Course: Classroom Management (6403) **Semester: Spring, 2021 Level: ADE/BEd.**

Assignment No. 2

Q.1 Briefly explain the implication of Alfred Adler's theory in learning process.

Alfred Adler (1870-1937), world renowned philosopher and psychiatrist, stressed the need to understand individuals within their social context. During the early 1900's, Adler began addressing such crucial and contemporary issues as equality, parent education, the influence of birth order, life style, and the holism of individuals. Adler believed that we all have one basic desire and goal: to belong and to feel significant.

Adler developed the first holistic theory of personality, psychopathology, and psychotherapy that was intimately connected to a humanistic philosophy of living. His lectures and books for the general public are characterized by a crystal clear common sense. His clinical books and journal articles reveal an uncommon understanding of mental disorders, a deep insight into the art of healing, and a great inspiration for encouraging optimal human development.

According to Adler, when we feel encouraged, we feel capable and appreciated and will generally act in a connected and cooperative way. When we are discouraged, we may act in unhealthy ways by competing, withdrawing, or giving up. It is in finding ways of expressing and accepting encouragement, respect, and social interest that help us feel fulfilled and optimistic.

Adlerian theory and practice have proven especially productive as applied to the growth and development of children. Adlerians believe that "a misbehaving child is a discouraged child" and that helping children to feel valued, significant, and competent is often the most effective strategy in coping with difficult child behaviors.

Adlerian Psychology focuses on people's efforts to compensate for their self-perceived inferiority to others. These feelings of inferiority may derive from one's position in the family constellation, particularly if early experiences of humiliation occurred; a specific physical condition or defect existed; or a general lack of social feeling for others was present.

Adlerians are concerned with understanding the unique and private beliefs and strategies (one's life style) that each individual creates in childhood. This cognitive schema and life style serve as the individual's reference for attitudes, behaviors, and one's private view of self, others, and the world. It is when we have looked at our early life experiences, examined the patterns of behavior that repeat themselves in our lives, and the methods by which we go about trying to gain significance and belonging that healing, growth, and change occur.

As articulated by noted Adlerian psychotherapist Henry Stein, the theory and application of Adlerian Psychology have as their lynchpins seven critical ideas:

Unity of the Individual

Thinking, feeling, emotion, and behavior can only be understood as subordinated to the individual's style of life, or consistent pattern of dealing with life. The individual is not internally divided or the battleground of conflicting forces. Each aspect of the personality points in the same direction.

Goal Orientation

There is one central personality dynamic derived from the growth and forward movement of life itself. It is a future-oriented striving toward a goal of significance, superiority, or success. In

mental health, it is a realistic goal of socially useful significance or superiority over general difficulties. In mental disorders, it is an unrealistic goal of exaggerated significance or superiority over others. The early childhood feeling of inferiority, for which one aims to compensate, leads to the creation of a fictional final goal which subjectively seems to promise future security and success. The depth of the inferiority feeling usually determines the height of the goal which then becomes the "final cause" of behavior patterns.

Self-Determination and Uniqueness

A person's fictional goal may be influenced by hereditary and cultural factors, but it ultimately springs from the creative power of the individual, and is consequently unique. Usually, individuals are not fully aware of their goal. Through the analysis of birth order, repeated coping patterns, and earliest memories, the psychotherapist infers the goal as a working hypothesis.

Social Context

As an indivisible whole, a system, the human being is also a part of larger wholes or systems -- the family, the community, all of humanity, our planet, and the cosmos. In these contexts, we meet the three important life tasks: occupation, love and sex, and our relationship with other people -- all social challenges. Our way of responding to our first social system, the family constellation, may become the prototype of our world view and attitude toward life.

The Feeling of Community

Each human being has the capacity for learning to live in harmony with society. This is an innate potential for social connectedness which has to be consciously developed. Social interest and feeling imply "social improvement," quite different from conformity, leaving room for social innovation even through cultural resistance or rebellion. The feeling of genuine security is rooted in a deep sense of belonging and embeddedness within the stream of social evolution.

Mental Health

A feeling of human connectedness and a willingness to develop oneself fully and contribute to the welfare of others are the main criteria of mental health. When these qualities are underdeveloped, feelings of inferiority may haunt an individual, or an attitude of superiority may antagonize others. Consequently, the unconscious fictional goal will be self-centered and emotionally or materially exploitive of other people. When the feeling of connectedness and the willingness to contribute are stronger, a feeling of equality emerges, and the individual's goal will be self-transcending and beneficial to others.

