

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

AN EVALUATION OF FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE CHILDREN'S
BEHAVIOUR AT THE KINDERGARTEN LEVEL: A CASE STUDY OF
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST KINDERGARTEN

ADWOA EWUR

2011

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

AN EVALUATION OF FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE CHILDREN'S
BEHAVIOUR AT THE KINDERGARTEN LEVEL: A CASE STUDY OF
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST KINDERGARTEN

BY

ADWOA EWUR

Dissertation submitted to the Department of Educational Foundations of the
Faculty of Education, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfillment of the
requirement for the award of a Master of Education Degree in Guidance and
Counseling

MARCH 2011

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this Dissertation is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature: Date:

Name: ADWOA EWUR

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this Dissertation were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of Dissertation laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor's Signature: Date:

Name: MR. KANKAM BOADU

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to evaluate the factors influencing children behaviour using University of Cape Coast Kindergarten as a case study. The outcome of this study was to help shape people's understanding of the behaviour of children at the kindergarten level and the factors that influence these behaviours.

The descriptive research was employed in obtaining information about this topic. Three categories of people were considered as a sample population: teachers, parents and children. In all, a sampling size of 32 respondents was selected using the multistage sampling technique. Questionnaires, interview schedules and observation methods were used to collect data.

It was found among other things that children exhibit different kinds of behaviour. The most frequent among them include: talking, shouting fidgeting, sleeping, crying, begging, and singing. The study also revealed that the behaviour exhibited by children affects their academic performance and school attendance. It was concluded that the most frequent behaviour exhibited by children in the University of Cape Coast Kindergarten are sleeping, crying, shouting, talking, fidgeting, and fighting. It was also concluded that the behaviours exhibited by children affects their academic especially in the academic performance and school attendance. It was recommended that teachers should be given adequate training in managing children's behaviour especially at the kindergarten level in order to ensure effective teaching and learning.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This project could not have been completed without the help of some people. I wish to appreciate and acknowledge my indebtedness to Mr. Kankam Boadu, a lecturer at the Department of Arts and Social Sciences Education, U.C.C who spent a lot of time to guide, and correct my work. He was a great supervisor. Special mention should also be made of Mr. Eric Mensah of Ekam Productions, for his help.

I am also grateful to my husband, Mr. Kow Sam Annan for his assistance and encouragement. My special thanks go to Miss Deborah Eshun for typing some of the work and to the staff, parents and children of U.C.C Kindergarten who contributed to make this work a success.

DEDICATION

To my father, Mr. Kodwo Ewur, my dear husband, Kow Sam Annan and my kids Aba, Esi and Kobina Sam Annan.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
DECLARATION	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
DEDICATION	v
LIST OF TABLES	x
CHAPTER	
1 INTRODUCTION	
Background to the Study	1
Statement of the Problem	5
Purpose of the Study	5
Research Questions	6
Significance of the Study	6
Delimitation	7
Limitation	8
Organization of the rest of the Study	8

2	REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	
	Introduction	10
	The Concept of Evaluation	10
	The Meaning of the Concept of Behaviour	11
	Types of Behaviour	12
	How Children Learn Behaviour	13
	Factors Influencing Children’s Behaviour	17
	The Meaning of Child Abuse	21
	History of Child Development	25
	Theories of Child Development	29
	Theories of Learning	34
3	METHODOLOGY	
	Research Design	40
	Population	41
	Sample and Sampling Procedure	41
	Research Instrument	42
	Validity and Reliability of the Instrument	44
	Pilot-testing of Instrument	44
	Data Collection Procedure	45

	Data Analysis	46
4	RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	
	Presentation and Analysis of Data	48
	Background Information of Teachers and Parents	48
	Age Distribution of Instructors	49
	Teaching Experience of Teachers	50
	The Common Types of Behaviour Exhibited by Children in University of Cape Coast Kindergarten	51
	The Extent to which Children's Behaviours Influence their academic work	52
	How Parents and Guardians Positively Influence the behaviour of the Children	54
	How Teachers Influence the Behaviour of the Children	56
	Roles Parents, Teachers and the School Play in the Modification of the Children's Behaviour	59
	Observation of the Children	63

5	SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
	Summary of Major Findings	65
	Conclusions	67
	Implications	67
	Recommendations	68
	Area for further studies	69
	REFERENCES	70
	APPENDICES	
	A: Questionnaire for teachers	75
	B: Interview schedule for parents	82

LIST OF TABLES

Table

1: Gender composition of teachers and parents	49
2: Age distribution of instructors	49
3: Teaching experience of teachers	50
4: Common types of behaviours exhibited by children	51
5: The extent to which children's behaviours influence their academic work	52
6: How parents and guardians influence the behaviour of the children	54
7: How teachers influence the behaviour of the children	57
8: Roles parents, teachers and the school play in the modification of the children's behaviour	60

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

Kindergarten is part of pre-school or early childhood educational system. It is meant for children within the ages of four and six years. It is a transitional period where the child is introduced to democratic group living. It is at this level that the child learns to adjust to a new situation and acquires the ability to socialize and work with peers. It is therefore important that the kindergarten child must be provided with all the experience which will help him as well as his age group to develop all potentialities. The child learns a lot at this age including mobility, physical skills, communication and behaviour that will be peculiar to his culture, societal norms and setting.

The history of kindergarten education dates back to the ancient times when the early Greeks such as Plato and Aristotle became the first to establish the system. The importance was emphasized by Plato (Eby, 1964) who explained that, “the most important part of education is right training in the nursery” (p. 386). These ideas were further echoed by Aristotle who was a student of Plato. He also explained that the young must be moulded in a particular way from his youth. Other researchers and theorists including Montessori, Froebel, John Dewey and Jean Piaget took over and improved on

the work of Plato and Aristotle. But the greatest contribution was made by Froebel. Froebel was a student of Montessori. Influenced by his two year apprenticeship in forestry, Montessori set up the first kindergarten in 1831 in the neighbourhood of Blackenburg in Germany (Tassoni & Beith, 2006).

In fact, Montessori coined the word “kindergarten”. To him, children are like a seed planted in a garden and the teacher is the gardener. The role of the teacher, the gardener, is to water and protect the young plant. But he cannot force them to grow. The teacher should only give them the freedom to grow as nature would allow them. That was the origin of kindergarten education which has spread all over the world. For instance in 1851, the first kindergarten was opened in London under the supervision of Madam Berta Reuge and her sister. In the United States, John Dewey adopted Froebel’s principles in his experimental school at the University of Chicago and this method achieved its greatest success (Eby, 1964).

In Ghana, it was first introduced by the early Basel missionary in 1843 in the then Gold Coast. But their modest effort ended when the missionary left the shores of Gold Coast. It was revived in 1925 by the Scottish missions at Aburi and Krobo Presbyterian Women Training Colleges as workshops for child study. These scholars later died, but at least some level of awareness was created (Eby, 1964).

In 1951, the colonial government realized the need to re-introduce the kindergarten education into the educational system. This was done to provide education to the children whose mothers predominantly engaged in market trading activities. The early schools were opened in the vicinity of market places

at urban centres such as Accra, Cape Coast and Sekondi. Where they opened and supported by the private individuals and voluntary services. By 1954 under the auspices of Department of Social Welfare and Community Development, six schools have been established to commemorate the ascension of Queen Elizabeth II to the British throne. After independence, the 1961 Education Act of the Convention People's Party government brought changes in the system such as fee free compulsory education policy which ushered in greater proportion of working mothers. This change made it imperative for the government to take a second look at the issue of education. Then in 1965 the provision and administration of kindergarten education was shifted to Ghana Education Service (GES) which established the kindergarten unit within the Basic Education Directorate of the GES. It was this new role of the GES which brought into being "the Model Nursery School" at all the regional centres of the country (Eby, 1964).

The New Patriotic Party government recognizing the crucial role kindergarten education plays in the formative years of the child also envisaged policies through the new educational review structure to make kindergarten education universally free and compulsory basic education from the age of four years to six years (Anamoah-Mensah, 2004). The government decided to provide support services to all stake holders including district, municipal and metropolitan assemblies, nongovernmental organizations, churches and communities to make certain that every Ghanaian child has access to good quality kindergarten training.

At the local level, University of Cape Coast Kindergarten is a model school in the Cape Coast Metropolis. It was established in 1963 initially to provide for the nursery education to the children and wards of staff of the University community. It now attracts children outside the University community. As the children enter the kindergarten, they need to adjust their behaviours to the environment. According to Bronfenbrenner and Morris (1998), children's early adjustment to school plays a critical role in shaping their ongoing academic and socio-emotional competence. A myriad of studies have highlighted the significant role of prior-to-school experiences in shaping early school success.

From a bio-ecological perspective children's development is best understood when we consider the multiple contexts in which they operate, including both the family and non-parental care environments as well as individual characteristics of the developing child. Entering non-parental care and starting school are important transition stages for children's behavioural development. It is recognized that non-parental child care is an important part of the lives of an increasing number of children (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2003). Interest in understanding the effects of child care on children is therefore growing. Similarly, the influence of non-parental care and other factors on transition to school is an area of interest to early childhood researchers. Factors including family and child factors, peer relations and teacher-child relationships and their influences on school adjustment and school achievement have not been adequately evaluated. This generates a lot of concern which this study seeks to address.

Statement of the Problem

The behaviour of children at the kindergarten level is of great concern to teachers, parents, school administrators and educators. Some children exhibit desirable behaviour such as respect to teachers and other pupils while others portray undesirable behaviour such as truancy, insults as well as quarrelling. Children's classroom behaviour in the early school setting is closely related to their adjustment to school (Ladd & Burgess, 2001) and is an important determinant of academic progress. School-related problem behaviours such as inattentiveness or oppositional behaviour affect school readiness (Rabiner, Murray, Schmid, & Malone, 2004) and academic performance. Moreover, academic underachievement may result in decreased achievement motivation (e.g., Preckel, Holling, & Vock, 2006) and behaviour problems (e.g., Kniveton, 1998). This has resulted in much outcry because of its serious implications and repercussions on society. If this is not corrected the child may grow up to be a liability to the society he or she belongs. It is in the light of this that the researcher wants to evaluate factors that influence children behaviour at the kindergarten level, with University of Cape Coast Kindergarten as a case study.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the study is to evaluate factors that influence children's behaviour at the kindergarten level. Specifically, the purpose is to:

1. examine the common behaviour exhibited by the Kindergarten children.
2. assess how children's behaviour affects their academic work.

3. investigate how parents/guardians influence behaviour of children positively.
4. explore the influence that teachers have on the behaviour of children.
5. explore the role parents, teachers and the school can play to shape the behaviour of children positively.

Research Questions

The following research questions were posed to guide the study.

1. What are the common types of behaviour exhibited by children in University of Cape Coast Kindergarten?
2. To what extent do children's behaviours influence their academic work?
3. How do parents and guardians positively influence the behaviour of the child?
4. What influence does the teacher have on the behaviour of the child?
5. What roles can parents, teachers and the school play in the modification of the child's behaviour?

Significance of the Study

The study will help social workers, religious leaders, counsellors, psychologist, community leaders, elders, doctors and nurses to identify with changes in the behaviour of children.

To the parents, who play a very significant role in behavioural counselling, he/she is to cooperate and supply information on the child. Parents are source of information on the child and together with the teachers, administrators and educators they are to work together to formulate plan of action to effect positive behavioural change.

