Course: Classroom Management (6403)   **Semester: Spring, 2021**

Level: ADE/B.Ed

Assignment No. 1

Q.1: Compare pair seting & cluster designs of classroom management

Cluster grouping is an educational process in which four to six gifted and talented (GT) or high-achieving students or both are assigned to an otherwise heterogeneous classroom within their grade to be instructed by a teacher who has had specialized training in differentiating for gifted learners. Clustering can be contrasted with other ability-grouping strategies in which high achievers fill their own dedicated class, entirely separate from other students.

Cluster grouping is not experimental as it has been used successfully since 1974.[2] While no single practice is a panacea for gifted instruction, Schuler's national survey showed a 99% positive approval rating among parents of clustered children and a 90% positive approval rating among the children themselves. Over two-thirds of administrators had a similar positive experience.

Although typically implemented in the upper elementary grades (3-6), cluster grouping has been used in grades K through 12. The methods for selecting children for cluster groups are usually similar to those for other gifted and talented services. Several instructional options are typically used within a cluster, including: enrichment and extensions, higher-order thinking skills, pretesting and differentiation, compacting, an accelerated pace, and more complex content. "Through cluster grouping the intellectual, social, and emotional needs of the gifted students can be addressed."

For clustering to be effective, the teacher must be motivated to work with gifted children and receive specialized training, the curriculum for the cluster must be appropriately differentiated, and the remainder of the class cannot contain difficult or demanding students. Other anecdotal success factors for teachers include: fostering the valuing and acceptance of differences within the classroom, allowing pretesting and credit for previously mastered material, designing independent study that utilizes student passion, remaining flexible in teaching style, and maintaining a sense of humor.

Advantages

There is strong research evidence supporting the tutorial benefits of clustering gifted students during a single classroom.Rogers, Karen B, Ph.D., *Re-forming Gifted Education* (Great Potential Press, Scottsdale, AZ, 2002), pp. 249. consistent with one survey, advantages include: cost effectiveness, high challenge and expectations of scholars , faster progression through curricula, administrative ease in observation of services, increased understanding of GT students, and an improved opportunity to deal with the psychological needs of the GT students.Schuler Also, children with subject-specific giftedness, who might rather be exclude from gifted pull-outs, are often placed within the cluster classroom to require part in advanced work when appropriate.Winebrenner, pp. 177-178. Some research has shown that clustering grouping produces positive academic results for *all* children within the cluster classroom.Gentry, M.

Concerns and criticism

Cluster grouping has experienced some negative reception. Teachers in schools that did not limit the extremes with the cluster classroom have expressed frustration at the required range of instruction. For this reason, Winebrenner recommends that the cluster classroom teacher *not* also have the neediest students. Some educators may become resentful if not selected as the cluster teacher. For fairness, the responsibility and opportunity of cluster grouping can be cycled in two-year terms through faculty members who are interested and have been trained in its use.

Administrators have at times resented special grouping, expressed frustration regarding scheduling, and have simply been biased against any programming for GT children. Difficulty can arise in placing gifted students who have recently moved into the school district.

Cluster grouping has been accused of denying academic leadership to other classes, but experience has proven otherwise. When gifted students are grouped for instruction, new leadership emerges among the remaining students. Clusters larger than six students have been criticized as unwieldy. In these cases, Winebrenner recommends splitting the group into two separate classrooms.

Parents may apply pressure for their children to be placed within the cluster classroom even if their child does not qualify for the cluster group and there is no research evidence of an inspirational effect. To address this problem, schools can ensure that all staff are trained in differentiation and that all non-GT students are cycled into a cluster classroom at an equal rate over the entirety of their school years.

