonal interactions that involve one or more of the following: information (about the environment), emotional concern, instrumental aid, or appraisal (Sarros & Sarros, 1992). As the current research findings suggest, the educators described that such support from various domains within the system was received (Donald et al., 2010; Marais & Meier, 2010; Michail, 2011). Support was received from family and friends, colleagues, the school and the Western Cape Education Department (WCED). Each level of support was, however, not always perceived to be necessarily effective and, the participants indicated the importance of supportive needs, with regard to managing disruptive behaviour.

4.2.4.1 *Support from family and friends*

The majority of the participants (those who had been teaching for less than ten years) explained that speaking to their family and friends about their experiences in the classroom was a support structure. According to Carton and Fruchart (2014), beginner educators make use of social support more often than experienced educators (those who have more than 15 years teaching experience). It is reported that beginner educators need to talk about the stressors at work with their significant others and colleagues, in

order to find solutions to their problems. The participants found that speaking to their family and friends not only helped to de-stress, but those whose family members were also educators offered support and suggestions for various BMS.

“I verbalise everything that’s going on so I spoke a lot about it to the people that were... that are closest to me, my parents and my boyfriend” [Participant 4].

“My parents are teachers as well, so you know a lot of the time just going home with stories and... you find that you also get sort of ideas and ways to deal with it, and they’ve been doing it for so long that you know they have different ideas” [Participant 2].

In addition, relaying experiences of disruptive behaviour to family and friends led to some of the participants being able to view the experience in a more humorous light, as the family members or friends would perceive the event to be humorous, rather than serious.

“A lot of the time it’s something that happens and it goes home and it’s a joke, you know? At the time, it wasn’t a joke in your class...but you go home and say ‘this child...’ and laugh about it” [Participant 2].

It is of interest to note, however, that while some of the participants found their family or friends to be supportive, other participants were of the opinion that at times people who were not educators did not always understand the stress of disruptive behaviour. As such, although the family and friends were supportive and may have given advice, participants did not always find it helpful.

“I definitely get support, like understanding, like ‘Ag shame, don’t worry it will be okay’, but I don’t think it’s complete understanding. Family, as much as you can explain to them what’s going on, find it hilarious or.... but at that point I don’t think they really understand how tired or how exhausting or how much you worry about this child” [Participant 3].

The findings of this study support previous studies that claim the most popular type of support came from friends and family who showed concern and listened to the educators (Rieg et al., 2005; Sarros & Sarros, 1992).

4.2.4.2 Support from colleagues

Many of the participants in the current study reported discussing their experiences of disruptive behaviour with their colleagues. It was found that through informal

discussions, educators gained further knowledge on classroom management strategies and gained a sense they were not alone in their experiences. These findings substantiate the findings of Clunies-Ross et al. (2008). In addition, the majority of the participants in the study perceived their colleagues to be supportive, often offering encouragement, advice and sympathy. This finding appears to contradict the findings in previous studies where lack of support from colleagues was often experienced, resulting in increased stress levels (Rieg et al., 2005; Salkovsky et al., 2015; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015). For the participants in the current study, speaking to colleagues provided a space to offload, share experiences and share advice on BMS that were found to be effective with particular learners.

“That’s why it’s so good to talk to people and get their opinions on things, because sometimes they’ll just suggest something that you’d never thought of or never heard of, a technique you know, that you’ve never heard of before, and then it’s worth a go” [Participant 1].

“It’s also nice because then I can say ‘oh this child’s at it again. He just won’t stop’ and then the other teacher will be like, ‘well he’s really good at rugby, he thrives, he never misbehaves at sport’ and then you’re like OK, he is a very physical child. Maybe he can do more physical things in the classroom, so you learn, you learn different ways to kind of try and approach the child” [Participant 3].

Grade meetings and FP meetings were also found to be useful for discussing various BMS with which other educators had experimented. Through these meetings, educators found that their self-efficacy was enhanced, as they became aware that other educators also experienced similar difficulties with managing disruptive behaviour. This data is consistent with the findings of Carpenter and McKee-Higgins (1996), as well as Chan (2002) who were of the opinion that there can be improved positive outcomes through the collaboration and encouragement of colleagues.

“You feel better about yourself, realizing it’s not just you, it’s happening in other classes, you get feedback like, ‘I’ve tried this, try that’” [Participant 6].

Interestingly, it was the female educators that commented on seeking support from colleagues, validating research indicating that female educators talk more to others and seek support from one another. In addition, female educators also tend to seek professional help through staff meetings, trainings and from other professionals (Salkovsky et al., 2015).

As mentioned in the previous theme, the use of social support systems as a means of coping with stress is a common strategy that educators use. Having a network of relationships with others who understand the stressors of teaching is beneficial for educators, as open communication with supportive others who offer support, advice and sympathy can decrease levels of stress experienced (Lewis et al., 2009; Richards, 2012). Some research studies, however, illustrate the complex nature of social support and caution that constant exposure to negative experiences can, in fact, increase stress and burnout (Sarros & Sarros, 1992).

4.2.4.3 Support from the school

It emerged from the interviews that many of the participants made use of school-based support to help with the management of disruptive behaviour, lending support to past research (Martin et al., 1999; Sarros & Sarros, 1992). School-based support in this regard referred to educators referring a learner to other school personnel, such as the head of discipline, the vice principal or another educator. One participant described her experience with a learner who was exhibiting disruptive behaviour and the support that she received from various personnel.

“Another child that I had dealt with that came out later that was on the Autism spectrum, he had loads of behaviour outbursts and the school had to be involved there and the school psychologist, remedial teacher, deputy and principal, as he hadn’t been diagnosed, but he was a danger to other children when he had his emotional outbursts, so that had to require parental involvement and school involvement” [Participant 3].

In addition to the abovementioned type of support from the school, participants also spoke of support in terms of the school paying for educators to attend personal development courses and receive support from the principal and the senior management team. Studies have also shown that senior management teams in schools play an important role in helping to develop effective ways of managing disruptive behaviour, increasing parental involvement and helping to change the school’s environment to improve positive behaviour (Schulze & Steyn, 2007). According to Sass, Seal and Martin (2011), as well as Schulze and Steyn (2007), a supportive principal who works to meet the needs of the educators and provides opportunities for professional growth helps to increase job satisfaction and decrease stress. Thus, it would appear in this study that the principal and senior management team were regarded as supportive.

4.2.4.4 Support from the Western Cape Education Department (WCED)

It emerged from the data that participants in the current study indicated that while WCED offered various workshops and training programs, there was a general feeling that these were often ineffective. Research shows that educator training programmes that are perceived to be inadequate or irrelevant do not provide educators with the skills needed to manage disruptive behaviour effectively, resulting in increased stress levels, a lack of self-efficacy and disempowerment (Schulze & Steyn, 2007).

In addition to the provision of workshops, one participant mentioned that the WCED would intervene if the disruptive behaviour was severe. He went on to explain, however, that the district psychologist struggled to fulfil her duty to the best of her ability, as the department was understaffed and the psychologist was assigned too many schools. As such, he was of the opinion that the psychologist viewed the degree of behaviour problems as minor when compared to others schools and consequently, did not always give support.

“So a school like xxx being affluent, being financially sound or whatever, they feel that we can deal with our own issues [DB]. So they are very reluctant to come here, because they feel our issues are minor compared to issues elsewhere, you know?”
[Participant 7].

It was further noted that while expulsion was a last resort, when the WCED did become involved, the learner was often taken out of the current school and placed in a neighbouring school, which did not solve the underlying problem, supporting current research (Axup & Gersch, 2008; Michail, 2011; Osher et al., 2010).

4.2.4.5 Educator supportive needs

From the findings of the study, although the educators were making use of various support systems, there was a need for further support, indicating that perhaps the current support systems were not as effective for all the educators (Stephenson et al., 2000). The participants in the study indicated various supportive needs, in order to manage disruptive behaviour and to decrease the levels of stress that the educators and the learners experienced.

Lack of support from various levels within the system has shown to increase educator burnout and early exit from the teaching profession (Salkovsky et al., 2015). As such, participants revealed that they would benefit from having support in the classroom,

such as an educator's assistant who would help with reading groups or help individual learners who might be struggling with work, thereby freeing up the educator. More involvement from the WCED, particularly with regard to the implementation of the CAPS curriculum was also suggested.

"Within the educational system, the Educational Department, we need support from them, that okay this curriculum's not working, it's stressing out the children, stressing out the teachers" [Participant 3].

Support for the educators in terms of gaining further knowledge of effective BMS through discussions with peers was indicated, as well as having a more effective intervention system for learners who are experiencing emotional and academic difficulties. According to Marais and Meier (2010, p.55), the effective management of disruptive behaviour involves the collaboration of all stakeholders in education, including "policy makers at national, provincial and local level, school principals, teachers, personnel providing specialist support systems, parents and society at large".

From the above it can be argued that it is essential for educators to receive support from various levels within the system (the school and the WCED), along with developing supportive relationships that foster positive functioning and emotions (such as happiness and wellbeing), thereby increasing resilience and ultimately decreasing and preventing educator burnout. Consequently, the support should be aimed at equipping educators with skills to implement effective BMS and foster the development and enhancement of positive character traits (Kristjánsson, 2012; Martin et al., 1999).

4.2.5 Behaviour Management Strategies

The data collected from this study supports the overarching theoretical approaches of the study, namely behavioural theory and system theory (Atherley, 1990; Bear, 2010, 2011; Donald et al., 2010; Green, 2001b; Hart, 2010; Landrum & Kauffman, 2011; Marais & Meier, 2010), as the participants explored the use of various BMS on different levels within the system.

Respondents' testimony indicated that the amount of teaching experience educators had influenced the types of BMS used in the classroom. In addition, it was evident that these BMS were categorised into effective and ineffective strategies, according to the participants' own perceptions and experiences. Furthermore, the participants discussed the effects of the BMS on the learners. Each of these subthemes

will be discussed in further detail.

4.2.5.1 Experience in education and behaviour management strategies

Research has shown that beginner educators experience more stress and frustration due to lack of experience and lack of training related to managing disruptive behaviour (Evertson & Weinstein, 2011; Rayment, 2006; Savage & Savage, 2010; Woolfolk Hoy & Weinstein, 2011). Findings from this study correlate with the above, as participants reflected on their teaching experience and how their BMS have changed and developed over time.

“I think the more experience you have the easier it is maybe to deal with kids. And you learn things through the year, so I’ve picked up things from each year, and courses and things you go on gives you, you pick up things, and those are skills you use in the classroom” [Participant 5].

“As you get more experience you realise classes aren’t supposed to be dead silent you know, and the kids all sitting still because if that’s the case they’re probably not learning much at all” [Participant 6].

For some of the participants, age was related to their experiences with teaching and discipline. For example, one participant found that some of the parents did not always take her seriously, as she was younger than other educators in the phase:

“They can see that I’m still a bit young... also parents talk about it, so parents can say ‘ah, she’s a young teacher’” [Participant 3].

Educators that were relatively new to teaching experienced some doubt in their ability to effectively manage the behaviour in their classroom. These findings correlate with research showing that many new educators experience self-doubt, negatively affecting their sense of self-efficacy and increasing their stress levels (Poulou, 2005, 2014).

“I guess everyone wants to feel like they can manage a situation and are capable of handling it, and feeling a little bit like...perhaps a more experienced teacher would have done a better job of managing that situation and would have put him in a better position going forward... I doubted myself constantly” [Participant 4].

“It’s probably in my head as well - I’m not doing this right...I’m not doing that right” [Participant 2].

When looking at self-efficacy through a cognitive theory lens, gaining experience and knowledge would enhance self-efficacy and should, therefore, form part of educator training. Participants in this study specified that as they became more experienced with teaching and managing disruptive behaviour through gaining knowledge and information from various sources, different BMS were explored and developed, substantiating findings in the literature (Poulou, 2005).

Participants also reflected on how their behaviour management seemed to have improved from their first year of teaching, where there was a sense of uncertainty. These findings confirm that there is often more disruptive behaviour, such as, talking and movement around the classroom, in beginning educators' classrooms than in the classrooms of more experienced educators, as beginner educators may lack experience (Atici, 2007). One participant described her experience:

“Ja it was just trial and error, you know, when I felt that the class was getting on top of me a little bit. They just rose up to me. Their behaviour just got worse...it really did get worse. So I'd literally shout, and they would be quiet for a minute, then back to the same thing” [Participant 1].

Gaining experience appeared to have a positive effect on the participants' sense of self-efficacy, as well as the development of more effective BMS. While some educators tried to gain more knowledge through research and going on courses, others gained advice from family members who were teachers themselves.

“I mean, as a teacher, you're a lifelong learner anyway, so I think you learn and I do a lot more research now when reading up about kids' behaviours” [Participant 5].

“I learned my own things along the way and learned how to put the things Mom had advised, which is a lot of stuff I still use today, into practice properly” [Participant 1].

It became evident throughout the data collection process that the participants were reflexive on their understanding of disruptive behaviour, as well as their understanding of ways of managing it. Reflective teaching practice is an essential part of teaching (Sellars, 2014), indicating that while the participants may not have been fully aware of it, they were constantly reflecting on their BMS and evolving them as needed. This could further indicate that the educators' self-efficacy was improving with experience.

“My managing strategies for disruptive behaviour, I'd say that I had to sort of adapt and I'm still sort of learning what is appropriate at this age and what's not. I'm still in the process of like, forming my opinion and approach towards it because it's

becoming more and more fluid the longer I've been teaching” [Participant 4].

Through reflective teaching practice and collaboration with various stakeholders, participants were able to develop and experiment with various BMS, discovering which strategy they found to be effective in their class and those that were perceived to be ineffective.

