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An Study Of The Effect Of Classroom Collaboration On The Attainments Of Students At The Secondary School Level

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Abstract
The goal of the study was to compare the effects of student cooperation in the classroom on secondary school student's academic achievement. Finding the academic achievement of students who collaborated in class and discovering the academic achievement of students who did not collaborate in class were the study's key goals. All secondary school pupils are included in the population for the research. Using a random sampling approach, the sample was chosen. In this investigation, two tools were employed. To first assess how the experimental group and control group performed, a pre-test was employed. The performance of the experimental group and control group was evaluated following the experiment using a post-test. This study's methodology involved two equal groups. A cooperation facility was made available to the experimental group, but not to the control group. The pupils were given a post-test following fifteen days of instruction. Tables were created with the results of both exams. Data analysis was done using the t-test statistic. This indicates that the accomplishment of the control and experimental groups differs. The test group received classroom instruction. Collaboration outperformed the control group substantially. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected since there was evidence of an active cooperation pattern in the experimental group as opposed to the control group, which did not have access to a collaboration facility in the classroom. Teachers should indulge and engage themselves, the study suggests, and they should deviate from established routines and involve themselves and their students in the teaching-learning process.

Keywords: classroom collaboration, attainments of students, secondary school level.

Introduction

Reconstructing experiences is a constant process in education. It is a method for achieving both competitive and personal growth. It requires a broad network of institutions and initiatives. Planning for education is necessary for the well of both society and its citizens.

The educational policy directs the administration of accomplishing the educational objectives. Because of the teacher's new responsibilities, learning must be an active process rather than a passive one. For the best results, there should be two-way communication and active participation from both the students and the professors. Both the instructor and the student must make intentional efforts for the teaching-learning process to be successful. When

collaboration between the students and professors is developed, the aforementioned condition is realized. To do this, the instructor must ask the pupils to actively engage in the process. It should be understood that the formation of a new connection between the instructor and his students, who become more active participants, is essential for the efficacy of school instruction. However, the educational system in Pakistan portrays a bad scenario, particularly in the classroom setting. At the secondary level, the country's teaching-learning process is rote memorization-based and takes place every week. Students are given relatively little opportunity for collaborative work and active engagement.

In the class, the instructor appears to have a highly powerful position. The teaching-learning process requires collaboration between students and teachers. It encourages participation, improves education, and inspires pupils. While still retaining a teacher-led activity, it encourages a change from a teacher-centered and student-centered setting (Hussain et al, 2011).

Problem Statement

The problem under study was to investigate a comparative study of the impact of classroom collaboration on the attainments of the students at the secondary school level.

Research Objectives

Following were the objectives of the study:

1. To find the attainment of the students with classroom collaboration.
2. To find the attainment of the students without classroom collaboration.

Research Hypothesis

The following hypotheses were investigated in the study:

H_0: There is no impact of classroom collaboration on student attainment.

H_1: There is an impact of classroom collaboration on student attainment.

Research Significance

The following explanations suggest that this study may be important:

1. By encouraging more student engagement in the activity, the research may enhance education.
2. All currently employed instructors may use the findings and recommendations of this study as a guide to help them improve their instructional techniques.
3. It could inspire further scholars to focus their efforts on this aspect of classroom cooperation.

Research Delimitations

The study was delimited to:

1. Only one secondary school i.e. Government: High School Din-Pur.
2. The students of the 10th class with a sample size of 40 only.
3. The experimental method was used as the only research method.
4. The test was used as a data-collection tool in the experimental method.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Warrington and younger (2002) Certain tactics work well and efficiently while others don't. Effective and efficient ones have traits that may be divided into three categories: content features, design features, and usefulness qualities. The phases of the strategy and what they are intended to promote during the learning process are referred to as the strategy's content. The packaging of the processes to make learning and subsequent use of the method easier are referred to as a design feature. The strategy's potential applicability to daily requirements in a range of situations is referred to as the utility characteristic.