To the teacher, administrator and educator behavioural needs of children is very important. The teacher is responsible for the learning that occurs in the class. Therefore, it is the duty of a teacher to manage behaviour problems exhibited by children so that interference with the learning process is appropriately checked. They together with parents are to work to promote acceptable children behaviour.

To the policy makers, psychologist, religious leaders and social workers they are also to benefit from the study. They are afforded the opportunity to use common techniques of children's behaviour and influence to formulate policies and action plan in dealing with behavioural problems of children. They are also to counsel children with ultimate purpose of changing children's behaviour.

It is believed that the study will help these groups and individual personalities to develop and formulate plan of action to effect positive behavioural change in children at the kindergarten level.

Delimitation

The issue of early childhood development has been of major concern to stakeholders in the educational sector. There are so many issues that can be

researched into but this work focuses on the evaluation of factors that influence children behaviour at that early stage of life.

Again, the research work was not carried out in the whole country; it would have been ideal. The study concentrated on the Central Region of Ghana. In the Central region, the Cape Coast Metropolis was under focus. In Cape Coast there are many early childhood education centres but the study was limited to the University of Cape Coast kindergarten only.

Limitation

Factors that influence children's behaviour are problems facing every parent, teacher and all stakeholders in the upbringing of the child. It is therefore not limited to a particular school. In fact, it is nationwide but due to limited time, financial constraints and the large number of kindergarten set up in Ghana and particularly in Cape Coast, I would limit myself to University of Cape Coast Kindergarten.

Again, most respondents were unwilling to respond to the instrument. Even in the event where they were persuaded to respond to the instrument, their response could not be said to be objective.

Organization of the rest of the study

The study covered five chapters including chapter one. In chapter two, an attempt was made to review literature related to the study. Chapter three described the research design, population, the sample and sampling procedure, instruments used for data collection, data collection techniques, problems encountered during data collection, and data analysis procedure.

Chapter four presents the analysis of data collected and discussion of findings. Chapter five focuses on the summary, conclusion, implications, recommendation and area for further study.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter is devoted to the review of literature available on the evaluation of factors influencing the behaviour of children at the kindergarten level. The following subheadings were also considered: the concept of evaluation, the meaning of the concept of behaviour, types of behaviours, how children learn behaviour, and theories of child development.

The Concept of Evaluation

Over the years, the concept of evaluation has been given several meaning and description. To some, the word evaluation means merely assessing the worth of an entity. To evaluate may also mean assessing. In the field of education, evaluation is related to assessment. When teachers evaluate, they assess the performance of learners (Mensah, 2009).

The concept of formative and summative evaluation can be explained in plain language. Formative evaluation is where a learner is evaluated as the process of learning goes on. In other words, formative evaluation can be said to be the evaluation of instruction as the instructional period continues. The purpose is to give feedback as to whether the instruction is on track or not;

whether there is the need for modification or not. Summative evaluation is done after the instructional period to find out whether learning was successful or not.

According to Scriven (1972) both formative and summative evaluation may examine the worth of a variety of entities such as products, processes, personnel or learners. Lewy (1977:12) opines that, “Scriven’s most decisive contribution to the practice of evaluation was not the formulation of specific questions but the importance attached to the time at which these questions are posed”. Explaining the terms further, he said that evaluation reports that contribute to the removal of flaws and programme modifications help form the programme and therefore formative evaluation. And again, summative evaluation helps summarize the merits of an instruction and such information makes the consumers of the programme or instruction decide whether to continue or abort the learning process.

The Meaning and Concept of Behaviour

According to Watson as cited in Chauham (1996), behaviour is an action which can be seen and observed in an objective way. Westlake (1969) defines behaviour as our characteristic way of acting. Munn and Batei (1992) also define behaviour as anything an organism does, and response made by organism which may be observed and measured. On the part of Marshal (1984) behaviour is anything that we do.

Common among these definitions is the fact that behaviour is an action, doing that is observed and measured. It therefore, can be understood as the way in which an individual behaves, acts or individual conducts himself or herself.

Typical examples of behaviour are a baby crying, a kindergarten child smiling and playing.

Types of Behaviour

Behaviour can be categorized into two: good/appropriate/wanted/desirable behaviour, and /inappropriate/unwanted/ undesirable. In the same way, it can also be coined as normal behaviour and abnormal behaviour (Tassoni & Beith, 2006). Good behaviour by children composes showing respect, having self control, thinking good of others and their needs, sharing what one has with others. It also includes taking turns, showing courtesy, listening to others and helping others. All these are qualities of good behaviour that children need to learn but learning this good behaviour is a gradual process for children. For children to possess these good qualities, communication and cognitive skills must be acquired. They will also have to learn to control their feelings before they will be able to share and play with others. Some of the unwanted behaviour of children include destruction, noise making, hyperactivity, oppositional defiance disorder and inappropriate verbal remarks (Tassoni & Beith, 2006).

Comfort behaviour comes with such characteristics as thumb sucking, masturbation and rocking. Many children show this behaviour when they are tired, bored, or under temporary stress. Occasionally, it may be a sign of emotional disturbance. Masturbation is common in very young children especially boys (Tassoni & Beith, 2006).

Destructive behaviour shows that the child is temporary out of school. He starts destroying equipment, throwing toys and eventually causes damage to

property. He can also cause injury or harm to himself and peers. He also bites, kicks and bangs head, displaying temper tantrum. Sometimes the anger is caused by deeper frustration and serious emotional disturbance. For example, when the child is abused or bullied the child may have some developmental difficulty (poor speech). In this case since the child is incapable or finds it difficult to express his needs, he becomes angry and frustrated. He therefore resorts to head banging, temper tantrums, biting and kicking (Tassoni & Beith, 2006).

For attention seeking behaviour, the characteristics include clinging, interrupting activities, answering back and challenging instructions. These are often caused by insecurity. Sometimes low esteem and the child having difficulties to socialize with peers can make children unpopular with other children especially during story telling time.

Inappropriate behaviour verbal remarks are another type of behaviour. The characteristics children show includes swearing, making racists' comments and other offensive remarks. Most children repeat words and phrases that they do not necessarily understand themselves but they have heard. This behaviour may mean that the child's own self esteem is poor and is insecure. Unusual noise making is another unwanted behaviour by children, at times a child will become noisier in an attempt to capture the teacher's attention. The noise can persist that ignoring it becomes very difficult (Tassoni & Beith, 2006).

How Children Learn Behaviour

There are some theories that explain and contribute to how children learn behaviour. The first of these theories is the social learning theory by Bandura (1928). The theory suggests that children learn by looking at the behaviour and

others around them. They then imitate the behaviour they have seen. This behaviour is widely accepted and extremely important in understanding children behaviour. It means that children learn desirable and undesirable behaviour by watching adults. For example, children who hear adults swearing may try to swear words while children who see adults open a door for another adult may copy the behaviour. By this theory, the role of the teacher is to teach children about desirable behaviour through his or her actions in the school setting. For example, if children hear the teacher say “Please” and “thank you” the children are likely to copy that.

Children can learn to be thoughtful by seeing the teacher act in a kind and caring way towards other children, staff and parents. If the child sees the teacher in an aggressive manner, they will think that is acceptable. This means the teacher should not shout at children as they will learn that being aggressive is a good way to get what they want. In order to help children settle their dispute, the teacher needs to show them how adults co-operate, share and talk with each other in a respectful way. It is worth noting that every culture has different social codes of politeness. For example, looking at someone in the eye can be considered rude in some cultures especially, if it is a child who is looking. Also, with the code of eating, manners vary from culture to culture. So when working with children from different cultural backgrounds, it is important for the teacher to check out these differences, understand and respect behaviours of children.

The behaviourist theory is the next influential theory which contributes to the learning behaviour of children. It was put forward by B.F Skinner (1904) a psychologist. Simply put, it states that when one repeats experiences that are

enjoyable and avoid experiences that are not, one learns skills and types of behaviour. For example, if a child is given praise or has enjoyed a puzzle, he or she is likely to do this again. The behaviour is repeated if children get some type of reward. Skinner calls this reward positive reinforcement. These rewards can be in the form of enjoyment, praise, money or food, and can also be in the form of attention. Getting attention from adults is often important for children. A child who receives praise from adults while helping another child to pick up toys is more likely to repeat this behaviour. Unfortunately, children also show undesirable behaviour to get adult attention (Munn & Batei, 1992). If they are successful in gaining their attention they repeat the behaviour. Using “rewards” to help children shows desirable behaviour is extremely effective. It means the teacher in his day to day practice should praise children often and make it clear while he is praising the children. For example, saying “well done, that is kind of you”. The teacher should also prevent undesirable behaviour from becoming a habit by not paying attention to it. For example, a child might squeal at a high pitch. If the squeal attracts attention then it is more likely to be repeated.

Another way which children learn behaviour is through the self-fulfilling prophecy theory. This theory suggests that the way adults think about children will influence how children behave. An adult who believes a child is “good” will influence the behaviour of the child and the child is likely to show “appropriate” behaviour. In contrast, if an adult believes a child is “naughty and difficult” the child is more likely to behave that way. The role of the teacher in connection with this theory is that he/she should be positive towards children. Children who feel they can meet some expectations are more likely to show appropriate behaviour. These need to be shown in the teacher’s comments and body

language. For example, smiling and praising are good ways of showing children that the teacher values them (Tassoni & Beith, 2006).

Another way is to discipline the children when there is the need. She should also make it clear that it is their actions that have called for the discipline and was not happy about that but not themselves. The teacher should avoid words such as “naughty” since that does not help children to believe they can be “good”. Also the teacher should never judge children before she gets to know them as this can influence the way she thinks about them. That is why stereotyped families and labeling children can be damaging. This can also mean that teachers are looking for problems when they should be making children feel positive about themselves.

Good supervision is another way that the child learns behaviour. It is an essential way for the teacher to promote children behaviour. Incidents are more likely to occur when children are unsupervised or bored with activities. For example, a child throwing sand might encourage other children to start doing the same unless the teacher intervenes (Tassoni & Beith, 2006).

Consistency to the rules is also very important for children to learn behaviour; children need to know that rules do not keep changing. Rules are rules and must be applied. Sometimes children with behaviour difficulties have not been handled consistently by teachers. Knowing that boundaries and goals are set helps children feel secured. This is why it is important for teachers to work closely with parents.

Factors Influencing Children's Behaviour

Very often, things around us and other aspects of our everyday lives have great influence on the way we conduct ourselves. This happens without us realizing it and children are also no exception to that. The way children feel about themselves affects their attitudes and behaviours. It is important that they feel secured, loved and valued by adults around them. Confidence and high self esteem should be the part of their lives. For children to maintain such standards will depend primarily on the way they are brought up, which connects to their behaviour. Behaviour influences are found through emotional and social factors, physical and overall development to the child (Tassoni & Beith, 2006).

Physical

There is a strong link between the overall development of children and their ability to demonstrate acceptable behaviour. Children with physical disability, down syndrome, autism, asperser's, delayed or impaired language are all disabled children and will find it difficult to form relationship with other children because of their mobility and to express themselves or communicate properly thereby acquiring unwanted behaviours. When these disabilities occur, there is a delay in the development of the children. This is most likely to show patterns of behaviour that is not normally associated with their age. Even a slight delay can affect their behaviour. The behaviour shown by these children are aggressiveness and tantrums and often a result due to general frustration. Example, they might see what they want but not have the language to express their needs, the physical strength and mobility to get it (Tassoni & Beith, 2006).