Comparison to tracking, pull-outs, and mixed-ability groups

A comprehensive study of grouping by Rogers states, "Students who are academically or intellectually gifted and talented should spend the majority of their school day with others of similar abilities and interests." Magnet schools, schools within a school, and classrooms composed entirely of gifted students may not be appropriate in all districts. In these situations, the study goes on to state, "The Cluster Grouping of a small number of students, either intellectually gifted or gifted in a similar academic domain, within an otherwise heterogeneously grouped classroom can be considered when schools cannot support a full-time gifted program (either demographically, economically, or philosophically)."

Cluster grouping is distinct from tracking in that tracking organizes entire classrooms by ability, and little mobility exists between tracks as students progress through school. Conversely, cluster groups tends to *expand* over time rather than remain fixed.

While cluster groups allow GT children to spend the majority of their day with academic peers as recommended by research, pull-outs (also called "send-out" or "resource" programs) tend to meet one to two hours per week. A 1993 U.S. Government report found up to 72% of school districts using the pull-out approach despite this method being generally unsuccessful. This lack of effectiveness has been echoed in more recent literature as well. Specifically, this is because pull-outs are often a hodgepodge of critical thinking, logic puzzles, and random subjects (e.g., mythology) which are unlikely to result in any significant academic progress because they are not tied directly to the core curriculum. However, properly-implemented pull-out programs can be used to complement cluster grouping.

Finally, *mixed*-ability grouping does not provide academic benefit to gifted children, and it can result in alienation and isolation of GT students. In mixed ability group projects, gifted children frequently do most of the work or teach the other children, which is not their responsibility and for which they have no certification.

Reference:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cluster_grouping

Q.2 Write a brief note on physical development of child.

Physical development refers to the advancements and refinements of motor skills, or, in other words, children's abilities to use and control their bodies. Physical development is one of the many domains of infant and toddler development. It relates to the growth and skill development of the body, including the brain, muscles, and senses. For example, babies learn about the world as they develop their physical senses of sight, touch, smell, sound, and taste. In fact, babies can

hear well before they are born. Newborns like to look at faces and will seek interesting things to look at very early on. An infant can recognize the mother's smell and the sound of her voice within days after birth. From birth, infants are aware of the world around them, and the ability to grow, develop, and learn occurs quickly as infants begin to explore through their senses.

Gross-motor skills and *fine-motor skills* are developed during infancy and toddlerhood. Gross-motor skills involve the mastery of large muscle movements, as well as the building of strength in muscle groups like the arms, legs, and core. Examples of such skills for infants and toddlers include reaching, rolling, crawling, and climbing. Fine-motor skills involve smaller, more precise movements, particularly movements of the hands and fingers, such as grasping. As their bodies grow, infants and toddlers progressively strengthen their muscles and become better able to control their bodies. Each new motor skill that is developed is the result of an earlier skill and a contributor to new skills. Newborn infants do not have the strength to hold up their heads, however as they learn and develop control of muscles, they will be able to support their heads and move them from side to side to explore. Skill mastery and development are also the result of brain growth and development. Consider an infant who is starting to walk while holding on to couches and round-edged tables. This child must have acquired strength in the large muscles and a certain level of control over body movement. At the same time, the child also relies on vision to determine where to walk and what to cling onto. As infants and toddlers grow, their bodies and minds become capable of simple and mildly-complex movement and experiences.

Parents, teachers, and caregivers must stimulate toddlers and infants and encourage the development of gross- and fine-motor skills. For example, you may stimulate physical development by holding a toddler upright while moving each leg to imitate walking. Eventually, the child will become accustomed to the balance and muscle movements that are required to walk and be able to do it on his own. Infants and toddlers depend on their caregivers to meet their needs for safety and security. When infants and toddlers receive consistent, responsive care and attention from nurturing adults, they are able to establish a sense of trust in the world. This sense of being loved and feeling safe is essential to stimulate areas of development, including

physical development. When they feel safe and secure, infants and toddlers use their brains, muscles, and senses to explore the world around them.

Below you will find the typical progression of gross- and fine-motor skills in infants and toddlers, respectively.