4.2.5.2 Effective behaviour management strategies

In order for educators to teach successfully, effective classroom management and discipline is required (Kokkinos, 2007). Through reflection, participants agreed that the following strategies appeared to be effective: non-verbal cues, verbal prompts, temporary exclusion, physical movement and individual and group management. Many of the above BMS reflect the research of Carpenter and McKee-Higgins (1996). Participants were also aware that BMS that worked in previous years were not always effective with learners in their current classes. This finding appears to contradict the findings of Pas and Bradshaw (2014), who found that participants' ratings of learners in their study did not change over the years, but rather stayed the same even though the learners changed. Each of the perceived effective BMS as described by the participants will be discussed in further detail below.

Non-verbal cues

Many of the participants in the study described the effectiveness of non-verbal cues as a way of managing disruptive behaviour. The non-verbal cues included changing the tone of their voice to a lower level, using eye contact and hand signals, as well as waiting and keeping silent until learners realised the educator was no longer speaking.

“Just stopping, and standing completely quietly, maybe even with my arms folded, and within a couple of seconds, you know they realise I've stopped, something's going on and then I can usually carry on quite quickly, that works quite well” [Participant 3].

One of the participants mentioned holding up her hand while counting backwards from five, while another clapped her hands to gain attention. Yet another participant would ring a bell to gain the learners' attention, while another would make various arm movements that the learners had to copy. The use of attention signals (such as raising a hand, clapping hands, ringing a bell) has been shown to be an effective way of gaining attention and managing behaviour in the classroom (Reinke, Herman, & Sprick, 2011).

The use of such non-verbal cues was also found in Atici's (2007) study. Such non-verbal cues are used as a consequence to behaviour that is perceived to be disruptive. Thus, such cues modify the disruptive behaviour, as in the behaviourist approach to behaviour management (Bear, 2010).

Verbal prompts

For the participants in this study, it was important to make use of positive reinforcement. The educators explained to the learners the consequences of their disruptive behaviour, as well as providing clear verbal explanations of what was expected from them in the classroom, reflecting previous research (Atici, 2007; Bear, 2010; Canter, 2010). Communicating expectations and directions is an essential part of reducing disruptive behaviour in the classroom. Through the use of explicit instructions, learners come to understand what behaviour is expected (Canter, 2010; Reinke et al., 2011). The following quotes illustrated these thoughts:

"I think the balance between a bit of understanding, but at the same time, putting a clear message through of what is appropriate and what is not, because even though that's difficult for them, they need to know that in the classroom, it's expected of them" [Participant 4].

"They know then, so I think it's giving them ownership of their behaviour. It's you, it's your choice and teaching them that" [Participant 6].

"I try to get them to understand that their behaviour is not ok and that they need to work at it and to think before they do something" [Participant 7].

It was also noted that when punitive measures were put in place without any clear explanation, the disruptive behaviour did not necessarily decrease, as the learner did not fully understand the reason behind the consequence.

The use of verbal positive reinforcement appeared to be a dominant BMS for the majority of the educators, reflecting behaviourist theory, whereby appropriate behaviours are positively recognised and possibly rewarded (Moberly et al., 2005). The participants would verbally acknowledge positive behaviour, in order to reduce disruptive behaviour and increase positive behaviour (Clunies-Ross et al., 2008). The participants in the study have observed that by positively reinforcing prosocial behaviour, learners who were being disruptive would refrain from the behaviour, as they would also want to be acknowledged for their positive behaviour. In addition, through the recognition of desirable behaviour, a positive learning environment was enhanced, leading to more positive interactions and the

development of self-management in learners (Carpenter & McKee-Higgins, 1996). Furthermore, by focusing on the learners' strengths, the participants created an environment in which the learners had positive experiences (Peterson, 2009).

"I try to be very positive in my class because I find if you're positive the kids who are being disruptive will sort of look for that positive attention as well and get in line" [Participant 5].

"I think children need to know that you're kind of on their side and that you're gonna give them a chance. We all make mistakes, we're not, you know, perfect angels everyday but there is a... if you make a mistake there is a chance to learn from it" [Participant 6].

Research has shown, however, that excessive praise can become problematic, as it encourages learners to behave in such a way to gain approval from the educator, rather than develop intrinsic motivation and personal resources for learning, as well as develop a reliance on their own evaluations of their behaviour (Canter, 2010; Kristjánsson, 2012; Moberly et al., 2005). Moreover, Merrett and Wheldall (1990) are of the opinion that praise is most effective when it is sincere and natural and is done in a variety of manners (such as gestures, facial expressions and verbal praise). Therefore, it would appear that as the educators mostly made use of verbal praise to manage disruptive behaviour, it would perhaps be of benefit for the educators to also focus on developing strategies that promote intrinsic motivation and prosocial behaviour.

Temporary Exclusion

According to literature, educators will remove a learner from the classroom when the behaviour becomes too disruptive (Bear, 2010; Obenchain & Taylor, 2005). This study supports such findings, as some of the participants felt that if the learner's disruptive behaviour became too difficult to manage, the learner was sent out of the classroom for a few moments or sent to another educator, head of discipline or to the vice principal.

"Maybe removing that child from the class maybe just for a few minutes or a period or however long, ... to sort of change the environment within the class and also give the child a different environment to be in" [Participant 3].

Other participants, however, preferred not to send the learner out of the classroom or to refer them to another staff member, as they felt it infringed on the learner's right to learn and did not solve the underlying reason for the disruptive behaviour (Moberly et al., 2005; Osler, 2000). This supports research indicating that exclusionary approaches are

limited in their effectiveness, as it can increase disruptive behaviour. Learners soon internalize that if they exhibit disruptive behaviour, they will be sent out of the classroom, thereby escaping the unpleasant task (Obenchain & Taylor, 2005; Osher et al., 2010).

“I don’t like to isolate them - they also need to feel included, despite their behaviour. They are a part of the class you know. It’s unfair, they’re paying for a good education” [Participant 1].

“I’m not a big fan of moving a boy from one class to the other, because I feel like it doesn’t do anything for... it’s not...long term, it’s never gonna change what’s happening” [Participant 4].

Information gathered from the data collected also showed that when a learner’s behaviour continued to be disruptive despite various intervention and BMS, educators referred the learner to the vice principal who would help support the educator by speaking to the learner or completing the daily report. The daily report will be discussed further in a subsequent section. When asked about learners being referred to him, the vice principal responded that he would often talk to the learner about his behaviour, trying to understand the underlying cause and discuss the affect the learner’s behaviour had on the educator and the other learners in his class. The vice principal also explained how he would follow up with learners whose behaviour did not improve by involving the school counsellor. Furthermore, he reflected on the fact that he had more contact with learners in the FP than in the Senior Phase.

“I keep a tab on the child if he’s, if it’s quite repetitive and then take it to the next level if I need to, in terms of a disciplinary hearing. I also try and get him to speak to the counsellor, as far as possible. I find myself very busy with Foundation Phase children more than I’m busy with Senior Phase children because maybe we haven’t given them [the educators] strategies to deal with it, or ways in which to handle situations” [Participant 7].

Although the above findings may support current literature (Michail, 2011; Obenchain & Taylor, 2005), it is interesting to note results from Martin et al. (1999) who found that educators who were less confident in managing learners’ behaviour were more likely to refer to the learner to other school personnel. This could have implications for recommendations for the development of programs aimed at enhancing educators’ self-efficacy through the development of effective BMS and skills for managing disruptive behaviour.

Physical movement

The use of physical movement in the classroom as a way of teaching and maintaining an environment conducive to positive learning emerged as a way of managing disruptive behaviour. The participants described that using movement in the class helped to keep the learners' attention, as well as giving them time to have a break from work (Lengel & Kuczala, 2010). In turn, participants found that by allowing learners the space to move, the disruptive behaviour was decreased or prevented. Some of the participants gave the learners an opportunity to move around the classroom, while others used online programs such as *Go Noodle* that employs dance and music as a way of teaching.

"I think if you're gonna be a teacher of the young child you need to understand that they are children and they are lively and they are boys especially, and for them to sit in a room isn't going to work. You know kids need to be kids, so I think if you're a teacher that does all those kinds of things, the behaviour is minimised already. Like I'm thinking of the boys in my class that are really lively and Go Noodle - like Brain Gym kind of activities" [Participant 6].

"If I see that more than a few of them are getting aggr [agitated] and a bit niggly, then we jump up and down a few times... 'Touch your knees, touch your collar bone'... I just get them moving a little bit" [Participant 4].

The use of physical movement is important in the FP, as learners are still in the developmental phase whereby they learn through movement (Green, 2001a; Marais & Meier, 2010). As was previously discussed, research has shown that boys are seen to be more disruptive than girls (Jackson & Bisset, 2005; Stephenson et al., 2000) and the use of movement would reduce or prevent disruptive behaviour. Consequently, the use of movement provides an environment in which the learners can develop cognitively, physically, mentally, emotionally and socially (Lengel & Kuczala, 2010).

Individual and group management

From the data collected, it was ascertained that the participants in the study also made use of BMS that were aimed at both the individual and the groups within the class. These BMS were based upon class rules or expectations that were determined at the start of each year. While some of the participants determined the expectations, other participants developed the class rules and expectations with the students, thereby involving the learners in the process and developing intrinsic motivation (Bear, 2011; Osher et al., 2010; Osler, 2000; Reinke et al., 2011).

On the individual level, all of the educators in the study made use of a reward system within their class, which aimed at developing each learner's ability to manage their own behaviour. While some of the educators also used it as part of a punitive measure (whereby learners were punished for disruptive behaviour), the system was mostly used in a positive manner, emphasising self-discipline (Bear, 2011). The reward systems were used in various ways and were described as follows:

"That's a robot system, it's a five-colour system. They start in the middle on yellow, 'I'm ready to learn', and you go up to blue, and you end up on green if you're being 'Excellent'. Orange is a warning, you get your warning, if you get to red, you get an Order mark and then you get back to yellow again, you don't have to work your way up to yellow, you get a clean start, you've been punished, now you've got your fresh start" [Participant 3].

"We do that rocket system in our class where they all start out as Superstars. So you start with the positive, where you walk in my classroom already on the rocket, you're ready to learn and you're a superstar already, and it's then maintaining that rather than trying to achieve it, which I found this year worked really well because then they think you value them already" [Participant 6].

According to one of the participants, the grade in which she taught used a different system whereby individuals were given "black dots" for extreme misbehaviour, such as physically hurting another child. Once the learner received three black dots, he was taken to the vice principal who would speak to the learner about his behaviour. It was noted, however, that the learner was given opportunities to cover up the black dot when exhibiting prosocial behaviour.

Taking the goodness-of-fit perspective into consideration (Churchill, 2003), the positive, supportive relationship between the educator and the learner also played an important role in BMS that are perceived to be effective (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; Osler, 2000).

"If you understand where the child comes from, that helps I think, so if there's a reason and usually it's not a nice reason, so then you sort of have some empathy with the child you understand the child and you, hopefully, through positive reinforcement, you get the reward" [Participant 6].

Participants acknowledged that parental involvement was also instrumental for the success of individual reward charts. Some of the participants explained that for learners

identified as exhibiting disruptive behaviour, an individual reward chart was used in conjunction with a reward chart at home. Messages were also sent home to the parents when the learner was showing positive behaviour. In addition, a daily report was used when the disruptive behaviour continued despite previous BMS being implemented. According to the participants, the daily report consisted of a checklist of certain criteria that the learner needed to achieve within the classroom. At the end of the school day, the learner would meet with the vice principal who would then discuss the checklist with the learner every day for a predetermined number of weeks. Once the educator and the vice principal had signed the report, it was sent home for the parents to view. This would indicate that the BMS was seen to be effective when used across the system (Marais & Meier, 2010; Osher et al., 2010). The effective use of the daily report was reflected in the following quote:

“Daily report, a positive one - that works really well because then you have like a one on one relationship with the child and I think once you get to know the child on a more personal level they find, they feel they’ve got a relationship with you, they’re going to want to impress you and please you, and do good” [Participant 6].

On a group level, participants divided learners into teams according to where they were seated in the classroom. Teams were given points when learners within the team showed self-discipline and followed the class rules, resulting in praise and encouragement from the educator. The winning team at the end of the week was given an extrinsic reward such as a sweet or small toy, corresponding to research specifying that many educators make use of extrinsic rewards to encourage prosocial behaviour (Feuerborn & Chinn, 2012; Moberly et al., 2005). Such positive reinforcement can lead to more prosocial behaviour (Bear, 2011; Carpenter & McKee-Higgins, 1996; Marais & Meier, 2010; Spivak & Farran, 2012). Taking behavioural theory and systems theory into consideration, a learner’s behaviour is established and maintained as a result of the interactions with their environment. Therefore, when learners become aware that there are positive consequences for behaviour that is seen as positive, prosocial behaviour will increase (Merrett & Wheldall, 1990).

Bear (2011), however, cautions that educators need to be aware of the limitations of the use of rewards and praise. Learners who are motivated through external rewards become less intrinsically motivated. One participant supported this statement and expressed his concerns with the overuse of rewards:

“I think the children of today become more... more prone to reward. They want something. You know, they want something for good behaviour. It’s not like it should be a general... It should just be a norm” [Participant 7].

In addition, one participant found that group management was not always effective in her classroom because some learners would give up trying to be rewarded:

“The group points...I wouldn’t say that it hasn’t worked, but I... it doesn’t work all the time. I also use the group points now and then only, because you find that, because it’s a group thing, and certain kids are going ‘but I’m quiet and I’m doing this and didn’t gain or lose any points’” [Participant 3].