Treatment

Adlerian individual psychotherapy, brief therapy, couple therapy, and family therapy follow parallel paths. Clients are encouraged to overcome their feelings of insecurity, develop deeper feelings of connectedness, and to redirect their striving for significance into more socially beneficial directions. Through a respectful Socratic dialogue, they are challenged to correct mistaken assumptions, attitudes, behaviors, and feelings about themselves and the world. Constant encouragement stimulates clients to attempt what was believed impossible. The growth of confidence, pride, and gratification leads to a greater desire and ability to cooperate. The objective of therapy is to replace exaggerated self-protection, self-enhancement, and self-indulgence with courageous social contribution.

THE 4 STAGES OF ADLERIAN THERAPY

An Adlerian therapist assists individuals in comprehending the thoughts, drives, and emotions that influence their lifestyles. People in therapy are also encouraged to acquire a more positive and productive way of life by developing new insights, skills, and behaviors. These goals are achieved through the four stages of Adlerian therapy:

1. **Engagement:** A trusting therapeutic relationship is built between the therapist and the person in therapy and they agree to work together to effectively address the problem.
2. **Assessment:** The therapist invites the individual to speak about his or her personal history, family history, early recollections, beliefs, feelings, and motives. This helps to reveal the person's overall lifestyle pattern, including factors that might initially be thought of as insignificant or irrelevant by the person in therapy.
3. **Insight:** The person in therapy is helped to develop new ways of thinking about his or her situation.
4. **Reorientation:** The therapist encourages the individual to engage in satisfying and effective actions that reinforce this new insight, or which facilitate further insight.

VALUES CLARIFICATION AND ADLERIAN PSYCHOLOGY

Individuals often enter therapy to gain better insight into their own behaviors and responses to circumstances that occur in their lives. Adlerian psychotherapy uses a process of Adlerian values clarification, through which a person in therapy is introduced to personal life organization, including birth order, social context, and other external dynamics, including parental influences. By understanding this organization, and how it has influenced self-worth, acceptance, and expectations, an individual can begin to accept the emotions they have relative to the events they experienced as a child. This process of perception allows the person in therapy to identify—maybe for the first time—their true inner value, independent of others. Adlerian values clarification allows one to look at prior beliefs in a new way that encourages positive change.

Values clarification is all about doing what matters, knowing what matters to you personally, and taking effective action guided by those values. Various exercises are employed to help identify chosen values that act like a compass from which to direct intentional and effective behavior. People who are fused with their thoughts and tend to struggle with or avoid painful emotions often struggle with choosing purposeful and values-guided action. Through mindful liberation from such struggles, they find acting congruently with their values natural and fulfilling.

TYPES OF ADLERIAN THERAPY

Adlerian individual psychotherapy, brief therapy, couples therapy, and family therapy all guide people to release their unproductive feelings and to refocus their attention toward forming corrections in perceived values, feelings, and behaviors that prohibit further positive growth. The Adlerian technique uses Socratic dialogue to inspire the development of productive and beneficial attitudes in the areas of confidence, self-worth, and significance that result in a person's increased ability to naturally cooperate and form cohesive relationships. The paramount goal of this type of therapy is to remove destructive self-directed beliefs and behaviors and to replace them with tools that will allow a client to become confident and socially empowered.

LIMITATIONS OF ADLERIAN PSYCHOLOGY

Adlerian therapy takes time, and the approach may not be best suited to individuals who are seeking a briefer form of therapy or quick solutions to their concerns. In addition, a large part of this approach is the exploration of early childhood events, and individuals who do not wish to explore family history or material may not find this approach ideal. Another critique of the approach is its potential decrease in efficacy with people who may be less insightful and/or challenged by concerns that impact their ability to function.

While Adlerian therapy has been supported by some research, more testing will likely provide more extensive evidence backing the benefits of the approach.

Reference:

https://www.google.com/search?q=Alfred+Adler%27s+theory+in+learning+process&rlz=1C1RLNS_enPK935PK935&oq=Alfred+Adler%27s+theory+in+learning+process&aqs=chrome..69i57.3326j0j7&sourceid=chrome&ie=UTF-8

https://www.goodtherapy.org/learn-about-therapy/types/adlerian-psychology

Q.2 What is meant by a reward system? How different reward systems work for the betterment of problematic children.