Classroom Behaviour

Warrington, Younger, and McLellan (2002). English secondary schools' answers to the "Problem" of "Under-achieving Boys." There have been efforts to relate teacher qualities to student achievement. Although there were some happy endings, the five elements of effective teaching—warmth, cognitive organization, orderliness, indirectness, and problem-solving ability—as well as the connection between higher morale and increased teacher performance and high student achievement with heads who displayed executive professional leadership—were all positive. This research has often been difficult to use and unreliable, and they have produced unimpressive findings. a non-significant correlation. inconsistent from one responsibility to the next and typically devoid of psychological depth. The largest research used a similar technique to link instructor personality to student conduct. Which has a specific focus and examined the classroom conduct of over 6,000 instructors; discovered that it was able to isolate several opposing traits that might be used for diagnostic purposes warm, understanding, and pleasant distant, egotistical, restricting classroom behavior? responsible, professional, methodical evasion, unplanned, careless classroom conduct. Personal learning is based on conventional, permissive, child-centered educational philosophies. Studies of attributes were supplemented by and gave place to situational studies that focused on the instructor in the classroom and the emotional stability (adjustment) instability of superiors. This strategy gave birth to two related research methodologies, including studies of classroom atmosphere and systematic observations of teacher-pupil or pupil-pupil interactions.

Collaboration among Students and Teachers

Mc-Caleb (2013). Some teacher domination of the classroom is unavoidable, but the learning experiences that are usually more significant for the student are ones in which they are active, involved, and learning from one another. With teacher domination, likely to learn heuristic methods of problem-solving or concepts and skills that can be applied to situations outside the classroom. A preoccupation with the need to dominate also leads teachers to develop certain preferences concerning the personality of students. The researcher asked 240 student teachers to evaluate sixteen story situations that represented four different personality types.

Poling (2005). In interpreting her findings, Feshbach took note of research showing that teacher-training experiences tend to be stressful. As such, they are likely to be anxiety-arousing and lead to a preoccupation with problems of

classroom management and control, as well as preferences for docility in children. Other data that bear on this topic come from a nationwide survey of high school students. Approximately 40 percent said that high schools are like impersonal factories; approximately 30 percent said that the atmosphere of high schools was repressive. However, students were likely to take these positions when they also perceived the faculty as rejecting individuals who did not treat students as responsible individuals, did not attempt to understand them, listen to their opinions, use their suggestions, and did not encourage them to do their best. When faculty members were perceived as individuals who provided emotional and psychological support and attempted to deal with students without dominating them, students, were much more inclined to agree with such statements as 'Freedom is conditional upon the mastery of intellectual tools,' a position that typically reflects the educational values of most teachers (Ervin-Tripp, S. M. (2017). These findings strongly suggest that teacher domination leads students. Teacher domination has similar outcomes in other cultural settings. (Groen et al, 2006). compared results obtained by traditional, teacher-centered methods with the results of more psychology icily oriented approaches. Even when traditional methods were used to the satisfaction of judges who were biased in favor of that method, students showed little ability to make an application or to transfer what they had learned. These results are not surprising because traditionally oriented teachers are more concerned about 'getting the material across' than they are about whether the resulting learning can be used by students in other courses or whether it is retained after examinations are over.

The Nature of Communications

Argyle (2017). Argyle first classifies social cooperation as a whole before classifying the type of communication it comprises. We have been using phrases like "welcoming," "friendly," "cooperative," and other such generalizations until now, but there are far more specific categories that assist us to codify our thoughts on the subject. According to Argyle, communication may be egocentric (directed toward the self) or socially orientated and may take the shape of requests for information, casual speech expressing emotions, perform utterances, social rituals, or subliminal messages. The teacher may learn a lot about his professional abilities by reading Argyle's explanation for each of these categories and then applying them to his typical conduct with students. Does the majority of his social interaction with youngsters, for instance, consist of giving commands and providing information rather than asking questions? If so, does this imply that he is instructing his students too frequently rather than encouraging them to reflect, probe, and draw conclusions? Does he speak informally when it's suitable to promote a laid-back and welcoming environment? If not, is he putting extra distance between himself and the class, preventing students from seeking out his advice and assistance? Does he, on the other hand, overuse colloquial language to the point where the kids struggle to recognize his authority when he wants to reassert it? Does he support emotional expression when it benefits the child and his learning? I can see yours angry about it; what's the problem? is one example of how to encourage the expression of anxiety and disappointment in addition to comedy and enjoyment. Or does he downplay emotions by telling others to "get themselves together" or "don't be so