Social/Emotional Factors

It is through the family/home setting that children acquire attitudes, values and standard that affects their lives. It is generally believed that whether a child would have a good training or not starts from the home because the home is the primary training grounds for the child. It is, therefore, crucial to note that the kind of upbringing a child receives in the home has a bearing on his or her future behaviour. Thus, strong emotional attachments by parents are a way to good behaviour on the child (Tassoni & Beith, 2006).

Separation and Divorce

One aspect of the emotional and social factors is separation and divorce. This happens with many emotional difficulties on the child and has a profound effect on the child's behaviour. Children may experience many feelings when their parent's relationship breaks down. Divorce affects all members of the family and not just the actual marriage partners. Some of the feelings children show when separation occurs includes hurt, anger, resentment, sadness and guilt. When such situations occur children show some specific behaviour such as withdrawal, destructive, attention seeking and making some verbal remarks which are unacceptable (Lee, 1998).

Divorce is not the only part of separation. There are other kinds which make children face emotional challenges. These include lengthy stay in hospital either by children or by one parent or one of either parents, or both of them working away from home. At times children in boarding schools may also be separated from their parents during school term time and lastly parent being in prison. These lead to emotional problem which result in the child behaving

unacceptably. In the above instance, the child will miss and grieve for the absent parent.

Re-Marriage

This is also another social factor. The child becomes a victim to separation and is emotionally disturbed and realizes that one parent has re-married. The child becomes greatly disturbed stressed up and painful resulting in having strong resentment towards the parent's new partner. This rises especially when the new parent partner finds it difficult to take care or cope with him/her. Furthermore, the involvement of step children in the new family makes the child feel unsecured (Kessen, 1990).

Bereavement

This is also a social factor. The death of one parent or close member of the family can have a devastating effect on the child because young children have a limited understanding on bereavement. They may grieve for a very long time and when one begins to think that they have finally accepted the situation they revert back to ask about the deceased person again (Lee, 1998).

The Birth of a New Baby

It becomes very difficult for a child to accept the birth of a new baby into the family. He/she will be jealous and show a feeling of insecurity. Single children who have not had the opportunity to share their parents with other children may experience feeling of rejection and become unsure of continuous parental love. This could be worse for a child whose mother overstayed in hospital due to birth complications. Lee (1998) says that when the mother comes

home and through excessive demands of attention from the new baby all the time become exhausted and cannot pay much attention to the child, she feels neglected.

Moving House

This social factor may not seem important in the life of a child. One should therefore not underestimate the importance of the familiar surroundings of a child. The security of a loving home is vital to a child because moving houses is a stressful time to the adults in the family and this also can bring anxiety to the child. Moving house may involve a change in school surrounding and cut off from friends and the child may feel frustrated, neglected, unsecured and nostalgic (Kessen, 1990).

Starting School

School is a big change for children who have been used to spending their early years at home with mother or close family members. Children who have never been away from home may feel a huge wrench when they begin a full time school and this can be stressful to them (Kessen, 1990).

Unemployment

Unemployment or poverty can have a big impact in the way a child behaves especially when money is tight on the family. They see, feel it and become resentful and inadequate, stress and frustration set in, more especially when their peers play with expensive toys, put on nice dresses and hear stories of parents organizing picnics and parties for their children (Lee, 1998).

Race/Culture Religion

Race, culture and religion have their unique features that influence people. Cultural traditions and heritage influence the behaviour of children. Children interact among themselves; take turns and learns from each other. That is why it is important for children to respect and accept others culture and religion.

The Meaning of Child Abuse

There are many definitions of child abuse. Child abuse refers to any act of omission or neglect or treatment that may be injurious to the mental and physical well being of a child (Hickey, 2000). Manifestations include child dumping, child neglect, child labour, incest, rape, ritual murder of children, indecent assault, sexual exploitation, child street vending, excessive corporal punishment, and ill treatment. While these cases result in much suffering for the children of Ghana, they do not occur in isolation from other ills in society. Instead they occur in the context of extensive poverty, low literacy levels in certain parts of the community, inadequate access to the economic factors of production, decline in provisions for health care and education, a deterioration in water supply and sanitation, and the ever-present negative impacts of the HIV/AIDS pandemic. These circumstances have adversely affected the ability of families to engage in meaningful income-generating activities. As a result family ability to care for children has been impaired, whilst at the same time an environment that increases the vulnerability of children to abuse has been established. The originally used definition is the: "Acts or omissions by a care-giver leading to actual or potential damage to health and development, and

exposure to unnecessary suffering to the child" (Francis, 2000, p. 18). A wider definition is: "Anything which individuals, institutions, or processes do (act) or fail (omission) to do which directly or indirectly harms children or damages the prospects of safe and healthy development into adulthood" Hickey, 2000, p. 19).

A working definition for child abuse employed by Shankanga (1996) is any willful act designed to harm the physical or emotional well-being of a child. This definition covers the broad areas of emotional, physical, mental and sexual abuse. It also covers exploitation in all its forms as well as neglect. According to the Department of Justice Canada (2001), the term "child abuse" refers to the violence, mistreatment or neglect that a child or adolescent may experience while in the care of someone they either trust or depend on, such as a parent, sibling, other relative, caregiver or guardian.

Kamocho, Munalula, and Miti (1997) explored children's perceptions of what they understood by child abuse. These did not differ markedly from the definition given above, that abuse is any willful act that harms the physical or emotional well-being of a child. Contributions to the study brought out that children see abuse in every act, deliberate or otherwise, that subjects a child to trauma or danger. Consequently, children feel that they are being abused when they are neglected, exploited, treated as sexual objects, or denied their rights to food, education, shelter, freedom, life, and movement.

UNICEF (2002) conducted a study on children's understanding of child abuse and discovered that children saw child abuse as referring to troubling children in the way they were kept at home and were given chores such as cooking which left them little choice but which often resulted in denying them school, food etc. They also saw having sexual gratification with children as a

form of child abuse. From the study, a sixteen-year-old boy defined child abuse as being beaten by older people on the roads. Others described it as being denied food by parents and being told that “you are not our child”, being made to lift heavy things such as a 20 litre container of water, or being told that they would only eat after carrying bags of mealier meal from the grinding mills. UNICEF (2002) studies also revealed that child abuse was perceived to mean older people destroying child’s rights. When asked what they knew about their rights, the children identified their rights to food, shelter, movement, life, freedom and equality.

Participants in the UNICEF’s (2002) study comprised secondary school pupils, children living at home, and children from the streets. Their views included the following:

1. A 13-year-old girl felt that it was not good for parents or guardians or any other elderly people to send small girls to the market when it was dark. She felt it was better to send boys because people fear boys.
2. A grade 12 girl felt that it was child abuse for mothers at home to make girls clear up some work when they knew that children may not cope with the amount of work to be done.
3. One girl observed that it was abuse when boys in the street wanted to propose love to small girls because the end results are pregnancies, HIV, and stomach pains.
4. A grade 12 boy felt that when they were given work to do at home they were denied the time they needed to meet and play with friends. Therefore, the boy felt that there was some element of abuse in that the children will not grow well socially.

5. Other perceptions about child abuse from children in the study pointed out activities such as denying children food at home because they failed to wash plates, or sending girls to play with boys at night so that they raise money, or forcing children to do what they did not want to do (UNICEF, 2002).

In Lusaka, children defined child abuse as “kushupa bana” (misusing a child by assigning difficult chores, sending them into prostitution, or sexually abusing them), beating children, denying children food, denying children education, sending children to go and buy beer or cigarettes, sending and children out to steal (Harne, 2003).

Kempe and Kempe (1978) defined child abuse as the involvement of dependent, developmentally immature children and adolescents in activities which they do not fully comprehend, are unable to give informed consent to and that violate social taboos of family roles. Tomison (1995) explains that this may involve activities ranging from exposing the child to sexually explicit materials or behaviours, taking visual images of the child for pornographic purposes, touching, fondling and/or masturbation of the child, having the child touch, fondle or masturbate the abuser, oral sex performed by the child, or on the child by the abuser, and anal or vaginal penetration of the child.

Other Influences

Peer/school is another factor influencing a child’s behaviour. Raid (1988) is of the view that peers and friendships in schools and inside classrooms influence the child. Bruner (1986) seems to share the same view expressed by Raid this is seen in the interpretation of deviant behaviour. According to him, a

deviant is a person who refuses to accept appropriate social behaviour. Deviant behaviour is learnt through imitations and reinforcement, children imitate the behaviour of those around them especially when they are emotionally aroused. From the above discussion it can be seen that children school/peers can influence child behaviour for better or for worse.

Television Viewing

Television viewing is a factor which influences children's behaviour. Persistence viewing of television has influence on the child's behaviour especially, children who view aggressive programmes become more aggressive than those who do not view aggressive ones (Lee, 1998).

History of child development

The notion that children "develop" seems an intuitive, obvious, and even self-evident idea. Children are born small, knowing the world in limited ways, with little or no understanding of other people as separate from themselves in body or mind, and no understanding of social relations or morality. They grow larger, learn about the physical and social worlds, join different cooperative social groups, and cultivate a more and more complex sense of right and wrong. Psychologists, teachers, and others who deal with children constantly invoke the term development as a way to understand the child's status and to rationalize practice. The language of development permeates child psychology and the child centred professions. Practitioners in these areas speak of such things as "developmentally appropriate practices" for early childhood education, developmental "readiness" for reading, and "stages" of cognitive, moral, and social development. Policymakers often turn to developmental psychologists to

help justify social programs on behalf of children. If "high-quality" child care enhances a child's development, then providing such care is good public policy (Kaplan, 1983).

The idea of development is used extensively to give order and meaning to changes over time in children's physical, cognitive, psychosocial, and moral development. Development provides the rationale for myriad practices and policies related to children. There are, however, several concepts embedded in the idea of development that, upon closer inspection, may not be quite so obvious. What is not as obvious as the idea of development itself are the mechanism(s), direction(s), and end(s) of development. When one thinks about development in these terms and considers more deeply the origins and meaning of the idea of development, the obvious does not appear quite so obvious any longer.

Development is a teleological concept—it must have a direction and an end. The presumption is that later stages build on earlier stages and are more developed and "better" than earlier stages. The Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget (1896–1980) proposed formal operations as the universal end of cognitive development. For Piaget, formal operations provided the most comprehensive and logically powerful organization of thought. Extending Piaget's work, Lawrence Kohlberg elaborated a stage-based theory of moral development. He too invoked a universal end based upon increasingly abstract conceptions of justice. Both Piaget and Kohlberg have been criticized for their initial presumptions about universality: more differences across cultures and between genders exist than either expected. These variations have rattled the bones of

those seeking a universal, timeless developmental psychology but, at the same time, opened the doors to a more pluralistic notion of development. Still, typical notions of development (universal or not) presume that development proceeds in a specific direction and that later stages are "better" and more comprehensive than early stages. Direction and end are axiomatic to development (Kaplan, 1983).

The idea of development did not begin or end with children. The idea of development in children arose from a set of older ideas about natural and human history. By the mid-nineteenth century, ideas about evolution, development, and progress formed a virtual trinity. Evolutionary history (phylogeny), individual development (ontogeny), and social change (history) all illustrated and revealed development. When systematic child study began in the United States, it entered through an ideological prism of evolution, progress, and development.

