

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

**CHILDREN'S PROBLEM BEHAVIOUR AND CLASSROOM
MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES IN EARLY CHILDHOOD CENTRES
OF THE EFFUTU MUNICIPALITY**



2018

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**A THESIS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION,
FACULTY OF EDUCATIONAL STUDIES, SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF
GRADUATE STUDIES, UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA IN
PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR AWARD OF THE
MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY (EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION) DEGREE**

SEPTEMBER 2018

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, Mark Gyapong, declare that this thesis, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

Signature:

Date:

SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of thesis as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

Name of Supervisor: MICHAEL SUBBEY (PhD)

Signature:

Date:

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DEDICATION

To my brothers and sister, my friends and Belinda Ackah



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GLOSSARY

AACAP	American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry
ADHD	Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder
CBCL	Child Behaviour Checklist
DEC	Division of Early Childhood
DSM- MD-I	Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders,
EFA	Essential Fatty Acids
ECE	Early Childhood Education
ECT	Early Childhood Teacher
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service
IEP	Individualized Education Plans
IQ	Intelligent Quotient
KG	Kindergarten
LI	Legal Instrument
M/A	Municipal Assembly
NPSPE	National Pedagogical Standard for Preschool Education,
PBS	Positive Behaviour Support
PSECDR	Primary and Secondary Education of Children with Disabilities Regulation
SES	Socio Economic Status
SACN	Scientific Advisory Committee of Nutrition
SESS	Strengthening Emotional Support Services
STAR, G	Strengthening Transparency, Accountability and Responsiveness, Ghana
TLM	Teacher Learner Material
USDHHS	United States Department of Health and Human Services

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to explore children's problem behaviour and classroom management strategies in selected schools of the Effutu Municipality. The study looked at the types and factors that are responsible of children's problem behaviour, the effect of problem behaviour and the management strategies adopted. The study adopted the explanatory sequential mixed method design. Data was gathered through a semi-structured interview guide and questionnaire. The stratified random sampling technique was used to aid in the selection of 15 schools. Simple random sampling was used to select 45 respondents from each school to respond to the questionnaire. Purposive sampling was used to sample 15 participants for the qualitative phase of the data collection. Quantitative data was analysed using frequencies and percentages. Qualitative data was analysed thematically using Atlas.ti software. It emerged from the findings that the predominant type of children's problem behaviour were related to aggression, non-compliance, hyperactivity, destructiveness, refusal to take instruction, intentional destruction of property, among others. The study recommended that Effutu Metropolitan Assembly, Winneba Educational Directorate and the headteachers from the selected schools for the study should organize programmes in collaboration with the early childhood unit on how to cope, prevent and deal with problem behaviour to ease the burden of parents and teachers.



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Effective classroom management requires teachers to be skilful in their managing abilities, and not only depend on their teaching skills. Apparently, classroom management is an important accomplishment for every teacher from preschool classrooms to the university level (Kamarulzaman & Siew, 2015). Good classroom management is like doing a surgical operation, it requires details which are involuntary layoffs and not rambling comments (Brunette, 2014). Care-givers are expected to exhibit self-discipline and good manners and not to become angry, affront the children or use blistering language on them. Their management plan is never sadist and their lives should be full of empathy, even when challenged by children to defy it (Brunette, 2014).

The early childhood years are the intensive period of child growth and development where children build foundations for the growth of future skills (Rimm-Kaufman, Pianta, & Cox, 2000). Development of emotional and behavioural self-regulation and social competence are the key features of this development. The foregoing development is well recognized to the extent that children who are socially, emotionally, and behaviourally adept at the time they enter school are likely to fair better in the school environment than those who struggle with these accomplishments. It is common for young children to display low levels of problem behaviour across home, community, and school environments (Campbell, 2001). Early mastery of adequate levels of social, emotional and behavioural competencies are the indicators of the well-being of a preschool child and are associated with future success across a variety of domains. Conversely, early, and persistent problem behaviour can affect the

child's development across academic, societal, and emotional domains and put the child at risk of early academic failure (Bulotsky-Shearer & Fantuzzo, 2011; Yoleri, 2013) as well as later problems in adolescence (Dodge, Coie & Lynam, 2006). Given these risks, the main theoretical worldwide approach has been targeted at prevention of young children's challenging behaviour and early intervention for them and their families (New Freedom Commission on Mental Health, 2003; Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000).

One of the important elements of an effective manager is a teacher who is well-read on what triggers problem behaviours in children. Thompson (2011) found that the most common children's problem behaviour is that they do not follow directions from a teacher or caregiver. In the circle time, for example, children like to talk constantly with their peers and not to listen to a teacher or health professional. The reasons children behave in such way is because they cannot understand what teachers are teaching which may be because they do not understand the words employed by teachers (Thompson, 2011). Other than talking with peers, children also like to put their hands or other body parts on their allies to distract them (Martinez, 2014). Additionally, hitting, kicking, catching, or poking other peers is common among children (Martinez, 2014). According to Morin (2014) children often like to test limits and standards and to split down the precepts set out by teachers or caregivers, to find out how teachers or caregivers would respond to such behaviours. This was likewise held by Martinez (2014) who proposed that children sometimes walk far from their seats to find out how teachers will react to that. Furthermore, throwing tantrums and arguing is also the most common problem behaviour in the classroom, especially at the preschool level (Gaskell, 2014).

There are many techniques that the teacher can use to manage children's misbehaviour. According to Churchward (2009), one of the techniques is assertive I-Messages. Assertive I-Messages are elements of Assertive Discipline where the

messages are statements teachers make to children who misbehaved (Churchward, 2009). They are intended to give more understanding in explaining what is expected of a child (Churchward 2009). This technique allows teachers to concentrate on the child's attention and the key element is on the teacher's expected behaviour or want, and not on the misbehaviour done (Churchward, 2009). For instance, "I desire you to do..." Or "I require you to..." or "I hope you..." Churchward (2009) found in a research that some inexperienced teachers who caused a fault by saying "I want you to stop..." only discovered that their reaction often caused confrontation and turn away. The teachers' comment is on the misbehaviour and the children are quick to refute: "I want you to stop..." or other statement and escalation to start (Churchward, 2009).

Other techniques teachers may use are the visual and verbal cues (Responding to misbehaviour, 2011). The technique suggests that teachers make a brief look into a child's eye when that child misbehaves. The brief look into the child's eye can strongly send the message to the youngster. Furthermore, verbal cues can be very simple, such as, mentioning the child's name. Reminding language is likewise used, nonetheless, it is set up to be effective prior to a child's participation in problem behaviour. Teachers must first model expected behaviours so that children are aware of what is expected of them before reminding language is used (Responding to misbehaviour, 2011). Once teachers have modelled expected behaviours and given the child an opportunity to rehearse, a visual or verbal cue will frequently be used to break the problem behaviour and to help the child to go back along the track (Responding to misbehaviour, 2011).

The logical consequences technique can as well be used by teachers to manage a classroom. This can assist children to understand and hold the responsibility for the effects of their activities. Logical consequences differ from punishment, consistent issues are related, reality, and respectful (Responding to misbehaviour, 2011). Related

here simply implies that the consequences are linked to the misbehaviour. Reality is the consequences that are reasonably desired to act with children. Respectful is the focal point of communication between instructors and youngsters, it should be on the misbehaviour and not on the child's temperament personality (Responding to misbehaviour, 2011). Nevertheless, classroom management is more effective in preventing misbehaviour from happening than managing those behaviours themselves (Churchward, 2009). One of the early intervention strategies suggested by Alter and Conroy (2006) is the arrangement of the classroom environment. A well-designed classroom with proper activities, materials and comfortable space for children can create an effective classroom environment (Powell, Dunlap & Fox 2006).

Alexander, (2011) also contends that Classroom management is a cardinal feature of the total education process. It contains all the steps through which interaction between the educator and the educated take place. Classroom management is the process of ensuring that classroom lessons run smoothly despite disruptive behaviour by Children. The term also refers to the prevention of disruptive behaviour of Children (Berliner, 2003). Classroom management refers to all those essential activities which are highly necessary not only to create but also to maintain a supportive and orderly atmosphere. It includes planning and preparation of teaching and learning materials, organization of the materials, decoration of the classroom, creation of expectation and establishment, enforcement of rules and routines in the classroom (Tan, Parsons, Hinson & Sardo-Brown, 2013).

Furthermore, Powell, Dunlap & Fox (2006) assert that misbehaviours of children can be decreased when children are fully involved in activities. Therefore, to encourage children to engage in activities, variety of activities that are fun, creative and set based on children's level of development, interests and needs should be provided.

Other than that, schedule and routines can act as valuable tools to prevent children's misbehaviour in the classroom and will allow children to know what is coming next (Powell et. al., 2006). Consistent schedule of the day's activities helps children to predict what will occur at any fed time and hence prevent misbehaviour to occur (Carson, 2014) According to Churchward (2009) children are able to recognize the expectations of teachers on how they act in the classroom through rules that describe behaviours expected. Rules can teach children about appropriate behaviours and inappropriate behaviours in the classroom (Carson, 2014). Powell et. al. (2006) note that consistent schedule along with well-defined rules about classroom behaviour and consistent consequences assist children to learn self-regulation skills.

According to Anderson (2014), teachers may incorporate children's opinions when establishing the classroom rules. This will make the rules meaningful as it promotes ownerships of children in the classroom. The patterns of the rules should be short, clean and use words that promote positive desired behaviours, such as "respect for one another." The teacher should also assign proper rewards and outcomes for the class rules and be uniform in applying the rules (Carson, 2014). Powell et. al. (2006) state that the teacher too can interact with children in ways that promote positive behaviour and prevent misbehaviour. For example, teachers can give positive attention and praise to children when they put up appropriate behaviours which are powerful in shaping a child's behaviour. Churchward (2009) also indicates that "values are caught, not taught", which indicates that the teacher should act as a model to provide examples for children to follow. The way that ("execute as I allege, not as I execute") will make children feel confused and thus may promote problem behaviour. For instance, if a teacher wants children to be hushed in the classroom when they act, then the teacher also should be quiet when running about in the classroom.

Problem behaviours call for concern for parents, teachers, and other caregivers (Powell et. al., 2006) who need the knowledge and practical competencies for preventing and responding to the problem behaviour of new children. The demand for these skills is obvious, given the high rates of problem behaviour of young children found around the globe. Researchers in the United States report that 10% to 25% of children enter school with significant behaviour problems (Campbell, 2005). Similar effects have been reported in Australia (6%-10%) (Beaman, Wheldall & Kemp, 2007; McLeod & McKinnon, 2007), and Northern Ireland (up to 26%) (Hyland, N-Mhaille, Lodge & McGilloway, 2014). Thus, while low levels of behaviour problems are considered a normal feature of evolution, problems that are pervasive and persistent across environments are not. These behaviours require targeted efforts in order to adequately support young children in developing social, emotional and behavioural competence. The terminology used to describe difficulties in the social, emotional and behavioural adaptation of children is varied and includes numerous combinations of terms such as disordered, disturbed, and maladjusted with variations of emotional, behavioural and social problems (Kauffman & Landrum, 2013). The Croatian professional and scientific terminology use the umbrella term ‘behavioural disorders’ (National Pedagogical Standard for Preschool Education, 2008, Primary and Secondary Education of Children with Disabilities Regulation, 2015). The behaviour of children who are seen as having behavioural disorders is divided in terms of being predominantly active and externalized or internalized or predominantly passive (Bouillet & Uzelac, 2007). The externalizing behaviour include insufficient control of behaviour and other-directed behaviours such as defiance, hyperactivity, running away, aggression, and destructiveness. Excessive controlled and self-directed behaviours such as fearfulness and anxiety, withdrawal, depression, apathy, laziness and the likes are

described as internalized behaviours. More recent studies have focused on the term “risk behaviour” to describe children and young people who are faced with many problems that threaten their positive development and successful adaptation to the society in which they live (Basic, 2000; Baldwin, 2000; Riley, 2006).

The research in Pennsylvania about assistance for teachers in dealing with behaviour management showed how they appreciated help of this nature (Storey, 2004:p.361). In other African countries such as South African, the new system of education introduces Curriculum 2005 methods of teaching that will place a burden on teachers to be able to manage their classes more efficiently and effectively. Learners are now going to have to create their own knowledge and decide what and how to learn in their chosen programme. The teacher as a facilitator, will need to know how to handle the dynamic situations (problem behaviours) which they will be faced with in the classroom.

As evident in Ghana, Amanfi & Ayipah, (2015) study to find out the prevalence of attention deficit hyperactivity disorder among public basic school pupils in the Asante- Akyem north district of Ashanti region and the symptoms as rated by both classroom teachers and parents to identify cases. The study found out that problem behaviour such as attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) could be identified by characteristics that include: impulsivity, hyperactivity, cognitive, behavioural, emotional deficits, and inattention. The study also found out that there were no proper managerial programmes and management strategies for children with problem behaviours.

To further emphasize the state of the situation in Ghana, a report by Strengthening Transparency, Accountability and Responsiveness, Ghana (STAR-Ghana, 2013) conducted a study on children’s problem behaviour and identified some

symptoms which include difficulty in completing task which affect their grades adversely, short attention span, need to have questions and directions repeated, difficulty delaying gratification, fidgeting, rushes through chores or tasks, and difficulty remaining on task. The study found out that, there was no data on pupils with problem behaviour. Early recognition, assessment and management of this condition can redirect the education and psychosocial development of most pupils with problem and this study could help in such direction. This study may be used to help in the early detection of problem behaviours among school pupil's as assessment is focused at the earliest classes.

Although there are a lot of preventive and management strategies suggested by literature, it is not clear when consideration is given to the real methods used by teachers within the Effutu Municipality in managing classrooms. Therefore, the study seeks to explore the problem behaviours that are often exhibited by some Ghanaian children within the Effutu Municipality, the effects of those behaviours and the management strategies used by teachers in early childhood centres of the said municipality.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

This study seeks to investigate the problem behaviour of children and management strategies adopted by selected early childhood centres in the Effutu Municipality of Ghana as a way of dealing with the situation. According to Creswell (2005) by specifying the problem the researcher limits the subject matter and focuses on specific aspects of the study' The concept of problem behaviour is considered to be quite a trivial problem in its essence (Giallo & Hayes, 2007), it is of continuing interest and concern for teachers and policy makers as well for the community within the Effutu Municipality

Children with problem behaviours exhibited negative attitudes or actions that impinge on their learning and often their social development. Most common behaviour problems that occurred are externalized and internalizing behaviours such as passing away, defiance, withdrawal, aggressive behaviour that physically harms others, self-directed behaviours such as destructiveness, fearfulness, and anxiety, disruptive, Hyperactivity, nuisance, or threatening behaviour to others.

Moreover, teachers in the Effutu Municipality seemed to share the idea that attention has not been paid to the children's problem behaviour cases in early childhood centres within the municipality. It is envisaged that the rejection would be stronger with those children with severe problem behaviour than those with minor behaviour problem in the Effutu Municipality. Teachers find it difficult to handle such pupils in the schoolroom. Research over the past few decades has consistently indicated that new teachers feel unprepared when it comes to classroom management skills (Duck, 2007; Meister & Melnick, 2003; Merrett & Wheldall, 1993; Stoughton, 2007) and that, they are often unprepared to function successfully in today's classrooms with regard to managing administrative tasks, curriculum, and behaviour.

Also, teachers are of the view that the implementation of the management strategies of problem behaviour would bring about much time being spent on the problem child and the management process alongside teaching their peers, which may be unrewarding and burdensome. Early childhood teachers within the Effutu municipality keep complaining about children's disruptive ways, aggression, defiance, inattentiveness, and negative impact upon other members of the class and a poor academic record being also cited. It is envisaged that these behaviours lead to impatience, frustrations and even anger among staff members who at times feel that

they are making no progress academically, with children showing problem behaviours symptoms in most early childhood centres within the Effutu Municipality.

Furthermore, traditional belief systems perceive the teachers not to be confident and willing to report on their problem behaviour management skill. Such teachers are not well trained and do not have adequate resources, support, and ability, therefore should not be allowed to run in the early childhood centres in the Effutu Municipality. This is consistent with what Giallo and Hayes, (2007) that teachers play a critical role in implementing behaviour management strategies in the classroom, it is important that they are well trained and provided with adequate resources and support in this area.

Finally, inadequate Ghanaian works in this regard create a tremendous set-back for proper classroom management. Again, lack of support services such as encouragement, training skills, equipment, accessible facilities for the problem children and teacher development in the Effutu Municipality of Ghana. The teachers may for that matter lack the confidence and positive attitude towards problem behaviour education and its management strategies. Accordingly, this bears a major influence on the management of behaviour problems in the classrooms as teachers face behaviour problems in their daily instruction. Evertson, Sanford, Clements, and Worsham (1984, p. 102) indicate that behaviour problems that are disruptive in the classroom are not pleasant for teachers to just contemplate upon, but it is important for teachers to have ways to cope with them when they prevail. The above when incorporated among teachers within early childhood centres in the Effutu Municipality will go a long way to positively impact the teachers' profession.

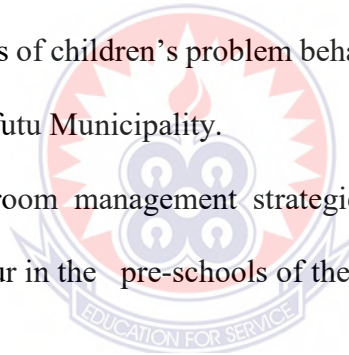
1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to examine children's problem behaviour and classroom management strategies among selected pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality in the Central region of Ghana.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The study sought to achieve the following objectives:

1. determine the types of children's problem behaviour prevailing in the pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality.
2. ascertain views of teachers regarding factors that are responsible for children's problem behaviour in the pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality
3. explore the effects of children's problem behaviour on class activities in pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality.
4. investigate classroom management strategies adopted to manage children's problem behaviour in the pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality.



1.5 Research Questions

The study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What are the types of children's problem behaviour prevailing in the pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality?
2. What are views of teachers regarding factors responsible for children's problem behaviour in the pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality?
3. What are the effects of children's problem behaviour on class activities in the pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality?
4. What classroom management strategies are adopted to manage children's problem behaviour in the pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality?

1.6 Significance of the Study

This study is intended to inform teacher education institutions about children's problem behaviour and encourage them to incorporate classroom management strategies in teacher education curricula and let them know the need for children teachers' knowledge in classroom management. The study will also bring to bear on teachers the need to understand widespread problem behaviours and how it relates to the teaching-learning process. This will provide teachers and policy makers as well as the community with information on classroom management task consisting of planning lessons, providing a conducive learning environment, teaching children and the most daunting task of all, is appropriately responding to children's behavioural problems.

Empirical evidence that will result from exploring children's problem behaviour and classroom management strategies will encourage researchers to ascertain the factors that influence the development of problem behaviour so as to evaluate, identify, and examine effective classroom management techniques. The implications of this research will inform teachers, policy makers and others significant players within the

education sector about the need to evaluate the current behaviour management policy in order to explore the effects of problem behaviour on classroom activities and other areas of concern, And upon the completion of the evaluation and implementation of the suggestions from the research, there will be effective techniques that will improve the current behaviour management policy. The research finding will assist teachers in recognizing that there is individual difference in the classroom and would know how to deal with pupils with problem behaviours.

Finally, this research in the field of Early Childhood education will contribute to the body of knowledge related to the teachers or caregivers' direct practice with Children/ clients. The study will also give teachers a theoretical foundation underpinning the management strategies of classroom behaviour problems. This will enable teachers to apply the strategies and principles recommended by the study. It will serve as a guide for teachers to find effective classroom management procedures and to use them in order to minimize disruptive behaviour problems in the classrooms.

1.7 Delimitations of the Study

The study was theoretically delimited to the various types of children's problem behaviour, factors that enforce the development of these behaviours, its effects on class activities and classroom management strategies and programmes available in managing children's problem behaviour in selected schools in the Effutu Municipality. The study was geographically delimited to selected schools in the Effutu Municipality, these schools were: Unipra North, Unipra south, Ntakorfam M/A, Municipal A & B, Presby primary, St. Paul preparatory, Uncle Rich Preparatory, Methodist A & B, Methodist C & D, AME Zion A & B, AME Zion C & D, and New Winneba M/A Primary.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

There are multiple limitations of both quantitative and qualitative methods when viewed as separate entities. In mixed method research, the aim is not to view them separately but rather to view them for what they add and the richness both methods bring to the study. In research such as this study, which is based in two very subjective phenomena - problem behaviour and management strategies - the rich vibrancy of the qualitative data is needed to tell the story that the more static quantitative data presented. This study however, presents the findings and voice of a small group of respondents when compared to the total population and therefore, although statistically pertinent, cannot be generalised or transferred to become the voice of the broader population. In this study, the respondents either had been diagnosed of problem behaviour or lived in a family with a member who had a diagnosed behaviour condition. Although there are many similarities in symptoms/characteristics displayed by individuals with the problem behaviour, it is the subjectivity and ambiguity of behaviour that makes it difficult to create a validated signs and characteristics to relate to all. The ambiguities, which are inherent in human language, can also influence the analysis and interpretation of the respondent's experiences which can affect the findings of the study. Given this knowledge, a mixed method framework using a sequential explanatory design is a very appropriate means of exploring this population.

