



Research Paper

Effect of Classroom Management on Students' Stress Level in Ghana: A Case of Senior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis, Ghana

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ABSTRACT: This study's general objective is to investigate the effect of classroom management on students' stress level in Ghana: a case of senior high schools in the Kumasi Metropolis, Ghana. Four research questions were designed for study, first, determining the perceived amount of stress experienced by high school students, reasons of high school pupils' stress levels as perceived by teacher, whether teachers' classroom management has a substantial and beneficial effect on high school pupils' stress levels and the stress coping tactics used by instructors to help high school pupils in Ghana's Kumasi Metropolis cope with stress. The study adopted the quantitative research approach for the study. The researchers collected data quantitatively via the use of the descriptive research approach. Therefore 365 teachers and 314 students were sampled from the six senior high schools. The study adopted the proportionate random sampling was employed to proportionately distribute the total sample size among the six senior high school used. The study found a statistically significant between teachers' classroom management dimensions in terms of personal management, teaching and learning and discipline. The study asserted that teaching and learning significantly contributes to students' stress level by almost 67%. There is a need for teachers to reconsider the kind of teaching and learning environment they create for students and hence, reduce students' workload if possible or establish good rapport with them so as to reduce their stress level. The study further revealed a need for stress coping strategies to be implemented by students to reduce their high stress levels in the classroom. It was recommended to teachers and students benefit from induction and mentorship programs. Programmes aimed to improve student behavior and social and emotional learning (SEL) benefit instructors and boost classroom learning. Stress and mindfulness-based professional development workshops should be organized for both teachers and students to help them maintain and increase their attention.

KEYWORDS: Stress; Classroom Management; Stress Coping Strategies; Kumasi; Structural Equation Modelling

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I. INTRODUCTION

Stress is an inevitable component of daily life. We are often exposed to stressful events in our everyday lives. Individuals perceive and respond differently to stressful experiences. For instance, public speaking may be stressful for some and pleasant for others. However, excessive stress may result in major physical and societal consequences. The main aim of educating primary school students is to prepare them for lifetime learning of basis of subject matter that will be delve in detail at a progressed level. With the current trends of the world and the influx of use of diverse course of study stress is common among many students. Teaching pedagogy permeates into all compasses of life of students in acquiring modern education necessary for the current needs of the society, it is imperious that education of high school students do not stress them out or managed. The research examines the effect of classroom management effectiveness on lowering high school pupils' stress levels in Ghana's Kumasi city. The portion of the study will cover the following topics: the study's background,

the issue statement, the research goals, the research questions, the study's importance, the study's limitations, the study's delimitation, and the study's structure.

Motivation of the Study

One of the most important traits of a competent teacher is his or her ability to manage the classroom efficiently, ensuring that teaching and learning go smoothly and that the instructional session's objective is accomplished (Marzano, Marzano, & Pickering 2003; Postholm 2013). Goss, Sonnemann, and Griffiths (2017) discovered that effective classroom management had a beneficial effect on students' academic achievement. On the other side, instructors' inability to manage the classroom successfully may result in poor teaching and learning outcomes such as students' low academic performance, a lack of knowledge of subject matter, and an increase in students' stress level, to name a few (Jones and Jones 2012). Classroom management is a primary concern for many instructors when it comes to safeguarding the welfare of their pupils, according to research on successful teaching and learning in the classroom (McKee, 2001; O'Niell, & Stephenson, 2012). Classroom management encompasses a variety of tasks, including classroom organisation, discipline and rule establishing, instructional interaction and administration, retaining students' attention, monitoring and supervising the classroom environment, and assuring orderliness (Marzano, Marzano, and Pickering 2003). From the early 1970's to the present, several studies on the essence of classroom management have been undertaken, extending all the way back to Skinner (1953), Thorndike (1919), and a slew of other prominent psychologists and educational scholars. Bassey (2012) defines classroom management as an increase in classroom engagement, a decrease in inappropriate and troublesome student behaviours, an increase in student responsibility for academic work, and an increase in academic success. This indicates that successful classroom management strategies such as discipline, control, and consequences are transformed into disciplinary classroom management approaches. Thus, classroom management refers to the manner in which the instructor works, the manner in which the class works, the manner in which the teacher and students collaborate, and the manner in which teaching and learning occur (Charlie, 2006; Williams, 2008).

The management of the classroom is critical because it may influence the cognitive, behavioural, and many other aspects of students' lives. Among these behavioural issues are kids' emotional difficulties, such as a high degree of stress. Chinaveh (2013) argued that stress seems to have harmed many students over the last number of years and thus has gained substantial attention by many academics on the major influence of teachers' classroom management techniques and students' degree of stress. According to Cohen, Kessler, and Gordon (1995; Dougall & Baum, 2001), there is a degree of association between classroom management and students' mental health, more precisely, the students' stress level in class and, if feasible, reducing the stress to the bare minimum. Psychological and health consequences as a correlation or predictor. According to Misra (2004), the degree of stress experienced by pupils has an effect on their academic performance (Womble, 2001). This means that instructors' inability to manage the classroom properly results in an increase in students' stress levels, which in turn results in students struggling to study, encountering psychological difficulties, and even raising the drop-out rate of students. This is because the pupils are dealing with emotional issues and so lacks the necessary mentality for learning and the ability to utilize their mental faculties effectively while teaching and learning in the classroom.

Teachers' inability to manage students' stress levels in the classroom seems to have an irreversible effect on students' academic achievement, confidence and self-esteem, and even health concerns (Misra, 2004). It has been determined that mental stress is one of the greatest risks to human existence in general (Misra & Castillo, 2004; Womble, 2001). It is critical to acknowledge that stress is a natural component of kids' lives and that its impacts on pupils are always negative. According to Shahmohammad (2011), some students are motivated by a little bit of stress, which motivates them to go above and beyond their capacities. According to researchers such as (Ryan & Twibell, 2000; Henderson, 2003; Hicks, & Miller, 2006; Dolbier, Smit, & Steinhardt, 2007), a large proportion of students feel stunned that they are stressed out as a result of teachers' management of their classroom learning, which results in depression and hopelessness, which has a detrimental effect on their academic performance (Hicks & Miller, 2006; Kolene, Hartly & Murdock, 1990; The National Alliance for mental Health, 2005; Ryan & Twibell, 2000; Veaser, & Blakemore, 2006). It is critical for instructors to address kids' stress as part of teaching and learning. Teachers may teach pupils on good time management techniques to avoid feeling pressured. Time management is critical for managers and workers, but it is also crucial for anybody who earns money to enhance their life. The correct strategy for pupils to cope with stress is to plan and prepare ahead of time by efficiently managing their time and identifying stress-coping strategies is critical during this moment (Barakat, 2001).

Every teacher's primary goal in a classroom is to impart knowledge that will aid in the correct upbringing of pupils and the accomplishment of class objectives. One of the primary tenets is to provide a safe, well-maintained, and disciplined learning environment. The disciplining tactics used, the amount of subject matter presented in class, the contacts and relationships instructors have with students all have the potential to

enhance or decrease the degree of stress kids experience. Many kids in Ghana's internal and external environment confront several distractions, such as pressure from family, school, friends, and even social media, all of which have a detrimental effect on their psychological and social mental well-being. Teachers' classroom management has a substantial impact on students' stress levels, highlighting the importance of this research. Effective and effective classroom management aims to create an atmosphere favourable to learning in which students may overcome psychological and emotional difficulties and do better academically. Until far, research on classroom management has mostly focused on its effect on students' academic success, with little attention paid to students' stress levels (Emmer & Stough, 2001). As a result, research is needed to examine the relationship between classroom management and students' stress levels (Klusmann, Kunter, Trautwein, Lüdtke, & Baumert, 2008). This necessitates the investigation of the effect of classroom management on the degree of stress experienced by high school pupils.

Stress is a difficult term to grasp. While normal stress at home, school, and job might be justified on its own, when combined, they can produce significant pressure. Different factors contribute to stress in different individuals. Additionally, it is an integral element of every student's everyday life. From the beginning until the end of university life, the many forms of instruction and their associated expectations create stress. A student's life is impacted by a variety of stresses, including academic pressure with an expectation of achievement, an unclear future, and anticipated challenges with system integration. These adolescents experience social, emotional, physical, and familial difficulties that may impair their capacity to learn and academic achievement (Chewgrahan, Rogers & Yassin, 2003).

Stress impairs university students' ability to concentrate and enjoy studying, as well as their ability to behave peacefully and develop their distinctive abilities. Accumulated stress contributes to frustration, despair, and anxiety, and may result in attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, drug addiction, antisocial conduct, and even violence. Stress has become a hot subject both in the academic community and in our culture. It has grown widespread among university students and may be addressed via stress management measures, since academic stress can have both beneficial and bad implications if not properly managed. Stress management is the capacity to sustain and regulate oneself when circumstances, people, and events place unreasonable demands on one. Different ways may be used to detect stress in university students. We must inspect and supervise university students' aberrant or strange conduct. As a result, appropriate steps should be done to eliminate the kids' deficit level. This study examines all of these variables, identifies indicators of stress, and also provides appropriate ways for resolving the issues. Individuals' personalities also influence their responses to prospective pressures. Certain individuals are just unconcerned by conditions that others see as distressing (Glavin et al, 1991).

Academic sectors experience stress for a variety of causes. Numerous stresses have been recognised at academic institutions, including a high volume of tasks, rivalry with other students, failures, a scarcity of pocket money (Fairbrother & Warn, 2003), bad relationships with other students or professors, family or personal difficulties. Overcrowded lecture rooms (Omgori, 2007; Awino & Agolla, 2008), the semester system, and insufficient resources to complete academic work are institutional (university) level pressures (Erkutlu & Chafra 2000). It is important to note that regardless of the cause, the majority of stress experienced by students may be considered as beneficial. Distress is not usually synonymous with stress. Stress may occur as a result of both good and bad situations. The tension that students experience when they begin tests for which they have studied is much different from the stress experienced by students who have not taken the time to study. When managed properly, stress may be a beneficial component of our lives. "Increased stress boosts productivity up to a degree, at which point things quickly worsen," according to Paul J. Rosch, M.D., President of the American Institute of Stress (2007). Utilizing stress productively requires knowledge of the distinction between stress as a performance booster and stress as a roadblock. While stress is sometimes portrayed negatively, a healthy or moderate degree of stress pushes individuals to take action, acquire new abilities, attain performance, and maximize their potential. Stress is not unique to university; it is a part of life; developing the ability to anticipate, identify, and manage stress effectively is a critical life skill, since mismanaged stress may result in emotional, physical, and interpersonal difficulties. tudy and obligations. Students endure several physical and psychological difficulties during study hours as a result of learning stress. It is critical for students at educational institutions to understand the nature of learning stress and how instructors' abilities to manage the classroom help minimize students' stress levels.

The primary objective of this research was to determine the effect of classroom management on lowering high school students' stress levels in the Kumasi Metropolis. The study's objective was to:

1. Determine the perceived amount of stress experienced by high school students in the Ghanaian capital of Kumasi.
2. Determine the reported reasons of high school pupils' stress levels as perceived by instructors in the Kumasi Metropolitan Area of Ghana.
3. Determine if teachers' classroom management has a substantial and beneficial effect on high school pupils' stress levels in Ghana's Kumasi Metropolis.

4. Examine the stress coping tactics used by instructors to help high school pupils in Ghana's Kumasi Metropolis cope with stress.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. Theoretical Review

1) Classroom Interventionists

Interventionist classroom managers seek to manage the classroom by intervening to shape student behavior with consequences. Skinner, Bandura, Dreikurs, and Canter each provide a unique contribution to our present understanding of interventionist classroom management. Skinner's behaviour management principles emphasised consequences. B.F. Skinner thought that the consequences of one's actions affect one's behaviour. « Behaviorism is not the science of human behaviour; it is the philosophy of that science, » Skinner remarked in 1974. (p.3). By increasing desirable behaviours and decreasing undesired ones, Skinner says. Reminders might be social, pictorial, tactile, or activity-based (Andrius, 2012). In the words of Skinner (1974), "Everything we know about operant conditioning is applicable to making behaviour more or less likely." This is the classic realm of rewards and punishment, but using knowledge of reinforcement contingencies allows for far finer distinctions" (p.181). The chance of a certain behaviour is raised or lowered by positive or negative reinforcement each time the behaviour is shown, such that the subject begins to link the reward with the activity (American Heritage Dictionary, 2009, p. 1).

Skinner (1974) suggested that rapid reinforcement may manage the classroom atmosphere. In order to establish an atmosphere where each student works successfully, reinforcers might be positive or negative (special chances, celebrations, candies). The solution to every issue, Skinner (1974) concluded, is to embrace a practical theory of human behaviour (p.251). Consequences may influence a student's conduct, according to Skinner. In a classroom with several students, learning might occur vicariously. A social learning theory was required to expand the behaviourist idea of learning from consequences to include learning from others' behaviour.