silly"? Does the commonly convey subliminal signals in his speech, and if so, are they typically negative in nature (e.g., "I'm too busy for that right now" might mean "I just don't care about your situation"). If the instructor uses one of the various methods now on the market for coding and classifying classroom cooperation, it will be easier to analyze his communications. Typically, these systems closely monitor what transpires whenever the teacher speaks to the class or with specific students.

Saunders, Dickson, and Hargie (2004). The categories used in these systems often serve as a simplification of the entire spectrum offered by Argyle, especially in a busy classroom when many things seem to be happening at once. The Flanders (1970) system, which is detailed below, is the most well-known of these systems. When using the Flanders system, the observer marks one of the ten categories every three seconds (which is about as fast as he can work).

Problems in Communication

Manchester (2013). When it was discovered that a three-year-old youngster used more than 11,000 running words a day and a four-year-old used 15,000, the following remark was made: Consider the formal teacher of five and six-year-old children who raised her hand to stop the speech to stop this flow. I find it amazing that young children can restrain their speech for four or five hours a day, but I find it even more amazing that schools continue to be so idiotic as to do this, sapping children's intellectual growth of the exact thing that makes a speech and oral communication a tool for learning. A student cannot learn if they cannot communicate. And one of the main issues with teacher-oriented methodologies is FIG, which ranks the efficacy of different kinds of communication connections between instructors and students. Like any other social process, education relies on communication to be effective. Collaboration efforts will be ineffective if group members can't communicate with their leader and he can't communicate with them. The teacher may not understand the value and significance of communication, but that is not the issue. Even the most authoritarian educators care about their pupils' comprehension. The issue arises from the instructors' propensity to view communication as primarily a method of information transmission to students. Students frequently find it difficult to communicate with their professors and with one another.

Teachers sometimes overlook the fact that successful communication is a two-way, or ideally a three-way, process. When we examine the complexity of the knowledge, abilities, and attitudes we want students to develop as a result of their educational experiences, the value of student communication becomes clear. One way to think about education is as a wide and intricate series of problem-solving experiences. It is desirable to have more communication rather than less while tackling such problems. Experiments with different combinations and settings in a small group demonstrate that group members are more productive at solving issues when they can communicate with one another more easily (Forman & Cazden, 1986). Another research contrasted the academic achievement of pupils who studied in groups with those who did it alone and discovered that the group approach was more successful (Hiltz, Johnson, and Turoff, 1986).

Williamson and Clark (1989). Even if we support this definition of what the desirable relationship between teacher and student should be, we must admit the need for some kind of two-way communication. If communication is limited to one-way transactions, how can teachers find out what students do not understand? How can 1 student ask for clarification and further explanation? In the most traditional learning situations, par-|secularly as characterized by European secondary I schools, the teacher often erects an almost impenetrable barrier between him and the class, and, students are discouraged from asking questions. The student finds out whether he has understood the teacher when he receives the marks on his I examinations. Since this approach makes learning unnecessarily difficult, the failure rate is quite high. Although this rather grim procedure has what some teachers consider to be a desirable feature of 'weeding out the unfit it is also a method that is very wasteful of talent and energy, this approach is yielding to more effective methods in European schools, as well as in the United States and Canada, but it persists in universities and colleges throughout the world.