Although arguments for development in both natural and human history were not new, the nineteenth is most famously known as the century of "history," "development," and "progress." Just as inorganic matter was governed by the principle of gravitation, so all life was governed by the principle of development. The English philosopher Herbert Spencer (1820–1903) captured the optimistic spirit of the times when he wrote that the ultimate development of the ideal man (in his words) was logically certain; progress was not an accident for Spencer, it was a necessity. Civilization, Spencer wrote, was not artificial, but part of nature and all of a piece of a developing embryo or the unfolding of a flower. This was no mere analogy for either Spencer or the American culture that so warmly welcomed him (Kaplan, 1983).

Amidst the din of development, Darwin remained (arguably) neutral. Darwin's theory of evolution by natural selection, as set forth in his seminal work, *On the Origin of Species* (1859), served not only as a radical secular theory of the origin of humans; it also provided a new scientific sanction for a set of older beliefs. Though Darwin himself was not committed to the notion that the evolutionary record implied development or progress—that human beings are necessarily more "developed" than other species, or that species perfect themselves through evolutionary change—many of his predecessors and proponents were just so committed. Darwin's theory of gradual, nonprogressive evolutionary change was assimilated into a culture that was ideologically prepared to receive and transform Darwin into a spokesman for development in general. Armed with the authority of science, developmental zealots seized upon the new and secular science to confirm and extend a set of older ideas.

Biologists, philosophers, historians, and many of the blossoming new social and political scientists seized Darwin's theory of evolution as a platform for demonstrating development in fields far and wide. So-called evolutionary theists worked hard at reconciling the Biblical account of human origin with the new science. Many solved the dilemma by assimilating natural law as a visible demonstration of God's work. Riots of analogies were drawn between the development of different animal species, human races, civilizations, and children. The idea of development, broadly construed and expressed in fields as divergent as evolutionary theory, philosophy, anthropology, and history formed, the dominant intellectual context for the systematic study of development in children. The child's development served to demonstrate the connection between

development in evolution and the development of civilization. The child became a linchpin—a link between natural and human history (Kohlberg, 1981).

Theories of Child Development

Child development psychologists all over the world have come out with theories that underlay and explain how children grow, develop and behave. These theories try as much as possible to give details of child behaviour. Child development refers to the biological and psychological changes that occur in human beings between birth and the end of adolescence, as the individual progresses from dependency to increasing autonomy. Because these developmental changes may be strongly influenced by genetic factors and events during prenatal life, genetics and prenatal development are usually included as part of the study of child development. Related terms include "developmental psychology", referring to development throughout the lifespan and "pediatrics", the branch of medicine relating to the care of children. Developmental change may occur as a result of genetically-controlled processes known as maturation, or as a result of environmental factors and learning, but most commonly involves an interaction between the two.

There are various definitions of periods in child development, since each period is a continuum with individual differences regarding start and ending. Some age-related development periods and examples of defined intervals are: newborn (ages 0–1 month); infant (ages 1 month – 1 year); toddler (ages 1–3 years); preschooler (ages 4–6years); school-aged child (ages 6–13 years); adolescent (ages 13–20). However, organizations like Zero to Three and the World Association for Infant Mental Health use the term infant as a broad

category, including children from birth to age 3, a logical decision considering that the Latin derivation of the word infant refers to those who have no speech (Kail, 2006).

The optimal development of children is considered vital to society and so it is important to understand the social, cognitive, emotional, and educational development of children. Increased research and interest in this field has resulted in new theories and strategies, with specific regard to practice that promotes development within the child.

Ecological Systems Theory

Also called "Development in Context" or "Human Ecology" theory, Ecological Systems Theory, originally formulated by Urie Bronfenbrenner specifies four types of nested environmental systems, with bi-directional influences within and between the systems. The four systems are Microsystem, Mesosystem, Exosystem, and Macrosystem. Each system contains roles, norms and rules that can powerfully shape development. Since its publication in 1979, Bronfenbrenner major statement of this theory, *The Ecology of Human Development* (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) has had widespread influence on the way psychologists and others approach the study of human beings and their environments. As a result of this influential conceptualization of development, these environments — from the family to economic and political structures — have come to be viewed as part of the life course from childhood through adulthood (Smith, Cowie & Blades, 2002).

Theory of cognitive development

Piaget was a French speaking Swiss theorist who posited that children learn through actively constructing knowledge through hands-on experience. He suggested that the adult's role in helping the child learn was to provide appropriate materials for the child to interact and construct. He would use Socratic questioning to get the children to reflect on what they were doing. He would try to get them to see contradictions in their explanations. He also developed stages of development. His approach can be seen in how the curriculum is sequenced in schools, and in the pedagogy of preschool centers across the United States (Lemma, 2007).

Social development theory

Vygotsky was a theorist whose ideas emerged in the last few decades from behind what was known as the Iron Curtain, in the former Soviet Union. He posited that children learn through hands-on experience, as Piaget suggested. However, unlike Piaget, he claimed that timely and sensitive intervention by adults when a child is on the edge of learning a new task (called the Zone of Proximal Development) could help children learn new tasks. This technique is called "scaffolding," because it builds upon knowledge children already have with new knowledge that adults can help the child learn. An example of this might be when a parent "helps" an infant clap or roll his hands to the pat-a-cake rhyme, until he can clap and roll his hands himself (Lemma, 2007).

Vygotsky was strongly focused on the role of culture in determining the child's pattern of development. He argued that "Every function in the child's

cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals. Many theorists posit stage theories, but Vygotsky did not support stages at all, asserting instead that development was a process (Kail, 2006).

The psychosocial theory

Erikson, a follower of Freud's, synthesized both Freud's and his own theories to create what is known as the "psychosocial" stages of human development, which span from birth to death, and focuses on "tasks" at each stage that must be accomplished to successfully navigate life's challenges.

The first stage of Erik Erikson's theory centers around the infant's basic needs being met by the parents. The infant depends on the parents, especially the mother, for food, sustenance, and comfort. The child's relative understanding of world and society come from the parents and their interaction with the child. If the parents expose the child to warmth, regularity, and dependable affection, the infant's view of the world will be one of trust. Should the parents fail to provide a secure environment and to meet the child's basic need a sense of mistrust will result. According to Erik Erikson, the major developmental task in infancy is to learn whether or not other people, especially primary caregivers, regularly satisfy basic needs. If caregivers are consistent sources of food, comfort, and affection, an infant learns trust- that others are dependable and reliable. If they are neglectful, or perhaps even abusive, the infant instead learns mistrust- that

the world is in an undependable, unpredictable, and possibly dangerous place (Wood, Wood & Boyd, 2006).

Other theories

Watson's behaviourism theory forms the foundation of the behavioural model of development. He wrote extensively on child development and conducted research. Watson was instrumental in the modification of William James' stream of consciousness approach to construct the stream of behaviour theory. Watson also helped bring a natural science perspective to child psychology by introducing objective research methods based on observable and measurable behaviour. Following Watson's lead, B.F. Skinner further extended this model to cover operant conditioning and verbal behaviour.

The psychosexual theory

In accordance with his view of a basic human motivation being the sexual drive, Sigmund Freud developed a psychosexual theory of human development from infancy onward, divided into five stages. Each stage centred on the gratification of the libido within a particular area, or erogenous zone, of the body. He also argued that as humans develop, they become fixated on different and specific objects through their stages of development. Each stage contains conflict which requires resolution to enable the child to develop (White, 1968).

Dynamic systems theory

The use of dynamical systems theory as a framework for the consideration of development began in the early 1990s and has continued into the present century. Dynamic systems theory stresses nonlinear connections (e.g., between earlier and later social assertiveness) and the capacity of a system to reorganize as a phase shift that is stage-like in nature. Another useful concept for developmentalists is the attractor state, a condition (such as teething or stranger anxiety) that helps to determine apparently unrelated behaviours as well as related ones. Dynamic systems theory has been applied extensively to the study of motor development; the theory also has strong associations with some of Bowlby's views about attachment systems. Dynamic systems theory also relates to the concept of the transactional process, a mutually interactive process in which children and parents simultaneously influence each other, producing developmental change in both over time.

The Core Knowledge Perspective is an evolutionary theory in child development that proposes infants begin life with innate, special-purpose knowledge systems referred to as core domains of thought (Berk, 2009). There are five core domains of thought, each of which is crucial for survival, which simultaneously prepare us to develop key aspects of early cognition; they are: physical, numerical, linguistic, psychological, and biological (Patterson, 2008).

Theories of Learning

Learning is a process of acquiring knowledge through a medium of instruction. Learning as a process focuses on what happens when the learning

takes place. Explanations of what happens constitute learning theories. A learning theory is an attempt to describe how people and animals learn thereby helping us understand the inherently complex process of learning. Learning theories have two chief values according to Hill (2002). One is in providing us with vocabulary and a conceptual framework for interpreting the examples of learning that we observe. The other is in suggesting where to look for solutions to practical problems. The theories do not give us solutions, but they do direct our attention to those variables that are crucial in finding solutions.

There are three main categories or philosophical frameworks under which learning theories fall: behaviourism, cognitivism, and constructivism. Behaviourism focuses only on the objectively observable aspects of learning. Cognitive theories look beyond behaviour to explain brain-based learning. And constructivism views learning as a process in which the learner actively constructs or builds new ideas or concepts.

Behaviourism

Behaviourism as a theory was most developed by B. F. Skinner. It loosely includes the work of such people as Thorndike, Tolman, Guthrie, and Hull. What characterize these investigators are their underlying assumptions about the process of learning. In essence, three basic assumptions are held to be true. First, learning is manifested by a change in behaviour. Second, the environment shapes behaviour. And third, the principles of contiguity (how close in time, two events must be for a bond to be formed) and reinforcement (any means of increasing the likelihood that an event will be repeated) are central to explaining the learning process. For behaviourism, learning is the acquisition of new behaviour through conditioning.

There are two types of possible conditioning:

1) Classical conditioning, where the behaviour becomes a reflex response to stimulus as in the case of Pavlov's Dogs. Pavlov was interested in studying reflexes, when he saw that the dogs drooled without the proper stimulus. Although no food was in sight, their saliva still dribbled. It turned out that the dogs were reacting to lab coats. Every time the dogs were served food, the person who served the food was wearing a lab coat. Therefore, the dogs reacted as if food was on its way whenever they saw a lab coat. In a series of experiments, Pavlov then tried to figure out how these phenomena were linked. For example, he struck a bell when the dogs were fed. If the bell was sounded in close association with their meal, the dogs learned to associate the sound of the bell with food. After a while, at the mere sound of the bell, they responded by drooling.

2) Operant conditioning where there is reinforcement of the behaviour by a reward or a punishment. The theory of operant conditioning was developed by B.F. Skinner and is known as Radical Behaviourism. The word 'operant' refers to the way in which behaviour 'operates on the environment'. Briefly, a behaviour may result either in reinforcement, which increases the likelihood of the behaviour recurring, or punishment, which decreases the likelihood of the behaviour recurring. It is important to note that, a punishment is not considered to be applicable if it does not result in the reduction of the behaviour, and so the terms punishment and reinforcement are determined as a result of the actions. Within this framework, behaviourists are particularly interested in measurable changes in behaviour. Educational approaches such as applied behaviour

analysis, curriculum based measurement, and direct instruction, have emerged from this model (Greenberg, 1987).