1.9 Definition of Terms

Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder is the common neuropsychiatric disorder of infancy and one of the most prevalent chronic disease found in school children/is a disorder of children characterized by a pattern of extreme pervasive, persistent and debilitating attention, over activity and impulsivity

Antisocial behaviour: aggressive, impulsive, and often violent actions that violate protective rules, conventions, and codes of a society for example, laws

Behaviour: is defined as all of the physical and mental acts that humans perform

Classroom management: all the things that a teacher does to organize children, space, time, and materials so that instruction in content and child learning can take place or practices and procedures that a teacher uses to maintain an environment in which instruction and learning can occur.

Problem behaviour: an unwanted behaviour which needs changing. Also, a pattern of hostile, aggressive, or disruptive behaviour which goes beyond societal norms. Although it does not serve to seriously impair individual function, it can be a problem area.

Behaviour disorder: pattern of behaviour which is perceived to be hostile, aggressive, or disruptive. As a pattern which may have gone on for 6 months, it is one which can be considered repetitive and persistent

Internalizing behaviour: hidden behaviours that are not easily noticeable to others or observed.

Externalizing behaviour: behaviours that are more apparent /clearer to observe.

Non-compliance: the fact of not obeying a rule or law.

Hyperactivity: is defined subjectively as an increase in motor activity to a level that interferes with the child's functioning at school, at home or socially which is characterized by characteristics such as aggressiveness, constant activity, impulsiveness, poor concentration and easy distractibility

Withdrawal is defined as secluding or isolating oneself from others.

Aggression: spoken or physical behaviour that is threatening or involves harm to someone or something

Destructive behaviour: refers to the various unwanted forms of behaviour that can cause interruption to the flow of teaching and learning process in the classroom.

Violent behaviour: is the intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community, which either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, mal-development, or deprivation.

Preschool: is used to describe things relating to the care and education of children before they reach the age when they have to go to school or A preschool is a school for children between the ages of 2 and 5 or 6

Time-out: a brief period of time during which a misbehaving child is put on their own so that they can regain control over their emotions.

Behaviour consequences: is the response to the children's behaviour. Warning, ignoring and reinforcing are some examples of consequences.

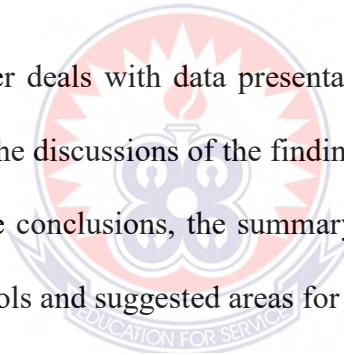
Positive behaviour support: is a general term that refers to the application of positive behavioural interventions and systems to achieve socially important behaviour change.

1.10 Organization of the Study

This research comprises six main chapters. Chapter one covers the background to the study, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, limitations of the study, delimitation and operational definitions of terms.

Chapter two deals with the literature review, which is congregated under concepts, theoretical framework, conceptual frameworks and empirical studies. Chapter three focuses on the research paradigm, the research design, study area, the population of the study, instrumentation, validation of the research instrument, data collection procedure, adequacy and trustworthiness of the data, triangulation and ethical considerations.

The fourth chapter deals with data presentation, interpretations and analysis. Chapter five focuses on the discussions of the findings. Chapter six deals with the key findings of the study, the conclusions, the summary of the study, recommendations, implications for pre-schools and suggested areas for future research.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Overview

This chapter deals with the review of related literature of the study. The chapter includes the empirical and conceptual framework. The theoretical framework also captures and involves the social learning theory, ecological theory and the attachment theory. The review focuses on the following strands:

1. Types of children's problem behaviour
2. Views of teachers regarding factors responsible for children's problem behaviour
3. Effects of children's problem behaviour
4. Management strategies in managing children's problem behaviour
5. Summary of the literature review

2.1 Problem Behaviours in Early Childhood

Behaviour problems have long been a common and troubling problem for educators, with detrimental side effects for both pupils and instructors. In fact, problem behaviours are cited as one of the greatest challenges faced by preschool teachers and childcare providers each year (Arnold, McWilliams, & Arnold, 2008). As early as 1980, researchers suggest that as many as 24% of all preschool children demonstrated significant challenging behaviours (Earls 2000). In 1993, Webster-Stratton found out that the incidence of difficult behaviours was steadily increasing.

Although citing a slightly lower prevalence rate, Campbell (2005) advised that between 10-15% of preschool children exhibit mild to moderate behaviour problems. Willoughby, Kupersmidt, and Bryant (2001) report startling numbers of preschool

children exhibiting antisocial behaviours. They note that about 40% of pre-schoolers exhibit at least one, and close to 10% of preschools exhibit six or more antisocial behaviours a day. Currently, Fixsen, Powell, and Dunlap, (2003) suggested that between 8 and 25% of all preschool and kindergarten children display externalizing behaviours in the schoolroom. These rates suggest that problem /challenging behaviours have been present in preschool and childcare settings for a number of years and remain a significant problem today.

The numerous consequences of such difficult behaviours result in a myriad of problems for children and teachers. For example, Bryant, Vizzard, Willoughby, & Kupersmidt, (2009) suggest that coping with disruptive, aggressive, and noncompliant behaviours in the classroom environment is one of the biggest concerns for childcare providers and Head teachers (Bryant, 2009). The business of managing challenging behaviour is becoming more and more important to infer as the use of child care environments is steadily increasing (Buck & Ambrosino, 2004). Not only are childhood behavioural difficulties problematic for the individual child, teachers and the other children in their classroom, but they are also too difficult for the child care providers attending to these young children (Anderson, 2007).

According to McClintock (2005), children are complex beings. They develop and grow, and throughout their course of maturation, acquire an array of knowledge, skills, and abilities to help them in their quest for growth and survival. Sometimes children falter and develop behaviour problems which could disrupt their quest for growth. Behaviour problems, in most circumstances, have no single etymology. Rather they may be caused by a combination of problems such as a high-risk environment (e.g., abusive home, low socioeconomic status, or transient family) peer rejection, extreme self-doubt, and biological or biochemical differences (Easterbrooks, 2003). For

example, Children in schools separated based upon their IQ (average vs. moderate intelligence) have been found to have significant behaviour differences because of the influence of feelings of rejection by peers and teachers (Roberts & Zubrick, 2002). Children at one time or another may be diagnosed as having a behaviour problem. However, there is a difference between a child who truly has a behaviour abnormality (e.g., classified through testing and observation) and one who just has an isolated, transient problem. To constitute a behaviour abnormality, the problem must be persistent, have a high frequency and intensity, and should permeate the child's universe (e.g., school and home) (Campbell, 2000).

A number of tests have been created that assess behaviour problems. The one used most frequently in paediatrics psychology literature is the Child Behaviour Checklist (CBCL) (Achenbach, 2001). The CBCL consists of behaviour problem and social competence items to be answered by the parent of the child. These questions are factored into three groups: social competence, adaptive functioning, and syndrome scales. The syndrome scales are classified into the Internalizing and Externalizing scales. The CBCL can discern between internalizing (depression, anxiety, social withdrawal) and externalizing (hyperactive, aggressive, delinquent) behaviour abnormalities (Greenbaum & Dedrick, 2008).

Research has shown that the elevations on different scales may have prognostic implications for comorbid problems (e.g., depression combined with conduct disorder) (Mattison & Spitznagel, 1999). Scale elevations indicative of comorbid problems were further substantiated by the work of Greenbaum and Dedrick (2008: p.149) who state that the scales provide an "appropriate measure of global problem behaviour." Global problem behaviour refers to overall behaviour of the child including both internalizing and externalizing behaviour disorders. The CBCL is a strong tool to be use because it

has a multifunctional scale system and a high correspondence with the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 4th ed. (DSM-IV; APA, 1994) as reported by Wadsworth et. al. (2001). Furthermore, it has been shown to have predictive validity over a five-year span (Mattison & Spitznagel, 2009).

2.2 Theoretical Framework

The study adopts theories to explain social, philosophical and holistic perspective of human behaviour. Therefore, the theories include. Attachment Theory (Bowlby, 1969), Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977) and the Ecological theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1879). These theories best explain the behavioural and emotional problems among children living in early childhood centres within the Effutu Municipality of Ghana. These are the reasons for selecting but not limited to the theories below.

Boadu, (2015) contends that, the Attachment theory seeks to preserve some of Freud's insights (about relationships and early experiences in which infant behaviour is organized around managing ever-growing instinctual drives) by casting them in a more scientific framework. Bowlby (1969) realizes that, these ideas were questionable and altered some of the ideas and structures of Freud's theory to come up with his own theory. Hence, he replaced the idea that infants are just dependent on the idea.

On the other hand, social learning theory has become the most influential theory of learning and growth. According to Maria and Jeffrey (2008), social learning theory has often been called a bridge between behaviourist learning theories and cognitive learning theories since it encompasses attention, retention, and motivation. In this regard, Bandura (1965) believes that, direct reinforcement could not account for all types of learning and added a social ingredient, with the idea that people can learn different information and behaviours by observing other people. This facet of behaviour

is extremely optimistic: it suggests that provided with the right environment, any behaviour can be changed. Once more, it applies to an accurate depiction of the way behaviours is learned; clearly, children (and adults) do copy other's behaviours. A further strong point is the cognitive element of Bandura's theory as it proffers to be a means to eventually incorporating the learning theory and cognitive development approaches (Boadu, 2015).

2.2.1 Attachment Theory ((Bowlby, 1969, 1988)

Bowlby (1907-1990) and McLeod (2007), work as psychiatrist in a Child Guidance Clinic in London, where they care for children who were emotionally shaken up. Their experiences led them to examine the relevance of the child's relationship with their mother in terms of their social, emotional and cognitive development. Their experiences specifically, formed their opinion about the connection between early infant separations with the female parent and later problems leading them to the attachment theory.

According to Bowlby (1988) the attachment is 'any form of conduct that results in a person working or maintaining proximity to some other clearly identified individual, who is conceived of, as able to cope with the world. Bowlby (1988) further stated that, it is most obvious, whenever the person is frightened, fatigued or sick, and is assuaged by comforting and caregiving' (p. 26-27). Primary caregivers (generally, parents) who are available and responsive to an infant's needs permit the children to get a sense of security that causes a large impact on his or her power to navigate the universe of social relationships as an adult. Although it is common for the mother to be the principal attachment figure, infants will form attachments to any health care provider who is sensible and responsive in social interactions with them. As well, this theory states that, children have evolutionary tendencies to act in ways that enhance

closeness to their health care providers. Disturbance in the attachment process therefore makes children suffer a bit of psychological problems, including depression and anxiety (Bowlby, 1969).

Youngsters or infants who are secure in their relationship readily seek contact with the caregiver when stressed or worried. The caregiver reciprocally, is able to respond with comfort and nurturance appropriate to the site, which enables the child to quickly take to play and exploration. Hence, the small and the caregiver get in tune and connected with one another (Bowlby, 1988). On the contrary, children who are insecure, lack trust and religious belief hold the view that their health professionals can support them emotionally. When this takes place, children cannot rely on their health care providers to respond to distress, they may intensify their display of emotion by being really fussy or demand to ensure that they are not neglected. Since these children are often angry that they cannot trust and depend on the primary health care provider, they may as easily reject the caregiver's attempt to provide comfort and care. This can be really perplexing and frustrating to the primary care provider, who may obtain it hard distinguishing between the child experiencing true distress and the child just needing to be sustained and soothed. This confusion adds to the disharmony and dissatisfaction in the family relationship. Therefore, attachment theory in particular underscores the significant character of early caregiver child social emotional experience and predicts delayed development of social emotional behaviour in children lacking such experiences (Bowlby, 1988).

According to Schaffer and Emerson (2004), attachment develops through a series of stages. These researchers studied 60 babies at monthly intervals during the first 18 months. The children were seen monthly in their dwelling houses for approximately one year. During the period, the babies' interactions with their caregivers

were observed, and the health care providers were interviewed. Reports for the ontogeny of an attachment were that, the baby showed separation anxiety after a caregiver's absence. The researchers discovered that, children's attachments developed in the following sequence: up to three months of age, the new born is predisposed to attach to any human and most babies respond equally to any caregiver during this stop. After four months, infants learn to distinguish primary and secondary caregivers but accept care from any available person. Seven months later, the baby looks to particular people for protection, comfort and security. They exhibit fear of strangers (stranger fear) and unhappiness when separated from a particular someone. Some babies display fear of the stranger and separation anxiety much more often and severely than others, nevertheless they are regarded as revelations that the baby has formed an attachment. After nine months, the child becomes increasingly independent and forms several attachments (Schaffer & Emerson, 2004).

Further consequences of the study indicate that, attachments were most probable to be made with those who responded accurately to the cues of the infant, not the person they spent more time with. By the 10th month, three quarters of the babies had several attachments including attachments to parents, grandparents and siblings. The main bond or attachment was the mother for approximately half of the children at eighteen months previously (Schaffer & Emerson, 2004). McLeod (1969) asserts that, the most salient fact in forming attachments is not who feeds and changes the child but who plays and Communicates with him or her. Whilst Attachment Theory is a well-respected perspective in psychology and medical disciplines, it is not without critique. It puts too much stress on the mother and child relationship, making the assumption that, separation from the mother can contribute to damaging results for the small fry. Still, taking care of a child is not the exclusive duty of the mother. Other relatives, such

as aunts, uncles, grandparents can as well provide a dependable foundation for the minor. However, the theory of attachment between child and parent (caregiver) highlights several benefits. These include, but not limited to supplying and seeking comfort for distress, providing and experiencing warmth, empathy and nurturance, providing emotional availability and regulating emotions, providing and seeking physical and psychological protection (Zeanah & Smyke, 2008).

Bowlby and McLeod Attachment Theory explains how substantial the child's relationships with parents and other significant adults or primary care-givers can influence their behavioural development. Parents and significant adults or relatives such as aunts, uncles, grandparents tend to exhibit some behavioural pattern which the child is likely to observe and imitate. These behaviours observed by children in later years at the school going age are likely to be remodelled in other forms such as noncompliance, shouting, fighting, walking about in class and others which can affect classroom learning activity, thereby having impact on others. When such situation happens, it calls for the teacher's attention and some management strategies.

2.2.2 Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1965, 1977, 2005, 2006)

Social Learning Theory by Bandura (1977) emphasizes that, behaviour is learned from the environment through the process of observational learning. Bandura (1977) believes humans are active information processors who think about the relationship between their behaviour and its consequences, adding that, observational learning could not occur unless cognitive processes were at work. This theory appreciates the significance of the fact that children can learn aggressiveness from parents and caregivers who are aggressive. Children pay attention to some of these people (models) and encode their behaviours accordingly. At a later time, they are likely to copy the conduct they have discovered. Children may do this irrespective of whether

the behaviour is 'gender appropriate' or not, but there are a number of processes that make it more. In all probability that a child will reproduce the behaviour that its society deems appropriate for its sex. The Children are more likely to pay heed to and imitate those people it perceives as similar to itself. Therefore, it is more likely to imitate behaviour modelled by people of the same sex (Bandura, 1977).

Social Learning Theory posits that, people learn from one another via observation, imitation and modelling. Because people can learn via observation alone, their learning may not necessarily be expressed in their execution. Additionally, Bandura (2006b) asserts that, learning may or may not result in a behaviour change. He further described his theory of social learning as being developed in a context in which, "the prevailing analysis of learning focused entirely on learning through the effects of one's actions [with] the explanatory mechanisms [cast] in terms of peripheral association of environmental stimuli to responses (Bandura, 2006a). He saw this type of behaviourism theorizing as "discordant with the obvious social reality that much of what we learn is through the force of social modelling (Bandura, 2005:10; Bandura, 2006a). Observing the ridiculousness of a civilization in which language, customs, practices, occupational competencies, educational exercises, spiritual patterns, and so on, would be gradually shaped in each member by rewarding or punishing consequences of their trial-and-error performances (Bandura, 2005; Bandura, 2006a).

However, social learning theory just like whatever other theory has its own shortcomings. The theory places much stress on what happens to be the child rather than what the child does with the information he or she has. That is, how the child's thinking is organized and how these views change during evolution. It also neglects to bring into account the actual developmental changes (physical and mental) that occur as the child matures or grows, how modelling or imitates change during different ages

of the mortal. However, Bandura demonstrates that knowledge plays a part in learning and over the final 30 years, social learning theory has become increasingly cognitively in its version of human learning (Newman & Newman, 2007). The Social Learning Theory to a greater extent shows how the environment influences our behaviours in our everyday lives. This is the main reason why the theory is being utilized for this subject despite its shortcoming. Children in particular are easily tempted by what they watch and tend to imitate as well as model what they discover. It is really obvious for children to imitate particular behaviours before they see its effects on them. The social learning theory, therefore, best explains how children within the early childhood centres acquire behaviour.

In addition to internal working models, there are other possible explanations why children and teachers employ a kind of social behaviours. One such explanation stems from the work of Albert Bandura's social learning theory. Social learning theory stresses the importance of observing and modelling behaviours, attitudes, and emotional reactions of others (Bandura, 1977). Social learning theory focuses on reading in a societal setting. So, the theory is easily transferred to a classroom setting since Children can ascertain a great deal by just abiding by other Children and instructors. The principles underlying social learning theory include; learning through observation of others' behaviours and the consequences of those behaviours, learning can take place without an alteration in behaviour, learning involves cognition (like the inner working model), and the environment plays a part in reinforcing or diminishing the modelling of behaviour (Bandura, 1977). From this perspective, Children learn how to behave or not behave in the classroom based on observations of other Children' behaviours and corresponding teacher responses to these behaviours as well as the

teacher's responses to the individual children's behaviours. Social learning theory introduces other variables.

Peer behaviour, teacher responses to peer behaviour, and teacher-peer relationships) to consider when examining differences in children-teacher relationship quality. The internal working model and the principles of social learning theory provide complementary perspectives for understanding the dynamics of children-teacher relationships. On the one hand, teachers bring particular relationship models and sets of social behaviour to the relationship. On the other hand, children's social behaviour reflects not just their relationship model, but also peer group influences and classroom reinforcement patterns. Behavioural patterns of both children and teacher are included in the present investigation, with some emphasis on the kinds of behaviour that are likely to be aversive to children-teacher relationships: children's disruptive externalizing behaviour problems and teachers' level of positive/negative and sensitivity/insensitivity to children needs. In the subsequent sections, the rationale for focusing on these child and teacher factors is provided.

Bandura (1977), theory appreciates the significance of the fact that children can learn through their interactions with the environment. Social Learning Theory also posits that, children learn from one another via observation, imitation and modelling and also focuses on reading in a societal setting. So, the theory is easily transferred to a classroom setting from the foregoing viewpoints, it could be stated that children learn how to behave or not behave in the classroom based on observations made on other children's behaviours and corresponding teacher/parents' response to these behaviours within the individual's environment.

Therefore, environment plays a part in strengthening or weakening children's' behaviour. In this sense, children prove some of the observable behaviours like

throwing pencils and erasers, hitting peers, bullying destroying objects, braking classmate toys, and showing angry mood, refraining from activities in the classroom without considering its gender or classroom appropriateness. When this happens, it impedes on the smooth-running activities in the classroom and impact on others negatively and may necessitate the teacher's managerial skills in dealing with such situation.

2.2.3 The Ecological Theory (1979)

The ecological perspective views behaviour within the broader context of social systems. However, ecological theory places more emphasis on the interplay within and between systems. Systems function in complex, multi-level, multi-factorial reciprocal interactions (Ayers, Clarke & Murray, 2000). Schools, for example, are examined from different levels of functioning such as the classroom, the administration, or the school as a whole. Different factors are considered when describing any of a school systems or sub-systems. Hoge (2007) believes that behaviour is also a system of reciprocal interplay between individuals and their physical and social environments. In schools, individuals' behaviours are determined and brought forth by other individuals, classrooms, management structures, and the school climate. Problem behaviour is "influenced or even generated by ecological factors in specific contexts" (Ayers et al., 2000:p.88). In schools, factors at various layers of different subsystems may individually contribute to problem behaviours. For instance, at the classroom level, a child might shove several classmates because they have encroached on his personal space in an overcrowded classroom.

In this model, systems beyond the immediate school context also influence behaviour in schools. In the ecological systems model, the levels of systems include:

microsystems, mesosystems, ecosystems, and macro systems. Microsystems in schools include the roles and relationships between individuals. Mesosystems refer to the school's relationships with people outside the school, like parents. Ecosystems refer to the connections between those outside the school system, such as the relationships among parents. Macrosystems include all the various schemes within a cultural context, such as the interactions between schools and community psychiatric hospitals like the businesses that hire children (Ayers et. al., 2000). Within this reciprocal model, problem behaviours in this model are influenced by a myriad factor in multiple systems; and multiple systems are influenced in a myriad of ways by problem behaviours.

Braun (2014) indicates that interventions in the ecological model have a system-wide emphasis. Schools operating with this approach develop school-wide management policies, programs, and supports for learning and conduct. Individuals within the school, including Children, staff, and parents participate at various system levels to create a positive classroom climate, facilitate learning, develop school discipline policies, nurture a positive school ethos, develop affirming home school relationships, and cultivate effective connections between the school and outside systems. Assessments of the school are completed to collect accurate and complete perceptions from those within and outside the system. These helps target specific areas of concern. Interventions are then trained to address regions of worry.

Problem behaviour, the result of person-environment interactions, are targeted through adjustments to the physical, social, and/or academic environments in which they take place. Physical adjustments could include changes to seating, temperature, or sensory stimulation (Hoge, 2007). Social adjustments could include class groups, pupil-teacher negative perceptions and patterns of interaction, or increasing involvement in classroom decision-making. Academic adjustments could include adaptations in

reading, addressing specific skills deficits, assigning a scribe or computer for writing, or supplying added assignment assistance (Braun 2014). Other system changes may be implemented as well, including adjustments to referral processes, teaching practices, testing processes, attendance and hallway expectations, and discipline practices. People within the school systems strive to understand the individuals with problem behaviours and the needs of the system, and then design adjustments that can best accommodate both.