Roll ➡ Scoot ➡ Crawl ➡ Walk ➡ March

Hands to Mouth → Reach Midline → Move Objects → Pincer Grasp → Scribble

Importance of Physical Growth and Development

Preparing infants and toddlers for school requires more than developing a set of skills; it includes physical development and health. When an infant or toddler is healthy and happy, he or she is more likely to engage in learning. Physical development and health can help prepare infants and toddlers for activities that support language development, social skills, and other areas of learning for school success.

While there is not one particular area of development that determines later school success, research highlights the importance of supporting a strong foundation by promoting healthy physical, social, emotional, and cognitive development. During infancy, foundations are created and built upon as other areas of development progress, such as physical and motor development. For example, young children will develop the abilities to balance, crawl, and walk from their foundational reflex responses. When infants and toddlers are able to move on their own, they are able to explore and contribute to their cognitive development in a way that was not possible when they were unable to walk or crawl.

Think about what life might be like for a one-year-old who has not started crawling. While sitting on his own, he struggles to coordinate movements, such as pushing up to a crawling position and moving his hands and legs at the same time. Most objects and people in his environment are brought to him to explore.

Reference:

https://www.virtuallabschool.org/infant-toddler/physical-development/lesson-1#:~:text=Physical%20development%20refers%20to%20the,of%20infant%20and%20toddler%20development**.**

Q.3 Define self-esteem. Further explain how it can be built by providing effective learning environment?

Self-esteem is an individual's subjective evaluation of their own worth. Self-esteem encompasses beliefs about oneself (for example, "I am unloved", "I am worthy") as well as emotional states, such as triumph, despair, pride, and shame. Smith and Mackie (2007) defined it by saying "The self-concept is what we think about the self; self-esteem, is the positive or negative evaluations of the self, as in how we feel about it."

Self-esteem is an attractive psychological construct because it predicts certain outcomes, such as academic achievement, happiness, satisfaction in marriage and relationships, and criminal behavior. Self-esteem can apply to a specific attribute (for example, "I believe I am a good writer and I feel happy about that") or globally (for example, "I believe I am a bad person, and I feel bad about myself in general"). Psychologists usually regard self-esteem as an enduring personality characteristic (*trait self-esteem*), though normal, short-term variations (*state self-esteem*) also exist. Synonyms or near-synonyms of self-esteem include many things: self-worth, self-regard, self-respect, and self-integrity.

History

The concept of self-esteem has its origins in the 18th century, first expressed in the writings of David Hume. The Scottish enlightenment thinker, shows the idea that it is important to value and think well of yourself because it serves as a motivational function that enables people to explore their full potential.

The identification of self-esteem as a distinct psychological construct has its origins in the work of philosopher, psychologist, geologist, and anthropologist William James (1892). James identified multiple dimensions of the self, with two levels of hierarchy: processes of knowing

(called the 'I-self') and the resulting knowledge about the self (the 'Me-self'). The observation about the self and storage of those observations by the I-self creates three types of knowledge, which collectively account for the Me-self, according to James. These are the material self, social self, and spiritual self. The social self comes closest to self-esteem, comprising all characteristics recognized by others. The material self consists of representations of the body and possessions and the spiritual self of descriptive representations and evaluative dispositions regarding the self. This view of self-esteem as the collection of an individual's attitudes toward oneself remains today.

In the mid-1960s, social psychologist Morris Rosenberg defined self-esteem as a feeling of self-worth and developed the Rosenberg self-esteem scale (RSES), which became the most-widely used scale to measure self-esteem in the social sciences.

In the early 20th century, the behaviorist movement minimized introspective study of mental processes, emotions, and feelings, replacing introspection with objective study through experiments on behaviors observed in relation with the environment. Behaviorism viewed the human being as an animal subject to reinforcements, and suggested placing psychology as an experimental science, similar to chemistry or biology. As a consequence, clinical trials on self-esteem were overlooked, since behaviorists considered the idea less liable to rigorous measurement. In the mid-20th century, the rise of phenomenology and humanistic psychology led to renewed interest in self-esteem. Self-esteem then took a central role in personal self-actualization and in the treatment of psychic disorders. Psychologists started to consider the relationship between psychotherapy and the personal satisfaction of persons with high self-esteem as useful to the field. This led to new elements being introduced to the concept of self-esteem, including the reasons why people tend to feel less worthy and why people become discouraged or unable to meet challenges by themselves.