Cognitivism

The earliest challenge to the behaviourists came in a publication in 1929 by Bode, a gestalt psychologist. He criticized behaviourists for being too dependent on overt behaviour to explain learning. Gestalt psychologists proposed looking at the patterns rather than isolated events. Gestalt views of learning have been incorporated into what have come to be labelled cognitive theories. Two key assumptions underlie this cognitive approach: (1) that the memory system is an active organized processor of information and (2) that prior knowledge plays an important role in learning. Cognitive theories look beyond behaviour to explain brain-based learning. Cognitivists consider how human memory works to promote learning. For example, the physiological processes of sorting and encoding information and events into short term memory and long term memory are important to educators working under the cognitive theory. The major difference between Gestaltists and behaviourists is the locus of control over the learning activity. For gestaltists, it lies with the individual learner; for behaviourists, it lies with the environment.

Once memory theories like the Atkinson-Shiffrin memory model and Baddeley's working memory model were established as a theoretical framework in cognitive psychology, new cognitive frameworks of learning began to emerge during the 1970s, 80s, and 90s. Today, researchers are concentrating on topics like cognitive load and information processing theory. These theories of learning are very useful as they guide instructional design. Aspects of cognitivism can be

found in learning how to learn, social role acquisition, intelligence, learning, and memory as related to age (Greenberg, 1987).

Constructivism

Constructivism views learning as a process in which the learner actively constructs or builds new ideas or concepts based upon current and past knowledge or experience. In other words, "learning involves constructing one's own knowledge from one's own experiences." Constructivist learning, therefore, is a very personal endeavour, whereby internalized concepts, rules, and general principles may consequently be applied in a practical real-world context. This is also known as social constructivism (see social constructivism). Social constructivists posit that knowledge is constructed when individuals engage socially in talk and activity about shared problems or tasks. Learning is seen as the process by which individuals are introduced to a culture by more skilled members. Constructivism itself has many variations, such as active learning, discovery learning, and knowledge building. Regardless of the variety, constructivism promotes a student's free exploration within a given framework or structure. The teacher acts as a facilitator who encourages students to discover principles for themselves and to construct knowledge by working to solve realistic problems. Aspects of constructivism can be found in self-directed learning, transformational learning, experiential learning, situated cognition, and reflective practice (Greenberg, 1987).

Informal and post-modern theories

Informal theories of education may attempt to break down the learning process in pursuit of practicality. One of these deals with whether learning should take place as a building of concepts toward an overall idea, or the

understanding of the overall idea with the details filled in later. Critics believe that trying to teach an overall idea without details (facts) is like trying to build a masonry structure without bricks.

Other concerns are the origins of the drive for learning. Some argue that learning is primarily self-regulated and that the ideal learning situation is one dissimilar to the modern classroom. Critics argue that students learning in isolation fail (Polito, 2005).

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter deals with the procedures, methods and techniques in collecting data for the research. Also, it shows the research design, population, sample, mode of sampling, procedure for data collection and data analysis process. It brings out some of the challenges the researcher faced in the course of administering the questionnaires and interview.

Research Design

The research design used is descriptive. The design involves the collection of data in order to answer research questions which concern the status of the subject of studies (Gay 1992). Leedy and Omrod (2005:179) described this design and said it, “involves either identifying the characteristics of an observed phenomenon or exploring possible correlations among two or more phenomenon. In every case, descriptive research examines a situation as it is (emphasis original)”. Descriptive design involves the use of questionnaire, interview and observation for data collection.

Babbie (1998) also said that there are three difficulties involved in using the descriptive approach for research. They include: the difficulty in ensuring that items on the questionnaire or interview guide are very clear; the difficulty of

getting respondents to respond to the items in the right manner and; the difficulty in getting the questionnaires completed in time.

The researcher concentrated on University of Cape Coast kindergarten to enable her to find out what was happening in the field as far as the behaviour influence among children is concerned.

Population

The population refers to the target group which the researcher is interested in gaining information and drawing conclusion. According to Polite and Hunglar (1996) population is the entire aggregation of cases that meet a designated set of criteria.

All stake holders in the education of children in University of Cape Coast kindergarten form the target population; that is the parents, teachers and children. University of Cape Coast kindergarten is an Early Childhood school with the sole aim of educating children of University of Cape Coast staff. The school also attracts some children in the Cape Coast Metropolitan area who are admitted as private children. The school has a population of 145 children with four teachers and four attendants. The parent population whose wards and children are in the school is 98. Therefore, teachers, parents and the children constituted the population of the study. In all, the total population was 253.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

Out of the total population, 150 were chosen for the study. Multiphase sampling procedure was employed to select 14 children for the study. In the first phase, the sample frame for the children was obtained from the headmistress of

the school and a list of all the 145 children was extracted. Simple random technique (random numbers generated from Microsoft Excel) was finally employed to select 14 children for the study. On the part of the parents, 14 parents whose children and wards are in the school were purposively included in the study because they had knowledge concerning the behaviour their children exhibit. All the four teachers were included in the study because of their small size.

Research Instruments

Three types of instruments were used to collect data for this study: questionnaire, interview and observation (see Appendices A, B, and C). Questionnaires and interview schedules were designed for the teachers and parents respectively while observation was made on the children. The questionnaire was divided into six sections. The section A of illustrated the goals and significance of the study, the rights of the participants, and some instructions on how to respond to the items. This was followed by items on demographic information such as gender, teaching experience and academic qualification of teachers. The sections B, C, D, E, and F were structured along the following headings: the common behaviour exhibited by the Kindergarten children; how children's behaviour affects their academic work; how parents/guardians influence behaviour of children positively; the influence that teachers have on the behaviour of children; and the role parents, teachers and the school can play to shape the behaviour of children positively.

The structured interview schedule was also prepared for parents because of the dominant roles they play in child upbringing. The interview schedule

followed the same pattern as the questionnaire with few changes in terms of time for the interview, place and date. In all, open-ended and close-ended questions were asked. I adopted the two forms of written records as revealed by Nwana (1992). These are data blank and check list techniques. Concerning the data blank techniques questions were put on paper and blank spaces were provided for the interviewer to write the responses. In the checklist, questions were listed and probable responses were provided. The interviewer ticked the appropriate responses provided by the respondent.

Observation was used on the children and the methods used were checklist and time sampling. The checklist observation method does not give information about quality of behaviour (Leedy & Omrod, 2005). What is happening can be recorded quickly at the time the behaviour occurs. The behaviour can also be identified and observation of the child's behaviour can easily be recorded. Above all, the list can be reviewed to see how long a child is taking to learn a task and when all the tasks have been completed by the children. The average age of achievement can also be calculated. It was based on these advantages that the researcher used the check list method to observe the children's behaviour.

Time sampling methods was used to observe samples of children behaviour. Advantage of time sampling is that, it allows the observer sample behaviour of children in a greater variety of situation within a shorter period of time (Leedy & Omrod, 2005). It involves making a decision about a particular aspect of behaviour and observing it in a shorter period of time. The behaviour must occur frequently. At least once in fifteen minutes so that the observer can

get a reasonable sample. Examples of behaviour that are usually frequent are talking, smiling, playing and eating. These are easily observable behaviours. Those that are not easily observable such as thinking are not suitable for this method of observation.

Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

After constructing the instruments, their validity, reliability and layout were taken into consideration. The aim was to avoid any weakness before producing the final version for implementation. Examination of the validity aimed to make sure that the adopted instrument measured what it was supposed to measure (Cohen & Manion, 1994). Several types of validity were used to demonstrate the validity of the questionnaire. These included content validity, construct validity, internal validity and external validity.

Then the initial versions of the instruments were revised by my supervisor who commented on the layout, the wording and some similar statements. After that the instruments were reviewed by specialists in Measurement and Evaluation. The aim was to reveal any ambiguities, threatening items and other problems which needed to be solved before trying out the instruments. Their constructive and informative responses were used to improve the instruments and to produce the final form which was approved by my supervisor.

Pilot-testing of Instruments

Pilot-test of the instrument for the study was conducted in the University Interdenominational Crèche in the Cape Coast Metropolis. Tentative questionnaire on 5 potential teachers and 15 parents with similar characteristics

as those of the actual study were administered. Also, ten children of the Crèche were observed.

Pilot-testing the instrument aimed at ensuring that the instruments were suitable to elicit the responses from the respondents on factors that influence children's behaviour, to check the clarity of the items and to identify, restructure and re-phrase any ambiguities that existed. It was also meant to ensure that administration procedures were effective. The outcome of the pilot-test provided very beneficial feedback before the implementation. As a result of the pilot-testing, some items were re-arranged to ensure logical ordering, while repeated items were deleted. This made the planning for the field work less stressful and less difficult. More importantly, the pilot-testing of the instrument enabled me to establish the internal consistency and reliability of the instruments. A reliability co-efficient of .735 was achieved. The instruments were therefore deemed reliable since according to Fraekel and Wallen (1996), "For research purposes, a useful rule of thumb is that reliability should be at .70 and preferably higher" (p. 17).

Data Collection Procedure

Since I am familiar with the children, teachers and parents because of my position as the Head teacher, accessibility to respondents was no problem. First of all, the children were observed during normal school hours to find out if the listed traits or actions would be seen and noted. Again, parents whose children are in the school were also contacted when they brought their children to school. Appropriate and convenient days were scheduled with them. Later, they were interviewed on issues relating to their children's behaviours. The teachers of the

school were also contacted to find out the appropriate and convenient days for the administration of the questionnaire. I conducted the interview, observation and distributed the questionnaires in person to all the respondents (parents, children and teachers). This was done in order to (a) explain the goals of the study; (b) direct teachers' and parents' attention to their rights during the course of the study; (c) clarify the instructions for answering; and (d) obtain a good return rate and more accurate data.

Data Analysis Procedure

Analyzing the data is an important step in any research, and must be done according to the aims of the study. Walliman (2005) stated that data is analyzed in order to measure, make comparisons, examine relationships, forecast, test hypotheses, construct concepts and theories, explore, control and explain. Both qualitative and quantitative methods of data analysis were employed because of the mixed (quantitative and qualitative) nature of the study. Borg, Gall and Gall (1993) argued that the results of quantitative studies should be presented in numerical form, whereas the results of qualitative studies should be presented either as verbal data (e.g., transcripts of interviews) or visual data (e.g., video recording of the events).

The data obtained from the questionnaire were analyzed according to the three categories of the sample: the teachers, parents and the children. The data were organized into various themes and categories (five sections) based on the research questions and the purpose of the study such that each section provided answers for each of the research questions. The outcome of the interview was first transcribed. The questionnaires were also checked for accuracy in responses

before coding for analysis. This helped me to check to see if instructions had been followed uniformly and whether all items had been responded to.

A short list was also prepared from a master of responses for the open-ended items in order to get the key responses that were given by the respondents. This was followed by a preparation of a sheet showing the coding scheme. This was done to provide a guide for the interpretation of the variables in the analysis.

After checking incomplete and inaccurate items, the items were transferred to a broad sheet (Statistical Product for Service Solution, version 16). The data were then cleaned by examining them for any errors and were finally analyzed using the SPSS. Percentages and tables were then employed to present the outcome.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter deals the presentation of results and discussion of the data collected. This chapter is in two sections. The first part deals with presentation of results and discussion of preliminary data of respondents. The second section deals with the presentation of results and discussion of the main data of parents, teachers and children.

Descriptive statistics were used in presenting the results. Frequencies and percentages were employed. These were presented in tabular form. There is general discussion of the results at the end of each section aimed at answering the research questions.

Background information of teachers and parents

I thought it wise to gather data on the socio-demographic characteristics of the teachers and parents. The teachers and parents were therefore asked to indicate their gender. The information obtained is shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Gender composition of teachers and parents

Gender	Teachers		Parents	
	N	%	N	%
Male	0	0	5	35.71
Female	4	100	9	64.28
Total	4	100	14	100

Source: Field survey, 2009

From Table 1, out of the teachers four who responded to the questionnaire, all were females representing four (100.0%). On the part of the parents, five (35.71%) were males whiles nine (64.28%) were females.