The ecological perspective emphasizes system-wide responses. Adjustments to social, academic, and management systems developed through multi-system collaboration, are common interventions for Children with problem behaviours. People understand individuals, problem behaviours, and interventions as intertwined in a complex set of systems and subsystems. Much of the most recent research on promoting and supporting behaviour changes in schools emphasizes the ecological perspective (Bierman et al, 2002)

Behaviour problems in schools are seen in the larger contexts of school systems, families, communities, and socio-economic systems. Factors such as family income, neighbourhood poverty, married condition, maternal education, and children's cognitive abilities, and the impact of these on children's emotions and behaviours are studied in this inquiry. For example, the Centre for Positive Behaviour Support in the United States reports that a history of poverty and illiteracy predicts ten times more powerful that a child will have school problems due to seriously challenging behaviours than any other factors (Scott, 2003). Based on this type of information, schools create preventive responses and interventions that provide system-wide supports for Children at high-risk of developing serious behaviour problems. Studies report positive results from interventions through teacher-centred programs, classroom-based programs,

school-home liaison programs, and school-wide behaviour programs. Modifications to the wider systems promote and sustain pro-social behaviour for all Children, positively affecting those at risk for serious emotional- behavioural disorders.

Various teachers-centred interventions are reported in the literature, reinforcing the critical significance of their role. Sawka (2002) reports on a teacher training model Strengthening Emotional Support Services (SESS), which increased staff knowledge of effective behaviour management for children with EBD and was associated with increases in children academic engagement and decreases in disruptive behaviour in self- contained classes of children and adolescents with EBD. The program included specific training for teachers and educational assistants, and follow-up consultation to support the transfer of knowledge and skills to classrooms. Training focused on ecological management and empirically validated practices, including four general topic areas with specific skills under each topic (Braun 2014).

It could be inferred that the ecological theory explains behaviour in terms of the interactions between systems. The levels of systems include microsystems, mesosystems, ecosystems, and macro systems. Microsystems in schools include the roles and relationships between individuals. Mesosystems refer to the school's relationships with people outside the school, like parents. Ecosystems refer to the connections between those outside the school system, such as the relationships among parents. Macrosystems include all the various schemes within a cultural context, such as the interactions between schools and community psychiatric hospitals like the businesses that hire Children. Because of the interactions between these systems such as; families, communities, and socio-economic systems, certain behavioural patterns unfold which the child/ children imitate or learn from. These behaviours are modelled in different forms by children in the classroom which intend pose treat/ challenge to the

teaching and learning process. Again, factor such as family income, neighbourhood poverty, married condition, maternal education, and children's cognitive abilities, and the impact of these on children's emotions and behaviours. These influence behaviour modification among children. Such modification can take the form of inattentiveness, noncompliance, distress etc. As a result, children modelled such behaviours during classroom lessons and their interaction with peers in the classroom. or in school which may pose a challenge or difficulty to others and the learning process as well.



2.3 Conceptual Framework

The study is conceptualized in the context of the problem behaviour; externalizing or internalizing behaviours. This depicts the two prime areas of children problem behaviour and the management strategies adopted to relieve the children of these problems.

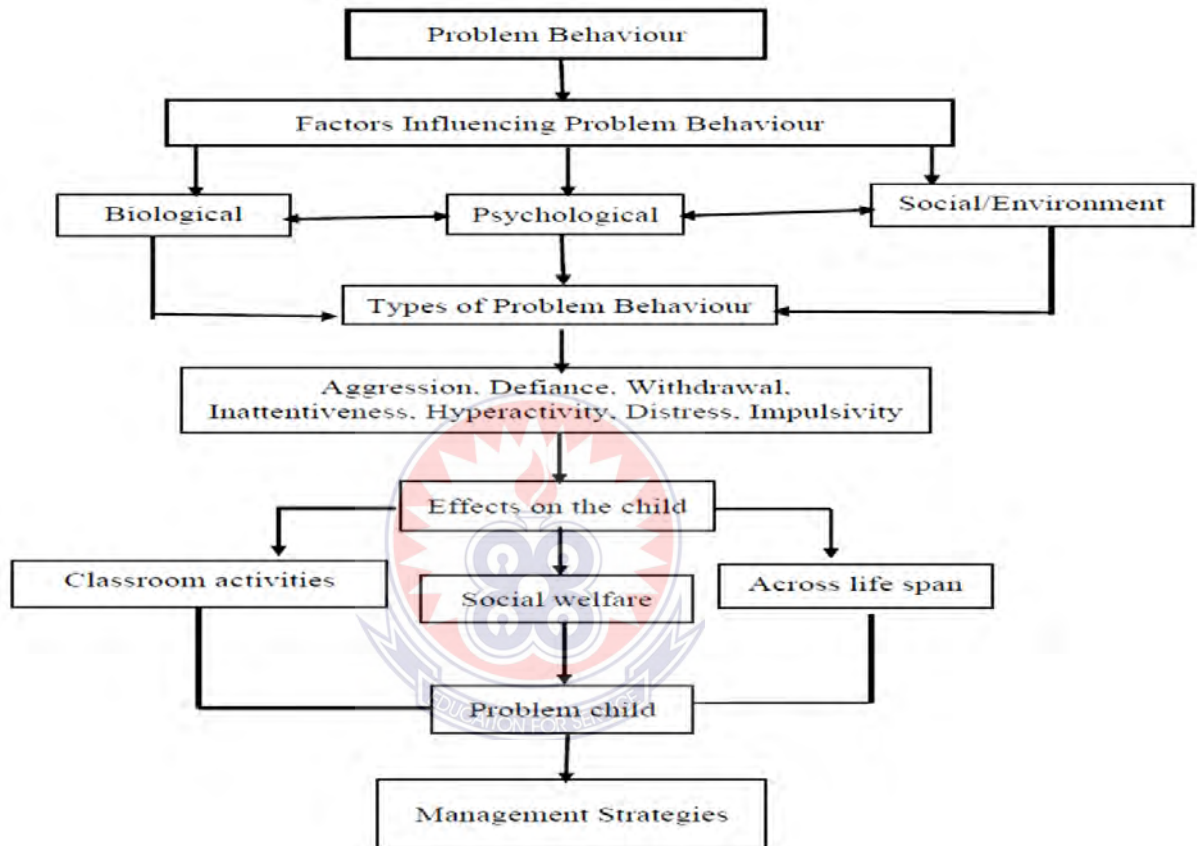


Figure 2.1: Problem behaviour in the classroom (Author, 2017)

Figure 2.1 illustrates the description of the variables interacting with each other in conceptual framework. As shown in the diagram i.e. problem behaviour, factor, the effects, management strategies adopted. The input includes the problem behaviour of children of the selected school which are externalizing behaviours, or internalizing behaviours (e.g. rule breaking, aggression, arguing, defiance, anxious/depressive symptoms, fighting, destructiveness and disobedience directions repeated, difficulty delaying gratification, fidgeting, rushes through chores or tasks, and difficulty

remaining on task. (Campbell, 2002). The researcher is of the view that the various types are main contributors to the problem behaviour which were influenced by the factors mentioned. The process includes the factors of the behaviours namely: the biological factor; those influences arising from genetic make-up of parents or traits that are transferred from parents to off springs as well as those arising from the physical environment such as low birth weight, anoxia, prematurity and other birth complications, the psychological factor; the mental and emotional state as well as the child's experience, those involved in the child's life, and the social factor; those that took place historically in the lives of the individuals, including based on current relationships such as large family size, family discord etc. (Ettinger, 2001). The result of the various interactions /relationships between the factors may lead to aggression, defiance, withdrawal, inattentiveness, hyperactivity, distress and impulsivity which will have positive or negative consequences or effects on the child.

The effects have been grouped under; classroom activities, social and across life span. Classroom activities; those that have impact on the teaching and learning process, Social; deals with communication/interaction skills with the social environments and, across the lifespan; conduct which may develop into patterns of behaviour that can follow the children throughout their life. All these may lead to a problem child which requires some management strategies such as: proactive interventions, positive behaviour support and comprehensive classroom management.

The availability of proactive interventions; (classroom conditions that make behavioural difficulties less likely to occur), positive behaviour support; (positive behavioural interventions and systems to achieve socially important behaviour change) and comprehensive classroom management (emphasizes the importance of positive teacher-children and peer relationships in managing children behaviour) will be used to

address or cover up the effects of the problem behaviour. These practices may help improve the children behaviour or children exhibiting appropriate behaviour.

2.4 Empirical Review

2.4.1 Children's problem behaviour and classroom management strategies

Children's problem behaviour and classroom management strategies was evident in Kamarulzaman and Siew's (2015) study. The study explores some of the problem behaviour that occurred in a classroom in a preschool at Klang Valley area. A classroom of newly enrolled Children of 4 and 5-years olds in a Kindergarten at Klang Valley was chosen for the purpose. There were 14 children in the classroom, 12 of them were Chinese, one was Malay and another one was Indian. Classroom observation was done as data collection. Both teacher and children in the class were seen for 30 minutes, from 10:00 to 10:30 am during English lesson, and also during 15 minutes of meal time. A head teacher was interviewed and recorded for the purpose of data collection. Permission was obtained prior to the observation. A few visits were done to the preschool to familiarize the children with the researchers to avoid them behave differently when being observed. Findings from Kamarulzaman and Siew (2015) study showed that there were few misbehaviours which occurred in the classroom, namely aggression, inventiveness, walking around and refusing to submit worksheet, making noise, and pushing and hitting one another. A few reasons be linked to such behaviours. Those behaviours were seemed normal to be done by children, but classroom management by teachers were important in making sure that children could have a better learning environment and teaching and learning process to take place smoothly. However, the study indicated that most teachers used technique and strategies such as; redirection, visual cues, and time-out in managing the problem behaviour.

In Kamarulzaman and Siew's (2015) study, teachers admitted they needed more training in the field of children's behaviour and classroom management in order to accommodate and teach children with problem behaviour. This study shows that teachers' colleges and universities need to have more trained lecturers in Early childhood education. Also, teachers expressed concern that school Early childhood coordinators at the various district offices do not have enough knowledge about the Early childhood education concept and need to be trained as well, so that collaboratively they could implement the principles and practices of the early childhood education.

2.4.1.1 Externalizing behaviours

Externalizing problems among children is acknowledged as a serious mental health issue. Externalizing behaviour problems is one of two primary forms of child/children maladaptive behaviours. It is a distinguished independent construct in children and adolescent psychopathology (Achenbach, 2008). Externalizing problems may be more prevalent among children who are predisposed by psychosocial risk, and males may be more prone to externalize than females (Maschi, Morgan, Bradley, & Hatcher, 2008; Young, Young, Reiser, & Richardson, 2010). The evidence also appears to suggest that there is a notable step-up in levels of externalizing behaviours during childhood (Aguilar, Sroufe, Egeland & Carlson, 2000; Moffitt, Caspi, Harrington, & Milne, 2002). Some of the deficit in the family that are noted risk factors for externalizing problems are: poverty, maternal depression, family conflict, and harsh parenting (Aguilar et. al., 2000; Denham, Workman, Cole, Weissbrod, Kendziora, & Zahn- Waxler, 2000).

Hinshaw (2002), conceptualized externalizing behaviours as those established in the form of aggression, delinquency, and hyperactivity. The literature expands the

category to include negative, hostile, refused to take instructions, destructiveness and defiant behaviours which characterize relations with adults, particularly parents and teachers (Bradley & Corwyn, 2007). Goddard (2010) conducted a study to explore the factors associated with aggressive behaviour in children. The findings of the study showed that, aggressive behaviour displayed by children is a growing and common problem of concern. The study found out that aggression was associated with behaviours that lead to harm; such as behaviours intended to harm even if the attempt fails, such as when a person attempts to shoot, but misses a human target and that aggression is a prominent feature in childhood, often labelled as tantrums in some cases. The study even concluded that violence is aggression, but not all aggression is violence.

The Social Learning Theory to a greater extent shows how the environment influences our behaviours in our everyday lives. Some researchers argue there are different types of aggression and make a distinction between instrumental and reactive aggression (Fontaine, 2007) In the United Kingdom (UK), society appears to be in a state of confusion and disbelief as the number of lives lost as a result of the series of aggressive attacks perpetrated by young people increases. Even very young children show features of aggressive behaviour; by eighteen months, children can be observed being physically aggressive toward siblings, peers and adults (Hay, Castle, & Davies, 2000; Keenan & Shaw, 2004; Keenan & Wakschlag, 2000; Tremblay.,2004). The study further affirms that, the vast majority of children will learn this behaviour based on the cues they receive from their environment. Aggression is a kind of behaviour that causes damage or harm to others. Majority of respondents were of the view that, children become violent when aggressive.

Children with aggression exhibit frightening and threatening behaviour like (young child kicks, bites or fights with other children). This has been indeed, supported

by a research which has shown that aggressive children are at high risk of later serious and chronic violent behaviour and suggests that there is stability in aggression from adolescence to middle age (Kokko & Pulkkinen, 2005; Loeber & Stouthamer-Loeber, 2008). For example, correlational findings from research have shown that, in young male, physical aggression at age 8 was moderately stable to physical aggression at age 30 ($r = .25$) (Huesmann, Eron, Lefkowitz, & Walder, 1984) and weakly stable from age eight years of age to severe physical aggression at age 48 ($r = .15$) (Dubow, 2006). Nagin and Tremblay (2004) found that aggressive behaviour at age six predicted self-reports of violence and serious delinquency during adolescence among boys, nearly one-half of all children who exhibited moderate levels of aggression at age six showed notably lower levels of aggression by ages 10 to 12.

Numerous surveys have associated family interaction patterns with the presence of externalizing behaviours in children and adolescents (Formoso, Gonzales, & Aiken, 2000; Gardner, 1992; Pettit & Dodge, 2003). One of the primary contexts of interaction is the parent- child duo. The literature shows a relationship between parenting and disruptive behaviours. Various views of parenting and childrearing practices, such as poor parenting (Frick & Lahey, 2002), level of parental engagement, conflict management approaches between parent and child, parent monitoring, harsh discipline, and lack of consistency in discipline have been correlated with disruptive behaviours among children (Frick, 2004; Wasserman, Miller, Pinner & Jaramilo, 2006).

In addition, some parental dynamics, such as harsh punitive discipline, are correlated with hyperactivity, aggression, oppositional and internalizing behaviours among children (Stormshak, Bierman, McMahon & Lengua, 2000). Parental negativity and disparity in treatment toward siblings, contribute to externalizing behaviours (Pike, McGuire, Hetherington, Reiss, & Plomin, 2006). The link between the absence or low

maternal warmth to depression and oppositional behaviours is well established (Eddy, Leve, Fagot, 2001; Gray & Steinberg, 2009). Authoritative parenting that neglects to demonstrate warmth may be perceived as rejection and could possibly result in anxiety, depression, and other forms of internalizing behaviours (Gray & Steinberg, 2009).

The research literature associates the externalizing behaviour construct with a group of behaviour problems which children manifest within their external environment (Alexander, 2011). The behaviours represent the negative response of children to certain experiences and conditions within their societal context (Campbell, Shaw & Gilliom, 2000; Eisenberg, Cumberland, Spinrad, Fabes, Shepard & Reiser, 2001). The term externalizing behaviour is employed to key out less severe disruptive and destructive behaviours (Shaw & Winslow, 2007). The classification includes argumentation and nonconformity with adult directives, hostile behaviours toward others, impulsivity, and hyperactivity (McMahon, 2004). These are broadly thought to be the precursor to more serious behaviours. Hinshaw (2004) conceptualized externalizing behaviours as those established in the form of aggression, delinquency, and hyperactivity. The literature expands the category to include negative, hostile, refusal to take instructions, destructiveness and defiant behaviours which characterize relations with adults, particularly parents and teachers (Bradley & Corwyn, 2007). The term externalizing is used synonymously with conduct problems and under-controlled behaviour and includes variables like acting out and aggressive behaviours (Achenbach & Edelbrock, 2008; Dreger, 2002).

The externalizing behaviour category can be dividing into two sub-types that are conceptually described as rule breaking behaviours and aggressive behaviour. The literature has set up the co-occurrence of rule breaking and aggressive behaviour (Achenbach, 2001). There is consistency in the factor analytic literature which classifies

rule breaking as a covert non-aggressive and delinquent factor and defines aggressive behaviour in terms of an overt and aggressive oppositional factor (Shaw & Winslow, 2007). The sub-types follow different developmental trajectories and severity of symptoms. The aggressive behaviour syndrome has a childhood onset and is committed to be transitory. It gradually decreases after the early onset, then increases again briefly during mid-adolescence and is resolved by adulthood. Rule breaking behaviour, on the other hand, appears to increase with age (Eley, Lichtenstein & Moffitt, 2003).

Cullinan (2002) separates various types of emotional and behavioural problems in terms of seven descriptors: defiance and aggression, hyperactivity, non-compliance, socialized deviance, anxiety, depression, relationship problems, and learning disorders. Hall and Nancy (2003) conducted a study to investigate children problem behaviour that occurred in a classroom in Northern Ireland. The study found that, in-school most preschool children exhibit various form of problem behaviour but the predominant ones are aggression and refusal to take instructions. The study found that in-school and out-of-school, school females aspires vocations such as law, administration, nursing, medicine and accountancy. Wilson and Irvine (2006) asserts that in this study, respondents ascribe to non-compliance as the behaviour which is often exhibited by pre-schoolers. Smith and Carpenter (2005) also concluded his study by stating that, their findings showed that 28.3% of respondents indicated that they children frequently seen showing signs of refusal to instructions ; 21.4% indicated that their children display aggression ; and 12.0% show destructive behaviour in private preschool. The lowest problem behaviour expressed by children were anxiety problems (1.7%) and disruptive behaviour (2.4%). Colvin, (2009) a study by non-compliance has also become highly prevalent within the classroom and teachers have cited this problem as one of the greatest stressors and concerns they encounter. Colvin, (2009) states that

non-compliant behaviour has been the overall highest-ranking reason for sending children to the office.

In a survey of 3,305 kindergarten teachers, Lin, Lawrence, and Gorrell (2003) found that 78% of teachers rated “follows directions” as “very important” and “essential” kindergarten entry-level skills. Only the domains of “tells needs and thoughts” and “is not disruptive” were rated higher. Heaviside and Farris (2003) found that over half of the 1,339 kindergarten teachers they surveyed noted that compliance was an important factor for kindergarten readiness. Although compliance appears to be a very important skill, noncompliance appears to be prevalent among preschool-aged children (Roberts & Powers, 2008; Webster-Stratton, 2003). Wruble (2001) found an instruction completion mean of 6 s (range, 0.5 to 14 s) across 15 child–parent dyads. This empirically derived mean compliance latency corresponded to many of the nonempirically derived compliance criteria in the literature (Forehand & King, 2005); however, because multiple manipulated variables were not systematically controlled during the instructional conditions (unclear and indirect instructions were delivered instead of clear and direct instructions, parents sometimes completed instructions for the children).

Tay and Sim (2008) found that hyperactivity is a common complaint in children is characterized by increase in motor activity to a level that interferes with the child's functioning at school, at home or socially. Tay and Sim (2008), established that hyperactive behaviour encompasses characteristics such as aggressiveness, constant activity, impulsiveness, poor concentration and easy blurted of the answer before the question. Sim, (2008), some children with hyperactive disorder will go to the extent of often fidgeting with hands or feet or squirms in seat, leaves seat in classroom, often runs about or climbs excessively in situations where it is inappropriate. Tay and Sim

(2008), found that, hyperactive children may be limited to subjective feelings of restlessness, talks excessively and blurts out answers to questions before the questions have been completed

Tserkovnikova (2011), contends that elements of the destructive activity of a person appear in early childhood and the early ages of children destruction could be very close or similar to vandalism. These destructive activities of children affect classroom learning. A study by Kruzhkova, (2014), on vandalism from childhood to adolescence. The objective of the study was to investigate the genesis of destructive /vandal behaviour and the socio-psychological and individual personality factors in the formation of readiness to destroy public property and the property of others. The study further concluded that, basic vandal activity originates in the early stages and may be characterized by destructive actions such as throwing objects or items and damaging classroom materials.

Further, Cullinan (2002) suggests that the majority of these descriptors fall under two major categories: those that place the individual in conflict with his/her environment, labelled environmental conflict, and those that interfere with an individual's personal development, labelled personal disturbance. These two descriptive categories align closely with the commonly used definitions of externalizing and internalizing behaviours. Externalizing behaviours are behaviours that are more apparent to observers and include physical and verbal aggression (e.g., Fighting, destructiveness, and disobedience) (Campbell, 2002; Campbell, 2005). Children, whom many authors consider the main perpetrators of destructive (Elliott, Huizinga, & Menard, 2009; LeBlanc & Freshette, 2008; Pirozhkov, 2004; Vatova, 2007; Vorobyeva & Kruzhkova, 2014), are quite often prone to vandalism actions against a stranger or

public property. This is similar to a study by AACAP, (2012) .Available research suggests that, destruction includes intentionally destroying property or any wilful behaviour aimed at destroying, altering, or defacing property belonging to another. Vatova, (2007) children with intentional destroying/vandal behaviours are repeatedly violent or confrontational and perhaps disobedient, start fights, push, kick, hit or grab, throw things, verbally threaten classmates or staff, or destroy property.