In contrast to the findings of Martin et al. (1999), the participants in this study often tried to focus on the use of positive behaviour strategies rather than punitive strategies. Additionally, although the participants made use of BMS that focused to some extent on the individual, many of the BMS were applied across the board. Upon examination of the documents, it was noted that each grade followed its own predetermined way of managing disruptive behaviour, which was often determined by the school’s code of conduct. It is worth noting that according to research, BMS based on one-method-fits-all-learners are ineffective and should rather be individualised and based on the learner’s behaviour (Grossman, 2005).

4.2.5.3 Ineffective behaviour management strategies

Participants in the study acknowledged that some BMS appeared to be less effective than the abovementioned BMS. Upon exploration of the ineffective BMS, it was evident that the majority of ineffective BMS were punitive in nature. The ineffective BMS described included shouting, negative verbal comments and certain aspects within the school system. Ineffective BMS can, however, lead to reduced learner development and academic achievement, can interfere with teaching and create a negative classroom environment. In addition, it can lead to the development of a negative educator-learner relationship, which increases disruptive behaviour (Reinke et al., 2011).

Shouting

It emerged from the data that although they admitted to shouting as a BMS, all of the participants acknowledged the ineffectiveness of such a strategy. The participants explained that shouting did not reduce the disruptive behaviour in the long-term. It actually created a negative environment and, at times, led to an increase in disruptive behaviour.

While shouting or raising one's voice would be viewed as a reactive BMS that is punitive in nature (Clunies-Ross et al., 2008), the researcher found little evidence in the relevant literature to validate the ineffectiveness of shouting. The participants, however, explained the ways in which shouting was ineffective:

"It's horrible for the teacher, it's horrible for the kids, no one enjoys their time at school" [Participant 1].

In contrast to the above, one participant, although acknowledging the ineffectiveness of shouting regularly, felt that raising her voice or shouting was effective when used infrequently.

"I find that if I'm not shouting often, and it's not something that I do all the time, the day that I do, it works and it's effective" [Participant 2].

In addition, participants acknowledged that at times they resorted to shouting when they felt exhausted or stressed. Research shows that when educators become exhausted, learner behaviour tends to become more disruptive, resulting in further exhaustion as the educator tries to manage the behaviour. Educators may then resort to punitive responses and contribute to the cycle of disruption (Clunies-Ross et al., 2008; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; Sabol & Pianta, 2012).

Negative verbal comments

The use of sarcasm or verbal comments that result in shaming or embarrassing the learner were seen to be ineffective, as it could lead to further disruptive behaviour and have a negative effect on the learner's sense of self. These findings would indicate that the participants were aware of the importance of developing the learner's positive traits and experiences (Kristjánsson, 2012).

"The other thing is embarrassing the child, so like almost targeting...like bullying, so it's making them stand up in front of everyone. To shout their name and embarrass them in front of their peers, you're just gonna ask for more trouble because then they're gonna be like 'ah I'll show you', it's almost as if you're fuelling it" [Participant 6].

It was worth noting, however, that some of the participants took the age of the learners into consideration when using sarcasm as a BMS. While one participant acknowledged that she had tried to use sarcasm, she realised that the learners were too young to understand and consequently, the sarcasm was ineffective. Another participant commented that, at times, he used sarcasm with older learners to manage their behaviour.

“You know, so sometimes you try and do a bit of a diss or sarcasm or something just to try and... and it’s not harmful, you don’t want to hurt them... you just want to shake them a bit, so that they kinda wake up, because the general kinda talk doesn’t work” [Participant 7].

Sarcasm is used to say the opposite of what is meant and is usually used with the intention of mocking others. According to Segalo (2013), educators may use verbal comments such as sarcasm when they lack effective strategies to deal with disruptive behaviour.

School’s system

Traditionally, all boys’ schools are seen to have strict disciplinary practices, whereby the learners are expected to follow established codes of conduct, and failure to do so may lead to punishment (Jackson & Bisset, 2005). Nevertheless, certain aspects of the school system, including parts of the school’s code of conduct, were seen to be ineffective in managing disruptive behaviour, as it focused on the negative behaviour, instead of the positive. According to the participants, the ineffective sections of the school’s code of conduct included order marks, detention, and at times, the daily report. It further emerged that the school’s code of conduct became ineffective when used inconsistently and when it did not take into account the individual learner’s context.

According to the code of conduct, learners received order marks for infringements of the expected behaviour in the school. Once a learner received five order marks, he was given a detention. With regard to the order mark system, although some agreed that the order mark system was necessary for managing disruptive behaviour, the participants found that educators within the school used the system inconsistently. From the interviews and documents, there appeared to be little continuity between and within the various grades with regard to the use of order marks. As such, participants explained that learners who frequently received order marks for disruptive behaviour no longer responded to the consequences of an order mark.

“I agree that we need an order mark system, but I think the way each teacher does it is so inconsistent, and I think that affects the boys, ‘cause obviously you’re not gonna bother trying to behave well in a class where you know you’re gonna get an order mark every five seconds, so ja, I think order marks definitely has its place but it should be the last” [Participant 6].

Furthermore, while some of the participants used the order marks regularly as part

of their BMS, others preferred to use them sparingly, as they were of the opinion that an order mark would not prevent the disruptive behaviour.

“I spend time with them and talk to them before I give order marks. You know, I just feel that an order mark is not the solution. It’s an understanding of the behaviour that gives the solution” [Participant 7].

As a consequence of receiving five order marks or for behaviour that was judged to be excessive (such as hurting another learner), detention was given. Again, there appeared to be a divide among the participants as to the use of detention in the FP, as some participants found it to be a necessary part of the school discipline system, while others felt that it was ineffective for the learners, as they were too young to fully comprehend the meaning of detention. The following quotes give a clearer description:

“Detention I don’t find very effective at all at Grade 1 level. I don’t think they understand what they are going there to do, ‘cause they’re expected to write out rules and half of the time they can’t even really read them, and they’re just copying words” [Participant 2].

“It’s a long period of time, but time means nothing to a child of that age, 20 minutes feels like 3 hours, an hour feels like 20 minutes. They don’t really learn from it. But it is a school rule” [Participant 3].

Likewise, according to one of the participants, when a learner received a detention for five order marks, the learner would be unable to make the association between the inappropriate behaviour and the consequence because too much time had elapsed. In addition, some of the participants felt that detention could lead to further disruptive behaviour, as the learners were put into the same detention as those from the more senior grades, which might encourage the younger learners to want to impress the senior learners. According to past studies, punishment can be seen as reinforcing, as a learner will accept attention from the educator even if it is negative (such as receiving order marks) rather than being ignored (Canter, 2010; Merrett & Wheldall, 1990).

“A detention will not do anything for this child, so even though he’s got to his five order marks, he gets his detention, it means nothing, it’s water off a duck’s back. There’s no correlation for behaviour for him to that point, and detention is a place for him is a place to go socialise with the big boys” [Participant 3].

“They’re in DT [detention] a lot. They’re socialising with the wrong crowd and then before they know it, they’re one of those boys themselves because...it kind of

reinforces that behaviour" [Participant 6].

Bear (2010) and Segalo (2013) noted that although educators may not want to punish learners, the school's code of conduct require that punishment take place for certain behaviours. Consequently, educators have no choice but to follow the code. It emerged from the current study that one of the participants felt that perhaps the school's code of conduct was out-dated and was not inline with current research. He questioned whether the system was effective for the learners of today, as there have been changes with regards to discipline styles. He acknowledged, however, that while the code of conduct needed to be reassessed, it would take time for changes to take effect. Segalo (2013) maintains that the school's code of conduct should be consistent with the South African Schools Act of 1996.

4.2.5.4 Effect of behaviour management strategies on the learner

Consistent with previous research, it emerged that the participants' various BMS had different effects on the learners in the classrooms (Bear, 2010; Moberly et al., 2005). While the BMS had some positive effects on the learners, there were also some negative effects. Thus, the findings of this study substantiate research that claims BMS should take the individual learner into consideration, rather than applying a one-method-fits-all approach (Grossman, 2005).

Some of the positive effects that the effective BMS had on the learners included self-monitoring and peer regulation of behaviour. Learners were also believed to have a greater understanding of the consequences of disruptive behaviour and make the necessary changes to develop more prosocial behaviour. These findings are consistent with research showing that the use of positive BMS can promote self-efficacy and self-discipline (Bear, 2011; Carpenter & McKee-Higgins, 1996; Reinke et al., 2011; Spivak & Farran, 2012).

On the other hand, some participants found that there were limitations to some of the BMS, such as the individual and group management systems. According to one of the participants, she found that the group system was not always effective for some learners, as they came to expect a reward for any prosocial behaviour, in order to gain a reward for their team, further validating the findings of Moberly et al. (2005). Other participants found the individual reward system had little positive effects on some of the learners, as the learners felt the consequence of receiving an order mark was inconsequential to them and

they continued with the disruptive behaviour.

From the above, it would appear that certain BMS employed follow the theoretical underpinnings of behavioural theory and systems theory, whereby a positive educator-learner relationship is central to the development of the learner's intrinsic motivation to manage their own behaviour. Conversely, while punitive BMS were acknowledged to be ineffective, they were still utilised based on the school's code of conduct. Such punitive measures were aimed at compliance to school rules rather than the development of self-discipline. In addition, there was little focus on the development of positive emotions, and the measures were not always effective (Bear, 2011).

4.3 PERSONAL REFLECTIONS

Reflecting on the engagement with the data collection and data analysis process is an important part of the research process according to Merriam (2009). In doing so, the researcher reflected on her own experiences, assumptions and theoretical framework through which she interprets her world, allowing for a better understanding of the way in which the data was interpreted and the way in which conclusions were reached.

During the interviews, the researcher was aware that some of the participants might have been somewhat anxious or self-aware, becoming reserved in sharing experiences with disruptive behaviour that may have been perceived as negative. It made the researcher aware that participants might have wanted to impress the researcher or might have felt anxious of judgement, as the researcher was a grade head within the FP. As such, this emphasised the importance of the ethical responsibilities of the researcher to ensure that research be conducted in a non-judgemental way that is free from any expectations. The possible effects of fear of judgement, are expressed in the following quote:

"I shout... I shout...um...at the child, it sounds so bad..." [Participant 3].

The researcher was also cognisant of her own beliefs and perceptions of what constituted disruptive behaviour and the various BMS she had used in her own teaching experience. Acknowledging her own assumptions, the researcher made every effort to remain objective and avoid any judgement of the participants' perceptions and use of BMS. It was interesting to note, however, that many of the BMS described in the interviews were BMS that researcher had employed in her classroom.

4.4 CONCLUSION

From the data collected, it became evident that disruptive behaviour within the FP was a challenge that many educators face on a daily basis and reflects many past research studies. The behaviour of concern appeared to be typical of learners in this age group, as reported in previously mentioned studies. In addition, the various types of disruptive behaviour were seen to have a negative impact on several levels of the system, resulting in the need for BMS that would lead to equilibrium within the system. Furthermore, educators had various ways of coping with the inherent stress that many experience as a result of teaching. These coping strategies included spending time with significant others, as well as gaining support from various stakeholders in the education system. Support from colleagues and senior management was described to be useful for developing more effective BMS.

The research findings indicated that participants acknowledged that there were effective and ineffective BMS that were employed within their school. The key to effectively addressing and managing disruptive behaviour appeared to lie within a systems theory approach, as well as positive behaviour management. According to the systems theory, each level within a system relies on the other levels for growth and development. As such, the learner should be viewed as a part of a system that is comprised of interrelated and interdependent levels. In order to manage disruptive behaviour effectively, multiple levels of the system influences should be explored. Although many of the participants used punitive measures as part of their BMS, these were used in conjunction with positive BMS that emphasised the development of self-discipline through a positive educator-learner relationship. The findings further indicated that the most effective BMS were those that evolved from a positive relationship between the educator and the learner and developed the learners' self-efficacy and self-discipline.

The final chapter serves as an overall conclusion to the research study. It includes a discussion of the research strengths and limitations, as well as recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this final chapter, the researcher will include concluding remarks, the strengths of the study, as well as the limitations of the research. In addition, recommendations for future research will also be discussed.

As the study comes to its conclusion, the research questions are posed once again:

1. *What BMS do FP educators employ when boys display disruptive behaviour?*
 - 1.1. *What do FP educators perceive to be disruptive behaviour?*
 - 1.2. *What effects does the disruptive behaviour have on the educators?*
 - 1.3. *Which BMS do FP educators perceive to be effective?*

As was discussed in the preceding chapter and based on the research case study design, the research question and its sub-questions can be answered together as follows: DB is seen as any behaviour that interferes with learning and can result in increased stress and frustration levels in educators. Although educators try to avoid the use of punitive BMS, as they are perceived to have little long-term effects, educators continue to make use of them due to the school's overarching code of conduct. BMS that have been found to be effective are those that are positive and rewarding in nature.

5.2 CONCLUDING REMARKS

Disruptive behaviour is a well-researched concept that has been defined in various ways. It was of interest, however, to the researcher to understand the participants' perceptions and definitions of disruptive behaviour viewed from within their context, as the systems theory highlights the importance of context when exploring disruptive behaviour. The various levels within a system i.e. the learner, the educator, the parents, the classroom environment, the school, as well as the broader cultural and societal contexts are all interrelated and cannot be seen in isolation (Burden, 1981; Marais & Meier, 2010; Sabol & Pianta, 2012). From the findings of this study, disruptive behaviour would appear to be defined as any behaviour that prevents learning in the classroom and includes behaviours that are mostly externalising in nature (Arbuckle & Little, 2004; Monroe, 2005).