The **reward system** (the mesocorticolimbic circuit) is a group of neural structures responsible for incentive salience (i.e., motivation and "wanting"; desire or craving for a reward), associative learning (primarily positive reinforcement and classical conditioning),
and positively-valenced emotions, particularly ones involving pleasure as a core component (e.g., joy, euphoria and ecstasy). Reward is the attractive and motivational property of a stimulus that induces appetitive behavior, also known as approach behavior, and consummatory behavior A rewarding stimulus has been described as "any stimulus, object, event, activity, or situation that has the potential to make us approach and consume it is by definition a reward". In operant conditioning, rewarding stimuli function as positive reinforcers however, the converse statement also holds true: positive reinforcers are rewarding.

The reward system motivates animals to approach stimuli or engage in behaviour that increases fitness (sex, energy-dense foods, etc.). Survival for most animal species depends upon maximizing contact with beneficial stimuli and minimizing contact with harmful stimuli. Reward cognition serves to increase the likelihood of survival and reproduction by causing associative learning, eliciting approach and consummatory behavior, and
triggering positively-valenced emotions. Thus, reward is a mechanism that evolved to help increase the adaptive fitness of animals. In drug addiction, certain substances over-activate the reward circuit, leading to compulsive substance-seeking behavior resulting from synaptic plasticity in the circuit.

Primary rewards are a class of rewarding stimuli which facilitate the survival of one's self and offspring, and they include homeostatic (e.g., palatable food) and reproductive (e.g., sexual contact and parental investment) rewards. Intrinsic rewards are unconditioned rewards that are attractive and motivate behavior because they are inherently pleasurable. Extrinsic rewards (e.g., money or seeing one's favorite sports team winning a game) are conditioned rewards that are attractive and motivate behavior but are not inherently pleasurable. Extrinsic rewards derive their motivational value as a result of a learned association (i.e., conditioning) with intrinsic

rewards. Extrinsic rewards may also elicit pleasure (e.g., euphoria from winning a lot of money in a lottery) after being classically conditioned with intrinsic rewards.

Definition

In neuroscience, the reward system is a collection of brain structures and neural pathways that are responsible for reward-related cognition, including associative learning (primarily classical conditioning and operant reinforcement), incentive salience (i.e., motivation and "wanting", desire, or craving for a reward), and positively-valenced emotions, particularly emotions that involve pleasure (i.e., hedonic "liking").

Terms that are commonly used to describe behavior related to the "wanting" or desire component of reward include appetitive behavior, approach behavior, preparatory behavior, instrumental behavior, anticipatory behavior, and seeking.Terms that are commonly used to describe behavior related to the "liking" or pleasure component of reward include consummatory behavior and taking behavior.

The three primary functions of rewards are their capacity to:

1. produce associative learning (i.e., classical conditioning and operant reinforcement)
2. affect decision-making and induce approach behavior (via the assignment of motivational salience to rewarding stimuli);
3. elicit positively-valenced emotions, particularly pleasure.

Neuroanatomy

The brain structures that compose the reward system are located primarily within the cortico-basal ganglia-thalamo-cortical loop; the basal ganglia portion of the loop drives activity within the reward system. Most of the pathways that connect structures within the reward system are glutamatergic interneurons, GABAergic medium spiny neurons (MSNs), and dopaminergic projection neurons, although other types of projection neurons contribute (e.g., orexinergic projection neurons). The reward system includes the ventral tegmental area, ventral striatum (i.e., the nucleus accumbens and olfactory tubercle), dorsal striatum (i.e., the caudate nucleus and putamen), substantia nigra (i.e., the pars compacta and pars

reticulata), prefrontal cortex, anterior cingulate cortex, insular cortex, hippocampus, hypothalamus (particularly, the orexinergic nucleus in the lateral hypothalamus), thalamus (multiple nuclei), subthalamic nucleus, globus pallidus (both external and internal), ventral pallidum, parabrachial nucleus, amygdala, and the remainder of the extended amygdala. The dorsal raphe nucleus and cerebellum appear to modulate some forms of reward-related cognition (i.e., associative learning, motivational salience, and positive emotions) and behaviors as well.