Based on the literature above, the authors concluded that, pupils with externalizing behaviour present to others as aggressive and disruptive, hyperactive, defiance (overt behaviours). The teacher and other peers in the classroom are more likely to be distracted by pupils who are overtly disruptive and obtrusive; hence, classrooms with high levels of externalizing behaviours are more likely to affect individual pupils or interfere with classroom activities as well as having immediate and lasting effects on individual academic performance.

2.4.1.2 Internalising behaviour

Internalizing behaviours constitute another cluster of behavioural rules that distinguish the response of children to their environment. The condition refers to conditions whose primary characteristic is disordered mood or emotion. These rules of behaviour are primarily internalized psychological reactions to inherent stresses in the environment. Children build up or display behaviours such as loneliness, social withdrawal, anxiety, inhibition, somatic complaints, and depression in response to stimuli from their environment (Kovacs, 2007, Kovacs & Devlin, 2008)

Eisenberg, et al, (2001) in an attempt to distinguish emotionality from internalizing, developed two definitions to include social withdrawal, anxiety, low, and psychosomatic complaints. The study found that children with internalizing behaviours were susceptible to sadness, low attention regulation, and low impulsivity. This cluster

of behaviour is also known by other conditions such as neurotic and over-controlled (Campbell et. al., 2000). The literature also emphasizes the effects of parents and families on internalizing symptoms in children (Hughes & Giallo, 2008). Studies show that punitive discipline, maternal depression, and family conflicts related to marital adjustment were significantly related to internalizing behaviour among adolescent boys (Leve, Kim & Pears, 2005). Poor family functioning exerts an influence on varying levels of disturbance in moods and emotions among teenagers. Such mood disturbances can be manifested as anxiety and depression (Liber, List, Van Loey & Kef, 2006).

McClintock (2005) argues that Internalizing behaviour problems affect both the child's social and academic life. Research has demonstrated that level of self-esteem is positively correlated with academic ability (Kugle, Clements & Powell, 2003). The research further stipulated that academic ability was more attributed to self-esteem than to ethnicity and socioeconomic status. Self-esteem and self-worth are not unfamiliar concepts. For decades, the cognitive-behavioural arena has commented on how self-perception can affect many areas of a person's life. What seems to happen is that a child with low self-esteem will be more preoccupied with his identity than with academics; therefore, attempting to compensate for one area causes failure in another (Kugle et al., 2003).

Base on this literature the study concluded that pupils with internalizing such as inattentive behaviours exhibit covert behaviours that are not as noticeable to others. The teacher and classroom peers are not distracted by children with behavioural problems that are covert (i.e., simply looking outside the window or being preoccupied by their feelings of nervousness or sadness (Warner-Rogers, Taylor, Taylor & Sandberg, 2000). Many pupils with internalizing behaviours are ignored in the classroom context

(Henricsson & Rydell, 2004). Classrooms with high levels of internalizing or inattentive behaviours are not likely to affect individual pupils or children.

2.4.2 Views of teachers regarding factors responsible for problem behaviour

It would be most effective for the caseworker to utilize a biopsychosocial approach, which explores the biological, psychological, and social factors to understand the child's situation or concern more fully from an interrelated system (Ettinger, 2001; Sarafino 2006).

The biological factors: Prospective studies from infancy have examined a range of biological (i.e. perinatal) risk factors such as low birth weight, anoxia, prematurity, and other birth complications as predictors of later developmental and behavioural problems in children. Several studies have linked prematurity (Rose, Feldman, Rose, Wallace & McCarton (2002), and very low birth weight (e.g. McGee, Silva & Williams, 2004; Szatmari, Saigal, Rosenbaum, Campbell & King 2000) to somewhat higher rates of attentional and behavioural problems among preschool and school-age children. However, in many of these studies, elevated levels of hyperactivity, attention and behaviour problems are typically accounted for by intervening variables such as developmental delay and aspects of the family environment (McGee et. al., 2004 Szatmari et al., 2000). Lindeboom (2009) use a policy influencing time of school exit in the UK, and find little evidence of a causal relationship between parental and child and infant health as well as parental health and smoking behaviour. Lindeboom, (2009) concluded that, parental (maternal health) adversely result in behavioural disorders among children. Behrman and Wolfe, (2007) found that, maternal health and education affects child health impart on child's behaviour. Bellisle, (2007) established that, diet could affect cognitive ability and behaviour in children. Nutrient composition and meal pattern could exert immediate or long-term, beneficial or adverse effects on a child.

Beneficial effects mainly result from the correction of poor nutritional status. For example, thiamine treatment reverses aggressiveness in thiamine-deficient adolescents and children (Bellisle, 2007).

According to Bellisle (2007) a good regular dietary habit was the best way to ensure optimal mental and behavioural performance at all times. SACN (2007) contend that diet lacking essential nutrients or containing too many ingredients that were detrimental in excess was likely to have adverse consequences for brain function and thus mental health and behaviour. Richardson, (2007) argues that significant changes in children's behaviour could be produced by the removal of colourings and additives from their diet (and) benefit would accrue for all children from such a change and not just for those already showing hyperactive behaviour or who are at risk of allergic reactions.

In contrast McCrary and Royer (2011) use age-at-school-entry policies in California and Texas, and find that potential education has small effects on infant health (as measured by birth weight, prematurity, and rate of infant mortality and children's behaviour), and does not affect prenatal behaviours (as measured by smoking rates and prenatal care). Currie & Moretti (2003) also affirms that, higher maternal education improves infant health

Temperament has been investigated as an aetiological factor in child behaviour problems. This term has been used to describe the intensity of particular moods, the susceptibility to emotional situations and the strength and speed of response (Allport, 2001). Children are typically described on a continuum from temperamentally 'easy' to 'difficult'. It has been suggested that temperament is part of an individual's constitution or hereditary make-up, and this view is supported by evidence obtained

from observations of infants and studies of twins or of biological versus adoptive parent–child similarities (Singer, 2004). Although early temperament appears to be functionally related to the emergence of early onset behavioural problems and conduct disorder, efforts aimed at predicting such problems from temperamental indices have produced mixed results (Slabach, Morrow & Wachs, 2001). Only a low to moderate relationship has been found between infant temperament and later behaviour problems (Sanson, Oberklaid, Pedlow & Prior (2001). Nonetheless, a difficult temperament in early childhood does appear to place a child at increased risk for the subsequent development of antisocial behaviour.

A number of researchers have proposed various interactive models in efforts to describe the process in which precursors and consequences of temperamental differences might manifest themselves in divergent developmental pathways. For example, it has been proposed that hyperactivity is a significant and perhaps necessary risk factor for the so-called ‘early starter’ pathway (Moffitt, 2003). Children who display conduct problems and hyper-activity display more serious and higher levels of behaviour problems and have a poorer prognosis than children displaying either of these problems in isolation (Hinshaw, Lahey & Hart 2003). Moffitt (2003) has suggested that subtle neuropsychological variations in the infant’s central nervous system resulting from a variety of prenatal, perinatal and postnatal difficulties (e.g. exposure to toxic agents, birth complications, heredity) can increase the likelihood that the infant will be ‘temperamentally difficult’, displaying such characteristics as irritability, irregularity, hyperactivity and impulsivity.

The biological aspect of the biopsychosocial approach explores factors such as potential health and physiological concerns that may cause a negative impact on the child’s welfare and contribute to his or her ‘acting-out’ behaviour. For instance, studies

show that the nutritional status of children suffers a direct impingement on their development rate, maturation, and overall physical and psychological wellbeing. These elements can negatively affect long-term results of later health, psychological strain, and cognitive functioning (Panter-Brick & Worthman, 2009). The lower nutritional status in early childhood that has been shown to affect cognitive outcomes often results in negative behaviour patterns in school (Saracho & Spodek, 2006). Researchers have found that children who are disruptive in early childhood are more probable to be ruled out by peers. Peer rejection or lack of friends in early childhood puts children at risk of adjustment problems, depression, and delinquency in adolescence (Barker, Pedersen, & Vitaro, 2007).

At the surface grade, a malnourished child may easily be improperly assessed as a youngster who just acts inappropriately and, because of this, has no acquaintances. Thus, intervention may consist of behaviour modification for the inappropriate conduct and still charging the child for how he or she works, both of which overlook the genuine root of the trouble malnutrition (Ettinger, 2001). The biopsychosocial approach allows all the mortals who are necessitated in the child's life to deliver a fuller apprehension of the child's situation from all the interrelated aspects that may be negatively impacting his or her development or health. These may involve biological factors, such as a possible allergy to certain nutrients that define the nutritional intake throughout the day; therefore, interventions may include having a nutritionist discuss food supplements or vitamins with the child and parents, and ways to provide the sustenance that the children require.

The psychological factor: understanding the psychological factors, such as the child's experience and behaviour allows those involved in the child's life a better understanding of the presenting or progressing concern. For example, body image can

play a huge factor in behaviour patterns among children; children as young as six may be at risk of depression due to poor body image (Calkins, Degnan, Hill, & Keane, (2006). When a child shows a biological concern, such as malnourishment, further psychological exploration may indicate that the child is purposely not eating adequately in fear of clearing too much weight, in an effort to win approval from friends, or perhaps the child does not experience hunger due to symptoms of depression (Ettinger, 2001). Depressive disorder has been found to be a major characteristic of early days in the juvenile system (Fisher, Larkin, Lucas, McReynolds & Wasserman, 2003). Often, such problems develop in situations in early childhood that could have been detected, assessed and treated through intervention.

The social factor: A variety of sociodemographic factors have been implicated in the aetiology of child behaviour problems. Children described as behaviourally problematic are more likely to come from families of lower socioeconomic status (SES). Low family SES may be especially salient in both the early onset of serious conduct disordered behaviour (Offord, Boyle & Racine, 2008) and the maintenance of chronic and serious antisocial behaviour (Farrington, 2005; Werner and Smith, 2000). Low family SES is consistently correlated with a range of risk factors for development and maintenance of child behaviour problems including early onset maternal pregnancy, perinatal complications, large family size, family discord and parental psychopathology (Eron, Guerra & Huesmann, 2007; Offord et al., 2008). Typically, when key family correlates of SES are controlled, SES shows a much-reduced role in accounting for externalizing problems for both preschool and school- age children (Robins, 2008). The effects of low SES may be mediated by associated adverse family factors such as inconsistent parenting and family instability (Elder & Caspi, 2008).

Najman, Bor, Andersen, O'callaghan & Williams, (2000) examine the impact of maternal health and lifestyle on the development and behaviour of offspring and conclude that cigarette smoking and other forms of substance use or abuse (e.g. alcohol) during pregnancy may constitute both a pre- and perinatal risk factor for developmental and behavioural problems. For example, cigarette smoking during pregnancy potentiates the occurrence of other perinatal risk factors such as prematurity and low birth weight (Abel, 2004; DiFranza & Lew, 2005). It is believed to contribute to adverse reproductive outcomes primarily through fetal hypoxia and may also have direct effects on the developing fetus (Huesmann, 2007). Research on human neonates suggests an association between maternal smoking during pregnancy and increased rates of a variety of neurobehavioral difficulties (Ettinger, 2001), all of which may be relevant to temperamental differences observed from early infancy.

In addition to research illustrating neurophysiological deficits, a number of studies have found an association between maternal smoking during pregnancy and a higher incidence of reported conduct problems in offspring children (Fisher et al, 2003). Several studies have linked maternal smoking in pregnancy to heightened rates of inattention, impulsivity and motor hyperactivity in off-spring during childhood ((Fisher et al, 2003).). This suggests that prenatal maternal smoking may be particularly salient as a risk factor for the development of ADHD. However, these studies have not adequately controlled the problem behaviour due to factors such as socio-economic status, parental psychosocial adjustment and parent-child interaction.

Najman et al. (2000) also argue that a functional relationship between parental dyadic adjustment and childhood behaviour problems is well established in the literature. Children in families characterized by dyadic instability and conflict consistently demonstrate significantly higher rates of both internalizing and

externalizing behaviour problems (Elder & Caspi, 2008; Najman et al., 2000). Although dyadic instability and conflict may engender direct effects in the development of childhood aggression and antisocial behaviour (e.g. learning of aggressive and coercive behaviour), the overall pattern of results suggests that dyadic discord and dissolution represent only modest predictors of chronic behavioural problems (Kazdin, 2007). Rather, evidence suggests that dyadic discord and dissolution impact most strongly by way of their direct effects on parental adjustment (e.g. maternal depression) and parent-child interaction (e.g. inconsistent or dysfunctional parenting). Two major theories which support these findings were Attachment Theory (Bowlby, 1969, 1988), Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977) and the Ecological theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Boadu, (2015) contends that, the Attachment theory seeks to preserve some of Freud's insights (about relationships and early experiences in which infant behaviour is organized around managing ever-growing instinctual drives) by casting them in a more scientific framework. Conceptually, the theories assumed that, children behaviour are as a result of the relationship which exists between the child and the parents or other significant adults. Attachment Theory explains how substantial the child's relationships with parents and other significant adults or primary care-givers can influence their behavioural development.

Bandura (1977) emphasizes that, behaviour is learned from the environment through the process of observational learning. Zagora, (2014) contends that, understanding of parental relationships is about system, set of emotional relationships of the parent to the child, parental perception of the child and the means of action and behaviour between them. Parental attitude is a part of the specificity of the parental relationships. It directly influences the attitudes and behaviour of the children. Hay, (2005) also affirms that, it has often been assumed that peers are less important in early

childhood, when relationships with family members are more influential. However, recent research shows clearly that even infants spend time with peers, and that some three- and four-year-olds are already having trouble being accepted by their peers. Hay, (2005) established that, early problems with peers have negative consequences for the child's later social and emotional development. To understand why some children find it hard to relate to peers, it is important to study the early development of peer relations or relationship. While it may be acknowledged that peers are important, poor peer relations are assumed to be a common correlate of children's behaviour problems (Campbell & Paulauskas, 2009; Serafica & Harway, 2009), and most child clinicians take for granted that children who have problems at home will also have difficulty at school and with peers.

Consequences of maternal marital conflict such as depression (Fergusson, Horwood, Gretton & Shannon, 2005; Richman, Stevenson & Graham, 2002) and anxiety (Bates & Bayles, 2004) have consistently been linked to both maternal and independent observer ratings of problem child behaviour in clinical samples. Children of depressed or anxious mothers appear to be at higher risk for a number of behaviour problems including antisocial, acting-out and withdrawal problems, emotional problems and self-control, poor concentration and cognitive deficits, psychiatric problems and poor school adjustment (Webster-Stratton, 2007)). Additionally, research examining the interaction of indices of maternal depression with maternal perceptions of child adjustment in clinic families has consistently demonstrated that mothers reporting higher levels of depression perceive their children as less well-adjusted and more problematic (Brody, Stoneman & Burke, 2008; 2006; Panaccione & Wahler, 2006). These mothers also appear to interact differently with their children, engaging in significantly higher levels of aversive and coercive parenting behaviour than their

non-depressed counterparts (Pannaccione & Wahler, 2006). Research examining family correlates and predictors of problem disordered behaviour in childhood typically point to aspects of the parent-child relationship (Eron et al., 2001) or to specific aspects of parents' management style and discipline practices (Patterson DeBarysche & Ramsey, 2009). Indeed, there is growing consensus that family disruption or adversity in the form of maternal depression, marital discord, divorce, or other stresses have their major impact on child behaviour indirectly because they disrupt parenting (Song & Hattie, 2004).

In particular, the quality of parent-child and family relationships has been implicated as a risk factor for the development of behavioural problems in children. Parents of children with behaviour problems show lower levels of acceptance of the child, and of warmth and affection and report lower levels of attachment and positive feelings than parents of non-problematic children (Loeber & Dishion, 2003). A lack of warmth and engagement coupled with negative maternal control appear particularly important as predictors of later non-compliant/aggressive behaviour in young children (Bates and Bayles, 2004; Campbell et. al., 2001). Parental disciplinary practices characterized by a combination of warmth, firm but fair control, and the use of explanations and reasoning are associated with child behavioural compliance (Crockenberg & Litman, 2000; Kuczynski Kochanska, Radke- Yarrow & Ginius-Brown, 2007). Maccoby (2000: p.29) highlights the importance of parental contributions to the child's developing sense of identity in promoting coherence in the child's self-concept and suggests that a coherent self-concept may function as a means of keeping the child on a relatively steady course, producing consistencies in behaviour in the long-term. Thus, the nature of parent-child interactions may assist in setting a particular trajectory of child behaviour as a consequence of the kind of self-concept the

child develops. Song and Hattie (2004) developed a conceptual model of home environment based on various studies that investigate the relative importance of family structure, social status and family psycho-logical characteristics in the formation of child self-concept. They found that family psychological characteristics such as parental evaluations, interests and expectations as those aspects which impact most directly and profoundly.

In examining reciprocal effects, research findings show that difficult children more often elicit inconsistent and aversive parenting behaviour from their mothers. For example, mothers with hyperactive, aggressive or non-compliant children have been shown to be less patient, more power assertive and less consistent (Patterson, 2000; Patterson et al., 2009). Mothers of preschool-age children rated as being more difficult or having more behavioural problems cite their interactions as less positive, more negative and more conflict ridden than other mothers (Barron & Earls, 2004; Richman et al., 2002).

Longitudinal studies have demonstrated that behaviour patterns and personality are shown during the early formative years (Ball, 2002). Young children behave according to their working environment. When positions are stressful or traumatic, children will display problematic behaviours that resemble their environment (Walters, 2008). Therefore, it is important for all those involved in a child's life to research the social factors in the biopsychosocial approach in society to understand the influencing external factors that play a part in the child's behaviour (Sarafino, 2006). Patterns of behaviour from early childhood will usually remain when environmental factors remain to work. Therefore, behaviour that have remained from early childhood actually cumulate or snowball into later lifestyles (Ettinger, 2001). Long- term negative influences in a youth's life are factors that could get into unhealthy behaviour, drug

usage, and/or criminal offence. The continued practice of problem behaviours often caused youth to experience low self-concept or self-worth, and in turn can increase the possibility of further criminal activity, school failure, and/or substance abuse (Healey, Marsh, Parada & Yeung, 2001). Numerous events can negatively impact a child's lifetime, which becomes the influencing factor leading to problematic behaviours. For example, some children may experience fear and grief and can encounter mental health concerns when parents are in high dispute. Such experiences may become sources of behaviour problems such as aggressiveness and/or demanding (Peterson & Zill, 2006). Severe sibling conflict can contribute to poor adjustment outcomes in pre-school and primary school-age children, which can shape psychological maladjustment disorders, such as anxiety, depressed mood, and delinquency in adolescence (Briggs, Burwell & Stocker, 2002).

One other issue relating to these outcomes is child abuse. Substantial evidence shows that stories of maltreatment in children account for the elevated symptoms of depression, anxiety, posttraumatic stress, suicide ideation, other clinically significant mental health problems and delinquency in adolescence (Najman et al, 2000). The Health Council of Canada (2006) admits that one in seven Canadian children have mental illnesses, many of which emerged in early childhood and will persist with greater intensity into adulthood.

In the scenario of the malnourished child, a possible social factor could be that the parents are very busy and, therefore, rely on fast foods as the main source of meals for the folk. As component of the intervention may require the case worker making a referral to a dietician or health nurse so that the family may find out more about the importance of nutrition, especially in the early childhood years. According to Ettinger (2001), psychological approach focuses on creating consciousness of what is happening

for the child that causes him or her act in a negative fashion and possibly get on into later maladjustment of criminal activity, substance misuse and/or mental wellness matters. When all concerned become aware of the child's care, either in the biological, psychological and/or social form, intervention can be implemented to create possible change and a possible healthier future. Ettinger (2001) also argues that intervention may consist of a number of factors. It may involve psychoeducation; for example, a take of a parent with a mental illness may need to find out about the signs and symptoms of mental illnesses so that he or she can experience a fuller apprehension of what the parent is breaking through. It may include skill enhancement; for instance, a child may demonstrate inability to share effectively with conflict.

Beckner (2007) is of the opinion that another factor may be sustained; for example, the tiddler of a parent with a mental illness will be required to develop coping skills, discuss emotions, or join a support group. Intervention will generally include counselling; for instance, a Children who demonstrates anxiety or phobias may benefit from cognitive behaviour therapy to realize his or her underlying thoughts. This attack may also involve referrals. A multi-agency access may include acting with different services, agencies, and teams of professionals to offer services that satisfy the needs of the children and their relatives. In summary, a team approach may involve schools, professionals, and parents/guardians, all turning in concert to fill the child's needs (Ettinger, 2001).

2.4.3 The effects of problem behaviours on classroom activities

While externalizing behaviours often present themselves as children age, such difficulties often are comorbid with academic difficulties and internalizing problems as well (Campbell, 2005). Many types of behaviour disrupt children learning. These include talking out of turn, being out of the seat without permission, not paying

attention and distracting other children by making noise or touching them (Hinshaw, 2002). It has been suggested that children exhibiting disruptive behaviours may have difficulties learning new skills (DEC, 2009). Finn, Pannozzo & Voelkl, (2005) also state that teachers can make a big difference in their classrooms by responding to disruptive behaviour by making changes to the lessons, asking students to read out loud, calling on certain students more often to improve academic growth. Thomas and Guskin (2001) and Thomas and Clark (2008) examined disrupted behaviours in young children between the ages of 0-4 using Diagnostic Classification 0-3, which is an addition to the DSM-IV-TR (2000) used for young children. The authors suggest that the observable behaviour is actually a result from the child's internal stress. Of the 64 children assessed the most common diagnoses from the DC-03 were traumatic stress disorder 23%, disorder of affect 41%, and regulatory disorder 30%.