Albert Bandura established the Social Learning Theory, based on the idea that individuals learn from one other. Bandura (1986, 1997) believed kids learn through seeing and imitating parents, instructors, or other pupils. Bandura felt that people will imitate one another's actions (Bandura, 1993). This notion affects classroom management. The Social Learning Theory of Bandura (1986, 1997) states that individuals develop a self-efficacy or self-belief system that helps them to manage their ideas, behaviours, inspiration, drive, and emotions.

It is the conviction in one's capacity to arrange and execute the courses of action necessary to handle future problems (Bandura, 1997, p. 2). Social Learning Theory also highlights the role of student perceptions in the learning process, emphasising the premise that individuals often learn from others (Bandura, 1986). So social learning is vital in schools. Bandura (1997) thought that self-efficacy influenced people's decisions since experiences and learning from others are the foundations of behaviour. "Efficacy beliefs underpin human agency. Few individuals act or persist in the face of adversity unless they feel they can generate desirable consequences and prevent damaging ones (Bandura, 2001, p. 10). People are both products and producers in their surroundings, according to Bandura (1997), who coined the term "triadic reciprocal causation" (Bandura, 1997, p.6). This triadic reciprocal causality between thinking, influence, and action (Bandura, 1997) influences how individuals behave (Bandura, 1986; Bower, 1975; Neisser, 1976). Efficacy views in one's talents impact current and future behaviours. Students learn from one other, and instructors may impact student behaviour by helping students recognise they have the potential to change.

While Bandura's Social Learning Theory broadened the theories of behaviourists like Skinner, Dreikurs demonstrated how interventionist classroom management might occur without incentives or punishments by concentrating on logical implications of classroom behaviour. Classroom discipline was socialised by Rudolf Dreikurs. "Dreikurs had four behavioural goals: attention, power, vengeance, and avoidance of (McLain, 2008, p.1). "Dreikurs disapproved of punishment, reinforcement, or praise. The most effective approaches for avoiding disciplinary issues, he argued, are natural/logical consequences (directly linked to misbehaviour, moral judgements, etc.) and encouragement (Gurcan & Tekin, n.d., p.6). Dreikurs (1991) believed in teaching pupils democratically. Teachers must be both kind and tough. Less speaking and more action can help the instructor educate in a cooperative (sic) environment where pupils are eager to learn and disciplinary issues are limited (Dreikurs & Cassel, 1991, p. 96). According to this cognitive paradigm, pupils who comprehend the logical repercussions of their actions are more likely to behave in accordance with classroom objectives.

Interventionists include behaviorists like Skinner, social learning theorists like Bandura, and cognitivists like Dreikurs. Canter is a strong interventionist teacher. Lee Canter supported interventionist reactive discipline. Assertive Discipline was developed by Lee and Marlene Canter in 1976. They discovered that many instructors were unable to regulate classroom activity while consulting with school systems (Canter & Canter, 1993). The aggressive discipline approach was designed to help instructors eliminate behavioral issues. Canter and Canter (1993) state that assertive instructors feel a teacher-in-charge classroom is better for pupils.

They think the children want the instructor to control their behavior” (p.1). The Canter's views and practices have evolved to meet changing social and educational trends, as well as requests from state and federal educational authorities. Like Skinner (1974), Canter & Canter believed in using incentives and penalties to motivate pupils to make good decisions. Creating a happy learning environment is the main goal of the Canter (2006). He felt that interactions between students and instructors might achieve this entire Canter, 2006). He established a list of excellent classroom supervisors. These include setting rules, procedures, and student expectations. Positive aspects of Canter's classroom management method include inspiring pupils beyond their unique ability. A effective learning environment should be proactive, according to Canter & Canter (2001). Teachers who want to create this sort of learning environment must give it the same thought and preparation.

Canter and Canter (1976) explored the advantages of forceful classroom management. Consistency and instructor confidence are some of the advantages of this sort of management method. Essentially, instructors tend to use methods that avoid behavioral disorders. According to Good and Trophy (1984), “many instructors thought their value as a teacher was closely tied to their effectiveness in using management skills” (p.1). In assertive/reactive discipline, instructors create a reward system with positive and negative consequences depending on student conduct. The original concept required instructors to write pupils' names on the board when a violation occurred (Canter & Canter, 1976). That technique has been abandoned in favour of recording names in a notebook or record book. This avoids humiliation and preserves teachers' privacy. The Canter system had a serious flaw: instructors were required to apply a reward system for desired behaviours that were never related to real-life events. No Child Left Behind requires instructors to build solutions based on real-life experiences (U. S. Department of Education, 2008). Sadly, Canter & Canter did not establish any non-assertive disciplining techniques or practises. Their main assumption was that if instructors used disciplinary action to regulate their pupils, then the classroom would be well-behaved (Canter & Canter, 1992). They thought that not only should responsible conduct be taught, but also the educator's expectations (Canter and Canter, 2001).

The interventionist classroom management style is reactive, offering consequences for student conduct (Skinner, 1974). (Bandura, 1997). Intervenors may be aggressive and use logical consequences as powerfully as incentives and punishments (Canter & Canter, 1992). But interventionist classroom management has its limits. Thus, interventionists are more reactive than proactive. Student conduct drives the classroom, and the instructor is no longer a teacher but a disciplinarian. Reactive teachers, according to Churchward (2009), "seem to aggravate classroom difficulties" (p.1). Non-interventionist classroom supervisors are proactive rather than reactive.

2) Theoretical Underpinning: Theories of Behaviorism and Constructivism

Skinner and Watson are two significant thinkers in the field of behaviourism and constructivism. However, Piaget and Vygotsky's constructivism thesis gained acceptance. Watson and Skinner believed that behaviour could be predicted and controlled (Skinner, 1974). Alternatively, constructivists Piaget and Vygotsky outlined the components that helped hypothesise what children grasp at different stages (Rummel, 2008). The behaviourists think that only observable, quantifiable, and visible behaviour is worthy of scientific investigation (Bush, 2006, p.14). Thus, their concentration on learning was influenced by behavioural changes. They concluded that all students could learn if the right contextual factors were in place.

A behaviourist is someone who is tenacious in examining the knowledge to be taught and the environment's effect once learned (Bush, 2006). Conversely, constructivists think differently because they see learning as a search for meaning. They claim that the learner constructs knowledge and develops understanding via experience. They also want to know how the learner is attempting to generate meaning (Bush, 2006). Rather than teaching students how to learn and become self-disciplined learners who value the process of learning new things and completing an activity as the reward, Hardesty (2018) believes teacher oriented behaviourism is ineffective in the classroom.

Furthermore, the current reward and punishment system favours teachers rather than students, which is unjust. As a pre-service teacher, she promotes a person-centered system that meets the needs of both the learner and the instructor. She cites a rigorous evaluation of 119 people/student centred learning studies that spanned 56 years and showed favourable changes in math abilities, self-esteem, creativity, talent, and critical thinking. There has also been a decrease in dropouts, increased attendance, and improved behaviour. In this setting, a system like this benefits students and instructors. The students gained self-esteem, were less disruptive, and behaved better, easing the teacher's workload.

A constructivist teacher creates a learning environment that is informational, interactive, energising, and immersive. In a constructivist context, a student-centered approach is used to teach. Maor (1999) cites research that show the value of altering the teacher's role in the learning process. A teacher would become a coordinator or mentor, says Maor (1999). They do not hold all the knowledge, allowing it to flow down to the learner's substantial resources. In this environment, uncertainty arises and enfolds their new duty, perhaps adding to instructors' unease (Schwier & Cey, 2001). Constructivist instructors must establish chances for peer

and teacher-oriented scaffolding; a technique that allows interaction, fosters knowledge acquisition, and bridges knowledge gaps within a classroom context. A traditional instructor would be displeased with such an exchange (Jarvinen 1998, Cohen, 1993)

Moving on to classroom management and stress issues for both instructors and kids. Constructivism is the greatest philosophy for generating a good learning environment that can lead to competent classroom management. Before we get into the research on classroom management and stress reduction, it's important to understand what classroom management is.

The research used behaviorism and constructivism as guides. Skinner and Watson proposed this hypothesis. Skinner (1974) shown that student and individual behavior may be predicted and improved. Behavior can be watched and recorded, affecting students' performance and growth both within and outside the classroom, according to behaviorist thinkers (Bush, 2006). Piaget and Vygotsky described constructivism as a theory in which students are aided in learning rather than being taught what to learn. Constructivists, on the other hand, see learning as students' search for meaning rather than merely absorbing what is taught (Rummer, 2008). To become part of and helpful in real life concerns such as conquering stress levels or many other challenges of life, these theories think that learners must gain information for themselves by seeking to experience learning. The correct learning environment may impact students' cognitive, emotive, and behavioral dimensions of learning. The notion of behaviorism is unproductive in the classroom, according to (Hardesty, 2018), since students are conditioned to accept a reward in the form of high academic outcomes and meet instructor expectations, rather than instructing students on how to study and apply what they learn in the real world.

The behaviorist paradigm advocates a reward and punishment system (teacher-centered approach) that favors teachers over pupils and is unjust to children. (Alteneiji, 2019) pushes for a student-centered system that focuses on student needs. Carter (2010) found that pupils' critical thinking, inventiveness, math abilities, self-esteem, and talents seem to have improved. The research also indicated a decrease in student dropouts, higher attendance, and less extreme conduct. A teacher that uses constructivism creates an atmosphere where students learn, engage, and are immersed. It is important for pupils to learn from their teachers, according to Maor (1999). Schwier & Cey (2001) noted that instructors should provide chances for peer assistance that encourages student participation and fosters knowledge growth. A favorable learning environment produced by instructors may certainly affect students in producing an efficient classroom management such as minimising students' stress levels.

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B. Conceptual Review on Classroom Management

Many instructors are concerned about classroom management when it comes to helping pupils improve their academic, economic, and social well-being (Okutam, 2005). Classroom management is the act of establishing a teaching and learning environment that supports students' academic success as well as their social and behavioural well-being (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006). Good classroom management tactics that complement educational goals, classroom activities, and aiding students beyond the classroom are essential for instructors to know (Emmer & Stough, 2001). In order to prevent difficulties such as stress (Marzano, 2008; Wang, Haertel & Walberg, 1993), researchers have found suitable techniques via which instructors may guarantee that classroom interactions assist forecast students' learning and identify students' flaws and strengths. The effectiveness of classroom management procedures by a teacher affects pupils' discipline level, according to Wang et al. (1993).

Cai, Perry, Wong, & Wang (2009) concluded that excellent classroom management is the most important part of successful teaching and learning. According to Pandey (2006), classroom management is not a natural talent. The classroom management skills of some instructors look superior. Some respondents mentioned classroom management as a skill of a competent teacher. Classroom management is a skill that teachers may learn, just like any other profession, to assist pupils overcome psychological, behavioural, and emotional issues including stress. According to Abel (2011), classroom management abilities include planning, organising, directing, supervising, and interacting with pupils. To assist children learn in a distraction-free and problem-solving environment, instructors must become innovative, devoted, willing, flexible, and contingent thinkers (Abel, 2011).