Sunhaji (2017). The teacher who is more interested in the success of his own; communication rather than that of students ought to be concerned about two-way communication for an additional reason. In effect, he cannot tell how successful his attempts at communion action have been until students have communicated something back to him. Without such feedback, he is like a rifleman blazing away at a concealed and moving target, without any knowledge of whether he has missed or how far wide of the mark he is shooting. Even in the most autocratic and traditional: classes, there are channels whereby students can communicate with teachers if teachers permit! Them to be used. Although there may be no opportunities for students to ask questions, discuss, or comment, there are quizzes, examinations, and assigned papers. All too often, however, teachers are up to them to figure out what the teacher is trying to communicate. This attitude not only leads to oversimplified ideas about the communicative process but also leads teachers to absolve themselves of any responsibility for improving their ability to communicate. Within the last generation or so, several reforms have been instituted to improve classroom communication and thus make education more effective. The vocabularies of spelling lists and readers have been extensively revised to adapt their scope and content to the words used by children.

Jarman (2014). Monographic Studies of English Second Language Learning in an Inner-city School. There has also been considerable discussion of the advisability of teaching primary grades in 'ghetto language' or Spanish, depending on the cultural background of students. Some educators believe that programs of this kind go too far, for if we limit ourselves to teaching children what they already know, how will, we be able to .extend and broaden their experience? The counterarguments are that we could 'reach' children more effectively if we 'start where they are.' Information and skills learned in the primary grades are difficult enough without having to complicate them with the need to learn a new language. Furthermore, going through the arguments, and belonging to a deprived group is a humiliating experience, and meeting a child halfway by using

his language in communicating with him would go a long way toward building up his self-esteem. The problem posed by these conflicting arguments is a neat one: How can we keep the language of the classroom within the limits of children's comprehension and still make learning an expanding, stimulating experience? In other words, how can we keep education simple enough to produce maximum understanding and complex enough to promote maximum learning?

Peterson and Margolin (1997). Classroom language is also criticized on the ground that the vocabulary appropriate for the 'average' child is too difficult for slow learners and too simple for the gifted. This puts us in the position of simultaneously frustrating slow learners and encouraging mediocrity in the gifted. There are no easy answers to these dilemmas; they are problems that must be examined, resolved, and re-resolved at frequent intervals-. And the per.-, laxities of educators are not made any easier by the fact that whatever decisions are made are likely to affect relations between the school and the community and, hence, to have political implications.

Techniques for Involving Student's Interest

Ingenious electronic gadgetry, practical demonstrations, and field trips are ways of capturing the interest of students and of involving them in the learning process as active participants, dent interests, and other motivational considerations. Furthermore, teachers who elect to use these aids are, in effect, indicating a willingness to depart from more traditional methods of teaching. The introduction of technical aids usually implies a degree of concern with improving communication terms between teacher and .student, a concern that is often lacking in teachers who are traditionally oriented. In addition, educators who use technical aids are likely to be more experimentally minded and to try a wider variety of teaching techniques. They are inclined to question their methods, in contrast to tradition-bound Teachers who limit themselves to conventional approaches. It is difficult to this only to a narrow range evaluate the effect that technical aids have on learning because it is hard to control the effect of teaching style and personality. When they are employed, students tend to make more progress and have more positive attitudes toward learning, but it is hard to determine whether this results from the introduction of the technical aids, the psychological climate in the classroom, or the behavior of the teacher. In Chapter 10 we discussed some research, that found that medical students who participated in group discussions learned more cancer information than those who did not. As the researcher pointed out, however, the difference may have been because of the kind of climate prevailing in schools in which instructors used innovative methods. Similar conclusions probably apply to classrooms and schools in which instructors use technical aids. But how about the teacher who uses aids because he is directed to do so, and who probably would not use them if left to his own devices? Research gives us no answer to this question, but one can argue on logical grounds that his students are exposed to more stimulation and. more communication media than they would be otherwise. Furthermore, if an innovative climate prevails in a school or a school system, it is likely to affect the behavior of all students and all teachers for the better. In instances where technical aids are prescribed by administrative decree, and teachers play no part in deciding which aids will be used and how