Regnier (2008) found that seventh grade children with behaviour disorders are not only more frequently absent and tardy than their non-behaviour disordered counterparts, but also are less likely to complete their homework and more likely to earn failing grades. Furthermore, children with behaviour disorders are more likely to exhibit inappropriate behaviours in the classroom and in turn lead their teachers to discuss those problems more often at team meetings (Regnier, 2008). While the above research focused on children/Children diagnosed with problem behaviour, previous research has supported the link between early childhood challenging behaviours and adolescent behaviour disorders (Campbell, 2005; Hartup & Moore, 2000; Richman, et. al., 2002). Therefore, findings from the above works suggest that challenging behaviours in the preschool years or early years adversely impacts children's learning: by extension, such problems seem likely to result in difficulties in the child's future.

Moreover, McGee, et al. (2004) report that children who displayed attention and behaviour problems and were generally regarded as “hard-to-manage”, continued to demonstrate behavioural as well as academic difficulties in elementary school. It also has been suggested that children exhibiting challenging behaviours may have difficulties learning new skills (DEC 2009). Richman, et. al., 2002) found that young boys who displayed behavioural difficulties until age eight were more likely to perform lower on measures of reading ability and general intelligence; however, such deficits were not observed in girls

From the above information the author can conclude, that pupils with externalizing behaviour present to others as aggressive and disruptive overt behaviours. The teacher and other peers in the classroom are more likely to be distracted by Children who are overtly disruptive and obtrusive; hence, classrooms with high levels of externalizing behaviours are more likely to affect individual pupils. For instance, when the classroom behaviours consist of much overt, externalizing behaviour, the teacher has to stop the academic lesson and spend instructional time to intervene in the externalizing behaviours. The academic instruction and learning in the classroom are impeded because the teacher and peers are distracted by the externalizing behaviours.\

2.4.3.1 The effects of behaviours on social relationships

Boulware, Schwartz, Clement and McBride (2009) state that challenging behaviours displayed by young children can affect many domains of functioning including social skills, communication, and play. Young children who demonstrate problem /challenging behaviours in classrooms, playgroups or other social environments are at risk of a number of later difficulties, including social exclusion from peers, and in some extreme cases, social isolation for the child (Doss & Reichle, 2001; Katz & McClellan, 2007).

According to Hay, (2005) recent research shows clearly that, even infants spend time with peers, and that some three- and four-year-olds are already having trouble being accepted by their peers because early problems with peers have negative consequences for the child's later social and emotional development. Hay (2005) further emphasized that, peer acceptance is affected by many factors in a child's life, such as their relationships at home with parents and siblings, the parents' own relationship and the family's levels of social support. Additionally, research suggests that children who continued to have problems until the age of nine rated themselves and were rated by their mothers as being less socially competent, hyperactive, and aggressive (Ewing, as cited in Campbell, 2005).

Also, difficult behaviours, specifically aggression and impulsivity, are associated with other more deviant behaviours. As a result, there is an increased likelihood that peers will dislike the individual child exhibiting disruptive behaviour (Hartup & Moore, 2000). Hay, Payne and Chadwick, (2004) however contends that, peer acceptance is most directly affected by children's own behaviour. Studies showed that highly aggressive children are not accepted by their peers but this may depend on gender (Crick, Casas & Mosher, 2007) Shore (2016) suggests that, some children are isolated from classmates for a much different reason: their behaviours may turn others off. Literature established that, young children who demonstrate problem behaviours in classrooms, playgroups or other social environments are at risk of a number of later difficulties, including social exclusion from peers, and in some extreme cases, social isolation for the child (Doss & Reichle, 2001; Katz & McClellan, 2007). As a result, there is an increased likelihood that peers will dislike the individual child exhibiting disruptive behaviours (Hartup & Moore, 2000). Likewise, children who display disruptive behaviour in school settings also pay a price in terms of academic

underachievement (Hinshaw, 2002), increased rates of drop out (Sutherland & Wehby, 2001), and rejection by peers (Coie & Dodge, 2008). Young children who demonstrate difficult behavior are more likely to face persistent peer rejection and negative family interactions (Patterson & Fleischman 2009; Crick, 2006).

2.4.3.2 The effect of problem behaviour across the lifespan of the child

Research suggests that behaviour problems evident in the preschool years are suggestive of future conduct problems, including antisocial behaviours and juvenile delinquency (Fox, Dunlap & Cushing, 2002; Masse & Tremblay, 2009; Stormont, 2002; Webster-Stratton, Reid, & Hammond, 2001; White, Moffit, Earls, Robins, & Silva, 2000). Without effective prevention and intervention efforts, challenging behaviours evident in early childhood are a predictive factor in the development of behaviour problems at various points in time. To use Sameroff and Chandler's language, the transactions between preschool children and their environment (e.g., parents, childcare providers) may develop into patterns of behaviour that can follow the child throughout their life. For example, children who display problems with over activity and peers in preschool are likely to have future problems through age eight (Richman, et al., 2002).

Through a thorough review of the literature, Bryant and colleagues provide powerful evidence supporting the importance of identifying challenging behaviours early (Bryant, Vizzard, Willoughby & Kupersmidt, 2009). For example, White et al. (2000) report that challenging behaviours exhibited in early childhood settings is one of the most powerful indicators of delinquent behaviour at age eleven. White and colleagues' (2000) research that claims various characteristics of preschool children were indicative of antisocial behaviours at age eleven. This research suggests that 70% of the children identified as "antisocial" at age eleven were accurately identified during

preschool as antisocial, based on parent ratings of their behaviour, and that behavioural problems in children as young as five years of age can predict conduct problems in the future.

Additionally, Bryant and colleagues site research, which suggests that children who have problems behaviour during preschool are more likely to be arrested by the age of fourteen (Patterson & Yoerger, 2003). A large body of empirically supported research consistently supports the assertion that problem behaviours evident in early childhood can be predictive of problems later in life (Campbell, 2005; Hartup & Moore, 2000; Parker & Asher, 2007; Richman, et al., 2002).

Aggressive behaviour patterns along with other challenging behaviours, present in early childhood are highly correlated with difficulties in the individual's future (Parker & Asher, 2007). For example, Stormont (2001) shows that older children who demonstrate significant behaviour problems have often had histories of behaviour difficulties that were present as early as their preschool years. Problem behaviours present in early childhood, more specifically, externalizing behaviours such as aggression, not only affect peer relationships during the early childhood years, but also may persist and lead to problems in the child's future development. Specifically, Stormont (2001) suggests that children with stable behaviour problems, or behaviour problems evident between 3rd and 6th grade, were rated as more active and intense during their preschool years.

Research contends that the relationship between problem behaviours and later problems extends beyond childhood. For example, a relationship has been identified between externalizing behaviours in preschool and conduct problems in adolescence (Richman, et al., 2002). Campbell (2005) states that approximately 50% of 3-4-year-old preschool children labelled "hard-to-manage" are likely to have difficulties

throughout adolescence. Research conducted with older Children supports Campbell's (2005) findings that behaviour problems have numerous effects on the individual. For example, Moffit (2000) found that children who engaged in seriously disruptive behaviour in adolescence, displayed a long-standing history of behaviour problems that originated during the preschool years. Clearly, problem behaviours present in young children can have detrimental effects on adolescence as well.

Not only are early childhood challenging behaviours predictive of behavioural difficulties in adolescence, behaviours described as difficult to manage in the early years are highly predictive of future behaviour problems in later adulthood (Katz & McClellan, 2007; Webster-Stratton, 2007). Specifically, aggression may be one of the most reliable indicators of later adult social maladjustment (Hartup & Moore, 2000). As aforementioned, children who engage in aggressive behaviours in preschool often are likely to engage in deviant behaviours in middle school; the early onset of aggressive behaviours is the single biggest predictor of future inappropriate and disruptive behaviours and later adult social maladjustment (Hartup & Moore, 2000). Due to the future problems stemming from early behaviour difficulties, it is imperative to understand and eliminate factors that may contribute to the future development of behaviour disorders and difficulties.

2.4.4 Management strategies for problem behaviour

Talk to any teacher about children in today's classrooms. These teachers would most likely state there are at least one or two children in their classrooms who are exhibiting especially challenging behaviour. Having children with challenging behaviour in the classroom is an age-old phenomenon, but it is no secret that children in today's classrooms are exhibiting emotional and behavioural difficulties that are far more numerous and intensive than in previous years (Walker, Zeller, Close, Webber,

& Gresham, 2009). Additionally, concerns about children behaviour in schools have escalated during recent years, this is most likely due to school shootings, such as the tragic incidents at Columbine (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2001). In 2003, a research that was conducted ranked “lack of discipline” as second to “lack of financial support” which is the biggest problems that schools face today (Rose & Gallup, 2003). Nevertheless, there should be a management strategy such as proactive intervention, positive behaviour support and comprehensive classroom management to help these problem behaviours.

2.4.4.1 Proactive interventions

There are too many situations in which programs for children with problem behaviours actually replicate and exacerbate the etiological factors that were central to the development of the condition. Studies of programs for children with problem behaviours indicate that these programs frequently emphasize control and exclusion rather than effective prevention and intervention (Knitzer, Steinberg & Fleisch, 2000).

Kaufman (2001) notes that professionals can identify and implement classroom conditions that make behavioural difficulties less likely to occur. “It is essential that those who work with children with problem behaviours creates therapeutic learning environments that help children understand and overcome, rather than replicate the conditions that have been key factors impacting their emotional and behavioural problems.” (Jones, Dohrn & Dunn, 2004).

The conditions that promote positive behaviour in the classroom are becoming increasingly clear (Algozzine, Audette, Ellis, Marr & White, 2000; Frieberg, 2009; Jones & Jones, 2012). Conditions that promote positive behaviour in the classroom include (a) clear behaviour expectations, (b) the teaching of expected behaviours, (c) consistent and sound responses to rule violations, and (d) individualized programming

for more chronic behavioural difficulties. In addition, Jones et. al. (2004) emphasize that in order to build a positive classroom climate, the classroom must have an engaging curriculum, curriculum modifications for children with academic difficulties, and a community of support. The community of support will be developed when (a) learning and behavioural expectations are clear; (b) rule violations are addressed immediately and effectively; (c) learning is personalized and demystified; (d) quality teacher-children and peer relationships are encouraged; (e) smaller, more personalized learning settings are formulated; and (f) individualized behavioural programs are instituted for children with more chronic behavioural difficulties. These smaller learning settings can be set up within the larger classroom community, since the reduction of class sizes is most likely a distant reality for many school districts.

Meardor, (2017) argues that rules and expectations should be simple, straightforward and clear, covering the essential aspects of behaviour management. It is essential that you are fair and consistent no matter whom the pupil is. It is essential that they are well written avoiding vagueness and wordiness that can be counterproductive by creating confusion Meardor, (2017). Emmer and Evertson, (2012) affirm that, when rules are establish, they response to misbehaviour/problem behaviour. According to Curwin and Mendler, (2011) rules help in classroom management but should be consistent to classroom climate. Curwin and Mendler, (2011) further asserted that, rules help in classroom management but should be consistent to classroom climate. One of the most recommended techniques for writing rule is “should clear and concrete, and should be stated positively”. Through teacher presentation of consistent and sound responses to rules violation children learn boundaries for classroom behaviour and the Dos and Don'ts of classroom life (Boostrom, 2001).

Establishing schoolwide rules is a fundamental component of schoolwide positive behavioural intervention support programs that are commonly used by schools to prevent and treat emotional and behavioural disorders (Farmer, Reinke & Brooks, 2014; Sugai & Horner, 2002). When rule violations occur, it is important to have planned, consistent, and explicit/sound responses that direct student attention to the specific rule they violated and direct professionals to needs for environmental changes and/or instruction (Stormont, 2008).

According to Reeve, (2006) verbal reward should include (verbal praise, smile, head nod) while verbal warning (verbal cautioning, looking at the student sternly, asking the children to stop) could be used in place of physical beaten. The reinforcer, or consequences of behaviour, tends to increase or sustain the frequency or duration with which the behaviour is exhibited in the future (Alberto & Troutman, 2002). When teachers revert to making harsh or critical comments, Children may actually increase problem behaviours in their classrooms Reeve, (2006) established motivating learners to learn behaviour appropriately, knowing the difference between the consequences and the punishment is very keen. Reeve, (2006) further contended, that, reward and penalties are necessary, emphasis on reward (the positive consequence of the right behaviour should always outweigh the emphasis on penalties (the negative consequence). Carr (2004) stated that, more serious out bursts of misbehaviour, where the child chooses to act inappropriately must be met with consequences, which are clear and logical. For example, if children fight in the yard, it is a logical consequence that they will have to leave the yard. If children distract others in class they will have to work away from others. It is important that the consequences are fairly immediate, implementable, and appropriate. Carr (2004) further added that, Consequences might include being moved in the classroom, a loss of privileges, or stay in gin during a break

to finish work or tidy up a mess. Consequences should never be physically or psychologically harmful or humiliating (Carr, 2004).

Three popular models of proactive intervention for teaching children with problem behaviours are presented below. By learning more about the components of these programs, and implementing them in an integrated fashion, the teacher of children with behaviour difficulty is expected to be more skilful and confident in working with these children. The Re-Education model is presented in more extensive detail since it is a very common model to be used in treatment programs for children with problem behaviours and is applicable to less restrictive settings as well (Christensen, Bill, Jaeger, Mary & Rick, 2002).

2.4.4.2 Positive behaviour support

Dramatic occurrences of school violence in the past decade have greatly enhanced the public's awareness of school safety and discipline (Skiba & Peterson, 2000). This has prompted researchers to identify effective interventions to promote a positive school environment, free from school violence and disruptive behaviour. A recent and popular model to emerge from major government and educational research programs is positive behaviour support (Bradley, 2001; Sugai & Horner, 2002). Positive behaviour support (PBS) is a general term that refers to the application of positive behavioural interventions and systems to achieve socially important behaviour change (Sugai, Sprague, Horner, & Walker, 2001). PBS is derived from behavioural science, primarily applied behavioural analysis, and has evolved from a focus on individual case management to systems-level implementation, especially for the school as a whole (Sugai & Horner, 2002). PBS emphasizes preventive and positive approaches for addressing problem behaviour instead of emphasizing traditional aversive measures.

The implementation of PBS is organized along the continuum of the three levels of prevention as described by Walker, Horner, Sugai, Bullis, Sprague, Bricker (2000). Primary prevention involves school wide interventions aimed at decreasing the number of new cases of problem behaviours. These interventions include the use of effective school-wide disciplinary practices, classroom-wide behaviour management strategies, and effective instructional practices. Secondary prevention involves interventions with at-risk children. Interventions at this level include more focused individual or small group interventions, such as anger management or problem-solving skills training (Christensen et al. 2002). Reeve, (2006,) established motivating learners to learn behaviour appropriately, knowing the difference between the consequences and the punishment is very keen. Reeve, (2006) further contended, that, reward and penalties are necessary, emphasis on reward (the positive consequence of the right behaviour should always outweigh the emphasis on penalties (the negative consequence). Carr, (2004) stated that, more serious out bursts of misbehaviour, where the child chooses to act inappropriately must be met with consequences, which are clear and logical. For example, if children fight in the yard, it is a logical consequence that they will have to leave the yard. If children distract others in class they will have to work away from others. It is important that the consequences are fairly immediate, implementable, and appropriate. Carr, (2004) further added that, Consequences might include being moved in the classroom, a loss of privileges, or stay in gin during a break to finish work or tidy up a mess. Consequences should never be physically or psychologically harmful or humiliating (Carr, 2004).

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Munn, (1999) suggests that, by recognizing and rewarding 'good' behaviour and punishing 'bad' behaviour it is believed that the good behaviour will be encouraged. Research on teachers' classroom talk has shown that teachers use praise very infrequently. (Smith, 2009). Munn (2014) asserts that praise and reward systems involve the formal and public recognition of good behaviour. Munn (1999) further states that, at some stage (perhaps if misbehaviour is persistent or serious but not if there is an isolated minor problem) parents are informed that their child has been given a punishment for breaking classroom or school rules. Punishments differ in the degree of severity of their unpleasantness, and may include sanctions such as reprimands,

deprivations of privileges or liberty, fines, incarcerations, ostracism, the infliction of pain, and the death penalty (Doyle, 2009). According to Simonsen, Fairbanks, Briesch, Myers and Sugai, (2008) behavioural reminder is a brief, neutral prompt to help the children to remember and follow classroom behavioural. Simonsen, (2008), further contended that, this strategy is used when the children appear to be distracted or otherwise requires a simple reminder of expected behaviours. children need reminders in school to keep their work and behaviour on track.

According to Munn, (2014) using reminding language before children start a possibly challenging task, or right when they start to make a mistake, teachers help them stay on task, organized, responsible, and safe. Hemmeter, Ostrosky, and Corso, (2012) contend that, classroom environment plays a central role in encouraging positive behaviour. Classroom physical environments can influence the way children behave. The physical arrangement and features of the classroom environment, such as seating arrangements, lighting, and organization, can influence children' behaviour and attention to academic tasks (Evans & Lovell, 2009; Fullerton & Guardino, 2010; Schilling & Schwartz, 2004). Classroom physical environment can affect learning by changing patterns of teacher–student interaction and by reducing distractions and “downtime” (Trussell, 2008). For example, certain kinds of seating arrangements can facilitate student interaction but can also distract children during individual work.

Classrooms cluttered with furniture can result in children constantly bumping into each other and create an environment where disruptive behaviour is likely to occur (Caroline, Guardino , Shirind & Antia, (2012). According to Martella, Nelson, and Marchchand-Martella, (2003) A well-organized classroom permits more preventive interaction between the teacher and children , reducing the probability that problem behaviour will occur(Martella, Nelson, & Marchchand-Martella, 2003). Danko, (2010)

environmental modification are an essential part of classroom management, many teachers are not aware of the process of implementing them. Literature further affirm that, classroom space can be modified in variety of ways (Bullard, 2010; Guardino, 2008; Lawry, Danko & Strain, 2009) including arranging classroom furnitures, to define learning areas, improving accessibility and availability of materials.

Tertiary prevention involves interventions with children demonstrating initial signs of behavioural difficulties. Intervention at this level includes the development of specially designed instruction and individualized behavioural intervention plans. Among these interventions are functional behaviour assessments, behaviour intervention plans, and Individualized Education Plans (IEPs). Extensive data verify that PBS interventions reduce the number of school-wide behaviour problems. For example, a middle school in Oregon experienced a 42% drop in office referrals in 1 year after implementing PBS (Schilling & Schwartz). Overall, positive behaviour support programs have been found very effective with school age children. For example, Lewis, Sugai, & Colvin. (2002) examined the efficacy of a PBS program implemented during recess and targeting several behaviours, including physical and verbal aggression, for children in kindergarten. A school-wide PBS system was developed, and the intervention phase of this study included teaching playground rules, routines, and desired behaviours, as well as token reinforcement system (Anderson, 2007). As a result of the PBS intervention, the frequency of problem behaviours exhibited during recess decreased (Lewis et. al., 2002)

2.4.4.3 Comprehensive classroom management

The model of Comprehensive Classroom Management by Jones and Jones (2004) emphasizes the importance of positive teacher-children and peer relationships in managing children behaviour. This model includes many of the components of

positive behaviour support: (a) development of general behaviour standards, (b) development of clear classroom procedures and rules, (c) systematic response to rule and procedural violations, and (d) the designing of individual behaviour changes plans for children with significant behavioural difficulties (e) appropriate classroom arrangement (f) reward and punishment. (j) reducing transitional time. However, central to the model is a focus on (a) instructional excellence, (b) active children involvement in creating and learning classroom/school behavioural norms, (c) problem-solving skills, (d) working with parents, and (e) the creation of a community of caring and support, (f) visual cues, (g) verbal cues, (h) brief look, (i) modelled behaviour, (j) reminding languages, (k) logical consequences techniques, (L) time out.

Time-out has been used by teachers to address a broad range of maladaptive behaviours across a variety of educational placements (Costenbader & Reading-Brown, 2005). A survey of teachers of Children with E/BD in the Midwest found that nearly three quarters (70%) used time-out in their classrooms at some time (Zabel, 2006) . According to Katsiyannis (2017) time-outs, however, are subject to abuse when educators fail to understand and apply the behavioural principles that make the procedures effective in reducing problem behaviours. Some teachers continue to use time-outs even when they are not effective in reducing a children's inappropriate behaviour. Moreover, the inappropriate use of time-out may lead to legal problems; recent court cases have ruled that extreme use of time-out procedures may violate children' individual rights (Yell, 2006). Nau, Van Houten, and O'Neil, (2001) in one of their first studies exploring time-out, concluded that time-out was shown to be effective in reducing problem behaviour like disruption in a general education elementary school classroom. Restrained time-out, also called movement suppression, was effective in reducing aggressive behaviours for a student with E/BD (Noll &

Simpson, 2009), and (Luiselli, Suskin & Slocumb, 2004) It was also effective in reducing self-injurious behaviours for a student with E/BD (Rolider & Van Houten, 2005).