The research has established a link between poorly managed classrooms and students' disruptive activities including napping, truancy, eating, tension, and even threatening instructors and classmates (Ekere, 2006). Effiong (2007) argued that instructors might cope with disruptive pupils in the classroom by managing management well, allowing for successful learning in a low-stress setting. Reduced disruptive conduct in the classroom would boost student academic attainment and perhaps bring children to the minimal level. It was determined that instructors should carefully watch students in their everyday involvement with them, asking questions utilising verbal and nonverbal signs and approaches to guarantee that pupils are paying undivided attention. Making kids trust them so they learn from lessons and experiences rather than just information, and can manage issues in life. Wubbels, Brekelmans, den Brok, & van Tartwijk (2006) explored classroom management relationships between students and instructors. For example, authoritative or directive teacher conduct leads to greater cognitive performance for pupils (den Brok, Brekelmans, & Wubbels, 2004). (den Brok, Fisher, & Scott, 2005). When you think of classroom management, you probably picture a teacher or a class monitor who keeps the peace and maintains an organized framework where everything is done according to plan. Classroom management includes everything from effectively delivering class lectures to ensuring all students are fully engaged in classroom activities. In a nutshell, it is maintaining discipline and handling out of control situations. Since teaching cannot be done in a vacuum, it requires a calm setting and most crucially, the learners' full attention. Classroom management is neither a normal task nor a minor component of teaching; it is the primary component. Classroom management refers to the procedures and strategies used by teachers to provide a positive learning environment for students. The environment is one of the main aspects that contribute to their success (Classroom management definition, n.d)

Classroom management refers to the abilities and strategies used by instructors to ensure students behave properly, pay attention, concentrate on assigned tasks, and perform academically productively. (Management, 2014) If instructors use classroom management tactics effectively, they may lessen disruptive behavior for individuals and groups of students. The hallmark of an inexperienced or less capable instructor is a poorly arranged classroom consisting of students who are not paying attention and not delivering academic outcomes via the tasks they are assigned (Classroom management, 2014). A badly designed classroom with no routines or standards makes it difficult for the teacher to do her job effectively. Pupils will be confused about what to do, which may produce class disruptions such as bullying, fighting, or other disruptive behaviors. We must remember that it is the instructor who constantly redirects students or deals with behavioral issues, therefore wasting valuable teaching time. It is thus vital to have strong measures in place to guarantee everything runs well (Why classroom management is important, n.d)

Nazzal (2015) mentions the situation of the UAE, where classroom management might be difficult due to the advent of internet recordings showing instructors severely assaulting students in UAE institutions. As a

consequence of these horrific recordings, society has been worried about how to manage unruly students. On October 13, 2015, a video surfaced showing a sixth grader being repeatedly spanked by a teacher in Ajman. An assistant kicking and striking a youngster at an Al Ain school was captured on tape two days later. A second video (two days later) shows a teacher in Fujairah slapping a student on the head. The people was shocked and couldn't believe such things were occurring in UAE schools. Dr Saliha Afridi, Clinical Psychologist and Managing Director of Lighthouse Arabia, highlighted that there are three main reasons why a student may not follow the rules (Nazzal, 2015). First, the family atmosphere—some children grew up in homes without structure, discipline, or expectations. Then comes defiance, when some kids have a “oppositional defiant disorder” where they are always arrogant, irresponsible, disobedient, and confrontational towards authority figures and adults. Individual and family treatment is required to address such children's misbehavior. Finally, profound lying about learning or emotional concerns (Nazzal, 2015).

An education authority in Dubai has called on parents and teachers to work together to combat poor behaviour and bullying in schools. This action came after a devastating research revealed thousands of students felt unsafe in the classroom. In 168 KHDA-supervised schools, 11% of students in grades 6–9 felt unsafe (Rizvi, 2018).

1) Efficient Classroom Management Components

Management of a classroom has been characterised in a variety of ways. Teachers sometimes consider classroom management as a collection of methods or ideas (Landau, 2009, as quoted in Tal, 2010) for “fixing” any classroom issue. However, the following definitions of classroom management indicate that there is more to it than people believe: Tal (2010) defines classroom management as “the teacher's capacity to steer the class...in the direction of the students' socio-emotional well-being and learning” (Tal, 2010, pg.144). Classroom management, according to Malone and Tietjens (2000), is “how instructors maintain order in a classroom” (pg. 160). Little and Akin-Little (2003) define classroom management as ‘a collection of procedures that, when followed, should assist the teacher in maintaining order in the classroom. These procedures include both preceding and following procedures that can be combined to provide a comprehensive approach to classroom management.’ Little & Akin-Little, 2008, p. 228). Stichter and colleagues (2009) describe classroom management as “those broad environmental and instructional factors that enable regular processes for setup, structure, expectations, and feedback throughout the classroom” (pg. 69).

Classroom management consists of three primary components. These components include maximising instructional time, structuring teaching to encourage both academic engagement and accomplishment, and using antecedent behaviour control measures (Sugai & Horner, 2002). Kern and Clemens (2007) say that classwide interventions often serve the needs of the majority of kids in a classroom and require less teacher effort than individual behaviour interventions. To be considered effective, classroom management must incorporate a variety of factors, including the use of classroom rules and expectations (Hart, 2010; Kern & Clemens, 2007; Little & Akin-Little, 2008), reinforcement of appropriate behaviour, response to inappropriate behaviour, positive relationships and interactions between staff and students (Simonsen et al., 2008), established procedures for chronic misbehaviour, and a classroom environment that facilitates learning (Hart, 2010). Among these components, developing a set of classroom rules is a “logical first step” and may be the most critical, according to Kern & Clemens (2007), since rules inform students about the conduct expected of them. Kern & Clemens (2007) stated that prior research has shown a correlation between regular implementation of classroom rules and improved student conduct both in the classroom and across the school. The following principles have been devised to ensure that classroom rules are clear: (1) Classroom rules should be restricted to five; (2) Students should assist the instructor in developing the classroom rules; (3) Rules should be straightforward, succinct, and affirmative; (4) Rules should be prominently displayed in the classroom; (5) Rules should be specific; (6) Rules should describe and focus on observable and measurable behaviours; (7) Teachers should set aside time to teach and model the rules to their students. (8) Consequences should be attached to rules (Kern & Clemens, 2007; Little & Akin-Little, 2008). While classroom rules are necessary, they are ineffective unless they are combined with a behaviour management plan that incorporates a variety of forms of reward (e.g., verbal praise, privileges, tangibles) and penalties (Kern & Clemens, 2007; Little & Akin-Little, 2008; Simonsen et al., 2008).

Another classroom management method that has been shown to be beneficial is the use of effective commands; Kern and Clemens (2007) define an effective command as having five critical characteristics. These characteristics include capturing the student's attention, presenting the command as a “do” statement, offering just one instruction at a time, speaking in a firm yet calm tone, and waiting for the student to reply. The advantages of teaching instructors on how to deliver successful orders include their cheap cost, ease of implementation, capacity to be utilised classwide, and non-intrusive nature. As a result of these advantages, adopting effective instructions as an intervention is more likely to be accepted by instructors and to have a greater level of treatment integrity than therapies that involve more work, time, individualization, and intrusiveness (Matheson & Shriver, 2005).

Matheson and Shriver (2005) performed a research in which instructors were educated on how to effectively order and congratulate pupils when they agreed with requests and participated in academic activities. The study's findings indicated that when instructors employed effective directives more often, both student cooperation and academic conduct rose. Additionally, increased rates of student cooperation and academic conduct were noted when instructors used more positive words in conjunction with effective orders (Matheson & Shriver, 2005).

2) *Empirical Review on Classroom Management*

Classroom management is critical, as empirical study has proven. Little and Akin-Little (2008) administered a self-assessment survey to 149 instructors, covering four important aspects of classroom management: classroom rules, an improved classroom atmosphere, reinforcing tactics, and reduction processes (Little & Akin-Little, 2008). According to the survey, 83 percent of teachers used verbal reprimands in response to class disruptions, 97 percent used verbal praise as reinforcement for appropriate behaviour, 63 percent had their freedoms revoked for frequent behavioural problem students, and 10% used corporal punishment in response to chronic offenders. Additionally, Taila (2009) discovered that when students assessed the instructor management technique as well planned and coordinated, student results improved. Little and Akin-(2008) Little's and Taila's (2009) results together indicate the breadth of teacher use of rules, procedures, and consequences in regulating the classroom. Gilpatrick (2010) discovered that "100% of instructors believed that they may feel disheartened due to the ineffectiveness of their classroom management tactics" in a survey of 22 teachers in grades 3-6. Nonetheless, 64% of instructors believe their existing tactics are successful at mitigating disturbances caused by noncompliant pupils." (Ibid., pp. 59-60). Gilpatrick's (2010) results emphasise the critical nature of selecting the most effective classroom management practises for generating excellent student outcomes.

Wolfgang & Glickman's Beliefs on Discipline Inventory began empirical study comparing interventionist, noninterventionist, and interactionalist methods to classroom management in 1980. Martin, Yin, and Baldwin's 1998 invention of the Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Management (ABCC) instrument enabled researchers to concentrate directly on classroom control from interventionist, noninterventionist, and interactionalist viewpoints. However, the ABCC and the updated ABCC-R (Martin, Yin, Z., & Mayall, 2007) demonstrated an unacceptably high degree of inter-item correlation, indicating a lack of discriminant validity. As a result, the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale (BIMS, Martin & Sass, 2010) was developed to offer a psychometrically sound tool for assessing interventionist, noninterventionist, and interactionalist approaches to instructional and behavioural classroom management. Crucial to understanding the proposed study's context is the fact that interventionist, noninterventionist, and interactionist management styles can now be consistently quantified using the Behavioral and Instructional Management Scale (BIMS) (Brannon, 2010; Martin & Sass, 2010). "Martin and Sass's seminal results serve as the foundation for our work (2010). Classroom management is defined as "a collection of contracts that include two distinct concepts: behaviour control and instructional management" (Martin and Sass, 2010, p. 1126). Martin and Sass (2010) examined the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale in three investigations (BIMS). 550 K-12 certified instructors from the southern United States participated in these studies. Martin and Sass (2010) used exploratory factor analysis to examine a truncated version of the 24-item BIMS in the original investigation. The factor analysis revealed a reliability of .85. In the second research, the validity and reliability of the survey were determined by doing a confirmatory factor analysis on a shorter version of the survey. Both behavioural and instructional management variables demonstrated a high degree of internal consistency ($\alpha = .77$). Martin & Sass (2010) thought that discriminate and convergent validity should be addressed on the BIMS in light of past research.

This motivated the most recent investigation. Martin and Sass (2010) compared the BIMS to an abbreviated version of the Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale (p.1126). The investigation discovered an overall model fit that was satisfactory. These studies established that the Behavior and Instructional Management Scale accurately evaluates teachers' perceptions about their behaviour and instructional management strategies. Along with verifying the BIMS, Martin and Sass recommend that future research employ the 24-item BIMS to integrate relationships across gender, grade levels, and topic areas. Additional research investigations have shown comparable conclusions to those of Martin and Sass (1998, 2010). Baker's (2005) research sought to ascertain the self-efficacy views of 345 public school teachers in Ohio. The professors who responded to the poll represented a diverse range of academic disciplines. The author created the survey, which comprised of two components: a combination of Brouwers and Tomic's (2001) Teacher Interpersonal Self-Efficacy scale and Bullock, Ellis, and Wilson's (1994) survey instrument. Both components investigated instructors' classroom management practises using a Likert scale. The authors found an association between instructors' assessments of classroom management and their readiness to rein in students' undesirable classroom conduct. Santiago (2012) discovered that BIMS ratings for instructional classroom management and behavioral classroom management differed significantly across high school instructors. Brannon (2010) examined the association between fifth-

grade English language arts and math scores and students' academic progress and classroom management opinions. Brannon used the Attitudes and Beliefs on Classroom Control (ABCC) Inventory-R to categorize teachers as interventionist, noninterventionist, or interactionalist, with the result that "a lower survey score indicates a less controlling (noninterventionist) ideology, while a higher survey score indicates a more controlling (interventionist) ideology" (p. 48). The California Standards Test (CST) database was used to measure ELA and math performance.

Brannon discovered that while ELA and math scores did differ significantly by group for fourth-grade students, he cautioned, "it is critical to note that the means for ELA are higher for noninterventionist, less controlling teachers, while the means for Math are higher for interactionist, teachers who combine controlling and noncontrolling ideologies." While the lack of significant differences in student achievement between interventionist, noninterventionist, and interactionalist teachers suggests that classroom management styles do not matter, Brannon's (2010) study had several flaws that must be addressed before concluding that classroom management and student achievement are unrelated. To begin, Brannon (2010) included just four (4) noninterventionist instructors in his study. That is, since statistical power is proportional to sample size (Creswell, 2003), Brannon's (2010) research may have lacked the statistical power necessary to demonstrate statistically significant changes. Additionally, Brannon employed the ABCC-R, which has dubious psychometric qualities when compared to the more contemporary BIMS scale (Martina & Sass, 2010).

Additionally, Brannon merged ABCC-R people management and instructional management into a single broad category, which may not accurately represent behavioral and instructional classroom management. Additionally, whereas Brannon (2010) examined standardized test results on statewide assessments (which might be informative), AYP compliance is determined by the percentage of pupils passing key subjects. Finally, Brannon (2010) examined the link between demographic characteristics and teacher instructional style, but left out confounders when examining the association between instructional style and student results. This is critical, since demographic characteristics might influence connections (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Additional empirical data from other academic publications casts doubt on Brannon's results (2010). Bennett (2001) discovered a correlation between classroom atmosphere and mathematical performance. Khatib and Ghannadi (2011) examined English Language Learners and found that interventionist groups scored considerably higher than noninterventionist groups on the identification and production of phrasal verbs. Moore (2008) evaluated 270 children and 19 primary school classroom instructors and stated that "the outcomes of this research study imply that certain classroom management practices are associated with greater student performance scores in a variety of elementary settings."