Furthermore, disruptive behaviour occurred due to a multitude of reasons, including external and internal systems (Marais & Meier, 2010). Participants described disruptive behaviour resulting from the developmental level of boys, the need for attention, parenting skills, emotional reasons, the environmental context, as well as the cultural context. All of the mentioned reasons are in line with previous research (Chitiyo et al., 2014; Colle & Del Giudice, 2011; Green, 2001a; Pianta & Nimetz, 1991; Poulou, 2005; Seabi, 2010), indicating that the participants experience disruptive behaviour in the same ways as many other educators across the world.

The educators in the study were not the only ones to experience the effects of disruptive behaviour, but it was found that disruptive behaviour impacted the parents and the other learners in the classroom as well, once again reflecting the interrelatedness of the system. While some parents agreed with the educators' regarding their child's disruptive behaviour, other parents denied it. Educators experienced feelings of exhaustion, frustration, guilt, self-doubt and high levels of stress, substantiating various research studies (Arbuckle & Little, 2004; Clunies-Ross et al., 2008; Gotzens et al., 2010; Rieg et al., 2005; Schulze & Steyn, 2007; Stephenson et al., 2000). Consequently, educators made use of various coping strategies (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Salkovsky et al., 2015) such as spending time with family and friends, as well as physical exercise. Of interest to the researcher was that the participants in this study did not refer to any avoidance strategies or negative strategies (such as using alcohol or smoking). This finding may be worth exploring further, as it may be useful for the development of stress management programs. Cancio and Conderman (2008, p.31) suggest practical strategies for educators to manage their stress and to help improve longevity in education careers. The practical strategies include the development of a positive and adaptive frame of mind, the formation of positive relationships with colleagues, the use of effective organisational strategies, as well as embracing change and innovations, the collaboration with administrators and the assessment of their own stress levels. It is important for educators to develop healthy strategies of coping with stress, in order to teach learners effectively and to manage disruptive behaviour.

An unexpected theme that emerged from the data was that of the goodness-of-fit between the educator and the learner. Many of the participants described the importance of having a positive relationship with the learners, so as to promote positive behaviour. Theorists such as Piaget, Vygotsky and Bandura have emphasised the positive influences of social interaction, interpersonal relationships and the development of socio-cognitive

abilities on prosocial behaviour (Spivak & Farran, 2012). Current research has also shown that educator behaviours such as emotional warmth, positive behaviour management and verbal encouragement of prosocial and empathetic behaviour contribute to positive behaviour and well-being in the classroom (Spivak & Farran, 2012), linking to the underlying ethos of the goodness-of-fit model (Churchill, 2003; Sabol & Pianta, 2012).

The participants referred to various support systems with regards to disruptive behaviour and the management style. Support came from significant others, colleagues, senior management within the school and the WCED. It was noted, however, that at times the support given was not always as effective as it could have been. Consequently, the participants described a number of supportive needs. It was recommended that the WCED provide more effective training in BMS, as well as explore the effects of the CAPS curriculum on the learners. Peer support through more informal discussions, such as the interviews conducted in this research, was indicated, as well as a more effective intervention system within the school. In addition, the participants felt that having educator assistants in the classroom would aid in decreasing disruptive behaviour, as the learners would gain more attention from either of the educators. Previous studies have indicated that professional development workshops or programs that focus on developing a positive educator-learner relationship can improve the overall quality of the relationships within a classroom, leading to the development of a positive learning environment. In turn, disruptive behaviour will also decrease with the improvement of the quality of the educator-learner relationship (Michail, 2011; Sabol & Pianta, 2012).

The prominence of behaviourist discourses dominated many of the BMS that the participants found to be effective, but there was also a focus on prevention of disruptive behaviour, as well as developing self-discipline. It would appear that the use of positive reinforcement through the use of praise, the clear explanation of expectations, physical movement and the use of various reward systems were found to be the most effective. It also emerged that in some cases, punitive BMS (such as temporary exclusion, subtracting team points or receiving order marks) were used when previous interventions were not effective. Although punitive measures were used in the classrooms and acknowledged to have little long-term effects on reducing disruptive behaviour, research studies show that punishment may at times be necessary (Bear, 2011; Dad et al., 2010; Irby & Clough, 2015). Furthermore it is stated that punishment should be used in combination with positive BMS rather than as the primary means of managing disruptive behaviour. In addition, it should be used sparingly, as it does not develop positive character traits and

positive emotions (Atherley, 1990; Dad et al., 2010; Irby & Clough, 2015). The educators in this study appear to be aware of the above and use punishment as a last resort. Furthermore, the findings indicated that the developmental stages of the learners, as well as the gender of the learners, needed to be kept in mind when developing effective BMS. As the educators in this study are teaching at an all boys' school, it is vital to keep in mind that boys' behaviour patterns are different to girls and will need to be adapted to accommodate boys' behaviour characteristics (Grossman, 2005). In addition, using positive behaviour management as a framework for behaviour management includes the development of self-discipline, as well as the prevention of disruptive behaviour. Therefore, positive behaviour interventions should not only be aimed at a particular individual, but at various levels within the system.

While many of the participants expressed their awareness of the ineffectiveness of shouting or punishment through order marks and detention, it was evident that such BMS were still used, supporting findings in previous research (Martin et al., 1999). The BMS perceived to be ineffective appear to be punitive in nature, as they punish behaviour that is inappropriate. According to research (Almog & Shechtman, 2007; Bear, 2010), there are certain limitations to the use of punishment. The limitations include: teaching learners what not to do, the effects are short-term, punishment teaches learners to be aggressive toward and punish others, it fails to address the multitude of factors underlying or contributing to the learner's disruptive behaviour. It is also likely to create undesirable effects, and it could lead to the development of a negative school climate. Moreover, there is evidence (Bear, 2010; Michail, 2011; Osher et al., 2010) to suggest that the use of punitive BMS is ineffective in that it does not take into account the learners' personal, educational, developmental and social circumstances. Consequently, the abovementioned types of BMS are in direct contrast to the development of intrinsic motivation, as well as a positive environment, which has shown to be needed for positive behaviour to result from the relationship between the educator and the learner. It was noted, however, that the ineffective BMS were used infrequently and often as a last resort (such as order marks and detention).

In conclusion, while the majority of the BMS employed were based on behaviourist approaches, it appeared that there was no specific paradigm that was the best fit. Rather, a number of approaches and processes were deemed relevant. Thus, there were several core processes identified that aided in effective BMS. These included: contingency management, whereby behavioural principles of positive reinforcement and punishment

were used; ensuring the learners felt secure by using strategies that fostered emotional security through creating positive experiences; promotion of positive beliefs about the learners' self; creation of positive relationships with the learners, so that they may experience positive regard; understanding of expectations; and vicarious learning through modelling desired behaviour (Hart, 2010). In addition, BMS that were aimed at the individual, the class, school and wider societal level were perceived to be more effective.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

This research study indicated that there were a number of implications for teaching and the use of BMS in the classroom. The following are some recommendations that are aimed at the school where the research was conducted, but can also be applied to other all-boys' primary school settings:

Pre-service training should include a module on effective BMS whereby pre-service educators learn about the underlying theories of behaviour management, as well as current practices. In addition, educators should be taught how to implement various BMS that can be adapted to the individual learner. This module should be practical in nature, so students can practise their skills before entering the workplace. In doing so, beginner educators may have more knowledge and confidence in their abilities to make use of various BMS.

Beginner educators need a large amount of support in their first year of teaching. Support could come in the form of regular grade and phase meetings, whereby the beginner educators can discuss BMS with more experienced educators. Furthermore, the beginner educator should be provided with support and guidance from the school regarding the school's code of conduct and how it correlates with expected behaviour.

Debriefing at regular intervals should take place as a form of support. Debriefing can occur in weekly grade meetings or monthly phase meetings. During these meetings, a safe space should be provided for educators to discuss and share their thoughts and experiences with regards to disruptive behaviour and BMS. Although educators may feel the need for more debriefing initially, as they receive more support and become more confident in their implementation of BMS, this could decrease.

There should be regular collaboration with other schools and educators from various districts to develop, create and share ideas on effective BMS that include more positive behaviour management underpinnings and focus less on punitive measures. Educators can learn from each other, as well as pass on knowledge to the WCED who in

turn can develop workshops that train beginner educators. Through collaboration, BMS that are aimed at a diverse population can be explored and implemented.

It can be beneficial for educators to attend workshops that develop an understanding of the goodness-of-fit model and how they as educators can impact learners. Workshops that are aimed at developing a positive relationship with learners are essential for creating a supportive, positive classroom environment. Such an environment can result in an overall improvement in wellbeing in educators and learners.

5.4 STRENGTHS OF THE RESEARCH

Due to the nature of the study, the researcher was able to gather in-depth descriptions of the participants' experiences of disruptive behaviour and their management style. In addition, through the use of multiple methods of gathering data, the richness of the data and trustworthiness of the study were increased. As the researcher was an educator at the school, she had already developed a rapport with the participants, which may have made it easier for the participants to feel more comfortable in the interviewing process.

As much of the research on BMS has focused on adolescents or secondary school, this study hopes to add to the existing knowledge with a focus on learners in the FP. While the findings of this study have been supported by other studies as mentioned in the previous chapter, the researcher further hopes to provide knowledge on effective BMS that are aimed specifically at boys.

Finally, it would appear that this study gave a voice to the educators in the study, as several of the participants remarked on the helpfulness of being able to discuss disruptive behaviour, the consequences of disruptive behaviour and the BMS used. The opportunity to take part in such discussions also allowed the educators the space to reflect on their teaching, their practices and the effectiveness of their current BMS. Through reflectivity, it has been noted that educators gain a better understanding of the learners' needs and explore what has and has not been effective (Sellars, 2014).

5.5 POSSIBLE LIMITATIONS

There are a number of methodological limitations that require consideration when interpreting the findings of this study due to the nature of the research. As the scope of the study had to be focused, the researcher was limited to working with a single all boys' primary school with a small sample of educators. As such, sampling bias must be taken

into consideration. In particular, a small number of educators volunteered to participate in the interviews, which was not representative of South African educators and limits any generalisation of the findings. It is also possible that the more confident educators or those who had a better rapport with the researcher may have volunteered. Moreover, the BMS referred to in the study only reflects those of the educators who volunteered to participate. It is possible that the BMS used by other educators may have differed.

Due to the limited scope of the thesis, the researcher used data collection methods that were aimed at gaining insight into the educators' perceptions of disruptive behaviour and their management. As mentioned throughout this report, the use of a systems approach is vital to the development of effective BMS. Thus, gaining information from parents, other school personnel and the learners may have enhanced the research findings. In doing so, one would be able to explore the perceptions of disruptive behaviour and consequently the BMS of various levels within the system.

Finally, the researcher hoped to gain in-depth information from the participants and therefore made use of semi-structured interviews. Accordingly, the data gathered is based on the educators' perceptions. Observations of the educators in their classrooms could possibly have provided further insight into the BMS referred to in the interviews, as well as given the researcher more information as to the actual BMS implemented.

5.6 FURTHER RESEARCH POSSIBILITIES

Considering that effective BMS can have positive implications for all levels of the school system, it is important to explore and research the gaps in existing literature that became evident through the findings of this research study. Future research possibilities include:

Exploration of positive BMS that educators use in primary schools that are considerably less "affluent" than the school in the current study. Such a study could offer more information on BMS used in schools that are more representative of the South African education system.

A comparative study of learners', educators' and parents' experiences with BMS could offer further insight into the effectiveness of various BMS, as well as the effect that BMS have on the interrelated relationships among the systems.

Further research is needed to determine effective coping strategies for managing the stress of teaching. Although much research has focused on ways educators cope with

stress, gaining insight into effective coping strategies could be beneficial for the development of stress management courses or workshops aimed at educators.

The relationship between the educator and the learner has been identified as a crucial part of a learner's development, particularly in the FP. Further exploration into the educators' positive relationship with learners and ways of fostering such a relationship, especially with male learners, may also aid in the development of positive classroom environments.

The use of physical movement was indicated as part of effective BMS in the study; however, little research was found to substantiate the use of movement, such as dance, in the FP. Exploring the effectiveness of movement as part of giving learners a break from work may inform teaching practices.

It would be interesting to do a comparative study between schools with alternate education philosophies (such as Waldorf) and a traditional school, and the BMS employed in such environments.

Although much research has explored the relationship between educators and learners, research that explores male discipline styles compared to female discipline styles and BMS in higher grades within the South African context could provide useful information as to how learners respond to gender differences in educators.

5.7 CONCLUSION

The final chapter of this study reflected on the findings of the study, as well as reported on the study's strengths and limitations. Recommendations for future research were also provided.

This research study provided the researcher with the opportunity to explore disruptive behaviour as perceived by other educators, as well as gain insight into what other educators perceive to be effective BMS. As such, the researcher reflected on her own perceptions and BMS, as well as the importance of the relationship between the educator and her learners. This reminded the researcher that providing learners with a safe, positive environment is pivotal to learning and effective BMS provide the educator with the tools to create such a space. As is often quoted, prevention is always better than a cure. Therefore, preventing disruptive behaviour through the development of self-discipline and positive emotions is critical.