Classroom routines can positively affect children' academic performance as well as their behaviour (Cheney, 2009; Vallecorsa, de Bettencourt, & Zigmond, 2000); therefore, one proactive strategy is for teachers to adopt a consistent classroom routine. According to Mayer, (2005) a well-defined rule in the classroom can prevent many behavioural difficulties. Ringina , Oliver, Daniel, and Reschly, (2007) maintain that , rules should also be explained according to "what it is" and "what it is not" .Each rule should be explained in detail to ensure that children understand what is included in the rule. Ringina et al (2007), again stated that, rules and routines should be explained using clear, concise language. As well, they should be explained through the use of specific examples and role-playing. These concrete activities are very beneficial for the child who is behaviourally affected. Oliver and Reschly, (2007) that, if the routine is complicated, the teacher breaks it down into smaller steps. A visual or written chart supports the verbal instruction. Once the routine is explained in detail, the teacher demonstrates or models the task, using the student's visual or written plan. The teacher then asks the children to repeat the step. Rules and routine should be explained in easy to understand language using short, concise sentences. (Oliver & Reschly, 2007).

Swanson, (2005) also claimed that, rules should be observable, easy to understand and clearly illustrate what the student should do, rather than simply what not to do. A rule such as "no hitting" does not provide any information about what is desired or appropriate. Alternately, "keep hands to self" or "keep hands on the table" specifically describes the appropriate behaviour. Savage, (2009) argued that, routines should include knowing how to participate in discussions, behaving as expected in

groups, and following rules for getting the teacher's attention. Once these routine tasks are identified, teachers should establish clear, discrete procedures for handling routine events that are simple, easy for children to understand, and quick for them to perform (Savage, 2009).

The importance of children relationships and being part of a caring community has been clearly supported by researchers in the field (Farmer, Farmer, & Gut., 2009). As an example, the work on developmental assets suggests that children who are more connected to their schools and families are significantly less likely to engage in behaviours that are dangerous to their physical and mental health. Scales and Leffert (2009) state, "that schools that nurture positive relationships among children, and among children and teachers, are more likely to realize the payoff of more engaged children achieving at higher levels" (p142). Jones et. al. (2004) believe that any comprehensive program addressing the needs of children with problem behaviours must effectively implement both the methods presented in the work on positive behaviour support (Sugai & Horner, 2002) and the creation of a positive school-wide climate through the use of tools presented in the model of comprehensive classroom management. Based on data collected in a variety of schools, Jones et. al. (2004) state that systematic implementation of comprehensive classroom management has resulted in a reduction of between 35% and 49% of office referrals, suspensions, expulsions, and disruptive behaviour in common areas.

2.5 Summary of Literature Review

Researchers have developed various definitions of the term "problem behaviours" (Boulware et al., 2009; Buck & Amrbrosino, 2004; Doss & Reichle, 2001; Powell, Fixsen, & Dunlap, 2003; Strain & Hemmeter; 2009). Many have conceptualized problem behaviours based upon the immediate impact on the individual

child and their environment, as well as the long-term effects on the individual child. The Division of Early Childhood (DEC) supports research suggesting that problem behaviours can affect or cause harm to the individual, another child, or the environment (Doss & Reichle, 2011). Further, in defining problem behaviours, Buck and Ambrosino (2004) focus on the specific problem behaviours that a child may exhibit including, children who bite themselves or others and those who are physically aggressive toward other children or adults. Classroom management on the other hand involves teacher actions and instructional techniques to create a learning environment that facilitates and supports active engagement in both academic and social and emotional learning (Doss & Reichle, 2001).

The Attachment Theory (Bowlby, 1969, 1988), Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977), the Ecological theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1879) and the Humanistic Theory formed the theoretical framework. The Attachment theory seeks to preserve some of Freud's insights (about relationships and early experiences in which infant behaviour is organized around managing ever-growing instinctual drives) by casting them in a more scientific framework. The Social learning theory has often been called a bridge between behaviourist learning theories and cognitive learning theories due to the fact that, it encompasses attention, retention, and motivation (Maria & Jeffrey, 2008). The humanistic theory also presents behaviour is a philosophical and holistic perspective, while the ecological perspective views behaviour within the broader context of social systems i.e. the interplay within and between systems.

The conceptual framework constituted variables like the types of problem behaviour, factors, effects and the management strategies used control the problem behaviour. The empirical framework of the study comprised types of children's problem behaviour factors that influence the development of children's problem

behaviour, effects of children's problem behaviour and the management strategies and programmes in managing children's problem behaviour.

Despite behaviour problems having long been a common and troubling problem for educators, with detrimental side effects both for Children and teachers. In fact, challenging behaviours are cited as one of the greatest challenges faced by preschool teachers and childcare providers each year (Arnold, 2008). As early as 1980, researchers suggested that as many as 24% of all preschool children demonstrated significant challenging behaviours (Earls, 2000). In 1993, Webster-Stratton found that the incidence of difficult behaviours was steadily increasing. These rates suggest that challenging behaviours have been present in preschool and childcare settings for a number of years and remain a significant problem today.

The numerous consequences of such difficult behaviours result in a myriad of problems for children and teachers. The literature, provide powerful evidence supporting the importance of identifying problem behaviours early and indicate that behaviour problems evident in the preschool years are suggestive of future conduct problems, including antisocial behaviours and juvenile delinquency.

The concern of managing problem/challenging behaviours is becoming increasingly important to understand as the use of childcare environments is steadily increasing (Buck & Ambrosino, 2004). Therefore, management strategies are generally adaptive. Successful management strategies that are commonly used include, proactive interventions positive, behaviour support and comprehensive classroom management. In conclusion, the exploration of children's problem behaviour will be best achieved using a mixed method approach for the enquiry. The sequential exploratory mixed method design is employed for this study and is discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Overview

This chapter covers the methodology used in the study. The discussion in the chapter is structured around the research design, study area, population of the study, sampling size and sampling strategy, instrumentation, validation of the qualitative instrument, validity of the quantitative instrument, trustworthiness of the qualitative data, reliability of the quantitative instrument, qualitative data collection procedure, quantitative data collection procedure, qualitative data analysis procedure, quantitative data analysis procedure, triangulation, ethical consideration.

3.1 Research Design

The study adopted the explanatory sequential mixed method approach to facilitate the achievement of the stated objectives of the study. A research paradigm which is also called philosophical stance is a set of assumptions about how the issue of concern to the researcher should be studied (Henn, Weinstein & Foard, 2016). The researcher is attracted to the pragmatist point of view in terms of paradigm. This is derived from the work of Peirce, James, Mead, Dewey and Cherryholmes, (1992). The central premise of this combination is that it helps the researcher to better understand the research problems (Creswell & Clark, 2007). For Bergman (2008, p.1) it requires the “combination of at least one qualitative and at least one quantitative component in a single research project or program...”, and in this study a questionnaire and interviews were used respectively. Sequential Explanatory mixed method was employed by the researcher. Creswell (2009) points out that sequential mixed method procedures are

those in which the researcher seeks to elaborate on or expand on the findings of one method with another method.

The overall intent of this design is to have the qualitative data help explain in more detail the initial quantitative results. A typical procedure might involve collecting survey data in the first phase, analysing the data, and then following up with qualitative interviews to help explain the survey responses (Creswell, 2014). The sequential explanatory mixed method can be especially useful when unexpected results arise from a quantitative study (Morse, 2001). In this case, the qualitative data collection that follows can be used to examine these surprising results in more detail. The straightforward nature of this design is one of its main strengths. It is easy to implement because the steps fall into clear, separate stages. In addition, this design feature makes it easy to describe and to report. The main weakness of this design is the length of time involved in data collection, with the two separate phases. This is especially a drawback if the two phases are given equal priority (Creswell, 2014).

3.2 Study Area

Winneba is traditionally known as 'Simpa', which was derived from the name of the leader of the Effutus 'Osimpa' who led the Effutus of the Guan ethnic stock from the Northern part of Ghana to the present location. (Ghana Statistical Board, 2010). The Effutu Municipal Assembly was carved from the then Awutu-Effutu-Senya District Assembly and was established by L.I 1860. It covers a total land area of 95 square kilometres. It is sandwiched by Gomoa East District Assembly on its Western, Northern and Eastern flanks. On the Southern flank is the Gulf of Guinea. The administrative capital is Winneba, a town renowned for its several specialized major institutions of higher learning. According to the 2010 Population and Housing Census (PHC), the Municipality had a population of 68,597 which is made up of 32,795 males;

representing 48% and 35,802 females; representing 52% and representing 3.1% of the total population of 2,201,863 in the Central Region. (Ghana Statistical Board, 2010).

The population above 18 years is 41,882; representing 61.1% out of which the male population is 19,623 (46.9%) and the female population is 22,259 (53.1%). It had 17,121 households and with an average household size of 3.6. The urban population constitutes 63,969; representing 93.3%, with 4,628 representing 6.7% residing in the rural areas. In 2000, the population was 46,574 made up of 21,346 (45.83%) males and 25,508 (54.77%) females. In 1970 and 1984 the population of the Municipality was 32,315 and 32,523 respectively. The growth rate for the Municipality for 2000 and 1984 represents 2.2%. Winneba with a population of 40,017 is the only urban settlement (Ghana Statistical Board, 2010).

3.3 Population of the Study

The population includes all elements that meet certain criteria for inclusion in a study (Burns & Grove, 2003). Polit and Hungler, (2004), refer to the population as an aggregate or totality of all the objects, subjects or members that conform to a set of specifications, in this case, the target population of this study comprised KG. teachers of the following schools; St. Paul primary, Ntakorfam M/A Basic school, University Practice school-north, University practice school -south, Methodist B Basic school, Presby Basic school, Municipal A & B Basic school, Municipal C&B Basic school, New Winneba Basic school, Methodist A & B Basic school, Uncle Rich preparatory school, H&E preparatory school. The estimated target population of the study was 750 and the accessible population was 60. Forty five (45) were females while 15 were males

3.4 Sample and Sampling Techniques

The study employed stratified sampling, simple random sampling and purposive sampling as a means to get the required sample for the study. Babbie (2004, p. 87) defined a sample as “a small subset of a larger population whose selection is based on the knowledge of the elements of a population and the research purpose” (p.183).

Stratified sampling is a probability sampling technique in which each stratum is properly represented so that the sample drawn from it is proportionate to the stratum’s share of the population; it ensures higher statistical efficiency than a simple random sample. For the quantitative phase of the study, the stratified random sampling technique was used to aid in selecting the following schools; St. Paul primary, Ntakorfam M/A Basic school, University Practice school-north, University practice school -south, Methodist B Basic school, Presby Basic school, Municipal A&B Basic school, Municipal C&B Basic school ,New Winneba Basic school, Methodist A&B Basic school, Uncle Rich preparatory school, H&E preparatory school, Nsuakyir M/A Basic school, Atekyedo M/A Basic school and M/A Basic school.

In using stratified sampling technique, it is “advisable to subdivide the population into smaller homogeneous groups” in order to “get more accurate representation” (Best & Kahn, 1995, p. 89). Based on this, each represented as a stratum from which a number of respondents was selected based on proportional representation. By default, the schools within the Effutu municipality were grouped into three circuits. There were 15 schools in all, representing three strata (that is three circuits, Central, East and West). The simple random sampling of the lottery method was adapted to select the schools, teachers. The lottery method is where the researcher used numbers corresponding to the schools, wrote them on pieces of papers and put them in a box, thoroughly mixed and picked one after the other. In the selection of the schools in each

stratum, the names of the schools were put in a box and schools were picked one after the other until the desired number required is selected.

The simple random sampling was used to select three out of the four teachers from each school to respond to the questionnaire. Pieces of paper which equal the total number of teachers in each school was designed by the researcher. In the first school, for instance, three pieces of paper with the inscription “Yes” whilst the other piece of paper was captioned “No”. The pieces of paper were folded and put in a box. The box was turned repeatedly to ensure that the pieces of paper were well mixed to guarantee that each teacher had an equal opportunity of being selected. The teachers were needed to pick the pieces of paper at random. Teachers, who selected the pieces of paper which had ‘yes’ responses were enrolled as study respondents for this study. Three teachers were selected from each school. This process was then repeated in the other schools. Forty-five teachers were selected for the population. In each school three out of the four teachers were included in the study.

Purposive sampling was used to sample 15 teachers (respondents) who formed a part of the respondents sampled for the study to take part in the one on one interview. All the 15 teachers were purposively selected and included in the study. This is because for every Kindergarten class has a teacher and they had a direct link with the KG children. Moreover, the class teachers too had direct and cordial relationship with the parents of the children under the study. These teachers were sampled because they formed a part of the first respondents for the quantitative study. Again, they were sampled to confirm the findings of the quantitative survey to triangulate the data. This was to ensure that later quantitative data is triangulated with qualitative data. With purposive sampling the sample is ‘handpicked’ for the research. The term is applied to those situations where the researcher already knows something about the specific

people or events and deliberately selects particular ones because they are seen as instances that are likely to produce the most valuable data (Denscombe, 2007).

3.5 Semi-Structured Interview

The study used a semi-structured interview guide for data collection. Interviews or question asking are considered the principal data collection methods for this kind of research. Yin (2004) argued that it is very important to consistently ask why events appear to have happened or to be happening. The researcher conducted one-on-one interviews by letting the respondents give answers without interrupting them. The semi structured interview was divided into five sections, the first section focused on the demographic characteristics of the respondents, the second section dealt with items relating to the various types of children's problem behaviour. The third section focused on items relating to the factors that influence the development of children's problem behaviour. The fourth section dealt with items relating to the effects of children's problem behaviour on class activities. The fifth section focused on items relating to classroom management strategies and programmes in managing children's problem behaviour.

3.6 Questionnaire

The questionnaire is a widely used and useful instrument for collecting survey information, providing structured, often numerical data, being able to be administered without the presence of the researcher, and often being comparatively straightforward to analyse (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). Likert scale questionnaire was adopted to aid in the quantitative data collection. The questionnaire consisted of four sections, the first section focused on the demographic characteristics of the respondents, the second section dealt with items relating to the various types of children's problem behaviour. The third section focused on items relating to the factors that influence the development of children's problem behaviour. The fourth section dealt with items relating to the effects of children's problem behaviour on class activities. The fifth section focused on items relating to classroom management strategies and programmes in managing children's problem behaviour.

This was a Likert scale questionnaire with options presented in four-point scale ranging from: Strongly agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and strongly Disagree (SA) respectively. Correspondingly each of those options were rated the following: SA (4), A (3), D (2) and SA (1). The researcher chose questionnaire because all the respondents were literate, and therefore could read and respond to the items. The questionnaire items were generated from the data collected and analyzed from the qualitative phase. Questionnaires are easier to arrange and supply standardized answers, to the extent that all respondents are posed with exactly the same questions with no scope for variation to slip in via face-to-face contact with the researcher (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). The data collected, then, are very unlikely to be contaminated through variations in the wording of the questions or the manner in which the question is asked. There is little scope for the data to be affected by 'interpersonal factors' (Denscombe, 2007).

3.7 Validity of the Semi-Structure Interview

The semi-structure instrument was scrutinized by colleagues of the researcher before it was given to the supervisor for consideration. The instrument was further pilot tested to identify potential deficiencies before using it for the actual study. University practice pre-school, south was used as the population for the pilot test since they exhibit similar characteristics with the actual population of the study. Arthur and Nazroo (2003) affirm that, when assessing the scope of the guide, it is important to review whether it allows respondents to give a full and coherent account of the central issues and incorporate issues they think are important.

3.8 Validity of the Questionnaire

3.8.1 Face validity

Face Validity can be described with a sense that the interview guide and the questionnaire look like it measures what it was intended to measure. For example, were the questions phrased appropriately? (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). The face validity of the instruments for this study was established by giving the prepared instruments to the researcher's colleague, friends and supervisor to scrutinise and make constructive criticisms. From which necessary adjustments were made to the instrument to achieve the face validity.

3.8.2 Content validity

Content validity is the extent to which the questions on the instrument and the scores from these questions are representative of all the possible questions that could be asked about the content or skills (Creswell, 2012). The content validity of the question was determined by experts in measurement and evaluation and the supervisor of the researcher in the Department of Social Studies in the University of Education, Winneba.

3.9 Reliability of the Questionnaire

Reliability means that individual scores from an instrument should be nearly the same or stable on repeated administrations of the instrument and that they should be free from sources of measurement error and consistent (Creswell, 2012). Reliability is concerned with consistency, dependability or stability of a test (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). Establish the reliability of the questionnaire, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient was adopted for the study. The data that was generated from this pilot test was entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version 25) to compute the reliability co-efficient. The Cronbach Alpha reliability co-efficient was .89

3.10 Instrumentation

3.10.1 Trustworthiness of the qualitative data

Speziale and Carpenter (2011) describe trustworthiness as “establishing the validity and reliability of qualitative research”. Qualitative research is trustworthy when it accurately represents the experiences of the study respondents. Four criteria would be used to measure the trustworthiness of data: credibility, dependability, transferability and confirmability. Guba’s model for establishing trustworthiness of qualitative research was used because it is well developed conceptually and has been extensively used by qualitative researchers.

3.11 Data Collection Procedure

The researcher obtained an introductory letter from the Department of Early Childhood Education in the Faculty of Educational studies in the University of Education, Winneba to facilitate the process of data collection. Permission was sought from the appropriate District Educational Office and the school authorities to enable the researcher to conduct the study.

The consent of the respondents was sort after which respondents were given two days to answer the questionnaires to the best of their knowledge. The purpose of the study was explained to the respondents; the various difficulties of the respondents were rectified by the researcher. The researcher interviewed the respondents for about 40 minutes. A Samsung Tablet 2.0 was used to record the interview between the respondents and the researcher. The data was then played and transcribed for analysis.

3.11.1 Quantitative data analysis

The research questions one, two, three and four were analysed using descriptive statistics, that is, frequencies and percentages. The Statistical Product for Service Solution version 23 was used to facilitate the process of analysis.

3.11.2 Qualitative data analysis procedure

Data analysis is a mechanism for reducing and organizing data to produce findings that require interpretation by the researcher (Burns & Grove, 2003). The researcher used thematic approach to establish meaning from the data collected. Morse and Field (2006), briefly, explains that, thematic analysis involves the search for and identification of common trends that extend throughout an entire interview or set of interviews. Themes are usually quite abstract and therefore difficult to identify. Often the theme does not immediately jump out of the interview but may be more apparent if the researcher steps back and considers. The researcher transcribed the tape-recorded interviews, then read and reread the interviews in their entirety, reflecting on the interviews as a whole. Then, the researcher summarized the interviews; keeping in mind that more than one theme might exist in a set of interviews. Again, recorded interviews with related items or ideas were grouped under the same theme. Once identified, the themes that appeared to be significant and concepts linking substantial portions of the interviews were written down and entered on computer (Morse & Field 2006). Data analysis was done thematically with the aid of Atlas.ti 7.5.18 version, a qualitative research data analysis software.

3.12 Ethical Considerations

The researcher has a moral obligation to strictly consider the rights of the respondents, who are expected to provide knowledge for this investigation (Streubert & Carpenter, 2011). The researcher requested for permission to conduct the study. A written permission was obtained from the Department of early childhood Education, in the Faculty of Social Science in the University of Education, Winneba. Written permission (informed consent) sought from respondents for the questionnaire administration and interviewing (Lo- Biondo Wood & Haber, 2002).

Polit and Hungler (2004) state that confidentiality means that no information that the respondent divulges is made public or available to others. The anonymity of a person or an institution is protected by making it impossible to link aspects of data to a specific person or institution. Confidentiality and anonymity were guaranteed by ensuring that data obtained were used in such a way that no one other than the researcher knows the source (Lodico, Spaulding & Voegtler, 2006). In this study no, actual respondent names were attached to the information obtained rather, serial numbers were used.

According to De Vos, (2002) privacy refers to agreements between persons that limit the access of others to private information. In this study, the researcher ensured that when respondents described their experiences, the information was not divulged. The respondents were informed that they could withdraw from the study at any time if they wished to (Hallow, 2005). This right was explained to them prior to engaging in the study, before the interview.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Overview

This study investigated Children's problem behaviour and classroom management strategies among selected early childhood centres of the Effutu Municipality. This chapter presents the data presentation, interpretation and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data in an attempt to answer the stated research questions. This chapter is structured into three sections, the first section focused on the demographic characteristics of the respondents, the second section deals with the presentation of Quantitative data, the third section focused on the presentation of qualitative data relating to the research questions according to their order of appearance.

4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

This section presents the demographic information of the respondents of the selected early childhood centres of the Effutu Municipality, Winneba. The demographic information of the respondents was based on gender, age range, educational level, years' experience. For the purpose of the quantitative data analysis, the four-point Likert scale was reduced to a two-point Likert scale in order to enable easier analysis of data and discussion of results. Strongly agree and agree were merged to be agree whiles strongly disagree and disagree were also merged to be disagree.

Table 4.1: Gender of respondents

Gender	Frequency	(%)
Male	7	15.6

Female	38	84.4
Total	45	100.0

Source: Field data (2018)

Table 4.1 depicts the description of the demographic characteristics of the sampled respondents for the study. Table 4.1 suggests that few of the respondents totalling 7(16%) were males whiles the remaining of the respondents 38(84%) were females. It could be inferred from the table that there were more female respondents than males.

Table 4.2: Age of respondents

Age Range	Frequency	(%)
20-30	18	40.0
30-40	15	33.3
40-50	4	8.9
50-60	8	17.8
Total	45	100.0

Source: Field data (2018)

Table 4.2 indicates the age distribution of the respondents. Table 4.2 suggests that the majority of the respondents, 18 in all representing 40% were between the ages of 20-30 years 15(33%) respondents were between the ages of 30-40, whiles the few of the respondents totalling 4(10%) were between the ages of 40-50 years, 8(18%) were between the ages of 50-60. It could be deduced from the table that the majority of the respondents totalling 18(40%) within the age range of 20-30 were found to be teaching in the preschool whiles a least of number of 4(9%) within the age range of 40-50 were found in the preschool.