Reflections on the influence of experience and demographic characteristics on classroom management are included in the published literature. Several of the researches reviewed here demonstrate a correlation between a teacher's classroom management style (noninterventionist, interventionist, or interactionalist) and demographic factors about the instructor (Baker 2005; Cerit, 2011; Little & Akin-Little, 2008). Santiago (2012) discovered that gender, number of years teaching, and highest education degree all had an effect on high school teachers' BIMS instructional management scores. Experience may matter, as Hicks (2012) suggests that classroom management skills can be acquired 'on the job' (p. 87), while Green (2006) cautions that "years of classroom experience does not guarantee exemplary classroom management results" (p. 88), and Lanoue (2009) demonstrates that classroom management skills can be taught to teachers. Green (2006) tested four elementary school "master classroom managers" and found that all four were in the ABCC's interactionalist range. Green stated, "While the sample size was small, it is reasonable to assume that additional instructors designated as "master" classroom managers using the same criteria as in this research would have comparable views and behaviours" (p. 99-100).

Clearly, no research has shown a conclusive association between instructional and behavioural classroom management practises used in the classroom and the % of grammar school students passing standardised math and ELA assessments. To ascertain the effect of teacher classroom management approach on student outcomes above and beyond the effects of teacher demographics, a study is needed that incorporates teacher ideology as defined by the BIMS (interventionist, noninterventionist, and interactionalist) in both instruction management and behaviour management dimensions, as well as teacher demographics, with the goal of identifying differences in the percent of students passing statewide exams in reading, EL, and mathematics.

3) Stress in the Classroom: Effects on Teachers and Students

Being well-organised, patient, and thick-skinned in many respects is required while dealing with a classroom full of students. Low behaviour may lead to poor academic achievement, which is bad for teachers and their careers. However, a well-managed classroom where students concentrate on the classroom lectures and follow the teacher's directions is more likely to provide beneficial outcomes. According to Liftoff (2018), teachers' issues must be addressed since they cause great stress. According to a University of Missouri study, 93% of instructors surveyed reported significant levels of stress. Not to mention the pupils who are the most stressed, resulting in poor grades and disruptive behaviour. These findings demonstrate that teacher stress

affects student performance and well-being. The report highlights that time management, performance assessment, and student behaviour are the top sources of teacher stress (Liftoff, 2018).

Disruptive behaviour involves not performing homework, classwork, or other chores on time, and not paying attention. In terms of the influence on students, such behaviour spoils the classroom environment and distracts the rest of the class, including the instructor, who may lose his or her teaching rhythm (Liftoff, 2018). There is also a security risk if violence occurs, which adds to the tension and stress. In terms of effect, schools are becoming more alert in dealing with anxious parents, teachers, and students (Liftoff, 2018)

Teachers who stress time management as a constant issue are likewise concerned. The next generation of instructors is confronted with a rising number of meetings and training sessions due to increased security rules and new assessment methods. These obligations are infringing on personal time, causing teacher burnout. This affects students as well. If a teacher is overworked and anxious, they have less time to focus on students and classes. The lack of time in the classroom causes anxiety and uneasiness among students (Liftoff, 2018). Walker (2018) cites study by MU College of Education professors Keith Herman and Wendy Reinke, and PhD student Jal'et Hickmon-Rosa, which found that 93% of primary school teachers experienced high levels of stress. To assess stress, effectiveness, coping, and burnout among 121 teachers in an urban Midwest school district. Emphasis on how educators achieve or fail in their roles. For example, most instructors are unable to manage in the classroom due to fatigue, which impacts how they make adjustments.

In the early 1970s, the term "burnout" became popular. Gold and Bachelor defined burnout as a result of different stressors in one's personal and professional life. Work-related loss of passion, motivation, idealism, and concern, according to Edelwich and Brodsky (1980). Burnout is a symptom of emotional exhaustion, low accomplishment, and depersonalisation that is particularly dangerous for persons who work with others (Maslach & Leiter, 1997) Self-efficacy is linked to teacher burnout. Bandura (1995) defines self-efficacy as a cognitive process that involves constructing beliefs about one's ability to plan and apply actions required to attain a goal. Individuals who believe they are worthwhile would endeavour and succeed in activities or jobs.

Moreover, those with high efficacy beliefs persevered through difficult times and achieved better achievements with less stress. It is fair to say that poor self-efficacy is connected to anxiety, powerlessness, and sadness. Several studies link teacher efficacy views to teacher burnout. Schmitz and Schwarzer (2000) found a link between burnout and self-efficacy. Similarly, Chwalisz, Altmair, and Russel (1992) found that instructors with low self-efficacy experienced more burnout than those with strong self-efficacy. However, Brouwers and Tomic (2002) observed that teacher self-efficacy beliefs were strongly linked to depersonalisation, emotional exhaustion, and personal success dimensions of burnout.

The effectiveness of a teacher's classroom management and instructional tactics (Smylie, 1989). In this regard, Henson (2001) investigated the link between teacher efficacy and classroom control attitudes. The findings show that the most effective instructors adopt positive classroom management tactics. Emmer and Hickman (1991) also suggested that rather than assessing instructors' overall effectiveness, it could be preferable to examine their efficacy in certain sub-areas, such as classroom management. Teacher burnout, according to Linsin (2011), happens when mental fatigue and stress surpass the normal limit. This illness affects thousands of instructors every year. Trying to get students to behave properly is the number one source of stress for instructors. Describing bad behaviour and disputing it is unproductive and frustrating. The limited time teachers have to prepare lectures, sit and organise their ideas is a major cause of teacher burnout.

Now that we've looked at student stress, let's look at instructor stress and how it relates to student stress. Researchers examined 17 teachers from fourth to seventh grade for burnout in a paper published in *Social Science & Medicine*. They also measured cortisol (the stress hormone) levels in their students (about 400) by obtaining saliva samples three times throughout the school day. The data showed that students had greater cortisol levels if their professors were more burnt out. The result will be ineffective teaching, bad classroom management, and dissatisfaction with students' work. Classroom teachers are responsible for multitasking roles for elementary school students, including role model, parental and mentoring roles. This means they spend a lot of time in school interacting, leading to burnout and affecting the students via stress transfer (Sifferlin, 2016). "The Teacher Burnout Epidemic" Rankin (2016) reports that in the UK, the Education Staff Health Survey indicated that 91% of teachers had had stress in the last two years, 74% had anxiety, and 91% had overworked. While job conditions and expectations vary by nation, a sophisticated educational system implies most teachers are burnt out.

According to a Pennsylvania State University (US) research titled "Teacher stress and health", stress negatively influences student academic progress and increases school expenditures. A New York City study found that poorer fourth and fifth grade student achievement in language arts and math was linked to increased teacher turnover. The annual cost of teacher turnover was estimated at over \$7 billion (Teacher stress and health, 2016). According to the Pennsylvania State University research, there are five main sources of stress:

1. Unsatisfied relationships with colleagues, students, school employees, administrators, and principals may increase teacher stress, insufficient commitment to students, and work satisfaction. There is also a

link between principal and teacher turnover. Changes in leadership may be problematic for schools in high poverty regions, schools with low achievement, and schools with inexperienced or underqualified teachers (Teacher stress and health, 2016).

2. Work requirements: High expectations on teachers are a major predictor of teacher stress. For example, growing use of high stakes testing at the district and state levels might exacerbate the problem by limiting teachers' choice over content and pace of work. Not to mention the threat of teacher dismissal and school closure. Managing difficult students and difficult parents are two additional stressful interpersonal concerns that increase instructors' susceptibility to depression (Teacher stress and health, 2016).
3. As a result of increased work expectations and stress, along with low social-emotional competence (SEC), attrition and poor teacher performance are on the rise. The teacher's personal SEC and well-being are major variables influencing student and classroom outcomes. But few instructors have the chance to train and build their own SEC. Consider a teacher who is unable to manage their stress, affecting student well-being and achievement (Teacher stress and health, 2016).
4. Stress impacts teachers' health: Increased workload and stress negatively impact their physical and mental wellbeing. Psychological and physical stress are linked (Teacher stress and health, 2016).
5. A longitudinal research found that primary school instructors with high levels of stress and depression created classroom environments that were less conducive to learning. As a consequence, students struggled academically. Students with inadequate arithmetic abilities and teachers with depression or its symptoms had the lowest percentage of achievement (Teacher stress and health, 2016).

4) *Stress in the Classroom*

Stress in the classroom affects both students and instructors and effects teaching and learning. In our everyday lives, we are all exposed to situations and events in the classroom that cause student and teacher stress. Stress indicators in the educational context include increased criminality and mental disorders. While moderate stress may be beneficial to morale and creativity, excessive stress seems to be devastating (Selye, 1974, as cited in Wilson, 2002). Sadly, classroom instructors encounter an unfavourable increase in focus. Professor Kyriacou defines teacher stress as "undesirable negative sensations coming from specific aspects of teaching job" (Kyriacou, 2011, p. 28). Public speaking, for example, may be stressful for some students and instructors but calming for others. Constant stress is a problem for students and instructors because it affects classroom learning. Stress not only negatively impacts one's health, but also seems to cause major social-psychological discomfort among groups. Stress among students may lead to serious health and mental difficulties. Stress is any event or circumstance that limits or threatens an individual's ability to adapt (Lahey, 2004). "Stress" may be defined in several ways. An ordinary individual may characterise stress as impact, tension, unfavourable external causes, or a negative connection (Ogden, 2004). Stress is a complex and varied phenomenon. Stress is an abnormality in social beings' behaviour, personality, expression of frustration, inhibition, or physiological changes. Hexagonal is the notion of It might be daily stress at home, school, or work that has been begun individually, and it could add up to a huge load collectively. Factors that cause stress in people vary. It's part of every student's day. It is true for millions of other students. The variety of learning styles and needs creates friction from the start to the end of student life. A student's life is filled with stressors, such as the pressure of excellent grades, an uncertain outlook, and systemic obstacles. Every school or classroom has a hectic spectrum. It's vital to complete tasks, learn new things, and apply new talents. The intolerable level of stress threatens the academic system's legitimacy. Stress in the school setting comes from inside the learning framework and even from the beginnings of learning that participants bring with them.

These students revealed psychological, emotional, physiological, and parental concerns that may impact their academic progress (Fish & Nies, 1996). Stress prevents people from cooperating or developing their skills to focus and learn. Pupils, teachers, and other school personnel all contribute to the physiological strain. For example, a youngster may be under a lot of stress at home due to marital troubles. The youngster suffers from the home dynamic, performs poorly at school, and may negatively affect others. Compulsive stress leads to irritability, substance misuse, deviant conduct and even aggressiveness. An crucial aspect of the intellectual and cultural environment is stress. Stress at educational institutions may have both positive and negative impacts if it is not managed. Stress competence is the ability to endure and monitor when circumstances, people, or events make excessive expectations. Tension among students may be tracked using diverse approaches. Learners' erratic or erratic conduct must be monitored and managed Effective actions must be done to reduce the learners' impairment. This research examines all of these characteristics, stress symptoms, and proposes appropriate remedies.

Classroom and school settings may be stressful due to teacher attitudes, classroom organisation, curriculum focus, student relationships, programme technique, feeling of discipline, and parent-citizen engagement. Temperament influences how individuals react to potential pressures. Some people are not

bothered by situations that others find distressing (Glavin et al, 1991). Disciplines of learning are tense for many reasons. Multiple tasks, competitiveness with other students, disappointments, negative connections with other classmates, families, or internal difficulties have all been shown to be educational pressures (Fairbrother & Warn, 2003)

Overcrowded classrooms, class layout, and inadequate school budget are administrative stressors (Awino & Agolla, 2008; Erkutlu & Chafra 2006). Lack of time, schoolwork, and exams were major concerns. In a report presented in Brazil, most groups showed modest levels of stress throughout the course. Their main stressor was a lack of leisure time, friends, and social activities. Prioritizing work-related activities and managing time were secondary stresses. Stress management is critical to students' physical and mental health. Stress may have negative physiological, emotional, and even religious health repercussions for students. It's natural to grow from school and classroom conduct. Nonetheless, excessive school stress harms not just students and teachers, but also the whole society. Notably, most of the stress that students face may be attributed to good forecasting. Tension is sometimes confused with anxiety. Stress may occur in both positive and negative results. The tension that students feel when they begin exams for which they have prepared is considerably different from that of students who have not studied. Stress may be beneficial to our lives if handled properly. Paul J. Rosch, M.D., founder of the American Stress Institute, said that increased stress enhances efficiency to a point when circumstances deteriorate. Constructive use of stress requires recognising the difference between stress as a motivator and stress as a major hindrance. Although stress may be harmful, a healthy level of stress motivates one to communicate, learn, achieve, and attain one's potential. Stress is a part of daily life, and knowing how to forecast, detect, and manage it successfully is a vital life skill.

While moderate stress may boost drive and creativity, severe stress is detrimental (Selye, 1974, as cited in Wilson, 2002). Sadly, classroom instructors face considerably more stress than necessary. According to Kyriacou, teacher stress is "the unpleasant, negative feelings that instructors experience as a consequence of some part of their job as teachers" (Kyriacou, 2001, p. 28).