REFERENCES

- Ainsworth, M., & Bowlby, J. (1991). An etiological approach to personality development. *American Psychologist*, 4(46), 331–341.
- Algozzine, B., Wang, C., & Violette, A. (2011). Reexamining the relationship between academic achievement and social behavior. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, 13(1), 3–16. doi.org/10.1177/1098300709359084
- Almog, O., & Shechtman, Z. (2007). Teachers' democratic and efficacy beliefs and styles of coping with behavioural problems of pupils with special needs. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 22(2), 115–129. doi.org/10.1080/08856250701267774
- Alter, P., Walker, J., & Landers, E. (2013). Teachers' perceptions of students' challenging behavior and the impact of teacher demographics. *Education and Treatment of Children*, 36(4), 51–69.
- Arbuckle, C., & Little, E. (2004). Teacher's perceptions and management of disruptive classroom behaviour during the middle years (years five to nine). *Australian Journal of Educational and Developmental Psychology*, 4, 59–70.
- Atherley, C. (1990). The implementation of a positive behaviour management programme in a primary classroom: A case study. *School Organization*, 10(2 - 3), 213 – 228.
- Atici, M. (2007). A small - scale study on student teachers' perceptions of classroom management and methods for dealing with misbehaviour. *Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties*, 12(1), 15–27. doi.org/10.1080/13632750601135881
- Austin, V., Shah, S., & Muncer, S. (2005). Teacher stress and coping strategies used to reduce stress. *Occupational Therapy International*, 12(2), 63–80.
- Axup, T., & Gersch, I. (2008). The impact of challenging student behaviour upon teachers' lives in a secondary school: Teachers' perceptions. *British Journal of Special Education*, 35(3), 144–151.
- Babbie, E. (2007). *The practice of social research* (11th ed.). Belmont, CA.: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2001). *The practice of social research*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Bear, G. (2010). *School discipline and self-discipline: A practical guide to promoting prosocial student behavior*. Guilford Press. Retrieved from

<http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=psyh&AN=2010-16744-000&lang=ja&site=ehost-live>

- Bear, G. (2011). Positive psychology and school discipline: Positive is not simply the opposite of punitive. *Communique*, 39(5), 8–10.
- Bergin, C. C., & Bergin, D. A. (2012). *Child and adolescent development in your classroom*. Belmont, CA.: Cengage Learning.
- Biddulph, S. (1998). *Raising boys: Why boys are different and how to help them become happy and well-balanced*. London: Thorsons.
- Boghossian, P. (2006). Behaviorism, constructivism, and Socratic pedagogy. *Educational Philosophy*, 38(6), 713–722. doi.org/10.1177/1469787408100194
- Botma, Y., Greeff, M., Mulaudzi, F. M., & Wright, S. C. D. (2010). *Research in Health Sciences*. Cape Town: Pearson Education South Africa.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77–101. doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa
- Brophy, J. (1996). *Teaching problem students*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.
- Bucalos, A. B., & Lingo, A. S. (2005). What kind of “managers” do adolescents really need? Helping middle and secondary teachers manage classrooms effectively. *Beyond Behavior*, 14(2), 9–14.
- Buckler, S., & Castle, P. (2014). *Psychology for teachers*. Los Angeles, CA.
- Burden, R. (1981). Systems theory and its relevance to schools. In B. Gillam (Ed.), *Problem behaviour in the secondary school: A systems approach* (pp. 28–36). London: Croom Helm Ltd.
- Cancio, E. J., & Conderman, G. (2008). Promoting longevity: Strategies for teachers of students with emotional and behavioral disorders. *Beyond Behavior, Spring*, 30–36.
- Canter, L. (2010). *Assertive discipline: Positive behavior management for today’s classroom*. Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree Press. Retrieved from https://books.google.co.za/books?id=L3gXBwAAQBAJ&printsec=frontcover&dq=positive+behavior+management&hl=en&sa=X&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q&f=false
- Carpenter, S. L., & McKee-Higgins, E. (1996). Behavior management in inclusive classrooms. *Remedial and Special Education*, 17, 195–203.
- Carr, A. (2005). *The Handbook of child and adolescent clinical psychology* (2nd ed.).

London: Routledge. doi.org/10.4324/9780203718339

- Carton, A., & Fruchart, E. (2014). Sources of stress , coping strategies , emotional experience: Effects of the level of experience in primary school teachers in France. *Educational Review*, 66(2), 245–262. doi.org/10.1080/00131911.2013.769937
- Chan, D. W. (2002). Stress, self-efficacy, social support, and psychological distress among prospective Chinese teachers in Hong Kong. *Educational Psychology*, 22(5), 557–569. doi.org/10.1080/0144341022000023635
- Chang, M. (2012). Toward a theoretical model to understand teacher emotions and teacher burnout in the context of student misbehaviour: appraisal, regulation and coping. *Motivation & Emotion*, 37, 799–817. doi.org/10.1007/s11031-012-9335-0
- Chitiyo, M., Chitiyo, G., Chitiyo, J., Makoni, R., Fonnah, D., & Chipangure, L. (2014). Understanding the causes and management of problem behaviour in Zimbabwean schools : teacher perceptions. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 1–16. doi.org/10.1080/13603116.2013.875068
- Chitiyo, M., & Wheeler, J. J. (2009). Challenges faced by school teachers in implementing positive behavior support in their school systems, 30(1), 58–63.
- Churchill, S. L. (2003). Goodness-of-fit in early childhood settings. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 31(2), 113-118.
- Clunies-Ross, P., Little, E., & Kienhuis, M. (2008). Self-reported and actual use of proactive and reactive classroom management strategies and their relationship with teacher stress and student behaviour. *Educational Psychology*, 28(6), 693–710. doi.org/10.1080/01443410802206700
- Colle, L., & Del Giudice, M. (2011). Patterns of attachment and emotional competence in middle childhood. *Social Development*, 20(1), 51–72. doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9507.2010.00576.x
- Collins, W. A. (Ed.). (1984). *Development during middle childhood: The years from six to twelve*. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press. Retrieved from https://books.google.co.za/books?id=fDArAAAAYAAJ&printsec=frontcover&dq=Development+during+middle+childhood&hl=en&sa=X&ei=_EKIVarSB4WdsAGc9luwBA&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q&f=false
- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five*

traditions. SAGE Publications (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA.

Dad, H., Ali, R., Janjua, M. Z. Q. J., Shahzad, S., & Khan, M. S. (2010). Comparison of the frequency and effectiveness of positive and negative reinforcement practices in schools. *Contemporary Issues in Education Research*, 3(1), 127–136.

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.). (2005). *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research*. SAGE Publications (3rd ed.).

Department of Education (1995). *White paper on education and training in a democratic South Africa: First steps to develop a new system*. Retrieved from <http://www.education.gov.za/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=855fT9w3A2U%3D&tabid=191&mid=484>

Department of Education (2008a). *Education for all (EFA) country report: South Africa*. Retrieved from <http://www.education.gov.za/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=rJwNOU9f82I%3D&tabid=452&mid=1034>

Department of Education (2008b). *Meeting the challenge of early childhood development in South Africa (White paper)*. Retrieved from <http://www.education.gov.za/Portals/0/Documents/Legislation/White%20paper/EDUCATION%20WHITE%20PAPER%205.pdf?ver=2008-03-05-104653-000>

Ding, M., Li, Y., Li, X., & Kulm, G. (2010). Chinese teachers' attributions and coping strategies for student classroom misbehavior. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 3(30), 321–337.

Donald, D., Lazarus, S., & Lolwana, P. (2010). *Educational psychology in social context: Ecosystemic applications in southern Africa* (4th ed.). Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Donovan, J. E., Jessor, R., & Costa, F. M. (1991). Adolescent health behavior and coventionality-unconventionality: An extension of problem-behavior therapy. *Health Psychology*, 1(10), 52.

Esturgó-Deu, M. E., & Sala-Roca, J. (2010). Disruptive behaviour of students in primary education and emotional intelligence. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26(4), 830–837. doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2009.10.020

Evertson, C. M., & Weinstein, C. S. (2011). Classroom management as a field of inquiry.

In C. . Evertson & C. . Weinstein (Eds.), *Handbook of classroom management: Research, practice, and contemporary issues* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Retrieved from

<https://books.google.com.ng/books?id=HSbfAQAAQBAJ&printsec=frontcover&dq=Handbook+of+Classroom+Management&hl=en&sa=X&ei=mNdzU67YOZCI7Aagn4CwDQ#v=onepage&q&f=false>

Feuerborn, L., & Chinn, D. (2012). Teacher perceptions of student needs and implications for positive behavior supports. *Behavioral Disorders*, 37(4), 219–231. Retrieved from <http://ezproxy.umsl.edu/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eric&AN=EJ989497&site=ehost-live&scope=site\nhttp://www.ccbd.net/?q=node/9#overlay-context=node/2?q=node/2>

Fleming, J. S. (2008). Piaget, Kohlberg, Gilligan, and others on moral development. In *Psychological Perspectives on Human Development* (pp. 1–25). Retrieved from <http://swppr.org/Textbook/Contents.html>

Fouché, C. B., & de Vos, A. S. (2011). Formal formulations. In A. S. de Vos, H. Strydom, C. B. Fouché, & C. S. L. Delpont (Eds.), *Research at grass roots: for the social sciences and human service professions* (4th ed., pp. 89–100). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Fouché, C. B., & Schurink, W. (2011). Qualitative research designs. In A. S. de Vos, H. Strydom, C. B. Fouché, & C. S. L. Delpont (Eds.), *Research at grass roots: For the social sciences and human service professions* (4th ed., pp. 307–327). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Francis, B. (2000). *Boys, girls and achievement*. New York, NY: RoutledgeFalmer.

Gordon, A. M., & Browne, K. W. (2004). *Beginnings and beyond: Foundations in Early Childhood education* (6th ed.). Australia: Delmar Learning.

Gotzens, C., Badia, M., Genovard, C., & Dezcallar, T. (2010). A comparative study of the seriousness attributed to disruptive classroom behaviors. *Electronic Journal of Research in Educational Psychology*, 8(1), 33–58.

Greeff, M. (2011). Information collection: interviewing. In A. S. de Vos, H. Strydom, C. B. Fouché, & L. Delpont (Eds.), *Research at grass roots: for the social sciences and human service professions* (4th ed., pp. 341–374). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Green, L. (2001a). Promoting development during middle childhood. In P. Engelbrecht &

- L. Green (Eds.), *Promoting learner development: Preventing and working with barriers to learning* (pp. 78–100). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Green, L. (2001b). Theoretical and contextual background. In E. Engelbrecht & L. Green (Eds.), *Promoting learner development: Preventing and working with barriers to learning* (pp. 3–16). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Griffith, J., Steptoe, A., & Cropley, M. (1999). An investigation of coping strategies associated with job stress in teachers. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, *69*, 517–531.
- Grossman, H. (2004). *Classroom behavior management for diverse and inclusive schools* (3rd ed.). Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc.
- Grossman, H. (2005). The case for individualizing behavior management approaches in inclusive classrooms. *Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties*, *10*(1), 17–32.
doi.org/10.1177/1363275205050882
- Hagekull, B., & Hammarberg, A. (2004). The role of teachers' perceived control and children's characteristics in interactions between 6-year-olds and their teachers. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology*, *45*, 301–312.
- Hakanen, J. J., Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2006). Burnout and work engagement among teachers. *Journal of School Psychology*, *43*, 495–513.
doi.org/10.1016/j.jsp.2005.11.001
- Harrop, A., & Swinson, J. (2011). Comparison of teacher talk directed to boys and girls and its relationship to their behaviour in secondary and primary schools. *Educational Studies*, *37*(1), 115–125. doi.org/10.1080/03055691003729260
- Hart, R. (2010). Classroom behaviour management: Educational psychologists' views on effective practice. *Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties*, *15*(4), 353–371.
doi.org/10.1080/13632752.2010.523257
- Hastings, R. P., & Bham, M. S. (2003). The relationship between student behaviour patterns and teacher burnout. *School Psychology International*, *24*(1), 115–127.
doi.org/10.1177/0143034303024001905
- Hayes, B., Hindle, S., & Withington, P. (2007). Strategies for developing positive behaviour management. Teacher behaviour outcomes and attitudes to the change process. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, *23*(2), 161–175.

doi.org/10.1080/02667360701320861

- Henning, E., van Rensburg, W., & Smit, B. (2004). *Finding your way in qualitative research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Henricsson, L., & Rydell, A. (2004). Elementary school children with behavior problems: Teacher-child relations and self perception. A prospective study. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 50(2), 111–138.
- Holliday, C. O. (2005). The human connection. *The Clearing House*, 79(1), 21–24.
Retrieved from
<http://web.b.ebscohost.com.ez.sun.ac.za/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=13fb2a2f-d96d-437a-9408-abb8f406f939@sessionmgr107&vid=1&hid=123>
- Hughes, J. N., Cavell, T. A., & Willson, V. (2001). Further support for the developmental significance of the quality of the teacher–student relationship. *Journal of School Psychology*, 39(4), 289–301.
- Ingersoll, R., & Smith, T. (2003). The wrong solution to the teacher shortage. *Educational Leadership*, 60(8), 30–33.
- Irby, D., & Clough, C. (2015). Consistency rules: a critical exploration of a universal principle of school discipline. *Pedagogy, Culture & Society*, 23(2), 153–173.
doi.org/10.1080/14681366.2014.932300
- Jackson, C., & Bisset, M. (2005). Gender and school choice: Factors influencing parents when choosing single-sex or co-educational independent schools for their children. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 35(2), 195–211.
doi.org/10.1080/03057640500146856
- Jacobs, L., & de Wet, N. C. (2009). The effect of learner misbehaviour on educators in Lesotho. *Africa Education Review*, 1(6), 55–79. doi.org/10.1080/18146620902857293
- Jacobsen, K. (2013). *Educators' experiences with disruptive behavior in the classroom*. St. Catherine University. Retrieved from
http://sophia.stkate.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1201&context=msw_papers
- Jennings, P. A., & Greenberg, M. T. (2009). The prosocial classroom: Teacher social and emotional competence in relation to student and classroom outcomes. *Review of Educational Research*, 79(1), 491–525. doi.org/10.3102/0034654308325693
- Kokkinos, C. M. (2007). Job stressors, personality and burnout in primary school teachers.