Age distribution of instructors

In this context, I was concerned about the age group of the teachers and parents. The age groups ranged between 20-30, 31-40, and 41-50 years. The information obtained is presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Age distribution of instructors

Age groups	Teachers		Parents	
	N	%	N	%
20-30	1	25.0	5	35.71
31-40	2	50.0	7	50.0
41-50	1	25.0	2	14.28
Total	4	100.0	14	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2009

Table 2 shows that one (25.0%) of the teachers was within the 20-30 age group, two (50.0%) of them were between 30-40, and one (25.0%) was within the 41-50 age group. On the part of the parents, Table 4 shows that five (35.71%) were within 20-30, seven (50.0%) within 31-40 and two (14.28%) were within the age range of 41-50 years.

Teaching Experience of Teachers

This was meant to find out how teachers' experience influence the behaviour of the children. The responses are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3

Teaching Experience of Teachers

Years	N	%
1 – 5	1	33
6 – 10	3	14
11 – 15	0	47
16 years and above	0	6
Total	4	100

Source: Field survey, 2009

It can be observed from Table 3 that, majority of the teachers, that is, three representing 75% had taught for intervals of years ranging between 6 – 10 years, while one representing 25% had taught between 1 – 5 years. None of the teachers has experience between 11 – 15 and 16 years and above. It can be deduced from the results that most of the teachers had experience in teaching at the University of Cape Coast Kindergarten and are therefore quite familiar with the children.

**The common types of behaviour exhibited by children in University of Cape
Coast Kindergarten**

Research Question 1 sought to find out some behaviour that children put up. The teachers and parents were therefore asked to indicate common types of behaviour exhibited by children in University of Cape Coast Kindergarten. Table 4 shows the outcome of their responses.

Table 4

Common types of behaviours exhibited by children

Frequent Behaviour	Number of Response	Percentage %
Sleeping	6	13.04%
Fighting	4	8.09%
Crying	5	11.01%
Begging	2	04.04%
Talking	12	26.07%
Shouting	8	17.08%
Biting	-	-
Fidgeting	7	15.05%
Singing	1	02.02%
Total	45	96.4

Source: Field Data, 2009

From Table 4, 26.07% of the parents stated talking as a frequent behaviour of their children. Followed by shouting which is 08.09%, fidgeting 15.05%, sleeping 13.04%, crying 11.01%, begging 04.04% and singing 2.02%.

The extent to which children's behaviours influence their academic work

Behaviours that children exhibit have both positive and negative impact on their academic work. Research Question 1 was formulated to solicit from the teachers and parents the extent to which children's behaviours influence their academic work. The responses have been presented in Table 5.

Table 5

The extent to which children's behaviours influence their academic work

	Teachers		Parents	
	N	%	N	%
1. School performance	2	50.0	6	42.85
2. School attendance	1	25.0	4	28.57
3. School disengagement	1	25.0	3	21.42
4. Supervision and discipline policies	0	0.0	1	7.14
Total	4	100.0	14	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2009

Table 5 shows that two (50.0%) of teachers and six (42.85%) of parents shared common views regarding the extent to which children's behaviours influence their academic work. They indicated that when students exhibit behavioural disorders, it affects children's school performance. This supports the views of Sheedy (1991) that poor academic performance is one of the most consistent predictors of children's negative behaviours. He indicated further that

the impact can begin as early as Grade 1 and continue throughout child's years at school.

Table 5 also show that when children exhibit negative behaviours it affect their school attendance. This is represented by one (25.0%) of teachers and four (28.57%) of parents. In a similar assertion, Sartipi (1999) stated that absenteeism is a primary indicator of a student's negative behaviour. He indicated that the number of days a student is out of school has an impact on his or her chances of dropping out.

With regard to school disengagement as a result of children's behaviour, Table 5 shows that one (25.0%) of teachers agreed with three (21.42%) of parents. In a survey of students missing too many days and having difficulty catching up, Wallace (1994) reported that reasons such as truancy, consistently not completing homework, crying and coming to class unprepared are signals of academic disengagement.

Finally, it is indicated in Table 5 that whiles parents one (7.14%) asserted that the behaviours that are exhibited by parents affect supervision and discipline policies of children's' academic work, none of the teachers supported it. The view of the one parent agrees with the view of Bame (1991) that many schools have zero tolerance discipline policies that require the suspension or expulsion of children from schools. This type of punitive response can lead to situations in which students face inappropriately serious consequences for relatively minor offences. He concluded that such policies may increase the number of students who are at risk of not completing school.

How parents and guardians positively influence the behaviour of the children

Parents are their children’s primary educators, particularly when it comes to social behaviour. Through their behaviour and attitudes, parents play direct and indirect roles in supporting a positive attitude of children. It is based on this that I formulated Research Question 3 to solicit from teachers and parents how parents can influence the behaviour of the children. The outcome their responses are shown in Table 6.

Table 6

How parents and guardians influence the behaviour of the children

	Teachers		Parents	
	N	%	N	%
1. Higher levels of supervision.	2	50.0	4	28.57
2. Mentoring and role models	0	0.0	3	21.42
3. Maintaining effective channels of communication.	0	0.0	2	14.28
4. Involvement in school activities.	2	50.0	5	35.71
Total	4	100.0	14	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2009

Table 6 indicates that two (50.0%) of teachers shared that one way through which parents and guardian can influence the behaviour of their children is through higher levels supervision. This view was not different from that of the

parents. This represented four (28.57%) of the parents. Sartipi (1999) concluded that increasing supervision is important. He continued that supervision needs to understand and agree with the school-wide rules, and be able to effectively monitor and provide positive feedback about children's behaviour. Supervision needs to be a deliberate and active process. He concluded that active supervision involves moving, scanning, positive contact, and positive reinforcement.

With regard to mentoring and role models as a means of influencing children's behaviour, Table 6 reveals that none of the teachers supported this view although three (21.42%) of parents were in agreement. Sartipi (1999) shared with the parents when he concluded that community partners can also serve as mentors to children, staff and parents. In a similar view, Wallace (1994) stated that experienced teachers and administrators are role models for the entire school community. They can have a major impact on respectful relationships and effective school-wide management. Providing mentoring opportunities for beginning teachers as well as teachers who are new to the school helps them to learn about and understand the strategies and tools that other staff members are using. Creating opportunities for the mentor and mentee to visit each other's classrooms and discuss what they observe fosters the sharing of knowledge and builds capacity.

The parents also indicated that one other way through which parents and guardians can influence the behaviour of their children is by maintaining effective channels of communication with the children. This represents two (14.28%). On the part of the teachers, none shared with the parents. In line with the views of the parents, Shahmoradi (1999) stated that parents and guardians can use newsletters, school council meetings and other communication channels

to ensure desirable behavioural expectations of children. He continued that school newsletters offer opportunities to have parents give feedback, share concerns and ask questions about behavioural expectations and school climate. Bame (1991) shared with Shahmoradi (1999) when he indicated that parents should be encouraged to communicate with the school if they notice that their children have difficulty with social behaviour at home or in the community.

Table 6 finally shows that both teachers and parents agreed that parents and guardians can influence the behaviour of their children is by involving themselves in the activities of the school. This represents two (50.0%) of teachers and five (35.71%) of parents. This is in line with the views of Jones and Versilind (1995) that when schools actively welcome parents into the school and create opportunities for them to become directly involved in student activities in the classroom, students will develop positive behaviour.

How teachers influence the behaviour of the children

Teachers are among individuals who spend numerous hours with students and can have an influential impact on the shaping of the students' good manner and behavior and their educational advancement. Wallace (1994) showed that behaviour of teachers such as feeling of hope, generosity, respect, and joy become effective in trimming and improving children's. On the contrary, many negative behaviors by the teachers have undesired impact on the children. Teachers and parents were therefore asked to indicate how teachers influence the behaviour of children. Table 7 represents the outcome.

Table 7

How teachers influence the behaviour of the children

	Teachers		Parents	
	N	%	N	%
1. Teacher's friendly behaviour toward the children.	1	25.0	3	21.42
2. Mutual communication with children.	1	25.0	2	14.28
3. Having a suitable behavioral interaction with their character.	0	0.0	1	7.14
4. The teacher should use praise and persuasions.	0	0.0	5	35.71
5. Disciplinary methods	0	0.0	0	0.0
6. The teacher's ability and skill in teaching and explaining desirable behaviour.	2	50.0	3	21.42
Total	4	100.0	14	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2009

Table 7 shows that when teachers develop friendly behaviour towards their pupils they would influence the behaviour of their pupils. This represents one (25.0%) of teachers and three (21.42%) of parents. Crowley (1993) shared with this outcome when he showed that when students accept their teachers as friends and companions they develop positive behaviours. He continued that where specific aspects of student-teacher relationships are respected and the teachers have a flexible behaviour and avoid rigid and inflexible methods, children form desirable attitude.

With regard to teachers developing mutual communication with children, Table 7 reveals that one (25.0%) of teachers and two (14.28%) parents shared common view. Jones and Vensilind (1995) show that mutual communication by teachers with individual student's character causes healthy social behaviour among students. In a similar view, Parsa (1996) stated that staff can communicate behavioural expectations in a number of ways, for example, involving parents through classroom newsletters, frequent positive, home-school communications, and information dissemination.

Table 7 also indicates that none of teachers agreed that when teachers have a suitable behavioral interaction with the character of their students, they would help in influencing the behaviour of their children. This outcome was different from one (7.14%) of the parents. In support of the views of the parents, Kyle (1991) concluded that the flexibility of the teacher-student relation and selecting a suitable policy for modifying and improving inappropriate behaviours has positive and influential effects on the students' attention to the educational activities system.

With regard to the use of praise and persuasion on desirable behaviours by teachers, Table 7 indicates that whereas none of the teachers was in support, five (35.71%) of the parents agreed. Ferguson and Howton (1992) shared with the parents when he realized that conditional praising by the teacher is one of the teacher's effective behaviors in making the students interested in doing the educational and lesson exercises

Table 7 also indicated that both teachers and parents did not show support to the use of disciplinary methods as a means of influencing the

behaviour of the pupils. This contradicts the outcome of researches by researchers such as Crowley (1993) and Wallace (1994) who showed that using effective disciplinary methods by the school heads is considered an effective solution for reducing students' difficulties. They indicated further that discipline is an integral aspect of classroom management since it is an instrument that moulds, shapes, corrects and inspires appropriate behaviour. On the contrary, Galloway and Rogers (1994) stated that discipline and unevaluated methods can perhaps result in the youths' disturbed behaviour and delinquency.

Finally, it is revealed in Table 7 that the teacher's ability and skill in teaching and explaining desirable behaviour to children can influence the behaviour of pupils greatly. This represents two (50.0%) of teachers and three (21.42%) of parents. In line with this, Gellman and Berkowitz (1992) conducted a poll from parents and teachers and came to the conclusion that responsive children's attitude occurs, with teachers' ability to lead the class, offer effective system, and finally exhibit skill and ability in the lesson subject they teach.

Roles parents, teachers and the school play in the modification of the children's behaviour

A school-wide approach to positive behaviour support can provide schools with a context and framework for developing, implementing and monitoring these strategies. Table 8 shows the responses obtained from the teachers and parents.