High levels of teacher stress are a typical and pervasive problem. In a 1995 Hong Kong teacher poll, 61% said teaching was stressful (Oi-Ling, 1995). 15–45% of Canadian teachers reported excessive stress and burnout (Leithwood, 2006). In the UK, 30% of teachers stated their workloads left them weary and anxious on a daily basis, while 85% said high workloads significantly impacted their personal lives (Bubb and Earley, 2004). In Scotland, 71% of teachers said their employment were generating health issues including mood swings and insomnia (Hill, 2008).

a) *Stress's High Price*

Occupational stress causes absenteeism, stress-related disease, high employee turnover, and early retirement. Stress has a tremendous influence on not just teachers' quality of life, but also education planning and budgeting (Hill, 2008). Stress-related absences from work cost the UK schools advisory service £19 million in 2004. (Hill, 2008). Teacher turnover is extremely costly, with recruiting and introduction expenses per new teacher estimated at £4,000. (Bubb and Earley, 2004). Similarly, disillusioned teachers in the US are straining the school system (Dillon, 2007). As a consequence, over 22% of new instructors depart within three years (ED.gov, n.d.). The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future estimates excessive teacher turnover costs \$7 billion annually (Carroll, n.d.).

b) *Stress in Teachers*

Studies on teacher stress often include too much work and not enough leisure. More than any other external pressure, most instructors want to meet their students' educational needs (Forlin, 1998). A lack of support from the provincial government and inclusion of students with disabilities were recognised as the top five causes of teacher stress by the BC Teachers' Federation (Naylor, 2001, p.3). "Workload, teaching classes with a wide variety of abilities, and not enough time to interact with individual students," said 900 Irish secondary teachers (Irish Examiner Times, 2007). Teacher stress was attributed by the National Union of Teachers to long workdays, heavy workloads, and small classes (NUT, 1999).

To customise or differentiate education while lowering preparation time will have a good influence on reducing teacher stress. The growing diversity of students' learning capacities and styles, as well as socio-economic and cultural backgrounds, pushes instructors to provide more individualised instruction for each student (Forlin, 1998). Government regulations and achievement criteria add to the daily obligations of all educators, including classroom instructors. The more schools are expected to show progress and attain specified goals, the more instructors' time is required (Naylor, 2001).

Teachers work an average of 55.6 hours per week in Canada and 51.8 hours per week in the UK (Bubb and Earley, 2004). (Price, 2005). In the UK, instructors spend 12.9-14.8 hours a week on lesson planning and marking, plus 3.6-6.1 hours on administrative tasks. Around 25% of teachers' work time is non-standard (Bubb and Earley, 2004). In Canada, teachers work almost twice as long as students (Naylor, 2001).

Aside from the difficulties of classroom teaching and lesson preparation, even the most useful technology may bring extra stress for busy instructors without enough training, resources, and support. Using technology as a teaching and learning tool in the classroom, according to Bitner and Bitner, “involves both changes in classroom practises and the employment of frequently new technologies” (Bitner and Bitner, 2002, p. 96). Adding time and effort to learn and operate a new technology is difficult for instructors who already have a high job.

C. Classroom Management Components

Classroom management has numerous definitions. Classroom management is typically seen as a set of methods or ideas (Landau, 2009, quoted in Tal, 2010) that can “fix” any classroom issue. However, as the following definitions of classroom management show, there is more to it than meets the eye: Teachers may steer their classes toward the students' social-emotional well-being and learning, according to Tal (2010). (Tal, 2010, pg.144). To maintain order in a classroom, Malone and Tietjens (2000) define classroom management (pg. 160). Classroom management is defined by Little and Akin-Little (2003) as “a series of processes that, if followed, should assist the teacher maintain order in the classroom and include both antecedent and consequent procedures that may be integrated to give a complete approach to classroom management”. (Little & Akin-Little, 2008, 228)

These characteristics enable consistent classroom-wide processes of setup, organisation, expectations, and feedback, according to Stichter et al (pg. 69). Classroom management has three basic components. Making the most of instructional time, planning teaching to enhance academic engagement and accomplishment, and applying prior behaviour control tactics are some of these components (Sugai & Horner, 2002). According to Kern and Clemens (2007), classwide interventions often satisfy the requirements of the majority of kids and require less teacher effort than individual behavioural interventions. A positive classroom environment, established procedures for chronic misbehaviour (Simonsen et al., 2008), positive relationships and interactions between staff and students (Hart, 2010) are all required for effective classroom management (Hart, 2010). According to Kern & Clemens (2007), creating a list of classroom rules is a “logical first step” that clarifies to pupils what conduct is expected. Kern & Clemens (2007) stated that prior research has connected consistent classroom rules to improved student conduct both inside the classroom and throughout the school. The principles for clear classroom rules are as follows: (2) Students should assist the instructor create the class rules. It is important that teachers explain and demonstrate the rules to their students. The rules should be basic, quick, and positive. (8) Rules should have repercussions (Kern & Clemens, 2007; Little & Akin-Little, 2008). While classroom rules are important, they are ineffective without a behaviour management plan that combines many forms of reward (e.g., verbal praise, privileges, tangibles) and punishments (Kern & Clemens, 2007; Little & Akin-Little, 2008; Simonsen et al., 2008).

Using effective directives is another proven classroom management method, according to Kern and Clemens (2007). Included in this list is obtaining the student's attention, giving just one lesson at a time, speaking clearly yet calmly, and waiting for the student to react. The benefits of teaching instructors effective instructions include minimal cost, low effort, quick deployment, classwide usage, and non-intrusive. In contrast to treatments that take more work, time, individualization, and intrusiveness, effective orders are more likely to be accepted by instructors and have better treatment integrity (Matheson & Shriver, 2005).

In a research by Matheson and Shriver (2005), instructors were taught how to effectively order and congratulate students who met requests and participated in academic activities. The research found that using effective directives boosted student cooperation and academic conduct. Teachers who utilised more praise comments and effective directives had greater rates of student cooperation and academic behaviour (Matheson & Shriver, 2005).

D. Research Model and Hypothesis

The research developed a conceptual model to guide the investigation based on the extensive evaluation of relevant literature described before. The study's conceptual framework was to evaluate the effect of classroom management effectiveness on lowering high school pupils' stress levels in Ghana's Kumasi Metropolis. The model measured students' reported levels of stress and its underlying causes, and it also demonstrated how classroom management affects high school students' perceived levels of stress. Figure 2 depicted the aforementioned in visual form..

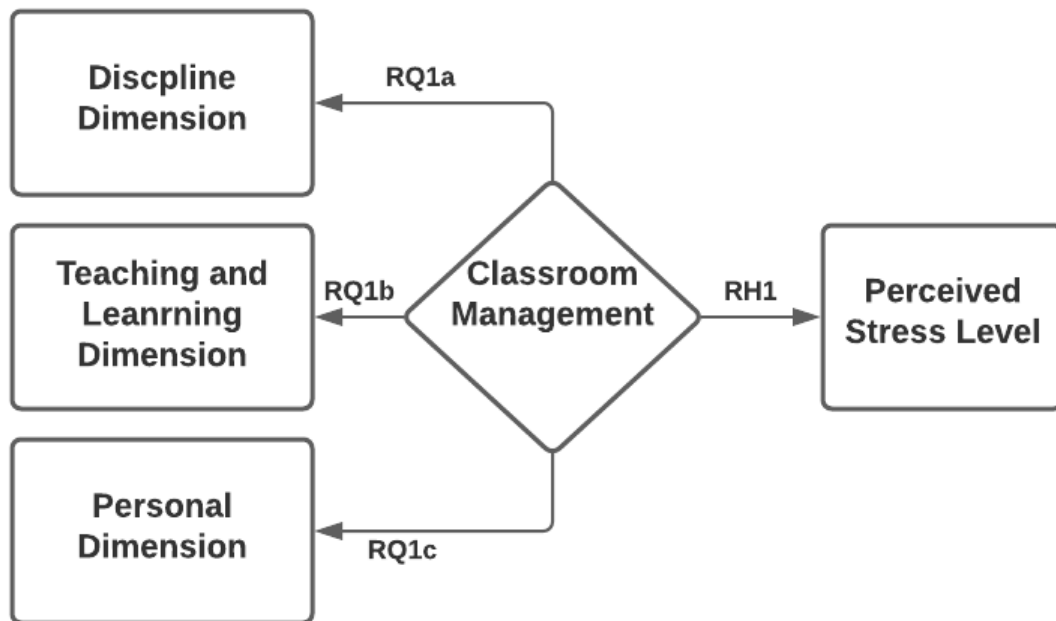


Figure 1 Theoretical Framework for the study

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

E. Research Design

A research design is a conceptual framework that the researcher uses while collecting, measuring, and analyzing data for the purpose of investigating the study issue (Kothari, 2004). The research used a quantitative method with a descriptive survey design to examine the effect of classroom management on lowering students' stress levels in high schools across the Kumasi Metropolitan Area. According to Best and Khan (1998), descriptive research is concerned with the nature of prevalent circumstances, practices, and attitudes; with the formation of views; with ongoing processes; and with the development of trends. According to Ary, Jacob, and Razavieh (1990), descriptive research design is concerned with determining the status of a specified population in relation to certain characteristics of interest to the researchers. The descriptive survey approach was used because the study's objective was to describe, observe, and record events as they happened naturally, rather than to explain them. The researcher deemed the concept quite beneficial, since it had the ability to collect a big amount of data from a relatively large number of people (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). Simple descriptive design may provide useful information on the state of a phenomenon (Borg & Gall, 1983).

The researchers collected data quantitatively via the use of the descriptive research approach. According to the researchers, the quantitative method of data collection enables meaningful generalization based on the numerical connections found in the data and which accurately represent the characteristics of the whole population. Babbie (2007) claimed that descriptive survey design is adaptable, allowing for the inclusion of several questions on a particular subject. Despite its advantages, descriptive research has a few disadvantages (Kelly, Clark, Brown and Sitzia, 2003). They noted that the value of the data might be overlooked if the researchers place an excessive emphasis on the range of coverage at the expense of an appropriate explanation of the data's implications for relevant topics, problems, or ideas. Creswell (2002) argued that descriptive survey research in education contains flaws and inadequacies at several stages, from the original selection and definition of issues through the selection of demographic and sample size, item development, and analysis of the resultant data.

Despite these drawbacks, the descriptive research strategy is deemed to be appropriate for conducting a study. Amedahe (2002) further said that since the purpose of descriptive research is to provide accurate descriptions of activities, items, processes, and people, this study method will assist researchers in accomplishing their objective. The study used a descriptive survey approach because it enables researchers to obtain huge amounts of data from a large number of respondents quickly and affordably. Researchers such as (Aborisade, 1997; Osuala, 2000) reaffirmed the descriptive research design's essence. Their findings demonstrated that descriptive research design enables researchers to report on topics under discussion based on

the replies made by respondents without having to be actively engaged in the explanation of the phenomena or the responses offered..

F. Sampling Technique

According to McNabb (2017), the term "population" refers to the group of individuals in whom the researcher is interested. The study's results will be extrapolated to this group. The research population consisted of all consumers of the three main insurance firms in the Kumasi Metropolis. These people were considered the demographic for the study because they were deemed to be well-informed and capable of providing information pertinent to the study's research aims. In total there were 4221 students and 1455 teachers targeted for the study in the database of the six schools involved in the study. Table 1 summarizes the distribution of the population of both students and teachers.

Table 1 Population Distribution of Respondents

Senior High Schools	Population (N)	
	Students	Teachers
Prempeh College	700	230
Kumasi Anglican	720	245
Opoku Ware	710	260
Kumasi Girls	790	262
Yaa Asantewaa Girls	680	246
Kumasi Academy	621	212
Total	4221	1455

The study cannot involve all the target population in the study so there was a need to sample to represent the overall population. Sampling is the act of choosing a subset of a population to participate in a study; it is the process of selecting a group of people for research in such a manner that the individuals selected accurately reflect the wider group from which they were drawn (Sharma, 2017). There are several methods for calculating the sample size, however Bartlett and Kortlick (2002) developed a sample size determination algorithm.

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + (Ne^2)}$$

Where *n* is the sample size, *N* is the population size and *e* is the margin of error.

Given that the required confidence range for testing is 95%, an error margin of .05 was applied to a population size (N) of 4221 instructors and 1455 pupils. As a result, the following sample size was estimated for the study:

$$n = \frac{4221}{1 + (4221 \times 0.05^2)} \quad (3.1)$$

$$n \text{ of teachers} = 365 \quad (3.2)$$

Therefore, sample of students = 365

$$n = \frac{1455}{1 + (1455 \times 0.05^2)} \quad (3.3)$$

$$n \text{ of teachers} = 314 \quad (3.4)$$

Therefore, sample of teachers = 314

Therefore 365 teachers and 314 students were sampled from the six senior high schools. The study adopted the proportionate random sampling was employed to proportionately distribute the total sample size among the six senior high school used. Thus, the percentage of each senior high school of the total population was multiplied by the sample size determined. This resulted in sampling 56, 136 and 200 respondents from SIC, Glico and Enterprise Insurance respectively.