In 1992 the political scientist Francis Fukuyama associated self-esteem with what Plato called *thymos* – the "spiritedness" part of the Platonic soul.

As of 1997 the core self-evaluations approach included self-esteem as one of four dimensions that comprise one's fundamental appraisal of oneself – along with locus of control, neuroticism, and self-efficacy.The concept of core self-evaluations as first examined by Judge, Locke, and Durham (1997), has since proven to have the ability to predict job satisfaction and job performance Self-esteem may be essential to self-evaluation.

In public police

The importance of self-esteem gained endorsement from some government and non-government groups starting around the 1970s, such that one can speak of a self-esteem movement. This movement can be used as an example of promising evidence that psychological research can have an effect on forming public policy. The underlying idea of the movement was that low self-esteem was the root of problems for individuals, making it the root of societal problems and dysfunctions. A leading figure of the movement, psychologist Nathaniel Branden, stated: "[I] cannot think of a single psychological problem – from anxiety and depression, to fear of intimacy or of success, to spouse battery or child molestation – that is not traced back to the problem of low self-esteem".

Self-esteem was believed to be a cultural phenomenon of Western individualistic societies since low self-esteem was not found in collectivist countries such as Japan. Concern about low self-esteem and its many presumed negative consequences led California assemblyman John Vasconcellos to work to set up and fund the Task Force on Self-Esteem and Personal and Social Responsibility in California in 1986. Vasconcellos argued that this task force could combat many of the state's problems – from crime and teen pregnancy to school underachievement and pollution. He compared increasing self-esteem to giving out a vaccine for a disease: it could help protect people from being overwhelmed by life's challenges.

The task force set up committees in many California counties and formed a committee of scholars to review the available literature on self-esteem. This committee found very small associations between low self-esteem and its assumed consequences, ultimately showing that low self-esteem is not the root of all societal problems and not as important as the committee had

originally thought. However, the authors of the paper that summarized the review of the literature still believe that self-esteem is an independent variable that affects major social problems. The task force disbanded in 1995, and the National Council for Self-Esteem and later the National Association for Self-Esteem (NASE) was established, taking on the task force's mission. Vasconcellos and Jack Canfield were members of its advisory board in 2003, and members of its Masters' Coalition included Anthony Robbins, Bernie Siegel, and Gloria Steinem.

Theories

Many early theories suggested that self-esteem is a basic human need or motivation. American psychologist Abraham Maslow included self-esteem in his hierarchy of human needs. He described two different forms of "esteem": the need for respect from others in the form of recognition, success, and admiration, and the need for self-respect in the form of self-love, self-confidence, skill, or aptitude. Respect from others was believed to be more fragile and easily lost than inner self-esteem. According to Maslow, without the fulfillment of the self-esteem need, individuals will be driven to seek it and unable to grow and obtain self-actualization. Maslow also states that the healthiest expression of self-esteem "is the one which manifests in the respect we deserve for others, more than renown, fame, and flattery". Modern theories of self-esteem explore the reasons humans are motivated to maintain a high regard for themselves. Sociometer theory maintains that self-esteem evolved to check one's level of status and acceptance in ones' social group. According to *Terror Management Theory*, self-esteem serves a protective function and reduces anxiety about life and death.

Carl Rogers (1902–1987), an advocate of humanistic psychology, theorized the origin of many people's problems to be that they despise themselves and consider themselves worthless and incapable of being loved. This is why Rogers believed in the importance of giving unconditional acceptance to a client and when this was done it could improve the client's self-esteem. In his therapy sessions with clients, he offered positive regard no matter what. Indeed, the concept of self-esteem is approached since then in humanistic psychology as an inalienable right for every person, summarized in the following sentence:

Every human being, with no exception, for the mere fact to be it, is worthy of unconditional respect of everybody else; he deserves to esteem himself and to be esteemed.