The laterodorsal tegmental nucleus (LTD), pedunculopontine nucleus (PPTg), and lateral habenula (LHb) (both directly and indirectly via the rostromedial tegmental nucleus) are also capable of inducing aversive salience and incentive salience through their projections to the ventral tegmental area (VTA). The LDT and PPTg both send glutaminergic projections to the VTA that synapse on dopaminergic neurons, both of which can produce incentive salience. The LHb sends glutaminergic projections, the majority of which synapse on GABAergic RMTg neurons that in turn drive inhibition of dopaminergic VTA neurons, although some LHb projections terminate on VTA interneurons. These LHb projections are activated both by aversive stimuli and by the absence of an expected reward, and excitation of the LHb can induce aversion.

Most of the dopamine pathways (i.e., neurons that use the neurotransmitter dopamine to communicate with other neurons) that project out of the ventral tegmental area are part of the reward system; in these pathways, dopamine acts on D1-like receptors or D2-like receptors to either stimulate (D1-like) or inhibit (D2-like) the production of cAMP. The GABAergic medium spiny neurons of the striatum are components of the reward system as well. The glutamatergic projection nuclei in the subthalamic nucleus, prefrontal cortex, hippocampus, thalamus, and amygdala connect to other parts of the reward system via glutamate pathways.The medial forebrain bundle, which is a set of many neural pathways that mediate brain stimulation reward (i.e., reward derived from direct electrochemical stimulation of the lateral hypothalamus), is also a component of the reward system.

Two theories exist with regard to the activity of the nucleus accumbens and the generation liking and wanting. The inhibition (or hyperpolarization) hypothesis proposes that the nucleus accumbens exerts tonic inhibitory effects on downstream structures such as the ventral pallidum, hypothalamus or ventral tegmental area, and that in inhibiting MSNs in the nucleus accumbens (NAcc), these structures are excited, "releasing" reward related behavior. While GABA receptor agonists are capable of eliciting both "liking" and "wanting" reactions in the nucleus accumbens, glutaminergic inputs from the basolateral amygdala, ventral hippocampus, and medial prefrontal cortex can drive incentive salience. Furthermore, while most studies find that NAcc neurons reduce firing in response to reward, a number of studies find the opposite response. This had led to the proposal of the disinhibition (or depolarization) hypothesis, that proposes that excitation or NAcc neurons, or at least certain subsets, drives reward related behavior.

After nearly 50 years of research on brain-stimulation reward, experts have certified that dozens of sites in the brain will maintain intracranial self-stimulation. Regions include the lateral hypothalamus and medial forebrain bundles, which are especially effective. Stimulation there activates fibers that form the ascending pathways; the ascending pathways include the mesolimbic dopamine pathway, which projects from the ventral tegmental area to the nucleus accumbens. There are several explanations as to why the mesolimbic dopamine pathway is central to circuits mediating reward. First, there is a marked increase in dopamine release from the mesolimbic pathway when animals engage in intracranial self-stimulation.Second, experiments consistently indicate that brain-stimulation reward stimulates the reinforcement of pathways that are normally activated by natural rewards, and drug reward or intracranial self-stimulation can exert more powerful activation of central reward mechanisms because they activate the reward center directly rather than through the peripheral nerves. Third, when animals are administered addictive drugs or engage in naturally rewarding behaviors, such as feeding or sexual activity, there is a marked release of dopamine within the nucleus accumbens. However, dopamine is not the only reward compound in the brain.

History

The first clue to the presence of a reward system in the brain came with an accident discovery by James Olds and Peter Milner in 1954. They discovered that rats would perform behaviors such as pressing a bar, to administer a brief burst of electrical stimulation to specific sites in their brains. This phenomenon is called intracranial self-stimulation or brain stimulation reward. Typically, rats will press a lever hundreds or thousands of times per hour to obtain this brain stimulation, stopping only when they are exhausted. While trying to teach rats how to solve problems and run mazes, stimulation of certain regions of the brain where the stimulation was found seemed to give pleasure to the animals. They tried the same thing with humans and the results were similar. The explanation to why animals engage in a behavior that has no value to the survival of either themselves or their species is that the brain stimulation is activating the system underlying reward.

In a fundamental discovery made in 1954, researchers James Olds and Peter Milner found that low-voltage electrical stimulation of certain regions of the brain of the rat acted as a reward in teaching the animals to run mazes and solve problems. It seemed that stimulation of those parts of the brain gave the animals pleasure, and in later work humans reported pleasurable sensations from such stimulation. When rats were tested in Skinner boxes where they could stimulate the reward system by pressing a lever, the rats pressed for hours. Research in the next two decades established that dopamine is one of the main chemicals aiding neural signaling in these regions, and dopamine was suggested to be the brain's "pleasure chemical".