British Journal of Educational Psychology, 77, 229–243.

doi.org/10.1348/000709905X90344

Kristjánsson, K. (2012). Positive psychology and positive education: Old wine in new bottles? *Educational Psychologist*, 47(2), 86–105.

doi.org/10.1080/00461520.2011.610678

Landrum, T. J., & Kauffman, J. M. (2011). Behavioral approaches to classroom management. In C. M. Evertson & C. S. Weinstein (Eds.), *Handbook of classroom management: Research, practice and contemporary issues*. New York, NY: Routledge. Retrieved from

Routledge. Retrieved from

<https://books.google.com.ng/books?id=HSbfAQAAQBAJ&printsec=frontcover&dq=Handbook+of+Classroom+Management&hl=en&sa=X&ei=mNdzU67YOZCI7Aagn4CwDQ#v=snippet&q=positive+reinforcement&f=false>

Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. New York, NY: Springer Publishing Company, Inc. Retrieved from

[https://books.google.co.za/books?id=i-](https://books.google.co.za/books?id=i-ySQQUupr8C&printsec=frontcover&dq=lazarus+and+folkman&hl=en&sa=X&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q&f=false)

[ySQQUupr8C&printsec=frontcover&dq=lazarus+and+folkman&hl=en&sa=X&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q&f=false](https://books.google.co.za/books?id=i-ySQQUupr8C&printsec=frontcover&dq=lazarus+and+folkman&hl=en&sa=X&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q&f=false)

Lengel, T., & Kuczala, M. (2010). *The kinesthetic classroom: Teaching and learning through movement*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc. Retrieved from

https://books.google.co.za/books?id=DBqRZTUhTeAC&printsec=frontcover&dq=importance+of+movement+in+the+classroom&hl=en&sa=X&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q&f=false

Lerner, J. V. (1984). The import of temperament for psychosocial functioning: Tests of a goodness of fit model. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 30(2), 177–188. Retrieved from

<http://www.jstor.org/stable/23086232>

Leung, C., & Lam, S. (2003). The effects of regulatory focus on teachers' classroom management strategies and emotional consequences. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 28, 114–125.

Lewis, R., Roache, J., & Romi, S. (2009). Coping styles as mediators of teachers' classroom management techniques. *Research in Education*, 85, 53–69.

Louw, D. A. (1997). Developmental psychology. In D. A. Louw & D. J. A. Edwards (Eds.), *Psychology: An introduction for students in southern Africa* (2nd ed., pp. 479–543).

Johannesburg: Heinemann.

Louw, D. A., van Ede, D. M., & Ferns, I. (1998). Middle Childhood. In D. A. Louw, D. M. van Ede, & A. E. Louw (Eds.), *Human Development* (2nd ed., pp. 321–379). Pretoria: Kagiso Tertiary.

Marais, H., & Mouton, J. (1998). *Basic concepts in the methodology of the social science*. Pretoria: HCRC Publishers.

Marais, P., & Meier, C. (2010). Disruptive behaviour in the Foundation Phase of schooling. *South African Journal of Education*, 30(1), 41–57.

Martin, A. J., Linfoot, K., & Stephenson, J. (1999). How teachers respond to concerns about misbehavior in their classroom. *Psychology in the Schools*, 36(4), 347–358. doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1520-6807(199907)36:4%3C347::AID-PITS7%3E3.3.CO;2-7

McIntosh, K., Flannery, B., Sugai, G., Braun, D. H., & Cochrane, K. L. (2008). Relationships between academics and problem behavior in the transition from middle school to high school. *Journal of Positive Behavior Interventions*, 10(4), 243–255. doi.org/10.1177/1098300708318961

McKinney, S. E., Campbell-Whately, G. D., & Kea, C. D. (2005). Managing student behavior in urban classrooms: The role of teacher ABC assessments. *The Clearing House*, 79(1), 16–21. Retrieved from <http://web.b.ebscohost.com.ez.sun.ac.za/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=13fb2a2f-d96d-437a-9408-abb8f406f939@sessionmgr107&vid=1&hid=123>

Merrett, F., & Wheldall, K. (1990). *Effective classroom management: Positive teaching in the primary school*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing.

Merriam, S. (2009). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Michail, S. (2011). Understanding school responses to students' challenging behaviour: A review of literature. *Improving Schools*, 14(2), 156–171. doi.org/10.1177/1365480211407764

Miller, G., & Fox, K. . (2004). The possibility of analytic dialogue between ethnography, conversation analysis and Foucault. In D. Silverman (Ed.), *Qualitative research: Theory, method and practice* (2nd ed., pp. 35–55). London: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Moberly, D. A., Waddle, J. L., & Duff, R. E. (2005). The use of rewards and punishment in

early childhood classrooms. *Journal of Early Childhood Teacher Education*, 25(4), 359–366. doi.org/10.1080/1090102050250410

Monroe, C. R. (2005). The cultural context of “disruptive behaviour”: an overview of research considerations for school educators. *Improving Schools*, 8(2), 153–159. doi.org/10.1177/1365480205057704

Mukherji, P. (2001). *Understanding children’s challenging behaviour*. Cheltenham: Nelson Thornes Ltd.

Naong, M. (2007). The impact of corporal punishment on teacher morale: 1994-2004. *South African Journal of Education*, (27), 283–300.

Neaum, S. (2010). *Child development for Early Childhood studies*. London: Learning Matters Ltd. Retrieved from <https://books.google.co.za/books?isbn=1844457362>

Nieuwenhuis, J. (2007a). Analysing qualitative data. In K. Maree (Ed.), *First steps in research* (pp. 98–122). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Nieuwenhuis, J. (2007b). Introducing qualitative research. In K. Maree (Ed.), *First steps in research* (pp. 46–68). Pretoria.

Nieuwenhuis, J. (2007c). Qualitative research designs and data gathering techniques. In K. Maree (Ed.), *First steps in research* (pp. 69–97). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

O’Brien, T. (1998). *Promoting Positive Behaviour*. London: David Fulton Publishers.

O’Connor, E. E., Collins, B. a., & Supplee, L. (2012). Behavior problems in late childhood: the roles of early maternal attachment and teacher–child relationship trajectories. *Attachment & Human Development*, 14(3), 265–288. doi.org/10.1080/14616734.2012.672280

O’Reagan, F. J. (2006). *Can’t learn, won’t learn, don’t care: Troubleshooting challenging behaviour*. London: Continuum International Publishing Group.

Obenchain, K. M., & Taylor, S. S. (2005). Behavior management: Making it work in middle and secondary schools. *The Clearing House*, 79(1), 7–12. Retrieved from <http://web.b.ebscohost.com.ez.sun.ac.za/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=13fb2a2f-d96d-437a-9408-abb8f406f939@sessionmgr107&vid=1&hid=123>

Olive, E. (2010). Behavior management and behavior change: How can we tell them apart? *Reclaiming Children & Youth*, 19(1), 3–7.

Olsen, J., & Cooper, P. (2001). *Dealing with disruptive students in the classroom*. London:

Kogan Page Ltd.

- Osher, D., Bear, G., Sprague, J. R., & Doyle, W. (2010). How can we improve school discipline? *Educational Researcher*, 39(1), 48–58.
<http://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X09357618>
- Osler, A. (2000). Children's rights, responsibilities and understandings of school discipline. *Research Papers in Education*, 15(1), 49–67. doi.org/10.1080/026715200362943
- Osler, A., & Vincent, K. (2003). *Girls and exclusion: Rethinking the agenda*. London: RoutledgeFalmer.
- Pas, E. T., & Bradshaw, C. P. (2014). What affects teacher ratings of student behaviors? The potential influence of teachers' perceptions of the school environment and experiences. *Prevention Science*, 15, 940–950. doi.org/10.1007/s11121-013-0432-4
- Paterson, C., & Perold, M. (2013). Classroom behaviour of children living in contexts of adversity. *Child Abuse Research: A South African Journal*, 14(1), 1–13.
- Peterson, C. (2009). Positive psychology. *Reclaiming Children & Youth*, 18(2), 3–7.
Retrieved from
<http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=aph&AN=43800696&site=ehost-live>
- Pianta, R. C., & Nimetz, S. L. (1991). Relationships between children and teachers: Associations with classroom and home behavior. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 12, 379–393.
- Poulou, M. (2005). Perceptions of students with emotional and behavioural difficulties. *Emotional and Behavioural Difficulties*, 10(2), 137–160.
doi.org/10.1177/1363275205054164
- Poulou, M. (2014). The effects on students' emotional and behavioural difficulties of teacher–student interactions, students' social skills and classroom context. *British Educational Research Journal*, 40(6), 986–1004. doi.org/10.1002/berj.3131
- Prinsloo, E. (2005). Addressing challenging behaviour in the classroom. In E. Landsberg (Ed.), *Addressing barriers to learning: A South African perspective* (pp. 449–468). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Raskauskas, J. L., Gregory, J., Harvey, S. T., Rifshana, F., & Evans, I. M. (2010). Bullying among primary school children in New Zealand: Relationships with prosocial

behaviour and classroom climate. *Educational Research*, 52(1), 1–13.

doi.org/10.1080/00131881003588097

Rayment, T. (2006). *Managing boys' behaviour*. London: Continuum International Publishing Group.

Reinke, W. M., Herman, K. C., & Sprick, R. (2011). *Motivational interviewing for effective classroom management: The classroom check-up*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Retrieved from

https://books.google.co.za/books?id=9fXnPMAsdisC&pg=PA7&dq=ineffective+classroom+behavior+management&hl=en&sa=X&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q=shouting&f=false

Reynolds, K., Stephenson, J., & Beaman, R. (2011). Teacher perceptions of non-compliance in rural primary schools in New South Wales. *Education in Rural Australia*.

Retrieved from

<http://search.informit.com.au/documentSummary;dn=775946750034706;res=IELHSS>

Richards, J. (2012). Teacher stress and coping strategies: A national snapshot. *The Education Forum*, 76(3), 299–316. doi.org/10.1080/00131725.2012.682837

Rieg, S. A., Paquette, K. R., & Chen, Y. (2005). Coping with stress: An investigation of novice teachers' stressors in the elementary classroom. *Education*, 128(2), 211–227.

Roffey, S. (2006). *Helping with behaviour: Establishing the positive and addressing the difficult in the early years*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Rose, L. L., & Gallup, A. M. (2007). The 39th annual Phi Delta Kappa/Gallup poll of the public's attitudes toward the public schools. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 89(1), 33–46.

Retrieved from

<http://web.b.ebscohost.com.ez.sun.ac.za/ehost/pdfviewer/pdfviewer?sid=43d342b2-c38c-430c-96d2-c710a77bb23d@sessionmgr104&vid=1&hid=123>

Rudasill, K. M., Rimm-Kaufman, S. E., Justice, L. M., & Pence, K. (2006). Temperament and language skills as predictors of teacher-child relationship quality in preschool.

Early Education and Development, 17(2), 271–291.

doi.org/10.1207/s15566935eed1702

Sabol, T. J., & Pianta, R. C. (2012). Recent trends in research on teacher – child relationships. *Attachment & Human Development*, 14(3), 213–231.

doi.org/10.1080/14616734.2012.672262

- Salkovsky, M., Romi, S., & Lewis, R. (2015). Teachers' coping styles and factors inhibiting teachers' preferred classroom management practice. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 48*, 56–65. doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2015.01.016
- Sarros, J. C., & Sarros, A. M. (1992). Social support and teacher burnout. *Journal of Educational Administration, 30*(1), 1-11.
- Sass, D. A., Seal, A. K., & Martin, N. K. (2011). Predicting teacher retention using stress and support variables. *Journal of Educational Administration, 49*(2), 200–215. doi.org/10.1108/09578231111116734
- Savage, T. V., & Savage, M. K. (2010). *Successful classroom management and discipline: Teaching self-control and responsibility*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Schulze, S., & Steyn, T. (2007). Stressors in the professional lives of South African secondary school educators. *South African Journal of Education, 27*(1998), 691–707.
- Seabi, J. (2010). Foundation Phase educators' perceptions of Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder at a mainstream primary school. *South African Journal of Higher Education, 24*(4), 616–629. Retrieved from <http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/detail?accno=EJ937534>
- Segalo, L. (2013). Exploring sarcasm as a replacement for corporal punishment in public schools in South Africa. *Interdisciplinary Journal, 12*(4), 55–66.
- Seligman, M., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2000). Positive psychology - An introduction. *American Psychologist, 55*(1), 5–14. doi.org/10.1037//0003-066x.55.1.5
- Seligman, M. E. P., Ernst, R. M., Gillham, J., Reivich, K., & Linkins, M. (2009). Positive education: positive psychology and classroom interventions. *Oxford Review of Education, 35*(3), 293–311. doi.org/10.1080/03054980902934563
- Sellars, M. (2014). *Reflective practice for teachers*. London: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Shelton, F., & Brownhill, S. (2008). *Effective behaviour management in the primary classroom*. Berkshire: Open University Press.
- Shen, Y. E. (2009). Relationships between self-efficacy, social support and stress coping strategies in Chinese primary and secondary school teachers, *138*(32), 129–138. doi.org/10.1002/smi.1229
- Shenton, A. K. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects. *Education for Information, 22*, 63–75. doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-