Table 4.3: Level of education of respondents

Qualification	Frequency	(%)
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Diploma	23	51.1
Degree	20	44.4
Master's in Education	2	4.4
Total	45	100.0

Source: Field data (2018)

Table 4.3 shows the level of education of the respondents sampled for the study. It reveals that a total of 23(5%) respondents have University Diploma, 20(44%) respondents were degree holders while 2(4%) had a second degree (Masters in Education). It could be concluded that there were a larger number of diploma holders working at the preschool level than Masters holders in education.

Table 4.4: Year of experience

Experience	Frequency	(%)
1-4	15	33.3
5-9	13	28.9
10 and above	17	37.8
Total	45	100.0

Source: Field data (2018)

Table 4.4 shows the years of experience of the respondents sampled for the study. The table shows that 15(3%) have a working experience ranging from 1-4 years, 13(29%) have a working experience from 5-9 years while the majority of 17(38%) had their experience ranging from 10 years above. This indicated there are higher level of experienced respondents numbering 17(38%) from 10 and above years working at the preschool level than 13(29%) with 5-9 experience at the preschool. It also shows that this afford the respondents the opportunity to better understand children's problem behaviour and identify it accordingly.

4.2 Presentation of Quantitative and Qualitative Data

This section presents quantitative and qualitative data collected from the field in an attempt to achieve the stated research objectives.

4.2.1 Research Question One: What are the types of children's problem behaviour prevailing in the selected pre-schools in the Effutu Municipality?

Table 4.5: Types of children's problem behaviour

Responses	Agree		Disagree	
	F	(%)	F	(%)
Children exhibit various problem behaviour in the early childhood centre	36	80	9	20
Aggression is a common problem behaviour among pre-schoolers.	33	73.3	12	26.7
Non-compliance is a problem behaviour among pre-schoolers	34	75.6	11	24.4
Hyperactivity is a problem behaviour in pre-school centres.	38	84.4	7	15.6
Destructiveness is a prevailing condition among children in the pre-school centres	33	73.3	12	26.3

Source: Field data (2018)

Table 4.5 shows a description of the responses relating to the views of teachers on the various types of children's problem behaviour. The majority of the respondents 36(80%) agreed that children exhibit various problem behaviour in the early childhood centre. The minority of the respondents 9(20%) disagreed to the statement that children exhibit various problem behaviour in the early childhood centres. With regard to aggression 33(73%) of the respondents agreed whiles 12(27%) disagreed. Concerning the non-compliance 34(76%) of respondents chose agreed, representing 24% selected disagreed to that statement. Regarding hyperactivity in pre-school centres, majority of 38(84.4%) decided to agree whiles 7 respondents representing 16% disagreed to the statement that hyperactivity was a problem behaviour in pre-school centres. Relating to

destructiveness prevailing among children, a majority of 33(73%) respondent agreed to that statement, while twelve respondents being 26% disagreed.

It could be deduced from the analysed data that, there were various problem behaviours in the early childhood centre, these were related to aggression, non-compliance, hyperactivity and destructiveness. The following themes emerged from the qualitative data collected, The themes were related to threatening and violence behaviour, refusal to take instruction, hyperactivity, wilful destruction of school properties (vandalism)

4.2.1.1 Threatening and violent behaviour

Among the themes which emerged from qualitative data was threatening and violent behaviour. According to the interview data, respondents were motivated to give the needed information about aggressive behaviour. They were of the view that children's aggression is characterized by threatening attitude and has a serious impact on the classroom activity Respondents were of the view that frightening behaviour among children breeds disruption during learning process and waste instructional time.

One of the respondents commented:

There was one incident in the school after the school feeding had been introduced. A boy was found pushing another boy when they were all in the queue to collect their food. In return the boy who was pushed threatened to hit the one who pushed him. When I got to the scene, I took my time to calm them down. (ECT-3)

Another respondent added that;

In my classroom, I always see the children playing together. The children who are strong in the classroom are found fighting the young ones. They even threaten to beat the young ones who will come and tell me the teacher that some boy has beaten them. One girl took another girl's pencil and broke it. Afterwards she threatened to beat her if she decides to inform the teacher. So, when I saw the girl whose pencil has been broken crying and I called her to find out and she told me what the other girl has said (ECT-5).

Interestingly, the data revealed that, some respondents were of the view that children also display violence act when they are aggressive. They think that children were violent any time they become aggressive. The respondents highlighted that, they felt aggrieved behaviour among children makes them violent even to the extent of damaging peers/ school item.

One respondent said that:

As a teacher, any time I see children fighting one another, they end up destroy items in the classroom. One serious thing about such children is that, they become violent to the level that they damage classroom TLMs, push tables here and there and brake items, (ECT-4).

The forgoing comments suggest that; children become aggressive when violent. It could also be deduced from the data that, children exhibit frightening/threatening behaviour like young child kicks, bites or fights with other children, throw stones, run after another child when it comes to issues aggression.

4.2.1.2 Refusal to take instruction

Another major concern that appeared from the interview data was related to respondents experiencing children refusal to take instruction.

Firstly, the data suggested that most of the respondents were of the view that children refused to obey or take instructions because they needed attention. Some begin to walk around instead of sitting and refused to submit the exercise books given to them by their teachers.

A respondent shared her experience by saying that:

Whenever I am teaching, I remind my children of the need to raise their hands before talking or answering a question. There is a boy called Kwame who is always found refusing instruction by talking and answering questions before I call someone to give the answer. This boy refuses to take every instruction I give in the classroom. Very often I shout at him or cane him (ECT-15).

Another respondent expressed her frustration by sharing her experience that:

As a teacher shouting on top of my voice has become my hobby in the K.G. classrooms. Most often I shout “Keep quiet”! “Keep quiet” or bring your books before the children do the right things. They often refuse to submit their exercise books for marking when the period is over. When I notice that they are refusing my instructions I gave them, I shout at them (ECT-12).

The foregoing data presented, proposed that, non-compliance behaviour is characterized by refusal to take instruction or follow rules. The data also suggested that, children sometimes choose to ignore instructions given to them by their teacher in the classroom.

4.2.1.3 Hyperactivity (Excessive activities)

From the interviewed data, another area which became known was excessive activity/ restlessness. Primarily, the data suggested that most of the respondents met some form of hyperactivity because of the restless nature of the behaviour the children show at school. The data revealed that respondents sometimes expressed their frustrations they go through in handling children with hyperactive behaviour. Respondents also expressed their frustration that, they had to keep eyes to monitor the children with hyperactive condition since they always want to do something.

A respondent shared her experience by saying that:

As a teacher, I move around the various tables in classroom to see children are doing. Very often child I see some children writing their classwork and within the next moment this same children are seen on a different table drumming and this drumming does not even relate to the exercise they have been given. In such a situation, I go closer to stops them from what they doing. (ECT-15)

One respondent shared her experience by saying that:

In some instances, I will see a child playing with a spoon and hitting it on the table. When I get closer, he will stop. Once more, when I return to my seat, then I will see the same boy doing a different activity by sharpening a pencil. Any attempt to stop him, then will make a shift to another activity which I may not be interested (ECT-10).

Another respondent commented

Hmm! One day, I was teaching at K.G 2. I saw that there was one young girl who was always shifting from one unfinished activity to another. Even though the whole class would be writing, she will be drawing. In another instance this girl will be writing and all of a sudden, she will move to a different table to snatch someone's pencil and move to another table to pick a crayon. This is not a good habit at all. (ECT-4)

The data presented indicated that, a child with hyperactivity shows excessive activities such as: difficulty to remain on seat, shifting from one unfinished activity to another. It also suggests that hyperactive children exhibit restless behaviour This affect classroom learning.

4.2.1.4 Intentional destruction of property (Vandalism)

Another major concern that appeared from the interview data was related to respondents experiencing destruction of property within the classroom setting. Firstly, the data suggested that most of the respondents were unhappy because of the multiple destructive activities the children were engaged in. The data revealed that respondents sometimes destroy other children's items like pencil, books, erasers, pushing tables and chairs etc. while teaching and learning were in progress.

A respondent shared her experience by saying that:

Most often, I hide behind the scenes with the intention of observing what will happen in my classroom Anytime I do that, I see a lot of things. Often, I will see that, one of the children will throw a blackboard ruler at another and it will fall on the ground and break. In another scenario, I will see two of the boys fighting one another and the one who will be beaten then moves to take anything belonging to the other boy and destroy it by hitting it on the floor. This damaging behaviour can happen even when the teacher is in the classroom. (ECT-8)

Another respondent expressed her frustration by sharing her experience this way:

OH! There was a situation, I saw two boys straggling over a school bag So I shouted at them 'hey stop', 'hey stop''! 'Hey, stop''! When I got closer to them, one of them said to me that, madam, this girl has torn my book and I have also taken a book from her bag and to destroy it. When I saw that book has got torn, I went for a glue to mend the book for the other girl (ECT-1).

Furthermore, a respondent also agreed that, children who are engage in destructive behaviour are found kicking and throwing things. They throw anything that they see within their environment. Some even go to the extent of throwing theirs school

bags and other objects at peers who make them angry without considering what they have in their bags before throwing them at their peers. In this situation, the objects the children throw may be destroyed in the process.

A respondent claimed that:

During break periods at school, I move to see what children do. In the process I will see that, one of the girls will be hit by another and in respond the other girl will throw her leg to hit the food flask which is containing food and the food in the flask poured out of the flask. So, I go to the school canteen to buy rice and beans for that child to compensate her. (ECT-6).

Another respondent noted:

At times, I see children kicking their launch bowls and throwing bags which have their food. Onetime in the classroom a child kicked someone's bowl and the other boy destroyed his pencil by breaking them into pieces. (ECT-11).

Another respondent also articulated that:

Personally, anytime I interact with the children in class. They share with me what they have seen their peers doing. One of children who always observe what others do and come to report to me that, Madam a Boy has destroyed the black board ruler. When it happens like this, I become worried. (ECT-4).

The data presented suggests that, a considerable number of the respondents were of the view that children with destructive behaviour tend to engage in deliberate activities such destroying /damaging peers objects. The data further suggest that, children with destructive behaviour could be seen to intentionally destroy property others.

4.2.2 Research Question Two: What are views of teachers regarding factors that responsible for children's problem behaviour in the pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality?

Table 4.6: Views of teachers regarding factors responsible for children's problem behaviour

Responses	Agree		Disagree	
	F	(%)	F	(%)
Potential health (Maternal and infant health) of parents influence children problem behaviour	43	95.6	2	4.4
Parents Physiological concerns can influence problem behaviour.	38	84.4	7	15.6
Maturation affects children problem behaviour.	39	86.7	6	13.3
Parents physical and psychological wellbeing can influence problem behaviour in children	38	84.4	7	15.6
lower nutritional status in early childhood influences problem behaviour	38	84.4	7	15.6
Allergy to certain nutrients influences children problem behaviour	29	64.4	16	35.6
Variety of prenatal difficulties influence children problem behaviour.	42	93.3	3	6.7
Prematurity and very low birth weight increase children problem behaviour	30	66.7	15	33.3
Child's experience influences problem behaviour	41	91.1	4	8.9
Those involved in the child's life influences problem behaviour.	40	88.9	5	11.1
Depressive disorder can increase children problem behaviour.	31	68.9	14	31.1
The social environment of the child influences their problem behaviour	41	91.1	4	8.9
Parental lifestyle can influence children problem behaviour.	41	91.1	4	8.9
Maternal mental state influences children problem behaviour	32	71.1	13	28.9
Parent-child and family relationships influences problem behaviour	43	95.6	2	4.4
Parenting and discipline practices affect children problem behaviour	40	88.9	5	11.1
Location in the social structure influences children problem behaviour	33	73.3	12	26.7

Source: Field data (2018)

Table 4.6 shows the description of respondents' responses to items relating to the teachers view on the factors that are responsible for children's problem behaviour. The table suggests that, 43(9.7%) respondents agreed that biological factors such as potential health (Maternal and infant health) of parents handled children problem behaviour. Marginal number of the respondents totalling 2(4%) disagreed to the statement. Many of the respondents 38(84%) opted to agreed that parents' physiological concerns could be responsible for problem behaviour, while 7(17%) respondents decided to disagree. Concerning maturation, 39(87%) respondents agreed to that maturation could be responsible for behaviour problem. A smaller number of the respondents 6(13%) disagreed to this assertion. With regard to biological factors such as parents physical and psychological wellbeing responsible for behaviour in children, 38(84%) agreed to this assertion while a minority of 7(16%) disagreed to this assertion. Most of the respondents 38(84%) agreed that lower nutritional status was responsible for problem behaviour, while 7 respondents representing 16% disagreed to this statement. A majority of 29(64%) agreed that possible allergy to certain nutrients could result into children problem behaviour, while a smaller number of respondents totalling 16(36%) disagreed to this statement. In relation to variety of prenatal difficulties, 42(93%) of the respondents opted agree while 3(7%) respondents disagreed. With regard to biological factors like prematurity and birth weight increasing children problem behaviour, 30 respondents representing 66.7 % agreed to that statement while a minority of fifteen (15) representing 33.3 % disagreed.

In relation to psychological factors like the child's experiences responsible for behaviour problem, 41(91%) agreed while 4(9%) respondents disagreed to this statement. A total of 41(89%) respondents agreed that those involved in the child's life were responsible for problem behaviour while 5(11%) respondents disagreed to this

statement. Most of the respondents 31(69%) agreed that depressive disorder could increase children problem behaviour while fourteen, 14(31%) respondents chose to disagree.

Concerning social factors such as the environmental influence on the child's problem behaviour, a greater number of 41(91%) respondents agreed while 4(9%) respondents disagreed to this statement. In relation to parental lifestyle as one of the factors responsible for problem behaviour, 41(91%) agreed to the statement, a minority of the respondent, 4(9%) disagreed. A popular of the respondents totalling 32(71%) agreed that maternal mental state could be responsible for children problem behaviour while few respondents, 13(29%) respondents disagreed to this statement. With regard to the parent-child and family relationships, many of the respondents 43(96%) agreed to this assertion while, a minority of 2(4%) respondents disagreed to this assertion. Concerning parenting and discipline practices, most of the respondents, 40(89%) agreed while few respondents amount to 5(11%) respondents disagreed to the statement. Most of the respondents totalling 33(73%) agreed that location in the social structure could be responsible for children problem behaviour, while 12(27) respondents disagreed to this statement.

It could be inferred from the analysis that potential health (maternal and infant health), variety of prenatal difficulties, child's experience, parental lifestyle, parent-child and family relationships were the predominant factors that are responsible for children's problem behaviour.

From the interview data, the following themes emerged; child nutrition(diet), and child's parent and family relationship. The interview data revealed that respondents, child nutrition(diet) appeared as one of the factors contributing to potential health. Primarily, the data gathered from respondents revealed that, parents of

behaviour problem children had extremely limited knowledge about their infant's nutrition. Most of the respondents believed that, some parent do not give their children enough food to eat and even if, they do, the diet was not balanced.

Respondent (ECT-1) articulated that:

Hmm! one of the problems as a teacher I face is food, which I cannot do anything about it than to manage. Some children in my class always come to school without eating. Whenever I am teaching, then they will be crying. Anytime I ask one of these children why he is crying, he will say to me, Madam I didn't eat before coming to school. This always disturb my class (ECT-7)

Another respondent added

Very often, during lessons time I see a child sitting and not taking part in the lesson. When I ask the child why he is not taking part in the lesson, then he responds by saying, Mad, Kwame Edzi madziban' meaning; Kwame has eaten his food, When I call Kwame to ask him too, then he will tell me that, he did not eat before coming to school so when he sees food in the bowl he takes it and ate.(ECT-13)

On the contrary, a respondent was of the view that, some of the children do not eat good food. Some brought food which have no fish or stew.

A respondent commented that:

One of my children in the classroom always eats gari and sugar anytime she comes to school. The day she will bring rice, then that one too there is no stew to enable her to eat the food. This girl always begs for food anytime in the classroom (ECT-4).

The interview data suggest that, children diet affect the way they behave in the classroom since few of the them do not eat before coming to school. Apart from this, respondents were of the view that, nutrition could also affect the health of the child. This is believed could be responsible for certain negative behaviours of child in the classroom.

4.2.2.1 Child's relationship with the environment

The child's relationship with the environment, appeared of the themes from the interview. According to the interview data, most of the respondents emphasised that the child interactions with the family and the influence of the immediate surroundings could account for the child's level of relationship. The interaction between the child and other factors may determine the child's level of relationship the child will go through. Some respondents commented that, some of these could shape the child's conduct positively or negatively.

A respondent shared her experience by saying that;

As a teacher, I have a cordial relationship with my school children. Though, I am older than some of them, but I do not take the age difference into account. Most often I share stories that create laughter with them. This enables them to participate fully anytime I am teaching them in the classroom (ECT-3).

A respondent shared her experience by saying that:

I personally know that children learn from what they see in their environment When children play with others in their environment who are aggressive, then they also learn to be aggressive Sometimes I see children becoming aggressive because those within their environment they play or interact with exhibit such aggression. So, they also copy it. This influences their behaviour in the classroom during lessons (ECT-10).

The data presented suggested that, the child's relationship with the environment (i.e. parent's behaviour, peers, and the family environment) influence his/her behaviour

4.2.3 Research Question Three: What are the effects of children’s problem behaviour on classroom activities

Table 4.7: The effects of children’s problem behaviour

Responses	Agree		Disagree	
	F	(%)	F	(%)
Children with problem behaviour frequently absent and tardy than their non-behaviour disordered counterparts	36	80.0	9	20
Children with problem behaviour are less likely to complete their homework and more likely to earn failing grades.	36	80.0	9	20
Children with problem behaviour exhibit inappropriate behaviours in the classroom.	38	84.4	7	15.6
Problem behaviour adversely impacts children’s learning	39	86.7	6	13.3
Children who displayed attention and behaviour problems and generally regarded as “hard-to-manage	35	77.8	10	22.2
Children with problem behaviour demonstrate behavioural disorders as well as academic difficulties in elementary school	30	66.7	15	33.3
Children exhibiting challenging behaviours may have difficulties learning new skills`	39	86.7	6	13.3
Problem behaviour children are likely to perform lower on measures of reading ability and general intelligence	34	75.6	11	24.4
Problem behaviours displayed by young children can affect many domains of functioning including social skills, communication, and play	37	82.2	8	17.8
Problem behaviour breeds social exclusion from peers	39	86.7	6	13.3
Extreme cases of problem behaviour results in social isolation for the child.	39	86.7	6	13.3
Problem behaviour makes children less socially competent, hyperactive, and aggressive	38	84.4.	7	15.6
Children problem behaviour are associated with other more deviant behaviours such as aggression, withdrawal, and distress	39	86.7	6	13.3
Problem behaviour increases the likelihood of peers disliking the individual child exhibiting disruptive behaviours	37	82.2	8	17.8
Problem behaviour are suggestive of future conduct problems, including antisocial behaviours and juvenile delinquency	34	75.6	11	24.4
Problem behaviours evident in early childhood are a predictive factor in the development of behaviour problems at various points in time	38	84.4.	7	15.6
Problem behaviour may develop into patterns of behaviour that can follow the child throughout their life	36	80.0	9	20
Most problem behaviours are powerful indicators of delinquent behaviour at age eleven	31	68.9	14	31.1
Behavioural problems in children can predict conduct problems in the future	34	75.6	11	24.4
Behaviours present in early childhood, more specifically externalized behaviours such as aggression	37	82.2	8	17.8
Challenging behaviours present in young children can have detrimental effects during adolescence stage as well	39	86.7	6	13.3

Source: Field data (2018)

Table 4.7 shows a description of the response concerning the effects of children's problem behaviour. The table present data the effects of problem behaviour on classroom activity. A total number of 36(80%) respondents agreed that children with problem behaviour frequently absent than their non-behaviour disordered counterparts while 9(20%) respondents disagreed with this statement. Concerning classroom effect such as children likely to complete their homework and earn failing grades, 36(80%) respondents agreed to this statement, while 9(20%) of the respondents opted to disagree. The majority of respondents totalling 38(84%) of the respondents chose to agree that children with problem behaviour exhibit inappropriate behaviours in the classroom, a minority of the respondent amounting to 7(16 %) disagreed with the statement. The majority of the respondents 39(87%) agreed that problem behaviour adversely impacts children's learning, while 6(13%) of the respondents decided to disagree with the statement. In relation to children who displayed attention and behaviour problem and generally regarded, as "hard-to-manage, 35(78 %) agreed while a minority of 10(22%) of the respondents disagreed to this assertion. Most of the respondents, 30(67%) agreed that children prove behavioural disorders as well as academic difficulties in elementary school. A few of the respondents 15(33%) disagreed with this assertion. Regarding children difficulties in learning new skills, 39(87%) of the respondents agreed, 6(13%) of the respondents disagreed with that statement. A considerable number of respondents amounting to 34(76%) agreed that children perform lower on measures of reading ability and general intelligence. A smaller number of the respondents, 11(24) disagreed with the statement.