Ivan Pavlov was a psychologist who used the reward system to study classical conditioning. Pavlov used the reward system by rewarding dogs with food after they had heard a bell or another stimulus. Pavlov was rewarding the dogs so that the dogs associated food, the reward, with the bell, the stimulus. Edward L. Thorndike used the reward system to study operant conditioning. He began by putting cats in a puzzle box and placing food outside of the box so that the cat wanted to escape. The cats worked to get out of the puzzle box to get to the food. Although the cats ate the food after they escaped the box, Thorndike learned that the cats attempted to escape the box without the reward of food. Thorndike used the rewards of food and

freedom to stimulate the reward system of the cats. Thorndike used this to see how the cats learned to escape the box.

Reference:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Reward_system#:~:text=The%20reward%20system%20(the%20mesocorticolimbic,positively%2Dvalenced%20emotions%2C%20particularly%20ones

Q.3 Which component of classroom management is more effective in better teaching?

To effectively manage a classroom, teachers must prioritize building relationships, leveraging time, and designing behavioral standards.

For beginning teachers, or for teachers like myself returning to teaching, the most difficult thing to master is classroom management. I had to relearn what ten years of hard instruction had taught me: Good classroom management is more than just being strict or authoritarian, and it is more than simply being organized. If I want to have my classroom run smoothly as a well-oiled learning machine, I have to set up a structured learning environment in which certain behaviors are promoted and others are discouraged.

I have discovered that there are five components of effective classroom management that establish structures strong enough to entice and motivate student learning:

1. Developing effective working relationships with students
2. Training students on how learning takes place in your classroom
3. Protecting and leveraging time
4. Anticipating student behaviors in well-written lesson plans
5. Establishing standards of behavior that promote student learning

1. DEVELOP EFFECTIVE WORKING RELATIONSHIPS WITH YOUR STUDENTS

The most important component of classroom management is relationships. The relationships with my students start at the door when I shake the their hand and greet them with a smile (regardless of what misbehaviors might have happened the day before). Those relationships are strengthened, for example, when I use a student's name and actively praise him or her. Those relationships are solidified when I spend individual time with each student to get to know them and then use that knowledge to create personal learning opportunities.

From the professional development program, *Capturing Kids' Hearts*, there was one takeaway that benefited me the most: If I have a good relationship with my students, I can push them harder and further to learn because they trust me.

2. TRAIN YOUR STUDENTS ON HOW LEARNING TAKES PLACE IN YOUR CLASSROOM

Your students need to know that you do not expect them to instantly learn, that everyone has an individual process for learning, and that if they follow your guidance, they will be successful in learning.

This is more than just talking about your homework policy, late work, and absences. It is revealing to your students how you are going to create -- with them -- a highly effective, low-maintenance, learning team. For example, I discuss with my students that the true power of a strategy such as *Cornell Notes* is not dividing the paper in two parts. The benefit of that strategy comes from writing the questions on the left side of the paper while reviewing their notes, and then taking the time to summarize what they learned. You have a learning philosophy that guides your teaching style; teach it to your students. Clearly map out for your students what you do to help them learn so that when you do it, they know what you are doing and why, and they will be more willing to help.

3. PROTECT AND LEVERAGE YOUR TIME

An effective classroom manager must be prepared with materials and know how to transition students from one activity to another without wasting time. The number one thing we could do to increase our students' academic performance is to increase the time spent on learning. Time

is chipped away by taking attendance, announcements, summons to the office, restroom breaks, pep rally schedules, class meetings, special presentations, awards ceremonies, celebrations, and a myriad of other things.

Some disruptions and time stealers we cannot avoid, but being successful at managing the classroom also includes managing the time, protecting it, and leveraging it to your best advantage. In *Teach Like a Champion,* author Doug Lemov effectively demonstrates how to use routines to minimize lost time in activities like handing out papers; he also demonstrates routines to help students train their minds to adopt useful habits and skills, like being able to quickly answer and ask questions.

4. ANTICIPATE YOUR STUDENTS' BEHAVIORS IN WELL-WRITTEN LESSON PLANS

Channeling student behaviors, interests, and attention into productive learning paths requires intuitive lesson planning. First, focus on how students will be able to demonstrate that they understand and have achieved the learning objective, emphasizes Grant Wiggins, coauthor with Jason McTighe of *Understanding by Design.* Then build learning activities that lead students to that point.