618X.2000.tb00391.x

- Shonkoff, J. P. (1984). The biological substrate and physical health in middle childhood. In W. A. Collins (Ed.), *Development during middle childhood* (pp. 24–69). Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press.
- Shook, A. C. (2012). A study of preservice educators' dispositions to change behavior management strategies. *Preventing School Failure, 56*(2), 129–136.
doi.org/10.1080/1045988X.2011.606440
- Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2015). Job satisfaction, stress and coping strategies in the teaching profession — What do teachers say? *International Education Studies, 8*(3), 181–192. doi.org/10.5539/ies.v8n3p181
- Spilt, J., Koomen, H., & Jak, S. (2012). Are boys better off with male and girls with female teachers? A multilevel investigation of measurement invariance and gender match in teacher-student relationship quality. *Journal of School Psychology, 50*, 363–378.
doi.org/10.1016/j.jsp.2011.12.002
- Spilt, J., Hughes, J. N., Wu, J., & Kwok, O. (2012). Dynamics of teacher-student relationships: Stability and change across elementary school and the influence on children's academic success. *Child Development, 83*(4), 1180–1195.
doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.2012.01761.x
- Spivak, A. L., & Farran, D. C. (2012). First-grade teacher behaviors and children's prosocial actions in classrooms. *Early Education and Development, 23*(5), 623–639.
doi.org/10.1080/10409289.2011.566164
- Stephenson, J., Linfoot, K., & Martin, A. (2000). Behaviours of concern to teachers in the early years of school. *International Journal of Disability, Development and Education, 47*(3), 225–235.
- Strydom, H. (2011). Sampling in the qualitative paradigm. In A. S. De Vos, H. Strydom, C. B. Fouché, & C. S. L. Delport (Eds.), *Research at grass roots: For the social sciences and human service professions* (4th ed., pp. 222–235). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Sutton, R. E., & Wheatley, K. F. (2003). Teachers' emotions and teaching: A review of the literature and directions for future research. *Educational Psychology Review, 15*(4), 327–358. doi.org/1040-726X/03/1200-0327/0
- Tartwijk, J., den Brok, P., Veldman, I., & Wubbels, T. (2009). Teachers' practical

knowledge about classroom management in multicultural classrooms. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25, 453–460. doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2008.09.005

Taylor, B., & Francis, K. (2013). *Qualitative research in the health sciences: Methodologies, methods and processes*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Terre Blanche, M., Durrheim, K., & Painter, D. (2006). *Research in practice: Applied methods for the social sciences*. Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press.

Tidwell, A., Flannery, K. B., & Lewis-Palmer, T. (2003). A description of elementary classroom discipline referral patterns. *Preventing School Failure*, 48(1), 18–26.

Tsouloupas, C. N., Carson, R. L., Matthews, R., Grawitch, M. J., & Barber, L. K. (2010). Exploring the association between teachers' perceived student misbehaviour and emotional exhaustion: The importance of teacher efficacy beliefs and emotion regulation. *Educational Psychologist*, 30(2), 173–189. doi.org/10.1080/01443410903494460

Tulloch, S. (Ed.). (1996). *Reader's Digest Oxford Complete Wordfinder: A unique and powerful combination of dictionary and thesaurus*. London: The Reader's Digest Association.

Weiss, E. M. (1999). Perceived workplace conditions and first-year teachers' morale, career choice commitment, and planned retention: A secondary analysis. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 15, 861–879.

Wolfgang, C. . (2001). *Solving discipline and classroom management problems: Methods and models for today's teachers* (5th ed.). New York, NY: John Wiley.

Woolfolk Hoy, A., & Weinstein, C. S. (2011). Student and teacher perspectives on classroom management. In C. M. Evertson & C. S. Weinstein (Eds.), *Handbook of classroom management: Research, practice and contemporary issues* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge. Retrieved from <https://books.google.com.ng/books?id=HSbfAQAAQBAJ&printsec=frontcover&dq=Handbook+of+Classroom+Management&hl=en&sa=X&ei=mNdzU67YOZCI7Aagn4CwDQ#v=onepage&q&f=false>

ADDENDUM A: Letter of ethical clearance by the Research Ethics Committee



UNIVERSITEIT • STELLENBOSCH • UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvenoot • your knowledge partner

Approval Notice New Application

24-Mar-2015
Kingwill, Claire C

Proposal #: DESC/Kingwill/Mar2015/5

Title: Exploring Foundation phase educators' behaviour management strategies for disruptive behaviour in a boys' school

Dear Ms Claire Kingwill,

Your New Application received on 05-Mar-2015, was reviewed
Please note the following information about your approved research proposal:

Proposal Approval Period: 19-Mar-2015 -18-Mar-2016

Please take note of the general Investigator Responsibilities attached to this letter. You may commence with your research after complying fully with these guidelines.

Please remember to use your proposal number (DESC/Kingwill/Mar2015/5) on any documents or correspondence with the REC concerning your research proposal.

Please note that the REC has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

Also note that a progress report should be submitted to the Committee before the approval period has expired if a continuation is required. The Committee will then consider the continuation of the project for a further year (if necessary).

This committee abides by the ethical norms and principles for research, established by the Declaration of Helsinki and the Guidelines for Ethical Research: Principles Structures and Processes 2004 (Department of Health). Annually a number of projects may be selected randomly for an external audit.

National Health Research Ethics Committee (NHREC) registration number REC-050411-032.

We wish you the best as you conduct your research.

If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the REC office at 218089183.

Included Documents:

DESC Checklist form
Research Proposal
Informed consent form
REC Application form
DESC Report

Sincerely,

Clarissa Graham
REC Coordinator
Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humanities)

ADDENDUM B: WCED Research Approval Letter



Directorate: Research

Audrey.wyngaard@westerncape.gov.za

tel: +27 021 467 9272

Fax: 0865902282

Private Bag x9114, Cape Town, 8000

wced.wcape.gov.za

REFERENCE: 20150211-43285

ENQUIRIES: Dr A T Wyngaard

Ms Claire Kingwill
9 Winsor Road
Somerset West
7130

Dear Ms Claire Kingwill

RESEARCH PROPOSAL: EXPLORING FOUNDATION PHASE EDUCATORS' BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES FOR DISRUPTIVE BEHAVIOUR IN A BOYS' SCHOOL

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in schools in the Western Cape has been approved subject to the following conditions:

1. Principals, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
2. Principals, educators, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
3. You make all the arrangements concerning your investigation.
4. Educators' programmes are not to be interrupted.
5. The Study is to be conducted from **23 March 2015 till 27 March 2015**
6. No research can be conducted during the fourth term as schools are preparing and finalizing syllabi for examinations (October to December).
7. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey, please contact Dr A.T Wyngaard at the contact numbers above quoting the reference number?
8. A photocopy of this letter is submitted to the principal where the intended research is to be conducted.
9. Your research will be limited to the list of schools as forwarded to the Western Cape Education Department.
10. A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations is provided to the Director: Research Services.
11. The Department receives a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis addressed to:

**The Director: Research Services
Western Cape Education Department
Private Bag X9114
CAPE TOWN
8000**

We wish you success in your research.

Kind regards.

Signed: Dr Audrey T Wyngaard

Directorate: Research

DATE: 12 February 2015

Lower Parliament Street, Cape Town, 8001
tel: +27 21 467 9272 fax: 0865902282
Safe Schools: 0800 45 46 47

Private Bag X9114, Cape Town, 8000
Employment and salary enquiries: 0861 92 33 22
www.westerncape.gov.za

ADDENDUM C: Letter to the Principal

The Principal

Dear 

Request to conduct research study entitled *Exploring Foundation Phase educators' behaviour management strategies for disruptive behaviour in a boys' school*

I am currently registered as a student in the programme Master of Educational Psychology at the University of Stellenbosch. In order to complete my degree, I have to complete a research study on which a thesis needs to be written. Consequently, I have applied to the Western Cape Education Department for permission to conduct such research in schools.

I have identified your school as meeting the selection criteria I have used in designing my study. I would therefore like to request permission to conduct research in your school. The focus of my study is on investigating the behaviour management strategies employed by Foundation Phase educators to manage disruptive behaviour. I would therefore like to interview your Foundation Phase educators.

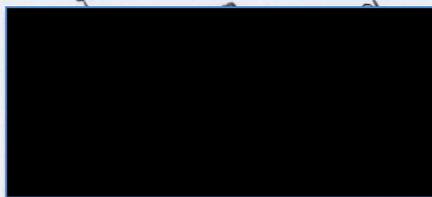
The research will be conducted in three stages during March and April. The first stage involved the signing of the consent forms in which confidentiality and anonymity would be explained. Thereafter, individual interviews will be held with those willing to volunteer. Finally, two focus group interviews would be conducted with the Foundation Phase educators.

It would be greatly appreciated if you would please grant me permission to involve your Foundation Phase educators in my research study. I truly think that their involvement will help stimulate critical, reflective thought on their behaviour management strategies and experiences. This will hopefully have a positive influence on their behaviour management, thereby benefiting the educators, as well as the learners with whom they work.

Yours sincerely,

Miss Claire Kingwill

Permission granted



ADDENDUM D: Consent to Participate in Research



UNIVERSITEIT•STELLENBOSCH•UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvennoot • your knowledge partner

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

EXPLORING FOUNDATION PHASE EDUCATORS' BEHAVIOUR MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES FOR DISRUPTIVE BEHAVIOUR IN A BOYS' SCHOOL

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Claire Michelle Kingwill (MEdPSych) from the Department of Educational Psychology at Stellenbosch University. The study will culminate in a research report (these), which is a requirement for the MEdPych programme for which I am registered. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are a Foundation Phase educator at a boys' school.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The researcher intends to explore the behaviour management strategies used by Foundation Phase educators when boys in their class exhibit disruptive behaviour. Through investigating the educators' behaviour management strategies, the researcher hopes to achieve a greater understanding of how educators perceive disruptive behaviour and what behaviour management strategies are perceived to be effective and ineffective. This insight will be used to make recommendations to the organization, as well as other organizations in the form of guidelines for behavioural management training.

2. PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, the following will be required of you:

2

2.1. Participation in Individual Interviews

If you are willing to volunteer, semi-structured individual interviews will take place to explore your behaviour management strategies. The topic for the discussion will be about your perceptions on disruptive behaviour and the behaviour management strategies that are used to deal with this behaviour.

2.2. Documentation

The researcher will ask if you have any classroom rules or a code of conduct that your class and school follow, which you are willing to pass on to her for the purpose of this study.

2.3. Locations

The individual interviews will take place at the school at which you work.

2.4. Length of Time

The individual interviews will also take place at a time of your convenience and take approximately one hour.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

While this study aims to explore and describe behaviour management strategies employed without any judgement of these strategies, it is possible that some of the questions in the interview may create some unease. However, every effort will be made by the researcher to minimize this discomfort.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

Although there is no guarantee that you will benefit directly from the study, the researcher hopes that through the guidelines for training in behaviour management at the end of the study, you may be able to use some of the strategies suggested for effective behaviour management. You would also be contributing to any training programmes that may be developed from the recommendations of the study.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

Unfortunately you will not receive any compensation for participating in this study, and there will be no financial gain.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained by means of ascribing codes to your name and avoiding the use of any personal details, which may be recognizable to the readers. In addition, all electronic data will be stored on a password-protected computer that only I will have access to. I will take the necessary steps to store all transcribed data and field notes in a locked cabinet that only I will have access to. I will keep the electronic data and the hard copies of the data in a safe place for 5 years.

The interviews will be audio- or videotaped, however, you have the right to review/edit the tapes should you feel the need to do so. Only I will have access to these tapes, which will be used for this thesis only and will be erased after 5 years.

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

8. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact:

Claire Kingwill
0741761849
clairekingwill@yahoo.com

Mrs Lynette Collair (Supervisor)
lyncol@sun.ac.za

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development at Stellenbosch University.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT OR LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE

The information above was described to me by Claire Kingwill in English and I am in command of this language or it was satisfactorily translated to me. I was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

Name of Participant

Signature of Participant

Date

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to _____
 [*participant*] and/or [*his/her*] representative _____ [*name of the*
representative]. [*He/she*] was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This
 conversation was conducted in English and no translator was used.

Signature of Investigator

Date

ADDENDUM E: Interview Guide (Educators)

INTERVIEW GUIDE

Educator:

Gender:

Age:

Number of years experience teaching:

My study pertains to what educators may call “disruptive behaviour” in the classroom and strategies that educators use in order to help manage this behaviour. The behaviour may be called disruptive for various reasons, such as shouting out, not remaining in their seat, not following instructions or having difficulty with concentration. Behaviour management strategies are those strategies used in the classroom to help overcome this disruptive behaviour.

1. Which grade do you teach? How long have you been teaching this age?
2. Have you experienced disruptive behaviour in your classroom? If so, what does that behaviour look like? What examples can you give?
3. How do you deal with this behaviour? What type of strategies do you use?
4. Which strategies do you find to be the most effective/ineffective in your experience?
5. How does this behaviour affect you? Emotionally? Professionally? Has it always been like this? If not, how have things changed?
6. What help from others in your school do you receive in dealing with disruptive behaviour? Where else do you get support? What supportive needs might you have?
7. What else would you like to share about this experience?

ADDENDUM F: Interview Guide (Vice Principal)

INTERVIEW GUIDE

Vice Principal

Gender:

Age:

Number of years experience teaching:

Number of years as VP:

My study pertains to what educators may call “disruptive behaviour” in the classroom and strategies that educators use in order to help manage this behaviour. The behaviour may be called disruptive for various reasons, such as shouting out, not remaining in their seat, not following instructions or having difficulty with concentration. Behaviour management strategies are those strategies used in the classroom to help overcome this disruptive behaviour.