Measurement

Self-esteem is typically assessed using self-report inventories.

One of the most widely used instruments, the Rosenberg self-esteem scale (RSES) is a 10-item self-esteem scale score that requires participants to indicate their level of agreement with a series of statements about themselves. An alternative measure, The Coopersmith Inventory uses a 50-question battery over a variety of topics and asks subjects whether they rate someone as similar or dissimilar to themselves. If a subject's answers demonstrate solid self-regard, the scale regards them as well adjusted. If those answers reveal some inner shame, it considers them to be prone to social deviance.

Implicit measures of self-esteem began to be used in the 1980s.These rely on indirect measures of cognitive processing thought to be linked to implicit self-esteem, including the Name Letter Task. Such indirect measures are designed to reduce awareness of the process of assessment. When used to assess implicit self-esteem, psychologists feature self-relevant stimuli to the participant and then measure how quickly a person identifies positive or negative stimuli. For example, if a woman was given the self-relevant stimuli of female and mother, psychologists would measure how quickly she identified the negative word, evil, or the positive word, kind.

Development across lifespan

Experiences in a person's life are a major source of how self-esteem develops. In the early years of a child's life, parents have a significant influence on self-esteem and can be considered the main source of positive and negative experiences a child will have. Unconditional love from parents helps a child develop a stable sense of being cared for and respected. These feelings translate into later effects on self-esteem as the child grows older. Students in elementary school who have high self-esteem tend to have authoritative parents who are caring, supportive adults who set clear standards for their child and allow them to voice their opinion in decision making.

Although studies thus far have reported only a correlation of warm, supportive parenting styles (mainly authoritative and permissive) with children having high self-esteem, these

parenting styles could easily be thought of as having some causal effect in self-esteem development. Childhood experiences that contribute to healthy self-esteem include being listened to, being spoken to respectfully, receiving appropriate attention and affection and having accomplishments recognized and mistakes or failures acknowledged and accepted. Experiences that contribute to low self-esteem include being harshly criticized, being physically, sexually or emotionally abused, being ignored, ridiculed or teased or being expected to be "perfect" all the time.

During school-aged years, academic achievement is a significant contributor to self-esteem development. Consistently achieving success or consistently failing will have a strong effect on students' individual self-esteem.However, students can also experience low self-esteem while in school. For example, they may not have academic achievements, or they live in a troubled environment outside of school. Issues like the ones previously stated, can cause adolescents to doubt themselves. Social experiences are another important contributor to self-esteem. As children go through school, they begin to understand and recognize differences between themselves and their classmates. Using social comparisons, children assess whether they did better or worse than classmates in different activities. These comparisons play an important role in shaping the child's self-esteem and influence the positive or negative feelings they have about themselves. As children go through adolescence, peer influence becomes much more important. Adolescents make appraisals of themselves based on their relationships with close friends. Successful relationships among friends are very important to the development of high self-esteem for children. Social acceptance brings about confidence and produces high self-esteem, whereas rejection from peers and loneliness brings about self-doubts and produces low self-esteem.

Adolescence shows an increase in self-esteem that continues to increase in young adulthood and middle age. A decrease is seen from middle age to old age with varying findings on whether it is a small or large decrease. Reasons for the variability could be because of differences in health, cognitive ability, and socioeconomic status in old age. No differences have been found between males and females in their development of self-esteem. Multiple cohort studies show that there is not a difference in the life-span trajectory of self-esteem between generations due to societal changes such as grade inflation in education or the presence of social media.