they will be used, it may well be that their inclusion in the program has little effect. As observed by many experienced supervisors, science teachers are quite conservative. Many hold their positions and maintain their egos by their 'knowledge of the subject.' They enjoy 'telling and showing' their pupils. If this behavior is made unnecessary by some type of 'canned' instruction, many teachers will be obliged to change in position and importance. Even for those who will recognize and welcome their new role, this change will be difficult. Watson puts his finger on a very significant factor that plays determining role in the success that various types of teaching aids will have. If the teachers are open to new ideas and are continually casting about new ways to present material and capture the interest and imagination of students, teaching aids will be genuinely helpful and will usually 'work.' But if he uses teaching aids only when required to do so and regards them as a nuisance or even as a psychological threat, teaching aids will contribute little or nothing to student progress Technical aids abound in great variety, but it is beyond the scope of this book to discuss all of them, and we shall mention only two approaches that make extensive use of electronic devices: the language laboratory and computer-assisted instruction.

Language laboratories are used in about 85 percent of the school systems in the United States that enroll 12,000 or more pupils (Filep, R. T. (1967). These laboratories consist of arrangements of soundproof rooms, tape recorders, and libraries of prepared tapes, which can be used by students individually or in small groups as a way of augmenting classroom instruction in a foreign language. These laboratories do enable students to record and play back their recorded attempts to speak the language and also to hear instructional tapes. From the standpoint of common sense, it would appear that such augmented instruction would aid considerably in the mastery of a foreign language. Objective evidence that language laboratories do facilitate the learning of foreign languages is very meaner and not very conclusive. The teaching-learning problems in this field are extremely complex, and it is difficult to set up and conduct research studies with proper scientific controls that would produce evidence on which one could base firm conclusions. Despite the lack of encouraging findings, further experimentation with teaching methods in foreign languages would seem highly desirable.

The Involvement of the Students in the Learning Process

Shimotsu-Dariol et al (2012). There is a growing realization on the part of education that school experiences must be individualized in as many different ways as possible. Without this individualization, it is difficult to get all members of a class to attend to the task at hand. An incidental finding of research with teaching machines illustrates j how classroom learning can improve when they attend I action of students can be captured. In the study in question, the performance of fifth-graders learning Spanish with the aid of teaching machines was compared with that of a group in regular classes and another group that made use of a programmed textbook. The teaching machines were an early model that kept breaking down. The more highly trained teachers, who had been more thoroughly briefed on the machines, put them aside, sent for a repairman, and substituted other activities. Teachers with less training told the students to repair the machines and proceeded with the programmed instruction. In some

classes, as much as 25 percent of the time was spent repairing machines. The results of the study showed that students in classes where they were asked to repair the machines showed a higher degree of attainment than did students in any of the other groups. These differences showed up at every IQ level. The researchers explained the unexpected results in 'terms of the fact that students who repaired broken machines became involved in the educational program to a much greater extent than did students in other groups. 'They became proud of their ability to keep the machine going. It was their machine and they wanted it to do well.' Because they had more responsibility, they were more highly motivated to learn has conducted research with preschool children that tell us something about the relationship between teacher behavior and children's self-involvement in learning tasks. The researcher was interested in internal reinforcement control: the ability of a learner to serve as his reinforcement. Children who are their own reinforces have been shown in other research to develop strong tendencies toward school attainment. However, traditional teachers are inclined to encourage dependent behavior on the part of students and to discourage them from 'going off on their own that is, thinking and acting independently. Often teachers do not do this intentionally, but their tendencies to retain control of the contingencies of reinforcement keep children from developing internal reinforcement control. One of the teachers in this study was supportive of children's efforts to function independently; another was very affectionate, but: encouraged dependency and was not very supportive of attainment efforts. Both teachers were quite positive and accepting in their approaches to children, however, children in the first classroom engaged in half again more attainment-oriented behavior than did children in the second room.