Table 2 Sample Size of Respondents

Senior High Schools	Sample size n	
	Students	Teachers
Prempeh College	61	50
Kumasi Anglican	62	53
Opoku Ware	61	56

Kumasi Girls	68	57
Yaa Asantewaa Girls	59	53
Kumasi Academy	54	46
Total	365	314

G. Data Collection

The research used two standardised questionnaires to assess the impact of classroom management on student stress. They were intended as one full questionnaire to gather information from the respondents. According to Creswell (2002), a questionnaire is a form that participants fill out and return to the researcher. Participants mark questions and provide basic personal or demographic information, according to the author. According to Best and Khan (1993), a questionnaire may be a very effective data collection tool in a research study if correctly developed and conducted. The questionnaire will be entirely closed-ended. The first set of surveys was the perceived stress scale. The first portion of the questionnaire asks pupils about their gender, school name, school taught, and class level. The second portion will assess their stress levels. Cohen (1988) created ten measures on perceived stress (0=never, 1=almost never, 2=occasionally). 3=frequently, 4=frequently). Less frequent feelings or thoughts will be indicated by students. The second set of surveys will be the standardised Classroom Management questionnaire (CMQ) by Daz, González, Jara-Ramrez & Muoz-Parra (2017). This questionnaire will assess classroom management procedures in three areas: discipline, teaching and learning, and personal. The first section of the questionnaire collects teacher personal information such as age, gender, education, and school name. Following discipline is teaching and learning, and personal component.

H. Measurement Scale

The PSS is a self-reported global stress scale (Cohen, 1988). Barbosa-Leiker et al., (2013): Factor 1 assesses felt helplessness (items 1, 2, 3, 6, 9, and 10) and perceived self-efficacy (items 4, 5, 7, and 8). Affective disorders including anxiety and sadness were linked to the PSS items used in this study (Chu and Kao, 2005; Chu, 2010). Language will be changed to meet our sample. Five junior high students will initially be asked to score the readability and appropriateness of each item on the modified scale. Students will rate their feelings on a five-point Likert scale (1 = never, 2 = seldom, 3 = sometimes, 4 = often, and 5 = continuously). FACTOR 2 TOTAL AND SUBSCALE SCORE COMPUTED BY REVERSING THE (Perceived Self-Efficacy). In general, higher PSS-10 scores indicate greater perceived stress. The PSS-10 has been proved to be internally consistent, reliable, and valid across populations (Lee, 2012). All items were rated from 1 to 5 on a Likert scale. Table 3 describes the measurement scales in detail.

Table 3 Measurement of Variables

Construct	Indicator	Measurement
DISCIPLINE DIMENSION (D)	D1	I involve students in establishing rules and procedures
	D2	I share with students the reasons behind the disciplinary approach (es) I use.
	D3	I provide positive reinforcement to students for appropriate behavior (e.g., special helper, extra computer time, tangible rewards)
	D4	I make students aware of consequences for misbehavior (e.g. loss of break time, extra classroom time).
	D5	I use class time to reflect on appropriate behavior with students as a group
	D6	I redirect inappropriate behavior on the spot, using loud voice
	D7	I ignore misbehavior that is non-disruptive to class.
	D8	I use short verbal cues to stop misbehavior (e.g. say student's name aloud, use "shh" sound)
TEACHING AND LEARNING DIMENSION (TL)	TL9	I take into account different learning styles when preparing the lesson.
	TL10	I establish routines for group work when needed.
	TL11	I start the lesson by giving students an opportunity to set their own learning goals.
	TL12	I make sure that the learning goals are clearly stated for students to understand them (e.g., displaying them on the board, saying them out loud).
	TL13	I organize the activities into logical stages to fulfill the objectives of the lesson.
	TL14	I use different types of seating arrangements depending on the type of activity students are assigned to do.
	TL15	I prepare students for transitions and interactions (e.g. bathroom rules, moving from one classroom to another) using predictable routines

	TL16	I create extra activities for students to work when they have completed their main task.
	TL17	I model the task to demonstrate what students are expected to do (e.g. role playing the task with a student, assigning a student to demonstrate the task)
PERSONAL DIMNSION (P)	P18	I attempt to be "Me" rather than "the Teacher" to make students feel I am approachable.
	P19	I learn students' names to recognize them as individuals.
	P20	I interact with students as individuals.
	P21	I use eye contact to make students feel that I care about what they say and do.
	P22	I learn about the different types of students' personal and social needs (e.g. using 'getting to know each other activities', questionnaires).
	P24	I incorporate students' personal interests into teaching.
	P25	I encourage creativity and self-expression in students.
	P26	I talk with students' previous teachers to gather information about students
PERCEIVED STRESS LEVEL (PSL)	PSL 27	how often have you been upset because of something that happened unexpectedly?
	PSL 28	how often have you felt that you were unable to control the important things in your life.
	PSL 29	how often have you felt nervous and "stressed"?
	PSL 30	how often have you felt confident about your ability to handle your personal problems?
	PSL 31	how often have you felt that things were going your way?
	PSL 32	how often have you found that you could not cope with all the things that you had to do?
	PSL 33	how often have you been able to control irritations in your life?
	PSL 34	how often have you felt that you were on top of things?
	PSL 35	how often have you been angered because of things that were outside of your control?
	PSL 36	how often have you felt difficulties were piling up so high that you could not overcome them?

I. Data Processing and Analysis

The field data will be compiled, sorted, and altered to address unanswered issues and hypotheses. Then open-ended queries will be coded (i.e., the assignment of numbers or codes to responses to make them computer readable). After editing and coding, the data will be loaded into the computer using SPSS version 25 and AMOS version 15. This was done in frequencies, percentages, mean and standard deviations. Multivariate inferential statistics such as Confirmatory Factor Analysis were adopted for analysing and reporting the research hypothesis that governed the study.

Table 4 Data Analysis

Section	Hypothesis	Tools of Analysis
A	Demographic Information	Percentage and Frequencies
B	RQ ₁ : What is the stress level among high school pupils in Kumasi?	Cross-tabulation
C	RQ ₂ : What is the stress level among high school pupils in Kumasi?	Means and Standard deviations
D	RQ ₃ : Teachers' classroom management affects high school pupils' stress levels.	Confirmatory Factor Analysis using Structural Equation Model
E	RQ ₄ : How does teachers' stress coping strategy helps in reducing stress level of high school students in the Kumasi Metropolis of Ghana?	Document Analysis

Results and Discussion

Analysis of Biographic Information

The researcher involved 365 students and 314 teachers in the study as discussed as Chapter three. This part gathered information about the respondents' backgrounds, both instructors and pupils. The gender and age of students and teachers working experience and qualification are illustrated in Table 5 in this section.

Table 5 Background Information of Respondents

Variable	Sub-scale	Students Frequency (%)	Teachers Frequency (%)
Gender	Male	200(55)	210(67)
	Female	165(45)	104(33)
Age of students	<15	175(48)	-
	16-20	185(51)	-
	> 21	5((1)	-

Experience in Teaching	1-5	-	195(62)
	6-10	-	80(25)
	>11	-	39(13)
Highest Qualification	Bachelors	-	240(76)
	Postgraduate	-	74(24)

Table 5 shows the background of Senior High School instructors and students in Kumasi, Ghana. Table 5 shows that (200) 55 percent of the studies were male teachers and (165) 45 percent were female. While students Among information for students revealed 210(673%) were male and 104 (33%) were female. This shows that men were more active in the research than females, as reflected in the gender imbalance of teachers and students in Ghana. Table 3 shows the majority of students (175) (48%) were under the age of 15. Then came majority of the students (185) 51 percent students aged 16-20. Five pupils (1%) were above the age of 21. The students were old enough to report their stress levels in the classroom. The majority of instructors (195) were beginner teachers, meaning they had taught for 1-5 years and were new to the profession. Then came instructors with 6-10 years of experience (25%) and 11 years or more (13%) of teaching experience. The majority of instructors (240) had bachelor's degrees, while the rest (74) had postgraduate teaching qualifications. This rests on the instructors being completely certified to wear the mantle of teachers and hence having gone through courses that prepared them in terms of classroom management.

Main Results and Discussions

Perceived Level of Stress of High School Students in the Kumasi Metropolis

Stress in the classroom has negative effects on students' cognitive, emotional, and psychomotor domains of learning, preventing them from reaching their instructors' goals. So, stress-related issues are not to be taken lightly. The first research question attempted to examine the role instructors may play in helping troublesome adolescents who are experiencing high levels of stress in the classroom. Table 6 illustrates student stress levels by gender

Table 6 Students Stress Scores

Performance of students in Stress						
	Very Low Stress	Low Stress	Moderate Stress	High Stress	Very High Stress	Total Stress
Age	0-10	10-20	20-30	30-40	40-50	
<15	9	6	28	32	21	96
16-20	15	31	30	28	9	113
>20	21	23	32	18	11	105
Total	45	60	90	78	41	314
Chi-Square	1.178					
Sig	0.001					

Table 6 revealed that s high school students are stressed in the Kumasi Metropolitan of Ghana. On a scale of five ranging from (10=low, 50=high) revealed that students are stressed in their classroom. This was revealed based upon recommendations in measuring students stress levels in the classroom (Golden-Kreutz et al., 2004; Roberti et al., 2006; Rücü and Demir, 2009; Barbosa-Leiker et al., 2013). Students stress levels were categorized based upon their age group. Table 6 provides data on senior high school stress in terms of frequency, proportion, and interpretation.

Table 6 shows that 119 students were highly stressed in the class with stress scores between 30-50. Out of the 119 students, 53 of them were below the ages of 16 years, followed by 37 students with ages ranging between 16 and 20 while the remaining 29 were above the ages of 21 years. This was followed by 90 students with moderate stress level and 105 students with low stress levels. The majority of students with ages below 16 were highly stressed in the classroom. Figure 3 illustrates the stress level experienced by students in the selected senior high school in the Kumasi metropolis.

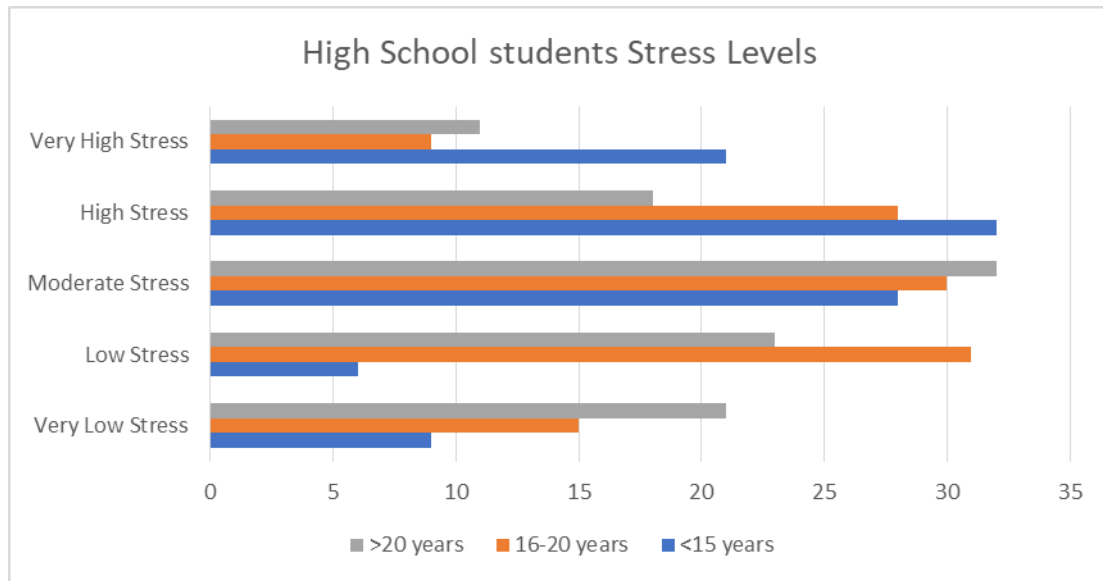


Figure 2 High school Students' stress levels

Exploratory Results : Structural Equation Model (Confirmatory Factor Analysis): Teachers' Classroom Management Positively Influences High School Students' Level of Stress

Students' stress levels were estimated using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). This multivariate statistical tool assesses the degree of link between exogenous and endogenous variables using series and complicated statistical estimations. The researcher picked this model for its versatility and efficacy (Arbuckle & Worthke, 1999; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1999). The SEM allows researchers to assess variables' manifest and latent constructs.

Measurement of Validity and Reliability

The study measured the validity and reliability of the model using the alpha values of factor loadings as recommended by Hair et al. (2013). As suggested that the acceptable cut-off value of the item loading and item reliability is 0.7 and 0.5 respectively. The findings of the model revealed satisfying factor loadings of the items in the measurement model as reported in Table 7.