Table 8

Roles parents, teachers and the school play in the modification of the children's behaviour.

	Teachers		Parents	
	N	%	N	%
1. Active monitoring of children's behaviour.	2	50.0	2	14.28
2. Identifying children with learning behavioural disorders and develop plans for supporting them.	1	25.0	4	28.57
3. Using a differentiated instruction approach that considers the individuals behavioural patterns.	0	0.0	1	7.14
4. Continuous interaction among teachers, parents and children.	1	25.0	6	42.85
5. Teaching and reinforcing social skills, including managing frustration, anger and social conflict.	0	0.0	1	7.14
Total	4	100.0	14	100.0

Source: Field Data, 2009

Table 8 indicates majority of teachers agreed that one major role of teachers, parents and the school in the modification of children's behaviour is through effective monitoring of children's behaviours. This represents two (50.0%) of teachers and two (14.28%) of parents. Jones (1996) supported this

when he stated that teachers must monitor both students' behaviour and learning by keeping eyes out for when pupils appear stuck, when they need help, redirection, correction and encouragement. He shared further that in order to maintain an effective classroom management, teacher must always check pupils understanding. This can be done privately and publicly. Teacher must always anticipate learners' actions and reactions during a lesson in order to deal precisely with any problem that could occur. Brophy (1998) concluded that active monitoring from classroom research, involves watching behaviour closely, intervening to correct bad behaviour before it escalates. This means that for a teacher to maintain a learning environment, he needs to actively monitor the activities of the pupils.

Also, one (25.0%) teacher and four (28.57%) parents shared that identifying children with behavioural disorders and developing plans for supporting them is another role of teachers, parents and the school in modifying the behaviour of children. Tomlinson (2001) shared with the outcome of Table 8 that identifying children with learning disabilities and/or emotional disorders and developing individual plans for supporting these students are major responsibilities of the schools as well as parents.

With regard to the use of differentiated instruction approach that considers the individuals behavioural patterns, Table 8 reveals that while none of teachers supported it, one (7.14%) of parents agreed. Differentiated instruction which involves responding to student diversity and creating opportunities for all students to learn in a way that responds to their varying abilities, strengths, learning preferences, interests and needs is what Crowley (1993) recommended for schools. He went to say that students sometimes misbehave in school

because they find the instruction too difficult or because the tasks and/or materials are not meaningful or relevant for them. Differentiated instruction therefore offers a flexible and intentional approach to better meeting the diverse learning needs of all students. Tomlinson (2001) shared that a differentiated approach to instruction considers the individual learning needs of students and creates learning opportunities that match students' current abilities, interests, learning preferences and specific needs. Differentiated instruction also stretches students' abilities and encourages new ways of thinking and learning.

Teachers and parents also identified the creation of positive interaction among teachers, parents and children as other ways of modifying the behaviour of students. With this, Table 8 indicates that one (25.0%) of teachers and six (42.85%) of parents agreed. Gottfredson, Gary, and Hybel (1993) conducted a longitudinal research and realized that parents' and teachers' dynamic organization and participation and increase in relationships is an important element in the students' suitable behaviour and their educational advancement. Morrison (1993) realized that effective interaction between the family, teacher, and school causes up to 67% of students to reach their educational goals and for the resulted changes to positive behavioural expectations.

It is finally revealed in Table 8 that whiles one (7.17%) of parents agreed that when teachers are able to teach and reinforce social skills, including managing frustration, anger and social, children would be able to modify the behaviour of their children, none of the teachers was in support. Manizhe (1990) shared with the views of the parents when he indicated that reinforcement is a positive or negative consequence of behaviour. When used effectively, reinforcement makes behaviour more appropriate – negative behaviour is

reduced or eliminated, and positive behaviour increases and is maintained. He stated that for every correction students receive for doing something wrong, they should receive at least four positive messages about what they are doing right. Positive feelings contribute to an individual's willingness to change his or her behaviour. According to him, to make a reinforcement system effective, teachers and parents must implement it across the entire school community and provide all students with access to positive feedback, especially students who have behaviour disabilities.

Observation of the children

In this particular observation, fourteen children between the ages of four and six were chosen from University of Cape Coast Kindergarten on May 12, 2009. Play was the method used to observe the children to measure their behaviours. Every child was randomly observed for two minute. In order to get a representative sample, 10:00 am was the most appropriate time of the day used. A record sheet was designed to get the coded information and a time interval of five minutes was used in the observation. Under the unoccupied (UN) play, only Derrick was unoccupied, meaning that he was not involved with anybody in his play. Apparently, he was content with watching what ever caught his eye. He was just standing around and sometimes followed the teacher. With the onlooker play (o), Grace and Egya were caught in that. They were watching other children play without overtly entering into the play themselves. Esther and Samuel were involved in solitary play(S) by that, they were playing alone oblivious of other children.

Under parallel play (P), three children namely, Precious, Priscilla and Adelaide were involved in it. They played independently but with similar toys. But they did not involve in the play of other children. Abdul and Kojo got themselves in associative play (As). They played besides one another; often imitating, browning and loaming toys. But there was no organization.

Finally, Kwesi, Jesse, Patrick and Kwame were playing cooperative (c). They were playing as a group that was organized. Kwesi was the organizer of the group. Every child was randomly observed for two minutes in an interval of five minutes.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECCOMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter is the final chapter of the study. It comprises the summary, conclusion, implications, recommendations and areas for further study. The summary gives the breakdown of the entire research work. The conclusions deal with the findings of the research while the implication highlights the significance of the study. Recommendations relate to the specific line of action to taking with respect to factors influencing children's behaviour.

Summary of Major Findings

The main objective of this study is to evaluate factors that influence children's behaviour at the University of Cape Coast kindergarten. The descriptive survey design was employed to collect, analyze and present the data of the study. The target population consisted of teachers, parents and teachers. A sample size of 32 (4 teachers, 14 parents, and 14 children) respondents was selected through multistage sampling technique. A self-developed questionnaire, interview schedule, and observation were used to obtain data after which they were analyzed with the Statistical Products and Service Solutions (SPSS, version 16) programme.

The following key findings were revealed based on the outcome of the study.

1. It was revealed that children exhibit different kinds of behaviour. The most frequent among them include: talking (26.07%), followed by shouting (08.09%), fidgeting (15.05%), sleeping (13.04%), crying (11.01%), begging (4.04%), and singing (2.02%).
2. The behaviour exhibited by children affects their academic work in several ways. These include the effects on children's school performance, two (50.0%) and six (42.85%), school attendance, one (25.0%) and four (28.57%), school disengagement, one (25.0%) and three (21.42%) respectively for teachers and parents.
3. The study also revealed that if parent maintain higher level of supervision and involve in the activities of their children's education, they would influence the behaviour of their children. This represented two (50.0%), four (28.57%), and two (50.0%), five (35.71%) for teachers and parents respectively.
4. The study also revealed that teachers can influence the behaviour of children by maintaining friendly relationship with the children and ensuring mutual communication with them. This represented one (25.0%), three (21.42%), and one (25.0%), two (14.28%) of teachers and parents.
5. Finally, there was consensus between teachers and parents with regard to the role of teachers, parents and the school in modifying the behavior of children. The study revealed active monitoring of pupils' behaviour, and identifying students with learning behavioural disorders as some of the roles that could be played by teachers, parents and the school.

Conclusions

With reference to the findings of the study, the following conclusions have been drawn.

1. It can be concluded that the most frequent behaviour exhibited by children in the University of Cape Coast Kindergarten are sleeping, crying, shouting, talking, fidgeting, and fighting.
2. It can also be concluded that the behaviours exhibited by children affects their academic especially in the academic performance and school attendance.
3. It can be concluded further that parents maintain higher levels of supervision of their children, ensure effective channels of communication and involve themselves in the activities of their children's school, they can influence the behaviour of their children.
4. Another conclusion that is drawn is that teachers can influence the behaviour of children by establishing friendly relationship with their pupils and maintaining mutual communication with them.
5. Finally, it can be concluded that teachers, parents, and the schools can identify and monitor children with learning behavioural disorders as a means of modifying their behaviour.

Implications

Various implications can be derived from the above conclusions. Below are the key implications. The first implication is that divorce, separation and re marriage by parent must be curtailed otherwise children might become victims of broken homes and inappropriate behaviour leading

to high incidence of truancy and malpractices. Another implication worth mentioning is that, most children become victims of broken homes, street children and children selling by the road side will be on the increase. Children watching television must also be monitored as some of them will become violent and aggressive, especially when they view horror, violent and sexy film.

Recommendations

From the findings and the conclusions drawn the following recommendations are made for practice.

1. Once it has been established that children exhibit different kinds of behaviour, teachers should be given adequate training in managing children's behaviour especially at the kindergarten level in order to ensure effective teaching and learning.
2. Another recommendation is that the early childhood schools must be strengthened by training teachers and encouraging them to set policy strategies for the school to revamp them to become excellent in teaching.
3. There is the need for cordial relationship among the two institutions, the home and the school of University of Cape Coast Kindergarten to find a lasting solution to the effects of children's behaviour on their academic work.
4. Parents should also involve themselves much in the education of their children by attending PTA meetings, regular visits to the school, and obtain up-to-date information concerning their children.

Areas for Further Study

Researchers who have interest in this same topic with similar relating to the problem of children behaviour and will like to investigate it in the near future are advised to choose other public schools as their case study as problems pertaining to those public schools may be enormous. University of Cape Coast Kindergarten is a model school which other public schools come for advise, counselling and consultations. The school serves as a reference point to many schools.

REFERENCES

- Anamoah-Mensah, J. (2004). *White paper on the report of the education reform review committed*. Accra: Ghana Publishing Corporation
- Babbie, R. (1998). *Survey research method* (2nd ed.). Belmont: Wadsworth.
- Bame, K. N. (1991). *Teacher motivation and retention in Ghana*. Accra: Ghana Universities Press.
- Bandura, A. (1928). *Social Foundations of Thought and Action*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ.: Prentice-Hall.
- Berk, L. E. (2009). *Child development* (8th ed.). New York: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Borg, W., Gall, J., & Gall, M. (1993). *Applying educational research: A practical guideline*. New York: Longman.
- Bronfenbrenner, U., & Morris, P. A. (1998). The Ecology of Developmental processes. In Denton, W. & Lerner, R.M. (ed.). *Handbook of Child Psychology*. New York: Wiley.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). *The ecology of human development*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Brophy, M. (1998). Using functional behavioural assessment to develop effective intervention plans: practical classroom applications. *Journal of Positive Behaviour Interventions* 1, 4, 242–251.
- Bruner, J. (1986). *Value presuppositions of developmental theory*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Chauham, S. S. (1996). *Advanced educational psychology*. New Delhi Vikas Publishing House.
- Cohen, L., & Manion, L. (1994). *Research methods in education*. London: Routledge Falmer.
- Crowley, E. Paula. (1993). A qualitative analysis of mainstreamed behaviourally disordered aggressive adolescents' perceptions of helpful and unhelpful teacher attitudes and behaviours. *Exceptionality*, 4(3), 131-135.
- Department of Justice Canada. (January, 2001). *Government initiatives protecting children against exploitation*. Retrieved from: http://canada.justice.gc.ca/en/news/nr/2001/doc_25853.html.
- Eby, T. O. (1964). Career preferences of early adolescents: Age and sex differences. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 3, 349-359.