Personal Relationship with Teacher

Bohl, Bosch, and Hildebrandt (2011). Throughout the studies comparing middle-class with lower-class school performance, the personal relationship between pupil and teacher has loomed large. The lower-class student, as we have pointed out, is less likely to react positively to ego rewards and more likely to respond to direct and immediate reinforcement. He will work hard for teachers who support; e and who show their interest in him but will become apathetic or even hostile in classes where teachers are cold, discipline-oriented, or interested solely in the cognitive aspects of learning. The importance of the personal relationship is brought out by a study by David Gottlieb (1962), who asked college freshmen with lower-class backgrounds to tell him how they happened to enter college. These young men were much more likely to mention the influence of teachers and counselors than were freshmen with higher socioeconomic status. Like the other studies that we have cited in this chapter, Gottlieb's research provides us with one more clue to how children from culturally and socially deprived environments can be helped to progress. It may be well at this point to review some of the things a remedial program of education must accomplish if it is to prepare socially disadvantaged children for the kinds of tasks they will face in school and employment situations. In doing this we are not solely concerned with trying to mold children to fit them into a predetermined role in rigid and unyielding situations. For one thing, most schools and most employment situations today do permit a considerable degree of choice and freedom for self-determination. Most schools provide a variety of programs and

a rich array of experiences; similarly, there is an infinite number of possibilities for employment. The difficulty with life in deprived circumstances is that the individual has few choices for self-expression and self-determination. The educated person has many more options as to what he can learn, what he can work at, or what he can do with his leisure time.

Social Collaboration

Powell and Kalina (2009). A large part of instruction and learning takes place through social cooperation, in which the instructor interacts with the class both individually and collectively and the students engage with one another. The teacher is consequently very interested in social conduct, especially in the classroom but also in all locations where people come into touch and learning outcomes are thereby made feasible. He will be better equipped to give the kids ideal learning environments if he has a deeper understanding of this conduct. However, social conduct does not just refer to the formal interactions between the instructor and the class and the interactions that take place while children are participating in group activities. Together, a teacher and his students make up a unique social group. Additionally, there is a subtle undercurrent of social ties and attitudes inside that unit that influences both individual and collective reactions. Some kids will grow up to be leaders and trendsetters, while others will become followers or social outcasts. Some kids will form close connections in pairs. Others will create bigger subgroups, with membership determined by socioeconomic position or by unwritten standards of conduct. There could be a form of the pecking order in the class, with-in groups being usually appreciated and out-groups being typically disregarded or even mocked. There will be competition and little disputes, occasionally taunting and maybe bullying, occasionally helping each other out and sharing a sense of purpose. In response to these factors, the class will forge a unique social identity that will set it apart from parallel classes with similar aptitudes. This trait will frequently show itself in certain class attitudes toward specific professors; sometimes it will be beneficial to the learning of the class, other times it will become a positive hindrance. Occasionally, jokes and even sneers in class will center on students' diligence and academic accomplishment. On occasion, a tiny sub-group may form with a strong focus on their task and enough internal cohesion to function independently of the rest of the class, driven by their passions and interests and willing to disregard criticism from others.

RESEARCH PROCEDURE

The population of the Study

The Population for the study includes all secondary school students.

Sample of the Study

The following sample was selected by random sample technique.

1. Government High School Din-Pur D.I.Khan
2. 40 Students from the 10th class were selected for this study.

Research Instrument

The following two instruments were used in this study.

1. **Pre-Test**
   A Pre-test was used to know the performance of the experimental group and control group initially.
2. **Post-Test**
   Post-test was used to know the performance of the experimental group and control group at the end of the experiment.

The procedure of the Study

The procedure of this study was two equal groups of students were selected for the pre-test. One group was called the experimental group and the other was the control group. Both groups were taught by the same type of teacher. The experimental group was provided a collaboration facility while the control group was not provided such a facility. After fifteen days of teaching a post-test was given to the students. The marks of both tests were arranged in tables.