According to Robert Marzano, an education researcher, the focus of our lesson planning efforts should be getting students to ask and answer their own questions. Coming up with those types of questions on the spur of the moment can be difficult, but with a little advanced thought, you can incorporate those types of questions into your lesson plans. Ultimately, the best discipline management plan is a good lesson plan.

5. ESTABLISH BEHAVIORAL STANDARDS

These standards should promote learning, as well as consequences that diminish or eliminate behaviors that impede learning. They shouldn't be so detailed as to list every behavior and the corresponding consequence for failure to comply, but they should hit the main points regarding showing respect, communicating correctly, and coming prepared to learn. The standards should

also interact smoothly with the other four components, especially teaching your students how learning takes place in your classroom.

https://www.edutopia.org/blog/5-priorities-classroom-management-ben-johnson

Q.4 Develop a model lesson plan on any topic of your interest.

English Lesson Plans

Imagination, drama, romance and tragedy. English lessons have it all. But they can also be complicated to teach, with many moving parts to any one lesson.

Creating an English lesson plan is the best way to keep track of all of the learning strands and activities that are needed for learning success. Like you'll see in the English lesson plan examples below, creating engaging activities to a strict time schedule is perfectly possible with enough planning.

6. Use your lesson plan to schedule each activity by the minute

Any teacher will know the feeling of reaching the end of your material with 10 minutes left in the lesson.

Avoid running short (or running over!) in your lessons by planning down to the minute. The English lesson plan example below measures out timings for each activity so you finish perfectly on time.

You can use a timer on your interactive whiteboard, or get students to time themselves. Scheduling is a great skill to incorporate into any lesson plan.

Think outside the box when lesson planning

When lesson planning the world, or at least the internet, is your Oyster. Instead of just teaching vocabulary use scavenger hunts, word searches, or story activities.

Try picking a new activity and building your lesson around that. In the lesson activity example below, Merriam-Webster have a dictionary scavenger hunt that will keep students engaged and entertained throughout your English lesson.

Highlight your lesson objectives at the top of your lesson plan

Your learning objectives should guide your lesson planning, not the other way around. Especially in subjects like English focusing on your objectives first can make sure your students are learning effectively.

Reference:

https://venngage.com/blog/lesson-plan-examples/#5

Q.5 Discuss the techniques to decrease inappropriate student behavior in classroom.

Classroom management can be one of the most difficult and perplexing aspects of being a teacher. Dealing with inappropriate behavior can be very challenging.

Fortunately, there are many strategies, tips and techniques that can be used to handle bad behavior. Some of these strategies are preventative, while others can be used during class itself.

Establish a positive, supportive classroom atmosphere.Students are more likely to "follow directions, work hard, and exhibit positive classroom behavior when they feel wanted and appreciated by the teacher."

Establish a clearly defined set of rules and punishments. If the students know exactly what is expected of them and exactly what will happen if they act out, they are less likely to cause problems.

Organize the classroom itself. The room should be free of unnecessary distractions, not cluttered and easy to get around in. This should help maintain student focus.

Get to know your students as well as you can. Knowing their personalities, abilities and backgrounds can greatly enhance your decision making.

Identify the exact problem. Claiming that a student "has a bad attitude" is too vague to be easily dealt with. Getting to the root of the problem may involve a conversation with the student or working with the guidance counselor.

Use positive responses for positive behavior. Pointing out and rewarding good behavior can be an effective way of reducing bad behavior.

Keep the students busy and engaged in the material. As much as possible, students should have a sense that what they're learning is interesting and important. A student that is engaged in the subject matter is much less likely to act inappropriately. A teacher that is excited and engaging himself helps tremendously in this aspect. Another technique for attempting to keep students interested is to give them some control over the happenings in the classroom. A student that feels a sense of ownership in a task is less likely disrupt it.

Use physical proximity to curb bad behavior. If two students are talking while you are trying to speak, simply continue what you are saying but move closer to the students. Students are far less likely to act inappropriately when the teacher is right next to them.

Research classroom management to a great extent. There is a plethora of studies, information and strategies that can help shed light on managing a classroom.

Reference:

https://education.gov.gy/web/index.php/teachers/tips-for-teaching/item/1151-how-to-deal-with-inappropriate-behavior-in-the-classroom