- Ferguson, Elizabeth., & Houghton, Stephen. (1992). The effects of contingent teacher praise, as specified by Canter's Assertive Discipline Programme, on children's on – task behaviour. *Educational studies*, 18 (1) 83-93.
- Fraenkel, J. R., & Wallen, N. E. (1996). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. New York: St Martin's Press.
- Francis, J. (2000). Investing in children's futures: enhancing the educational arrangements of 'looked after' children and young people. *Child and Family Social Work*, 5 23-33.
- Galloway, D, & Rogers, C. (1994). Motivational style: A link in the relationship between school effectiveness and children's behavior? *Educational and Child Psychology*, 11 (2), 16-25.
- Gay, L. R. (1992). *Educational research: Competencies for analysis and application*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall, Inc.
- Gellman, Estelle, S., & Berkowitz, Mina, (1992). Factors perceived as important in teacher evaluation. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 38 (2), 219-234.
- Gottfredson, D, C., Gary, D., & Hybel, L. G. (1993). Managing adolescent behavior: A multiyear, multischool study. *American Educational Research Journal*, 30 (1), 179-215.
- Greenberg, R. (1987). The Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire: A research note. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 38, 581–586.
- Jones, M. (1996). Pre-service teachers' cognitive frameworks for class management. *Teacher and Teacher Educations*, 11 (4): 313-330.
- Jones, M. Gail, & Versilind, Elizabeth. (1995). Pre-service teachers' cognitive frameworks for class management. *Teacher and Teacher Educations*, 11 (4), 313-330.
- Harne, G. (2003). Motivational style: A link in the relationship between school effectiveness and children's behaviour? *Educational and Child Psychology*, 11 (2) 16-25.
- Hickey, S. (2000). *Exploring the Catholic Church's Response to Africa's Urban Poor: An Agenda for Change*. Research report for street child Africa. London: Street Child Africa.
- Hill, D. W. (2002). *Classroom discipline. A management guide for Christians School Teachers*. Retrieved April 20, 2003, from [Http://www.csiret.org/scrnet/articles/classroom-discipline.html](http://www.csiret.org/scrnet/articles/classroom-discipline.html).

- Kail, R. E. (2006). *Children and their development* (4th ed.). New York: Prentice Hall.
- Kamocho, H., Munalula, R., & Miti, S. (1997). Elements of behaviour support plans: a technical brief. *Exceptionality* 8, 3, 205–215.
- Kaplan, B. (1983). *Value presuppositions of theories of human development*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Kempe, R. S. & Kempe, C. H. (1978). *Child abuse*. London. Fontana/Open Books.
- Kessen, W. (1990). *The rise and fall of development*. Worcester, MA: Clark University Press.
- Kniveton, B. H. (1998). Underachieving boys: A case for working harder or boosting self-confidence? *Emotional & Behavioural Difficulties*, 3, 23–28.
- Kohlberg, L. (1981). *The psychology of moral development: the nature and validity of moral stages*. San Francisco: Harper and Row.
- Lee, A. (1998). *Factors influencing children behaviour*. Lewis publishing co. Ltd
- Leedy, P. D. & Omrod, J. E (2005). *Practical research planning and design* (8th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill/ Prentice Hall.
- Lemma, A. (2007). *Psychodynamic therapy: the freudian approach*. New York: Sage publications.
- Lewy, A. (1977). *Handbook of curriculum evaluation*. New York: Longman Inc.
- Marshal, S. (1984). *Educational psychology*. New Jersey: Edward Arnold Publication.
- Mazaheri S. A. (1998). *The hidden wealth*. Tehran: Milad Publications.
- Mensah, E. (2009). *Evaluation of the Religious and Moral Education programme for Senior High schools. A study of selected schools in the Brong Ahafo region*. Unpublished master thesis, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast.
- Morrison, H. (1993). Elements of behaviour support plans: A technical brief: *Exceptionality* 8 (3), 205–215.
- Nwana, A. K. (1992). *Classroom teaching methods and practices*. New Delhi: APH. Publishing Corporation.

- Munn, F. & Batei, F. (1992). *Introduction to psychology*. New York: Houghton Company.
- Parsa, M. (1996). *Application of psychology in education*. Tehran: Be'sat Publications.
- Patterson, C. (2008). *Child development*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Polit, D. F. & Hungler, B. P. (1996). *Nursing research: Principles and methods*. Lippincott: Philadelphia, PA.
- Polito, R. (2005). Teaching and teacher education classroom; Discipline and Students Responsibility. *The students view*, 17, 307-319.
- Preckel, F., Holling, H., & Vock, M. (2006). Academic underachievement: Relationship with cognitive motivation, achievement motivation, and conscientiousness. *Psychology in the Schools*, 43, 401–411.
- Raid, K. (1988). *Disaffection from school*. London: Methuen and Company Ltd.
- Rabiner, D. L., Murray, D. W., Schmid, L., & Malone, P. S. (2004). An exploration of the relationship between ethnicity, attention problems, and academic achievement. *School Psychology Review*, 33, 498–509.
- Sartippi, S. (1378/1999). *The children-parents relationship*. Tehran; Ettela'at Publication.
- Scriven, M. (1972). *Pros and cons about goal-free evaluation*. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Shahmoradi, Namdar (1999). The importance of discipline and methods for avoiding children's indiscipline. *Peyvand magazine*, Issue 245.
- Shankanga, M. G. (1996). *Child Sexual Abuse in Zambia*. Lusaka: YWCA.
- Sheedy, G. (1991). The importance of teacher self-awareness in working with students with emotional and behavioural disorders. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 36, 2, 8–13.
- Smith P. K., Cowie, H, & Blades, M. (2002). *understanding children's development* (4th ed.). Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Tassoni, P. & Beith, K. (2006). *Childcare and education*. Berth Colour Book Ltd, Glasgow.
- Tomison, A.M. (1995a), 'Update on child sexual abuse', *Issues in Child Abuse Prevention*. Melbourne: National Child Protection Clearinghouse, AIFS.

- Tomlinson, S. (2001). The evolution of discipline practices: Schoolwide positive behaviour supports. *Child and Family Behaviour Therapy* 24, 23–50.
- UNICEF (2002). *Common Country Assessment*. New York: UNICEF
- Wallace, Gary Ray (1994). Discipline that motivates. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 21(4), 371-374.
- Walliman, N. (2005). *Your research project* (2nd ed.). London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Westlake, S. M. (1969). *Psychology for education*. Tehran: Roshd Publications.
- White, S. H. (1968). The learning maturation controversy. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 14, 187-196.
- Wood, S., Wood, E., & Boyd, D. (2006). *World of Psychology: Portable Edition with MyPsychLab*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. ISBN.

APPENDIX A
QUESTIONNAIRE

**QUESTIONNAIRES FOR TEACHERS AT UCC KINDERGARTEN ON
FACTORS INFLUENCING BEHAVIOUR OF CHILDREN**

The objective of this questionnaire to the respondent teachers was to find out some behavioural traits of the target children so that the researcher would interpret the behaviour of children under the kindergarten level and come to some conclusions.

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

SEX

1. Male
2. Female

3. AGE

- 20 - 24
- 25 – 29
- 30 – 34
- 35 – 39
- 40 – 44
- 45 – 49
- 50 and above

4. Academic qualification

Middle school leaving certificate

S.S.C.E leaver

Post middle

Cert A

Certificate in early childhood

Post secondary

Degree

Other (specify).....

5. For how long have you being teaching at the school?

Less than 3years

4 – 6years

7 – 9years

10 – 12years

13 – 15years

16 years and above

6. Respond to the following items based on when you normally
 Observe the child in school.

STATEMENT	ALWAYS	SOMETIMES	SELDOM
I observe during playtime			
I observe during studying			
I observe during assembly			
I observe immediately they arrive at school			
I observe when departing from school			

7. Do you observe the behaviour of the child in class?

Yes

No

8. If yes which of these behaviours does the child normally exhibit when
 in class? Tick the most frequent behaviours using 1, 2, 3 in that order.

1) sleeping

- 2) fighting
- 3) biting
- 4) crying
- 5) begging
- 6) sleeping
- 7) talking
- 8) inattentive
- 9) attention getter

9. EFFECT OF BEHAVIOUR ON ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

Does the behaviour exhibited by the child affect his/her studies?

Yes

No

9. Which of the following behaviours have positive or negative effect on their studies?

STATEMENT	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
Sleeping		
Fighting		
Biting		

Crying		
Begging		
Sleeping		
Talking		
Inattentive		
Attention getter		

11. At what period does the child exhibit such behaviours?

Music and movement period

Story telling period

Language and literacy period

Number work period

Other (specify)

12. If it is negative effect, what actions do you take to help the child?

.....

13. Does the child enjoy class activities

Yes

No

14. If yes, how are you able to determine?

.....
.....
.....

15. If no, how do you determine it?.....

.....
.....

16. Does he/she communicate his/her feelings?

Yes

No

17. How does he/she communicate his/her feelings?

.....
.....

18. Problem of child's behaviour in school.

How do you help in modifying the child's unwanted behaviour?

- take them out to visit
- time out procedure
- going out to observe
- dramatization
- modelling
- role-playing
- story telling

- drawing



19. Suggest measures to improve the child's behaviour.

.....

.....

.....

.....

APPENDIX B

Interview schedules for parent respondents on factors influencing children's behaviour in university of cape coast kindergarten. Please you are to give answers to these questions. You are assured that your answers will be treated confidentially.

Section A

Personal Data

1. Sex

Male

Female

2. Age

Below 20 years

21-24

25-29

30-34

35-39

40-44

45-49

50 and above

3. Academic qualification

Middle school leaving certificate

SSSE leaver

Post Middle

Certificate in early childhood

Post secondary

Degree

Other (specify)

4. Marital Status

Married

Widowed

Single

Divorced

Other specify

5. Occupation.....

6. Does the child stay with you and your spouse?

Yes

No

7. If no with whom does he/she stay?

a. guardian

b. other specify

8. How many children do you have?.....

9. How many hours in a day does he stay with you.

Less than 1 hour

3hours – 4hours

5hours – 9hours

10hours- 15hours

16hours – 20hours

21hours – 24hours

Respond to the following items based on when you normally observe the

Child in the home

10. Do you observe the behaviour of your child in the home?

Yes

No

11. If yes how often.....

STATEMENT	ALWAYS	SOMETIMES	SELDOM
I observe during play time			
At leisure time			
At meals time			
When going to bed			

12. Which of these behaviours do the child normally exhibits when in the home.

Tick the frequent behaviour using 123 in that order.

1. Sleeping

2. Fighting

3. Crying

4. Begging

5. Talking

6. Shouting

7. Biting

8. Fidgeting

13. Does your child like story telling?

Yes

No

Effect of behaviour on social life

14. Does the behaviour exhibited by the child affect his social life?

Yes

No

15. At what period does the child exhibit such behaviours?

Meals period

Siesta period

Leisure period

When engage in an activity

16. If the above has a negative effect on the child what actions do you take to

help the child

.....
.....

17. Does the child engage play activities?

Yes

No

18. If yes how are you able to determine

.....
.....

19. If no how do you determine it.

.....
.....
.....

20. Which type of play activities does he/she enjoys

Unoccupied

Onlooker

Parallel

Solitary

21. Does she/he communicate his/her feelings?

Yes

No

22. How does he /she communicate his/her feelings?

.....
.....

Problem of child behaviour in the home

23. How do you help in modifying the child's behaviour?

.....
.....

24. Suggest measures to improve the other children behaviour in the home.

.....
.....
.....