The validity of the structural model was further measured using the composite reliability and Average variance extracted (Fornell & Lacker, 1981). The square root of AVE should exceed its correlation coefficients to attain reliable model results. Table 7 revealed that all the requirements for reliability and validity were meet and hence the model's results can be deemed valid to measure what it purports to estimate.

Table 7 Results of Structural Equation Modeling

Constructs	Indicators	Standardized Factor loading > 0.6	t- value	Average Variance Extracted (AVE) >0.5	Composite Reliability (CR) >0.8	Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient >0.7
DISCIPLINE DIMENSION (D)	D1	0.75	7.13	0.57	0.92	0.82
	D2	0.76	7.35			
	D3	0.67	7.12			
	D4	0.86	7.89			
	D5	0.77	7.53			
	D6	0.77	7.49			
	D7	0.68	7.21			
	D8	0.85	7.95			
TEACHING AND LEARNING DIMENSION (TL)	TL12	0.88	7.94			
	TL2	0.89	7.56			
	TL3	0.85	7.34			
	TL4	0.71	7.63			

	TL5	0.81	7.52	0.63	0.96	0.87
	TL6	0.72	7.54			
	TL7	0.81	7.71			
	TL8	0.84	7.45			
	TL9	0.69	7.65			
PERSONAL DIMNSION (P)	P1	0.89	7.89			
	P22	0.78	7.92			
	P33	0.76	7.12			
	P44	0.81	6.99	0.54	0.89	0.82
	P5	0.71	7.89			
	P6	0.75	7.86			
	P7	0.75	7.93			
	P8	0.78	7.92			
	P9	0.81	7.34			
PERCEIVED STRESS LEVEL (PSL)	PSL1	0.81	7.87			
	PSL2	0.82	7.67			
	PL3	0.82	7.56			
	PSL4	0.96	7.81			
	PSL5	0.88	7.88	0.53	0.81	0.89
	PSL6	0.81	7.85			
	PS7	0.89	7.43			
	PSL8	0.82	7.67			
	PSL9	0.79	7.99			
	PSL10	0.81	7.90			

The factors loading from Table 7 revealed a statistically significant results at 95% confidence interval and ($P < 0.05$). The study further affirmed that t- statistic values is greater than 1.96 ($t_{cal} > t_{critical}$) and hence, the model is statistically significant. Table 7 revealed accepted standards of 0.6, 0.7, 0.7, and 0.5. respectively for Factor loadings, Alpha values, CR and AVE (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009). Factor loadings of at least 0.60 are cogitated as reliable indicators or satisfactory items (Chin et al., 2014). Table 7 shows that all standardised factor loadings are over the minimal criterion, showing that our items load well. This illustrates the constructs contained in our theoretical model's validity. Factor loadings is between (0.67 and 0.96, $>.6$) with Cronbach's Alpha value between (0.82 and 0.89, >0.7), AVE ranges between (0.53 to 0.67, $> 0.5P$) and Composite reliability (CR) of the model is between (0.81 and 0.96, >0.8).

This indicated that the model constructions exhibited a high degree of internal consistency and dependability. From these previous findings, we may assume that convergent validity is ensured. The findings of the study support the research hypothesis that classroom management by instructors reduces stress among senior high school students in Kumasi Metropolis, Ghana. hypotheses. This means that how instructors punish students, participate in teaching and learning, and even how they personally resolve and face difficulties positively influences students' stress levels. Since most pupils are anxious, instructors are a key contributor to this issue. It has been shown that teachers classroom management has a significant effect on students' stress level leading to depression and hopelessness and in the long run tends to affect students' academic performance (Kolene, Hartly &and Murdock, 1990; Klusmann, Kunter, Trautwein, Lüdtke, & Baumert, 2008; Veaser & Blakemore, 2006). The previous research revealed a link between poorly managed classrooms and students' disruptive conduct due to stress (Ryan & Twibell, 2000; Misra, 200; National Alliance for mental Health, 2005; ; Hicks & Miller, 2006). Table 8 further reported the discriminant validity of the structural model. According to Fornell & Cha, 1993, the square root of the average variance recovered for each construct should be greater than its greatest correlation with any other construct (Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2015). The discriminant enabled the researcher to determinant the relationship that exist between the dependent and independent variables adopted for the study. The study found that there exists relationship between the construct investigated.

Table 8 Discriminant Validity Based upon Fornell-Larcker Criterion

	D	TL	P	PSL
D	0.76**			
TL	0.73**	0.78**		
P	0.71**	0.75**	0.76**	
PSL	0.69**	0.71**	0.73**	0.71**

Model Fitness and Significance

The model was tested to determine whether they were fit before going ahead to report its significant relationships. Both the individual and overall model fitness was tested using RMSEA, CFI, GFI, NFI and SRMR.

Table 9 Model Fitness

Model	Variables	Fitting Parameters						
		x/df < 3	RMSEA < 0.05	CFI > 0.90	TLI > 0.90	GFI > 0.85	NFI > 0.85	SRMR < 0.05
Individual Fitness	D	1.821	0.012	0.923	0.918	0.895	0.919	0.036
	TL	1.943	0.032	0.929	0.912	0.859	0.921	0.024
	P	1.985	0.051	0.918	0.923	0.910	0.918	0.048
	PSL	1.795	0.048	0.929	0.932	0.913	0.921	0.042
Overall Fitness		1.791	0.042	0.910	0.926	0.911	0.928	0.039

Ganiyu et al. (2020) define model fitness as the SEM's suitability for the data. The parameter is fitted to the hypothetical model to measure its fitness. The research used fitting indices to assess the model's fitness to predict the impact of classroom management on student stress. The research used the following indices: CFI, GFI, NFI, RMSEA, and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMSR) (SRMR). TLI (Tucker-Lewis Index) (Steiger, 2007; Kline, 2005). The study's analysis found the individual and overall model satisfactory, thereby validating the study's conclusions (Table 9). Table 10 revealed the significant effect of classroom management techniques on perceived stress levels of students in the classroom. The PLS algorithm was conducted using a non-parametric procedure to get the t-values and path coefficients that indicate the importance of the various route coefficients (Henseler et al., 2009). The significance level and critical values are, respectively, 0.05 (Hair et al. 2011). Table 10 summarises the findings of a statistical analysis of the link between endogenous and exogenous components

Table 10 Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis	(β)	Mean	Std. Dev	P Values	Decision
D -> PSL	0.781	0.821	0.061	0.012	Supported
TL-> PSL	0.671	0.781	0.071	0.025	Supported
P -> SENP	0.691	0.671	0.064	0.001	Supported

Note: significance level of path coefficient: * P<0.05, ** P<0.01, *** P<0.001

The study revealed a significant effect of teachers' discipline on students perceived stress level (H1: β = 0.781, p< 0.005). This revealed that teachers ensuring that students are disciplined in the classroom increases the stress level positively. This implies that teachers might be so hard on their students that they feel fear in the classroom environment and hence recording high stress levels.

The study further found that teaching and learning dimension significantly and positively influences students' stress level (H2: β = 0.671, p< 0.005). Hinging that teaching and learning significantly contributes to students' stress level by almost 67%. There is a need for teachers to reconsider the kind of teaching and learning environment they create for students and hence, reduce students' workload if possible or establish good rapport with them so as to reduce their stress level. The mean values of the three determinants revealed that teaching and learning dimensions contributes more to students' stress level and hence be considered with greater

attention to bring students stress level down to an appropriate level to ensure that they acquired the desired knowledge.

The study results claimed that teachers' personal associations with students also contributes and affect students stress level to a greater extent. The study found that personal teachers' dimension significantly and positively affects students' perceived stress level (H3: $\beta = 0.691$, $p < 0.005$). An increase in teachers' personal level by 1% could increase students stress level by (0.691). The study further discussed how teachers can help students cope with stress in and outside the classroom.

IV. Discussions

4.5.1 Teachers' Stress Coping Strategies Helps High School Students in Kumasi, Ghana

In Lazarus & Folkman (1984)'s beliefs, the emphasis is on the coping activities, the attempt to deal rather than the outcome. They also underline that coping is a process that evolves through time owing to the interaction of the person and the environment. This kind of coping is called the "transactional model". Folkman (1997) modified Lazarus & Folkman (1984)'s initial theoretical model of stress and coping to include positive psychological states. The new model categorises environmental interactions as hazardous or difficult, while stress is managed by emotive methods aimed to reduce anxiety and resolve the issue. These tactics may result in a bad resolution, no resolution, or a good resolution. This paradigm divides the feeling into three stages: evaluation, coping, and consequence. The three paths are included in this context.

A favorable psychological state leads to updating aims and planning goal-oriented problem-focused coping throughout the first route (Folkman, 1997, p.1216). The second route is a response to the anxiety rather than the mood that caused it. It considers the co-occurrence of negative and positive situations in this setting. Also, the bad circumstances might be due to the person striving (consciously or subconsciously) to interpret the incident. Finally, the fourth route originates from the coping techniques themselves and might help the person restore motivation, energy, and involvement in goal-oriented activity.

Students are unable to affirm or dispute if the home and school environments differ, according to Dr Saliha Afridi, Clinical Psychologist and CEO of Lighthouse Arabia. So it's important for parents to create a home environment that matches the school one (Nazzal, 2015). An inclusive and comprehensive strategy is required to manage disruptive students and keep the classroom and school safe for everyone. According to Hind Al Mualla, the head of creativity, happiness, and innovation, parents, decision-makers, and schools must work together to tackle student misbehavior. Maintaining a safe and cheerful environment is the responsibility of all stakeholders (parents, operators, policymakers, and instructors). It is the obligation and objective of schools to provide a healthy and safe environment for everyone, particularly students (Rizvi, 2018).

The classroom management strategies Al Shoraty (2014) proposes are:

For starters, employ all conceivable strategies, rules, and practises to prevent classroom conflicts by effectively eliminating their core causes and goals that stimulate learning. The remedial method, on the other hand, focuses on finding answers to classroom challenges after they occur. In a manner, it's a sensitive strategy focused on the teacher's reaction to student behaviour. It overlooks the use of initiatives or preventative measures to reduce classroom chaos. Student misbehaviour was one of the primary hurdles for new instructors in the UAE, according to an article titled "Managing an Emirati Classroom: tips and admonitions". He advises instructors teaching English to Emiratis to keep in mind the cultural aspect. Building rapport, particularly during the first week, allows the instructor to get to know their students. It is vital to be perceived as accessible, personable, but authoritative by students. In this setting, failing to convey this picture can result in students not taking you seriously, which might lead to problems later on when the classroom is chaotic. Instead of constructing a dull or teacher-oriented session that simply focuses on academic aspects, it is a good idea to use communicative language teaching strategies that allow students to engage (Managing an Emirati Classroom: advice and admonitions, 2014).

Teachers may use a number of models and strategies to enforce school discipline. The effect of different models on student achievement and behaviour, and the comparative range to which the objective of disciplinary contact is to build order and inculcate values are some of the elements that determine their selection (Lewis, 1999). When a teacher decides to utilise a certain type of classroom discipline, they may face rejection or hostility from other educators. However, they strive to quickly establish and maintain classroom order, which is essential for topic learning and teacher and student safety. It's also conceivable that the professors don't have the desired effect on the class (Lewis, 1999). In the Group Management discipline model, instructors manage classrooms by organising students and allowing them to make decisions. They allow students and teachers to work together to decide on behaviour guidelines/standards. Rules and results are also discussed at class sessions led by the instructor as a team leader.

Also, the instructor chooses not to dominate classroom tactics. The instructor will employ the approach once it is prepared. Another disciplinary style is the "Persuade model," where instructors influence every student to behave properly. The instructor would encourage students to study in their own way, with little adult

supervision, and to negotiate with peers individually, but not to force their ideas on them. They also allow students to see the natural consequences of their actions and choose to change them (Lewis, 1999).

How can students and instructors minimize stress and enhance classroom management

A changing profession demoralizes teacher, according to Doris Santoro of Boiwodon College. Policymakers and school communities must thus restore what has been lost to the profession. To promote educators' use of powerful coping methods should be explored as a viable resolution, Herman admits. Personal resilience is important, but no school can achieve long-term success without a commitment to creating a safe and productive environment for staff and students. Administrators must set the tone for how teachers are regarded and supported in their building. It is important to priorities a teacher's well-being above criticism and judgment, according to Keith Herman (Walker, 2018). When a teacher is facing burnout, Linsin (2011) suggests a simple but effective solution: arrive to school early and start to work. Organizing oneself is the "ultimate distressor" and relieving oneself of stress. A teacher's peace of mind comes from knowing where to find information (including lesson plans and ideas) and how to get it quickly. Second, arrange the chairs and remove barriers, superfluous boxes, equipment, and obsolete projects. A clutter-free classroom is the key to a productive and pleasant learning environment. This wide area would allow the instructor to concentrate on their lesson. Third, after school, teachers should leave their ideas at school rather than taking them home, causing tension and poor sleep. Finally, a good diet is important in maintaining sufficient energy intake; try a modest but simple diet with small meals to assist preserve energy. Sugary foods, fatty foods, white flour, and saturated fats must be avoided (Linsin, 2011).