High levels of mastery, low risk taking, and better health are ways to predict higher self-esteem. In terms of personality, emotionally stable, extroverted, and conscientious individuals experience higher self-esteem. These predictors have shown us that self-esteem has trait-like qualities by remaining stable over time like personality and intelligence.However, this does not mean it can not be changed. Hispanic adolescents have a slightly lower self-esteem than their black and white peers, but then slightly higher levels by age 30. African Americans have a sharper increase in self-esteem in adolescence and young adulthood compared to Whites. However, during old age, they experience a more rapid decline in self-esteem

Reference:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Self-esteem#:~:text=Self%2Desteem%20is%20an%20individual's, despair%2C%20pride%2C%20and%20shame.

Q.4 What are the purposes of establishing rules and routines in the classroom? Further discuss with examples that these are helpful in maintaining discipline of clsasroom.

Importance of procedures and routines in the classroom

Routine is the key to a well-managed and organized classroom. Routines help students to focus on learning and also help them to understand what is expected of them. International Schools generally have the best management and all things are organized pretty well. Interruptions are reduced, and learning prospers when procedures and routines are established. To truly fall into a routine, students may take several weeks. At the beginning of the year, procedures should be taught and practiced to give structure and efficiency to your class. Given below is the list of routines to be taught in the first few days of school, appropriate for elementary and all other grades. However, you can modify them according to your school's policies.

For Elementary Grades

1. Beginning the Day

Backpacks, snacks, Coats and other outer clothing which are not required during school should be put away; firstly, as soon as the child enters the classroom. After that, students can start with their morning work or await morning meeting or can place their previous day homework.

Teachers may also ask students about the things to be updated at this time like flexible seating charts, attendance counts, lunch tags, etc.

Note: When the students in secondary grades come in, they are allowed to do their morning tasks independently.

2. Ending the Day

At the end of the day, 15 minutes before the bell rings, students should begin to put all their materials away, but their work for the day in the homework folder and clean off their desk or table. They should be dismissed only when the class is organized; chairs are stacked, their belongings are gathered and lastly sitting quietly on the carpet.

3. Lining Up

In lower grades, it is very difficult to practice to line up the students efficiently. They should be taught to wait until their row or name is called to grab any material or to put away their supplies. The importance of lining up silently should be told to the students.

For All Grades

1- Entering and Leaving the Room

Students should remain silent while entering or leaving the classrooms. They must not disturb classmates or other classes when going to the bathrooms, leaving early, coming late, at periods of transition, during lunch or assemblies.

2- Using the Restroom

Students should inform the teacher about their whereabouts before leaving in the middle of a lesson. Not more than one student should be allowed to leave to use the restroom. Bathroom passes must be given by the teachers to the students when they leave. Safety is ensured when the whereabouts of every student are known.

3- Fire Drills

After hearing the fire alarm, students should be taught to remain calm by stopping their activities then and placing the things there and walking through the door quietly. Older students should be allowed to exit the room and meet at the designated place while the elementary grade students should be lined up at the door. Teachers are responsible for taking attendance and reporting immediately to the administration in case of someone found missing, collecting fire drill supplies.

Disruptive and uncooperative behavior is a growing problem in schools today, as teachers become ever more precautious about how they carry out classroom discipline. Many are scared about circulating stories in the media, in which students have taken legal action against teachers who have punished them for bad behavior. However, it is essential that strict measures are in place if the students are to receive a good education - here are some easy ways to improve your classroom discipline.

1. Don't reward disruptive behavior with attention.

More often than not, disruptive pupils are simply seeking attention. The worst thing you as a teacher can do is focus the classroom's attention on an incident. Try to minimize the amount of time you spend talking to the student - simply looking in their direction and asking them to remain behind at the end is an effective method. Punishment can be dealt with then, away from their classmates. Whatever you do, don't ask them to wait outside - that gives them a perfect opportunity to disrupt other classes. If they are causing too much distraction to stay in the class take them to the principal's office (or better, ask a classroom assistant to do so if that option is available).