Research Statistic

A t-test statistic was applied for the analysis of data.

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

TABLE NO.1: SHOWING PRE-TEST SCORES OF THE CONTROL GROUP

Achieved Marks (X)	No students.
20	1
19	1
18	3
17	2
16	1
14	3
12	2
11	3
10	2
9	2

The above table shows the achieved marks of the control group in the pre-test while the total marks were 20.

TABLE#2: Showing pre-test scores of the experimental group

Achieved Marks (X)	No. of students.
20	3
19	2
18	1
17	4
16	2
12	2
11	3
10	1
9	2

This table indicates the pre-test scores of the experimental group while the total marks were 20.

TABLE NO 3: Showing the pre-test scores of the control and experimental group.

Groups	Size Of Group	Mean	Variance	Standard Deviation	T-Tabulate	T-Calculated.
Control	20	14	12.4	3.521	+2.021	-0.899
Experimental	20	15.05	14.85	3.85		

Table no3 indicates the pre-test scores of both groups. The above table also shows both groups' mean values. T-Calculated value for significant difference between control and experimental group is -0.899 at 0.05 level of significance for $v=n_1+n_2-2$= 20+20-2=38 d.f. with tabulated value of 2.021. The null hypothesis was tested there is no significant difference between the control and experimental group.

TABLE NO. 4: Showing the post-test scores of the control group:

Achieved Marks	No of Students
18	1
17	4
16	3
15	2
14	3
12	3
11	2
10	2

The above table shows the marks of the control group. These marks students achieved out of 20 marks.

TABLE NO 5: Showing the post-test scores of the experimental group.

Achieved Marks	No of Students
20	2
19	3
18	5
17	5
16	3
15	2

Table no 5 shows the Post Test Scores of the experimental group. While the total marks were 20.

TABLE NO 6: SHOWING POST-TEST SCORES OF CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS.

Groups	Group Size	Mean	Variance	Standard Deviation	T-Tabulate	T-Calculated.
Control	20	14.2	6.36	2.52	+2.000	-3.733
Experimental	20	17.5	2.05	1.43		

Table No: 6 Shows the post-test scores of the control and experimental groups. The above table shows that the mean marks of the control group are 14.2 with a variance of 6.36 and the mean marks of the experimental group are 17.5 with a variance of 2.05. The t-calculated value of the posttest -3.733 at 0.05 level of significant for $v=n_1+n_2-2=20+20-2=38$ d.f with tabulated value of t-test is 2.021. As our t-test, the calculated value lies in the critical region. so we reject h_o& accept h_1. This shows that classroom collaboration has a significant impact on the student's marks.

Findings

1. Before the experiment, both groups had equal, academic ability with mean values of 14 and 15.05. The calculated value of t is -0.899 and the tabulated value of t is +2.04 which is greater than the calculated value of t. so it falls in the acceptance region and we conclude that both groups have equal performance.
2. After the experiment, the attainments of experimental groups are greater with a mean value of 17.5 as compared to the control group with a mean value of 14.2. The calculated value of the t-test is-3.733 which is less than the calculated value of t.+2.000. So it falls in the critical region and we conclude that there is a great impact of classroom collaboration on the student's attainment.

Conclusions

The finding of the study led this researcher, to present the following conclusions. The t-calculated value of -3.733 was less than the t-tabulated value+2.000 at a 0.05 level of significance. This means that there is a difference between the attainment of control and experimental groups. The experimental group taught by classroom Collaboration performed significantly better than the control group. So null hypothesis was rejected collaboration pattern was found active in the experimental group as compared to the control group in which a classroom collaboration facility was not provided.

Recommendations

1. Teachers should try to help students to achieve the best possible understanding, through classroom collaboration.
2. Teachers should avoid overreaction against incorrect responses.
3. Teachers should ask students to certify through questions where they don't understand the lesson.
4. School management should give due emphasis to this significant aspect of teaching-learning directives to staff.

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