1. How long have you had experience in education as an educator? How long have you been working as a vice principal at the school?
2. How do you experience disruptive behaviour in the FP in your school? What does that behaviour look like? What examples can you give? What kind of transgressions do you have to deal with?
3. How do you deal with this behaviour? What type of strategies do you use? Have things gotten better over time?
4. How do you experience the behaviour management strategies employed by FP educators?
5. In your opinion, which strategies do you find to be the most effective/ ineffective?
6. What help from others in your school or district do you get in dealing with disruptive behaviour? Where else do you get support? What supportive needs might you have?
7. What else would you like to share about this experience?

ADDENDUM G: Transcription with Colour Coding

THEME	EXTRACTS FROM TRANSCRIPTION	SUB-THEME
Disruptive Behaviour	<p>R OK. So how have you experienced DB in your classroom? You know, what does it look like? What examples can you give?</p> <p>P well it can be physical, so when children have a temper tantrum, it can be more B in the sense of like it's not a physical thing but the child can't concentrate so they're disrupting the class in terms of their actual physical...I don't know what it's called...they can't sit still, they're bouncing off the walls kinda thing. Um... verbal ways...when they constantly need your attention, so they're constantly asking questions, shouting out, which obviously stops the focus of the class... that's it then... and then obviously specific diagnoses like Autism and ADHD and things like that thumbs itself in...</p> <p>[2:00]</p>	<p>Behaviour that is seen as disruptive</p> <p>Reasons for DB: Specific Disorders</p>
Goodness-of-fit	<p>R so what have you experienced? What is disruptive for you that you find...</p>	<p>Effect of the teacher</p>
Disruptive Behaviour	<p>P I find it really disruptive to my lesson if a child isn't participating in the lesson at all, so when I had the little boy that was severely Autistic, he was like hitting the desk and shouting and go into a trance almost, obviously the other children are scared or they don't know what's going on until I remove the child, I would say is disruptive. The calling out and the daily kind of DB, there's usually a reason for it, and you can sort of manage that discreetly almost between the child and you</p>	<p>Behaviour that is seen as disruptive</p> <p>Reasons for DB</p>
Behaviour Management Strategies (BMS)	<p>R OK so what would be the daily...?</p> <p>P So basically obviously you have a relationship with the boy or girl or whatever, the child you're teaching, and you set up firm like boundaries, so you have 'if you do this, this is what happens... if you do this, this is what happens...' and then obviously do that as class rules, and other kids need more individual support, and I then, first of all I start with non-verbal, so I look at the child and I give them a nod or tap them on the shoulder or whatever, and they know what that means 'cause you've had the previous conversation, and then they'll have a verbal warning, so we do that rocket system in our class where they all start out as Superstars, so you start with the positive, where you walk in my classroom already on the rocket, you're ready to learn and you're a superstar already, and its then maintaining that rather than trying to achieve it, which I found this year worked really well because then they think</p>	<p>Effective Behaviour management</p> <p>Explain expectations</p> <p>Non-Verbal cues</p> <p>Individual rewards</p>

<p>Goodness-of-fit</p>	<p>you value them already, and then they feel more let down when they go down because it was their own fault, they were there and then they lost that privilege, and so yeah and then I'll give them a warning and then they go to Trouble Ahead, and they miss their break, and if they continue that B, especially with Gr. 3, you can talk to them, 'you've had a non-verbal cue, you've gone to Trouble Ahead but you're still choosing to do that B therefore that's an Order mark and in Gr. 3 that's enough, I've never had to give DT's or...they get DT's for 5 Order marks or whatever but I've never had to give it straight... so that would be the daily kind of you know calling out or he got into a fight because he just had a bad morning or whatever, nothing hectic</p> <p>R So what do you think in your opinion causes the DB?</p> <p>[4:32]</p>	<p>Effect of BM Strategies on Child Individual rewards Effect of the teacher</p>
<p>Disruptive Behaviour</p>	<p>P Um home life definitely so depending on how... what the routine is at home...is there a routine? Is there discipline? And cultural differences obviously. And then depending on the type of morning they've had, I mean if they've been screamed at all morning and they've forgotten something, like I know one of the boys if he forgets his PE kit, that's the end of his day, and he's angry and then obviously his B follows that so he'll snap at you or a child will say 'why did you forget it?' and it's a big full-blown thing. So definitely the B in the morning, um and then the type of child you're dealing with, so are they over-sensitive? Do they misread social communications? That kind of thing, so that's when you obviously have to deal... I mean, you know the child, then you can say 'right that's how the child's gonna react in this situation...' then you... prevention rather than cure, pre-empt the situation</p>	<p>Reasons for DB: Parenting Skills Reasons for DB Effect of the teacher</p>
<p>Goodness-of-fit</p>	<p>R so maybe we can have a look at when you're dealing with DB and you've gone through the consequences, how do you experience the parents' responses to reports of DB?</p>	
<p>Disruptive Behaviour</p>	<p>P mainly they already know the child, so they sort of nod their head, the ones that are really disruptive like in the UK especially were like those parents that would whack the child if they're naughty, those kids that behave like that in school were like over-strict parents that haven't calmed down, so that... it almost didn't mean... like mean anything to them, because I just think they just felt that, there was obviously cultural differences but they just felt that the person didn't care so what's the point? They didn't have</p>	<p>Effects of DB: Parents' reactions to reports</p>

<p>BMS</p>	<p>any desire to be good because they're no good for it kind of thing, yeah the parents I used to find difficult to speak to because I knew he'd get a massive hiding when he'd get home so it's more building for me the relationship with the child, I'm lucky I don't... Gr. 2 is quite young, but from Gr. 3 up you can sort of talk to them, they're at a level where they know, like they sign a contract almost you know, 'this is what I'm going to do for you, and this is what you need to do for me, if I don't bring my side to the table, obviously there's consequences, and when you don't follow these they have consequence do you agree?' and then, they know then, so I think it's giving them ownership of their B.. it's you, it's your choice, and teaching them that.</p> <p>...</p> <p>R ... and which ones do you find are ineffective? What B management strategies...</p> <p>[18:37]</p>	<p>Parents' reactions to reports</p> <p>Explain expectations</p>
<p>BMS</p>	<p>P shouting is ineffective because that's mostly what the parents do at home, so they don't actually hear it, so screeching to the top of your voice is just gonna make you in a bad place and like the child doesn't respond...um giving out punishments without explanation is really ineffective because the kid doesn't even obviously sometimes know, and delaying as well, like that people that give you something for what happened ages ago, if it's gonna be anything it's gotta be done there, it's gotta be firm, it's gotta be consistent so one day you can't do one thing and then the other day you can't do something else so inconsistent B and like I said false promises is very ineffective, but shouting I hate, I really hate shouting</p> <p>R and have you tried sort of a new B management strategy that you found and then it didn't really work out? Have there been any of those?</p> <p>P um... doing too much sometimes doesn't work because you... at the end of the day it's gotta be manageable, like the team point strategy is the only thing I've actually done that is manageable because you basically say 'team point' and then the child goes and puts it up, it's gotta be immediate, like with merits, if I don't do merits then and there, I forget, and then you feel guilty obviously as a teacher that you've forgotten so try to make it something you can do instantly for you and for the child because otherwise it means nothing, quick and easy and manageable is important ja. Fighting definitely doesn't</p>	<p>Ineffective Behaviour Management: Shouting</p> <p>Effective Behaviour management</p> <p>Ineffective Behaviour Management</p>

	<p>work, but the other thing is embarrassing the child, so like almost targeting...like bullying I suppose, so it's making them stand up... so that's why I said non-verbal is the best way to start so that you're not making a big deal out of it by telling him or her like 'stop it now', but to shout their name and embarrass them in front of their peers, you're just gonna ask for more trouble because then they're gonna like 'ah I'll show you', it's almost as if you're fuelling it, so yeah, definitely a no-go, which does still happen unfortunately</p> <p>R and so how do you feel this B affects you, emotionally, professionally?</p> <p>P when they're disruptive?</p> <p>R ja</p>	<p>Shaming or embarrassing</p> <p>Non-Verbal cues</p> <p>Shaming or embarrassing</p>
<p>Disruptive Behaviour</p> <p>Goodness-of-fit</p>	<p>P it's exhausting I'm not gonna lie, like wears you down a bit, um but if you understand where the child comes from, that helps I think, so if there's a reason and usually it's not a nice reason so then you sort of have some empathy with the child you understand the child and you, hopefully, through positive reinforcement you get the reward almost, so it's physically exhausting, like when I had that autistic boy that was hectic like... I used to wake up in the morning and I didn't know what he was gonna be like, it's like your're walking on egg shells, and it was only one he was gone, I realised how it did affect me, I was so tense and like... because you don't know where he's gonna go, it wasn't really for me, he could do what he wants to me but for the other boys, you didn't want him to do anything to upset them, but also for them to see him in that way, so you try and protect him from himself almost, and obviously</p>	<p>Effect of DB on Teacher</p> <p>Effect of the teacher</p>
<p>Disruptive Behaviour</p>	<p>I'm not qualified to deal with that, so when he's like under the table screaming and shouting it's not like much you can do so that up... is quite upsetting because you sort of don't know what else to do, you just have to let him shout and scream it out almost and a lot of the time when he did have his outbursts, it was when he was exhausted and then he'd sleep afterwards, then again you feel sympathy because its's not his fault, there was a reason for it and the way the school was run was almost like a trigger for him, so you felt bad for him but at the same time you're like...'I can't do this anymore'</p> <p>[22:29]</p>	<p>Effect of DB on Teacher</p> <p>Effect of DB on Teacher</p>

ADDENDUM H: Extract of Final Coding

THEMES	SUB-THEMES	QUOTES
1. Disruptive Behaviour	1.1. Defining DB	<p>"It's distracting others or distracting yourself from doing what you should be doing, and losing focus with whatever is going on in their surroundings"</p> <p>"Taking other children's attention away from where their attention should be"</p> <p>"Interrupting learning in the classroom / interrupts on the kids' right to learn"</p> <p>"See it as two different things: anything that disrupts any other boy in the class [or] someone who struggles to fit into classroom norms based on their peers are able to do"</p> <p>"Wanted attention whether it was negative or positive"</p> <p>"[It] prevents another boy from being able to learn or listen or being able to take part in our class activities"</p> <p>Lack of attention skills</p> <p>Parenting Skills</p> <p>Developmental Stage</p> <p>Emotional</p> <p>Cultural</p> <p>Environmental</p>
	1.2. Possible Reasons for DB	Disengaging
	1.3. Types of DB	<p>Not following Instructions</p> <p>Shouting Out</p> <p>Talking</p> <p>Physical Disruption</p> <p>Disengaging</p> <p>Not following Instructions</p> <p>Noise Level</p> <p>On the Parent</p> <p>On the Educator</p> <p>On the Learner</p>
	1.4 Effects of DB	<p>In General</p> <p>Voice Level</p> <p>Calm environment</p> <p>Explaining Expectations</p> <p>Isolation / Exclusion</p> <p>Chance to improve behaviour</p> <p>Positive Reinforcement</p> <p>Physical Movement</p> <p>Individual Management</p> <p>Team Management</p> <p>Daily Report</p> <p>Involvement of Vice Principal</p> <p>Non-Verbal Cues</p>
2. Behaviour Management Strategies	2.1. Effective BMS	

ADDENDUM I: Extracts from the School's Code of Conduct

VARIOUS APPLICABLE SETS OF RULES

• SCHOOL RULES

These rules are applicable when published and are subject to change by Principal and teaching staff.

1 MANNERS/BEHAVIOUR/ATTITUDE

Pupils must at all times:

- 1.1 behave in such a way as to bring credit to themselves and the school.
- 1.2 show respect towards adults, greeting and assisting them where needed. The following mode of greeting is to be adhered to: Female Adults – 'Mam' or Surname, Male Adults: 'Sir' or Surname.
- 1.3 follow instructions of teachers, prefects and parents in charge.
- 1.4 report disputes or injuries on the playground to staff or teachers on duty.
- 1.5 display a positive attitude towards all aspects of their school life.
- 1.6 show respect towards fellow pupils..
- 1.7 when approached by an adult, all pupils are to stand up and to greet them appropriately

DISCIPLINARY PROCEDURES:

The following disciplinary procedures may be implemented at the discretion of teachers, and/or school management and/or school governing body:

- Temporary suspension from the classroom (time-out)
- Short-term detention during break times
- Writing-out of lines
- Order Marks
- De-Merits
- Detention on Mondays, Fridays or Saturdays
- Disciplinary hearings
- Suspension from all school activities
- Suspension from school
- Expulsion

First offenders will be treated more leniently than repeat offenders, unless the offence is serious or a danger to others. Regular repetition of an apparently minor offence may be treated as a serious offence.

Positive Reinforcement:

Merit System

- a) Merits are awarded to pupils on a “one-at-a time” basis.
- b) Merits are awarded for
 - good academic work
 - improvement in academic work
- c) After receiving ten merits, a pupil will receive a Blue Merit certificate at an assembly
- d) Merits are not cleared at the end of a term, but can accumulate right through the year.
- e) Pupils receiving 4 or more Blue certificates in a school year become members of the schools’ “Smart Club”
- f) Merits are not awarded for sporting achievements or for assisting teachers- house points are given for these

Yellow Certificates

Pupils who receive no order marks in a term, will be awarded a Yellow Certificate at that term’s final assembly.

House Points

House points are awarded for good behaviour, general helpfulness and for other special achievements, at the discretion of teachers, and for achievement in specific sports events, recycling competitions etc.