2. Consistency is the key.

No matter whether it's thanksgiving, or the last day of the semester, classroom discipline must remain consistent. Students must know what the boundaries are; they will get confused if these are constantly changing. Children and teenagers actually like there being solid boundaries in place, so they know how to behave in an appropriate manner. Making a clear set of classroom rules is the easiest way to gain and keep the respect of your pupils.

3. Reward good behavior.

Many students, particularly younger ones, respond incredibly well to rewards, even if the threat of punishment doesn't bother them. They are incentivized and motivated to be on their best behavior. An effective method is a long-term reward system, such as a merit chart, so pupils don't want to ruin their progress with an incident of disruptiveness. This should work alongside a weekly reward system, so students that have behaved badly in the past can start a 'fresh' week of good behavior.

4. Clarity and consequences.

Rules must be easy to understand - and the consequences of unacceptable actions must be known, as well as enforced every time. Clarity is very important here; any regulation must be stated very simply, so all students know exactly what it means. There must be no way to 'bend the rules' as this can lead to disputes. Also if consequences aren't always carried out students will think they can get away with it again.

5. Be fair.

No matter who your favorite student is, or which children you simply detest, all students must be treated equally. This is the number one rule for good classroom discipline. If a pupil feels they are being treated unfairly, they will lose all respect for you immediately and become unmotivated to behave well in the future.

Reference:

https://www.ecoleglobale.com/blog/importance-of-procedures-and-routines-in-the-classroom/

https://www.teach-nology.com/teachers/methods/management/5ways.html

Q.5 Discuss the causes of students' undesired behavior in classroom

Misbehavior causes disturbances in the classroom and makes it difficult for students to enjoy the educational process.Below is a list of four possible motives for misbehavior. In addition to these causes, there are other factors to consider that may result in a student who refuses to act appropriately.

Seeking Attention

Being the center of attention is a common desire for students, some more than others. Acting out by making fun of others, swearing, talking out of turn or simply being uncooperative are a few ways students looking for more of the spotlight may misbehave.

Desire for Power

Some students who misbehave are expressing a desire for more control in the classroom, and acting inappropriately makes them feel powerful. These students are not content to go along with the general plan and make it known they want things their way. Signs of a power-seeking student include constant arguing and a refusal to follow basic rules intended for everyone.

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Looking for Revenge

Some children lash out in the classroom as a response to hurt feelings they experience. By misbehaving, they feel they are getting back at those responsible, whether it involves the students, the teacher or both. Students who misbehave as a motive for revenge may enjoy acting cruelly or even violently towards others. Revenge seekers are likely to perform bullying acts, such as shoving and excessive teasing.

Lack of Self-Confidence

A general fear of failure occurs when a student feels he cannot possibly live up to any expectations. These students misbehave as a way to avoid participating in anything that may lead to failure. Although the child may seem completely confident with school-related activities outside of the classroom, he acts incapable of functioning in a learning environment.

Physiological Factors

Students who are misbehaving may have some kind of temporary malady contributing to their attitude. For instance, a child who is overly tired, sick, hungry or simply the victim of a sudden change in routine may demonstrate troubling classroom behavior.

Students who are misbehaving may have some kind of temporary malady contributing to their attitude.

Classroom Environment

A classroom not designed for optimal learning may contribute to a student who refuses to behave. Poor seating arrangements, extreme temperatures or a high noise level are all distracting elements in a classroom that ultimately hinder the learning experience. The atmosphere in classrooms like these will result in behavior issues.

Poor seating arrangements may result in behavior issues.

Problems with Curriculum

Some students may not feel challenged enough to behave properly. If the information taught is not appropriate for the learning abilities of an individual, she may mentally withdraw out of boredom or frustration, resulting in behavior problems. Additionally, a particular teacher's instruction style may cause conflicts with a student, disrupting the learning process.

Refrence:

https://www.education.gov.gy/web/index.php/teachers/tips-for-teaching/item/1675-what-are-the-causes-of-misbehavior-in-the-classroom