Wilson (2017) suggests methods students might deal with stress in relation to classroom management.

First, unstructured time such as lunch or passing times might cause undue anxiety in students. While students can properly speak and ask questions in a classroom setting, it might be difficult to participate in discussion outside of class. The administration or instructor must guarantee that students are not inconvenienced during unstructured periods and should be adequately prepared to deal with the scenario. For example, structuring a task during lunch or allowing students to dine in the classroom with a teacher instead of the cafeteria.

Next, transitions. It is difficult for students to go from one class to another on time, especially in middle and high school. Changing courses regularly might generate anxiety among students. This is because textbook use varies from class to class and most students are concerned about remembering the lock combination or having enough time to travel to and from class. In this situation, repeated practise will ensure the student has the confidence to unlock the lock and the locker. A student might write it on their backpack, school bag, or pocketbook as a reminder to retrieve the information when needed (Wilson, 2017)

Third, peer pressure. Despite the tiny class size, students will have to compete for the teacher's attention. They would work as a team and compete over the year as they establish strong friendships and relationships. It is important to note that students who are busy with social jobs or activities are frequently distracted in class. Some students are inherently outgoing and lively, while others have social issues ranging from shyness to an actual problem with interpreting speech and body language (Wilson, 2017).

Lastly, planning. Losing stuff at school or home adds to a student's anxiety and stress. A student browsing through a stack of stuff without success may clearly perceive such a rationale. Many students who need aid from someone other than a parent or instructor to acquire and use organisational skills might benefit from the use of an organisation (Wilson, 2017).

Fifth, class involvement. Pupils are always worried about being asked to solve a question by the instructor, particularly if they don't know the answer. For example, when given points for active class engagement, some students choose to forfeit those points rather than stand out or ask a question in front of their peers (Wilson, 2017). It is critical that a student's health or academic performance is not jeopardised owing to a fear of class participation. By doing so, the student is aware they are not being surprised, which encourages participation from students who want to remain anonymous. Some professors may even pre-designate a question to allow reluctant students to participate. For example, if the instructor informs the class that she will call a certain student to give a response at the end of class, the student has all night to prepare an answer.

Some students tend to lose points or refuse to turn in work that does not satisfy the teacher's requirements. The student who neglected to bring tabbed dividers to separate parts of a project must be inspired to turn in the assignment and get credit for their labour. Teachers are often unaware of the anguish they cause when students lack a certain colour pen or other items they believe are required for class.

Seventh, alter routine. If a student is used to the regular school schedule, such as assemblies and fire drills, it might be difficult to maintain confidence and follow the timetable. To avoid this, it is essential to notify known changes well in advance, or at least acknowledge that the unexpected may occur. Wiley, 2017. Also, pay attention to homework. Homework is usually done at home, however some students may struggle to do it on time, causing humiliation. These feelings may be heightened in classes where papers are traded for peer

assessment. Teachers might help alleviate students' anxiety by establishing a dedicated drop-off site for schoolwork instead of collecting it through traditional ways (publicly visible in the classroom). Keeping this in mind, the instructor may encourage students to turn in finished assignments by asking them about it and reminding them at the conclusion of class. "If you didn't submit your project when entering, please do so upon exiting." Wilson (2017)

Finally, extracurricular activities. Extracurricular activities are beneficial to a student's academic life. Arts, sports, swimming, badminton, cricket, table tennis, volleyball, basketball, baseball, culinary skills, and others are encouraged to attend school. The bulk of such activities are very competitive, requiring years of hard work, effort, and practice to qualify for participation throughout high school. The list goes on since the student is required to devote a certain amount of time to training. Most sports need ongoing training and fitness even during the off-season, so students seldom get a vacation. In this case, students are stressed not only by the constant hard work or additional effort in extracurricular activities to obtain the top rank, but also because their performances are frequently in public. Missing a big event makes an athlete liable for the team's downfall. The same is true for artists who display their work. These factors cause stress, which causes creative and gifted students to withdraw from chores and activities they ordinarily like, or struggle academically when their concentration and time is focused on that particular extra-curricular activity. (Wilson,17)

According to Starbuck (2017), strong comprehension is essential for efficient classroom management and lecture delivery. Stress is a huge problem for students since they don't know how to cope with it. Emotional, behavioural, cognitive, and physical signs of learning include: rapid heartbeat, feeling alone or lonely, inability to concentrate, nausea, binge-eating or eating little, short-tempered, and sleep disturbances. These are the primary indicators that students should watch out for while going through a difficult time. This would also allow them to acquire the assistance and counsel they need to stay calm. Stressing out students may be a motivation for activity by driving this energy and changing it into something good and favorable. Helping them develop realistic, time-bound objectives for schoolwork or revision. Small trials can build confidence in students, allowing them to take on greater tasks (Starbuck, 2017).

A student making a mistake while studying is not to be criticised since our brain grows when we make and think about mistakes. Making mistakes is essential to learning, yet most students are afraid of making them. So the instructor must show students that failure is not necessarily a bad thing. When assigning work, teachers must describe why errors are important and show how students may improve by asking reflective questions where they can perform self-evaluation (Starbuck, 2017). The pressure chain tends to spread when a teacher or team leader is stressed; this should be avoided. It is essential to prevent spreading negativity among students. Mindfulness has many benefits for both adults and children. For example, at a US school, detention is replaced with mindful meditation, leading to improved behaviour and attendance. A research on US Marines found that individuals who attended mindfulness training and practised certain activities, i.e. focused breathing, had superior working memory and emotions. Hours of meditation aren't feasible in a classroom context, but a 30-second breathing exercise when students shut their eyes and listen to every sound is an excellent idea. Starbuck (2017) found positive results when students were calm and focused on the moment, the instructor, and the material.

V. Summary, Conclusion and Recommendation

Summary of the Research Process

This study looked at the influence of classroom management on lowering stress among high school students in Kumasi. To achieve the primary goal, the study tested four key research issues:

- a. What is the stress level among high school pupils in Kumasi, Ghana?
- b. What are the perceived sources of stress among high school students in Kumasi, Ghana?
- c. Classroom management favorably affects stress levels of high school pupils in Kumasi, Ghana?
- d. How can instructors' stress coping skills assist reduce high school pupils' stress in Ghana's Kumasi Metropolis?

The research used a descriptive survey methodology to explore the influence of classroom management on lowering student stress levels in Kumasi secondary schools. The study used a descriptive survey approach to gather big amounts of data from large numbers of people quickly and affordably. The research used two standardized questionnaires to assess the impact of classroom management on student stress. They were intended as one full questionnaire to gather information from the respondents. The questionnaire will be entirely closed-ended. The first set of surveys was the perceived stress scale. The first portion of the questionnaire asks pupils about their gender, school name, school taught, and class level. The second portion will assess their stress levels. Cohen (1988) created 10 measures on perceived stress (0=Never, 1=Almost never, 2=Sometimes, 3=frequently, and 4=Very often). Less frequent feelings or thoughts will be indicated by students. The second set of surveys will be the standardized Classroom Management questionnaire (CMQ) by Daz, González, Jara-Ramrez & Muoz-Parra (2017). This questionnaire will assess classroom management procedures in three areas:

discipline, teaching and learning, and personal. The first section of the questionnaire collects teacher personal information such as age, gender, education, and school name. The second component collects information on discipline, teaching and learning, and personal dimension. To improve effective teaching practices by instructors, the final study topic examined information on the coping mechanisms taken by schools in lowering stress among students in the classroom.

Conclusions

The study concluded that high school students are perceived to be highly stressed. The findings of the first research question on the perceived level of Stress of high school students in the Kumasi Metropolis revealed that From Table 6, it can be observed that 119 students were highly stressed in the class with stress scores between 30-50. Out of the 119 students, 53 of them were below the ages of 16 years, followed by 37 students with ages ranging between 16 and 20 while the remaining 29 were above the ages of 21 years. This was followed by 90 students with moderate stress level and 105 students with low stress levels. The majority of students with ages below 16 were highly stressed in the classroom. This means children encounter challenges both inside and outside of school. Students may be stressed due to worry of failing to meet instructors' high expectations in the classroom or personal issues at home. Regardless, it is the teacher's obligation to provide a safe and suitable learning atmosphere for kids. It may also be established that teachers' discipline tactics seem to effect pupils' stress levels. It may be that the punishment or reinforcement instructors employ does not assist children long-term or short-term. The adoption of such punitive actions by instructors might increase student stress.

The second study question found that unsatisfactory connections with peers, teachers, school employees, administrators, and principals might lead to increased stress. The rising use of high stakes testing at the local and state levels may exacerbate the problem by limiting teachers' discretion over the content and pace of their work. Increasing work expectations and stress, low SEC, poor learning skills, attrition, retention, and poor teacher performance. If pupils are not doing well in class, instructors have more work to do to complete assignments, tests, and other tasks.

The third study question found that teacher classroom management strategies seem to influence student stress levels. The way instructors educate pupils may be troublesome, or students may not comprehend teachers, making learning difficult. This might cause tension in pupils because they fear failing the class and being punished. The teacher-student relationship might increase stress levels among high school pupils. A positive connection between instructors and students may help alleviate student stress. The way instructors manage classrooms, such as setting rules and regulations, and disciplining pupils, seems to raise classroom stress. The teaching and learning process, as well as instructors' personal interactions with students, raises students' stress levels. The research also proposed that schools, teachers, and other educational stakeholders implement coping mechanisms to successfully manage student stress. The fourth study question proposed that legislators and school communities take responsibility for reviving the profession. To promote educators' use of powerful coping methods should be explored as a viable resolution, Herman admits.

Recommendations

The educational stakeholders are advised to follow three interventions. First, organizational interventions: this strategy focuses on changing the organization's culture to minimize stressful incidents. Second, organizational-individual interface interventions: fostering workplace connections and support. Finally, individual interventions relate to a methodology that teaches people how to cope with stress (Teacher stress and health, 2016).

In their thesis, I recommend ways to handle teacher and student stress. For rookie teachers, employment happiness is connected to supportive school culture, auxiliary leadership, and a cooperative, collegial atmosphere. High levels of teacher confidence in their leaders and colleagues are linked to reduced levels of stress and burnout (Teacher stress and health, 2016). Another strategy is to focus on establishing coworker social support and expert training for students and instructors. In this regard, three proven programs are listed as follows:

1. Teachers and students benefit from induction and mentorship programs. This program provides technical and social aid to new instructors via coaching, mentorship, and orientation. Daily activities include: peer mentorship, continuous contact with administrators, workshops, seminars, team development, and time management (Teacher stress and health, 2016). According to the study (as of 2016), instructors who have mentors in their subject area and grade level had better retention rates. Detailed and prolonged induction assistance was also incredibly valuable (Teacher stress and health, 2016).
2. Workplace wellness initiatives are one system-wide approach to improving teacher health and well-being. For example, lifestyle adjustments can reduce health risks and costs (Teacher stress and health,

- 2016). In the United States, one school district's wellness program established in 2011-2012 incorporated administrative planning, insurance benefits, and behavior change initiatives/campaigns. Over half of staff participated (Teacher stress and health, 2016).
3. Programmes aimed to improve student behavior and social and emotional learning (SEL) benefit instructors and boost classroom learning: It is clear that programs designed to improve student behavior and SEL have benefited students. It also improves instructor performance (Teacher stress and health, 2016).
 4. Individual interventions: they are tailored to people to help them cope with stress. These therapies include psychological meditation, goal planning, and cognitive behavioral techniques to improve active coping abilities. The following interventions are suggested:
 5. Stress management: stress and mindfulness-based professional development workshops for teachers to help them maintain and increase their attention. They may also be present in the moment without reacting, relating their own experience to others with tolerance, humility, and ease. The abilities taught via sequential exercises include breath awareness, meditative movement, body scans, increased emotional awareness, and pleasant feelings towards oneself and others (Teacher stress and health, 2016).

The following recommendations are made based on the findings of this study.

- a. Teachers should set rules against disruptive conduct in the classroom.
- b. Teachers should continuously focus on improving classroom management abilities to improve student academic success.
- c. Teachers should help pupils with their homework during class.
- d. Teachers should use punishment with caution so it does not negatively affect pupils' grades.
- e. Students should be given tasks to fully participate in the learning process.
- f. Students' academic achievement will be harmed if instructors lack adequate classroom management abilities.

Teachers should be able to attend conferences and seminars to learn new classroom management strategies.

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