Concerning effects on domains of functioning including social skills, communication, and play, 37(82%) of the respondents agreed while 8(18 %) disagreed

to the statement. Marginal number of respondents totalling 39(87%) agreed that problem behaviour breeds social exclusion from peers, 6(13%) respondents chose to disagree with this statement. About social isolation, 39(87%) of the respondents agreed to the statement while 6(13%) disagreed with this assertion. Most of the respondents 38(84%) agreed to the assertion that problem behaviour could make children less socially competent, hyperactive, and aggressive, while 7(16%) of the respondents disagreed to this assertion. With regard to behaviour being associated with other more deviant behaviours such as aggression, withdrawal and distress, 39(87%) of the respondents agreed to this statement, 6(13%) respondents disagreed. Many of the respondents 37(82%) agreed that problem behaviour increases the likelihood of peers disliking the individual child exhibiting disruptive behaviours, while 8 of the respondents representing 17.8 % disagreed with that statement.

Across the lifespan, A greater number of the respondents amounting to 34(76%) agreed that behaviours problem was suggestive of future conduct problems, while 11(24%) of the respondents opted to disagree with this statement. A lot of the respondent totalling 38(84%) agreed that, evident of problem behaviour in early childhood were a predictive factor in the development of behaviour problems at various points in time, 7(16%) of the respondents disagreed with this statement. Most of the respondents, 36(80%) agreed that problem behaviour might develop into patterns of behaviour that could follow the child throughout their life, 9(20%) disagreed to this statement. With reference to the statement that problem behaviours is a powerful indicators of delinquent behaviour at age eleven, 32(69%) of the respondents agreed with this assertion while a smaller number of the respondents totalling 14(31%) disagreed. In relation to conduct problems in the future, A total number of 34(76%) respondents decided to agree while 11(24%) respondents disagreed to this statement.

Most respondents numbering 37(82%) agreed that behaviours present in early childhood, were specifically externalized behaviours such as aggression, while a minority of the respondents 8(18%) disagreed to this statement. Finally, a total of 39(87%) respondents agree that challenging behaviours present in young children could have detrimental effects during adolescence stage, while 6(13%) respondents opted to disagree with this statement.

It could be inferred from the analysis that effects on children's learning, difficulties learning new skills, social exclusion from peers, social isolation from peers, deviant behaviours such as aggression, withdrawal and distress and detrimental effects during adolescence stage were the leading effects of problem behaviour.

Themes relating to the effects of children's problem behaviour were; Disruptive behaviour, isolation from peers, aggressive behaviour.

4.2.3.1 Disruptive behaviour

It appeared that, disruptive behaviour was among the related themes of the interviewed data. It seemed from the interview data that, one of the major effects of engaging in problem behaviour was disruption. Firstly, the data from respondents suggested that most children engage in activities which disrupt the class whenever the teacher is teaching. Respondents highlighted that, some of the children make noise with objects that they would be holding to disrupt the attention of those learning.

A respondent claimed that:

During class time, I see some children either playing with objects or drumming with the objects. When this happens, they do not pay attention to what teacher is teaching. Very often, I see a child talking while I am teaching and because this child will not be paying attention. So, when I give exercise at the end of the lesson, he is not able to do it. (ECT-11).

Another respondent added that:

I wonder what some of my children want to do whenever I am teaching them. A boy known as Kwame is always looking through the window whenever someone is passing. He does not want to look on the board whenever I am teaching. Anytime I give classwork, Kwame alone will not be able to do it. When it happens like that I must go and sit by him to help him do the work. (ECT-6).

The interview data presented suggested that, children display disruptive attitude during teaching. This negatively affected their participation in academic activities in the classroom.

4.2.3.2 Isolation from peers

One of the predominant themes emanating from the interview data was isolation from peers. The interview data revealed that, there was a minimal communication and interpersonal relationship with friends and peers. The interview data from respondents showed that, there was no existing social interaction between the problem child and their friend and peers. A respondent claimed that, during the play time the problem child will cause trouble for the peers which make the peers unable to include him in the next activity or play time. This becomes impossible to mingle such a child with the peers.

One of the respondents commented that:

Oh, for me I want all my class children to do things together. But what I have been seeing is that, the boys are found of bullying the young ones. They do it in the classroom when they are writing their classwork. When it happens like that, the next time you give them work to do together, the whole class will isolate themselves from the one who intimidated their friend. (ECT-2).

Another respondent commented.

One day I was teaching, and I gave the children a group work. At a point in time all children have moved away from Kwaku. When I asked the class why they have separated themselves from that boy, they replied by saying madam he has been insulting us. So, I noted that anytime children isolate themselves from other friends then, there is a problem (ECT-6).

The data also showed that, children with problem behaviour experiencing very minimal interaction with their peers. Data also suggested that problem children, mostly bully, insult their peers during any group gathering. The respondents elucidated that, such children were not able to communicate and mingle with peers. One respondent expressed her experience that;

I hardly see the whole class talking to Akua. Anytime in the classroom, you will see her pushing someone or beating another person. Even during group activity, you will see her insulting others and shouting at them. This make her peers not to interact with her and she alone will be sitting somewhere doing her own thing. (ECT-4).

The data presented confirmed, children with problem behaviour suffer isolation academically. The data further suggested that; children with behaviour problem experience a larger form of isolation(segregation) from friends.

4.2.3.4 Violent behaviour

Violent behaviour emerged as one of the themes which appeared from the interview. According to the interview data, problem behaviour could result in violence as an effect of constantly putting up problem behaviours. The respondents emphasized that, children problem behaviour was characterised by forceful behaviour. The respondents claimed that, this affected quality classroom practices.

A respondent remarked:

Occasionally, I punish children for doing the wrong things. Most often I see one or two of the children in the class becoming violent towards others. Sometime I see them tearing others books. And within the next moment they are breaking pencil which belongs to another person. When I see them in this violence manner, I beat them (ECT-10)

Another respondent commented:

Hmm, I spend so much on taking care of children in the classroom. Even in the process of playing with peer, then one will push another person to fall and becomes injured. Suddenly then, another will come and report, Madam, madam, this boy has put my bag in the dustbin. When they show such violent conduct, then I become worried. I need a class assistant to help me, so I can handle these children. (ECT-14)

The data from respondents suggested that, children with problem behaviour show violent attitude towards peers. Also, it could be deduced that problem behaviour may result in injury.

4.2.4 Research question four: What are the classroom management strategies adopted to manage children’s problem behaviour in the pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality?

Table 4.8: Classroom management strategies adopted to manage children’s problem behaviour

Responses	Agree		Disagree	
	F	(%)	F	(%)
I use visual and verbal cue	40	88.9	5	11.1
I teach about the expected behaviours	41	91.1.	4	8.9
I give consistent and sound responses to rule violations	45	100	0	0.0
I provide individualized programming for more chronic behavioural difficulties	37	82.2	8	17.8
I make sure rule violations are addressed immediately and effectively	43	95.6	2	4.4
I ensure that individualized behavioural programs are instituted for children with more chronic behavioural difficulties	34	75.6	11	24.4
I make sure that quality teacher-student and peer relationships are encouraged	44	97.8	1	2.2
I use effective school-wide disciplinary practices such as reinforcement of good behaviour	44	97.8	1	2.2
I provide classroom-wide behaviour management strategies	45	100	0	0.0
I use effective instructional practices such as doing activities in turns	45	100	0	0.0
I practice problem-solving skills training	38	84.4.	7	15.6
I specially designed instruction and individualized behavioural intervention plans	38	84.4.	7	15.6
I use functional behaviour assessments	38	84.4.	7	15.6
I have designed behaviour intervention plans,	45	100	0	0.0
I have put in place Individualized Education Plans	35	77.8	10	22.2
I teach playground rules, routines, and desired behaviours	45	100	0	0.0
I develop general behaviour standards	39	86.7	6	13.3
I design individual behaviour change plans for children with significant behavioural difficulties	40	88.9	5	11.1
I use appropriate classroom arrangement practices	45	100	0	0.0
I have instituted reward and punishment systems	44	97.8	1	2.2
I have reduced transitional time	33	73.3	12	26.3
I practice active student involvement in creating and learning classroom/school behavioural norms	43	95.6	2	4.4
I provide a link of working with parents	42	93.3	3	6.7
I practice the creation of a community of caring and support	37	82.2	8	17.8
I provide comprehensive program addressing the needs of children with problem behaviours	35	77.8	10	22.2

Source: Field data (2018)

Table 4.8 shows the description of respondents' responses to items relating to classroom management strategies. Table 4.8 suggests that, 40(89%) of the respondents agreed that they use visual and verbal cue as proactive interventions while a smaller number of the respondents totalling 5(11%) disagreed with this statement. All most all the respondents, 41(91%) agreed that they taught expected behaviours, while a minority of the respondents 4(9%) disagreed to this assertion. Concerning consistent and sound responses to rule violations, all the respondents totalling 45(100%) opted to agree to this assertion. Majority of the respondents 37(82%) agreed to the assertion that they supplied individualized programmes for chronic behavioural difficulties while 8(18%) of the respondents disagreed to this statement. With regards to proactive interventions like rule violations, 43(96%) of the respondents agreed that they addressed them immediately and effectively, while 2(4%) respondents disagreed this statement. Most of the respondents numbering 34(76 %) agreed that individualized behavioural programs were instituted for children with chronic behavioural difficulties. A minority of the respondents totalling 11(24) of the respondents disagreed to this statement. In relation to quality teacher-student and peer relationships being encouraged, a total of 44(98%) respondents opted to agree while 1(2%) of the respondent disagreed to this statement.

Regarding positive behaviour support, a greater number of respondents, 44(98%) agreed to this assertion, only 1(2%) of the respondents disagreed to this assertion. Concerning classroom-wide behaviour management strategies, all the respondents totalling 45(100%) agreed to this statement. Considering doing activities in turns, a total number of 45(100%) respondents agreed. Most of the respondent, 38(84%) agreed that they practice problem-solving skills training, while 7(16) of the respondents disagreed. Majority of the respondents, 38(84%) agreed that instruction

and individualized behavioural intervention plans were designed as part of positive behaviour support strategy, 7(16%) of the respondents disagreed to this statement. Most of the respondents 38(84%) agreed to practice functional behaviour assessments, 7(16%) of the respondents disagreed. Concerning behaviour intervention plans, a total number of 45(100%) respondents opted to agree with this assertion. Many of the respondents totalling 35(78%) agreed they practiced individualized education plans while 10(22%) disagreed to this statement. All the respondents, 45(100%) agreed they taught playground rules, routines, and desired behaviours.

With regards to comprehensive classroom management, it was revealed from the data that, most of the respondents, 39(87%) agreed that they developed general behaviour standards while 13(13%) of the respondent disagreed. In relation to behaviour change plans for children with significant behavioural difficulties, a total of 40(89%) respondents agreed to this assertion, 5(11%) of the respondents disagreed to this assertion. All the respondents 45(100%) agreed to the assertion that proper classroom arrangement was practiced. Majority of the respondents, 44(98%) agreed that they instituted reward and punishment systems as comprehensive classroom management strategy, while 1(2%) of the respondents disagreed. A greater number of the respondents, 33(73%) agreed to reducing transitional time, 12(26%) of the respondents disagreed to the statement.

Concerning the practicing of active involvement in creating and learning classroom/school behavioural norms, 43(96%) of the respondents agreed to this statement while 2(4%) respondents disagreed. In relation to the link to working with parents, many of the respondents, totalling 42(93%) respondents agreed, 3(7%) disagreed. On the creation of a community of caring and support, most of the respondents 37(82%) agreed while 8(18%) respondents to disagree to this statement.

Finally, most of the respondents numbering 35(78%) agreed to providing comprehensive programmes addressing the needs of children with problem behaviours, while 10(22%) respondents disagreed to this statement.

It could be inferred from the analysis that consistent and sound responses to rule violations, classroom-wide behaviour management strategies, effective instructional practices such as doing activities in turns, behaviour intervention plans, teaching playground rules, routines, and desired behaviours and proper classroom arrangement practices were seen to be the major management strategies.

The following themes emerged from the qualitative data collected. The themes were related to verbal warning, application of behaviour consequences, reward and punishment, classroom modification.

4.2.4.1 Verbal warning

Verbal warning surfaced as one of the strategies during the one-one interview process. According to the interview data, verbal warning responses were used as major management strategies by the respondents. Most of the respondents emphasized that, they always managed children rule violations with verbal warnings.

One respondent expressed her consent that:

I always position myself in such a way that anytime I am teaching I can see everyone's face. I mostly use simple verbal warning in response to the child who is misbehaving. If I do not warn the child who misbehaves, the others will do the same (ECT-10).

Another respondent added that:

For me anytime a child goes against a rule in the classroom, I shout at him/ her or warn. Whenever I shout or warn child for doing the wrong thing, the rest become aware that, I am not comfortable with what their friend has done. (ECT-14)

On the contrary, a minority of the respondents argue that verbal warning alone may not be effective. Therefore, it will be more appropriate to apply the consequences of that behaviour.

A respondent shared her view:

As for me, whenever a child in my class misbehaves or fail to respect the rules in the classroom. I apply that behaviour consequences like time out or standing in front of the whole class. I do this to the extent that, that child will not do that again (ECT-15).

Another respondent added:

It is not enough to shout at the child or warn him/her verbally. In my classroom, some of the consequences of the behaviour is time out, you put your finger on your lips. So instead of shouting, I will choose to enforce some of these consequences which will help me. (ECT-11).

Inferring from the responses, it could be suggested that, most of the respondents use verbal warning to respond to children rule violation. It could also be deduced that a minority respondent applied the consequences of the behaviour to deter the children. This afford the respondents some opportunity to control the children behaviour in the classroom. And this significantly helped academic activities.

4.2.4.2 Reward and punishment

Another area of importance which came up during the interview schedule was reward and punishment. It appeared from the interview data that, respondents used reward and punishment to manage children behaviour. The interview data pointed out that, because of the nature of children, they reinforced reward and punishment as a means of correcting children behaviour problem on the spot.

One respondent claimed that:

I always make sure that, the children who do the right things in the classroom are rewarded. Sometimes I reward them with a token, such as points, stickers etc. Likewise, I also punish those who the wrong things. Most often when I give group work, the group which will do well, I reward them with a point beside their group name (ECT-8).

Another respondent added that:

Sometimes I reward children by giving them a token, sticker. Mostly I give them simple good marks, comments of praise. On the other hand, I punish children by informing their parents and discussing their behaviour with them. This ensures that the children do not disturb or misbehave in class again. I do this to discourage the undesirable behaviours in them. And this contributed to the well-being of the children (ECT-1)

Nevertheless, other respondents highlighted that, apart from using reward as a management strategy, they were motivated to correct children misbehaviour on the spot. Respondents claimed that, although their roles as teachers were demanding, they were willing to do their best to help their children put up a desired behaviour.

One of the respondents claimed that:

Although sometimes teaching children gets tough, I always ensure that I keep eyes on the children. I try to do my best to keep my eye contact on the them. I do that, so I can see the children who will be doing their own things in the classroom or those who will not be paying attention in class. I have seen that any moment I punish one of the children, the rest take caution. (ECT-9).

Another respondent said that:

I try as much as possible to draw the children's attention anytime they are going wayward. Each time there is any classroom activity, some of the children pretend to be taking part or be doing their own things, so when I keep my eyes on them or I go to their seats to sit closer with them as a means punishing them for their behaviour. Often when I do that, the other children become alert (ECT-4).

On the contrary, a minority of the respondents believed that using reminders in the classroom help to control the children's behaviour. This reminder affords them the chance to manage the class well.

Another respondent said that:

Hmm, very often when I am teaching, and I see some of the children disturbing or doing something different from what I am doing, I remind them of the rules in the classroom. Sometimes, using reminders in the classroom helps a lot (ECT-12)

It could be inferred from the responses that, most of the respondents used reward and punishment to manage the children problem behaviour. Also, it could be deduced that other respondents instituted reminders in their classroom as a behaviour management strategy.

4.2.4.3 Changing sitting/seating position and rearrangement (Classroom modification)

Concerning the behaviour intervention strategy, changing sitting (seating) position and rearrangement appeared as one of the subjects during interview schedule.

It appeared from the data that, respondents practice changing sitting position to help manage children's problem behaviour. The respondents highlighted that they were intrinsically driven both physically and psychologically to arrange classroom to response to children's misbehaviour. The respondents contended that, this brought

change in the children environment thereby reducing the occurrence of the behaviour problem.

A respondent said:

I always tell my children in the classroom that, where they sit in the classroom is not their permanent seat. So, if I see any child who is not paying full attention in class, though she would not be comfortable I change her seat, so she would be in front. From time to time if a child disturbs others when there is a group activity, I intend to change the sitting position and bring her chair closer to my table, so I can check her actions. This has helps me to check the child's behaviour progress as well. (ECT-10)

Another respondent added that:

When I get to school, I make sure that all the tables and chairs are arranged to suit the activities of the day., I spend time doing all these, so I can reduce the incidence of misbehaviour among children. Whenever the children see me changing another child's sitting position, then the others exercise caution. This has helped me to improve upon the occurrence of negative behaviour (ECT-12).

In addition, a minority of the respondents complained that, they use time out as a supportive strategy to help manage the class behaviour. The respondents claimed that any time they use time out, the children become sad but that has helped them in their classroom management process.

One of the respondents commented:

As for me, the strategy I use is time out. I always do that to make sure that the behaviour that are not helpful are minimized. Anytime I see a child disturbing, I allow that child to go to a place in the classroom, appointed as the time out or cool down area. My time out area is always away from the other children in the classroom. I give children five-minute best periods as time out. And after that child has returned, you will see he/her as changed person. (ECT-15).

It could be deduced from the presentation that, respondents use strategies like changing the sitting position to manage classroom of classroom behaviour. Nevertheless, other respondents also adopted plans like time out to control children's problem behaviour. This strategy helped in managing the situation successfully.

4.2.4.4 Breaking rules and routines (Chunking)

Regarding the interview conducted, one other theme which came up was that, respondents break rules and routines into steps. According to the interview data, respondents practice breaking rules and routines down into smaller steps. This was used in teaching playground rules, routines, and desired behaviours. The interview data revealed that, respondents made every effort to explain playground rules, routines to children using simple language to the children in the classroom.

A respondent commented that:

From time to time, when I enter the classroom, I help the children to set rules in the classroom. I also breaking down the rules and routine into smaller step for them to understand and follow. If I do not explain or break the rules into smaller step, they will do something to make me angry. Anytime I want my children to understand what I am teaching I have to break it into steps (ECT-3).

Another respondent added that:

In my classroom, when I am teaching the children, I take my time to them instructions and rules to follow. Yet still I sometime see some of the children doing a different thing. When it happens like that, I break the rules into steps using simple language. Even the rules and routine in the classroom I break them into steps using simple steps. Very often I am telling them anything and I do not break down into smaller steps, they will not understand and they will be looking at your face (ECT-2)

It could be deduced from the data analysis that majority of the respondents emphasized that they usually break rules and routines into smaller steps for children in the classroom. The data revealed that the essence of breaking the rules into smaller steps was to help control children behaviour.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.0 Overview

This current chapter discusses the data with reference to relevant literature in an attempt to explore the deeper meanings of the responses, and understand the phenomenon. In this chapter, the findings of the questionnaire and the interview were grouped to answer the relevant research questions posed in chapter one. These research questions are:

The study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What are the types of children's problem behaviour prevailing in the pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality?
2. What are views of teachers regarding factors responsible for children's problem behaviour in the pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality?
3. What are the effects of children's problem behaviour on class activities in pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality?
4. What are the classroom management strategies adopted to manage children's problem behaviour in the pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality?

5.1 Part 1: What are the types of children's problem behaviour prevailing in the pre-schools in the Effutu Municipality?

It emerged from the study that, the common children's problem behaviours were related to aggression, child's refusal to take instruction, hyperactivity and destructiveness. The findings from, Hinshaw (2007), conceptualized externalizing behaviours as those established in the form of aggression, delinquency, and hyperactivity. The literature expands the category to include negative, hostile, refused

to take instructions, destructiveness and defiant behaviours which characterize relations with adults, particularly parents and teachers (Bradley & Corwyn, 2007).

In relation to aggression, Goddard (2010) conducted a study to explore the factors associated with aggressive behaviour in children. The findings of the study showed that, aggressive behaviour displayed by children is a growing and common problem of concern. The study found out that aggression was associated with behaviours that lead to harm; such as behaviours intended to harm even if the attempt fails, such as when a person attempts to shoot, but misses a human target and that Aggression is a prominent feature in childhood, often labelled as tantrums in some cases. The study even concluded that violence is aggression, but not all aggression is violence. One theory which backs aggression was the Social Learning Theory by Bandura (1977) This theory appreciates the significance of the fact that children can learn aggression from parents and caregivers who are aggressive. Children pay attention to some of these people (models) and encode their behaviours accordingly. The Social Learning Theory to a greater extent shows how the environment influences our behaviours in our everyday lives.

Some researchers argue there are different types of aggression and make a distinction between instrumental and reactive aggression (Fontaine, 2007). Instrumental aggression is typified by deliberation and instrumental motives whereas reactive aggression results from an interpretation of a provocative, threatening or unjust stimulus, anger, impulsivity and an interest in hurting the perceived Provocateur (Fontaine, 2007). In the United Kingdom (UK), society appears to be in a state of confusion and disbelief as the number of lives lost as a result of the series of aggressive attacks perpetrated by young people increases. Even very young children show features of aggressive behaviour; by eighteen months, children can be observed being

physically aggressive toward siblings, peers and adults (Hay, Castle, & Davies, 2000; Keenan & Shaw, 2004; Keenan & Wakschlag, 2000; Tremblay, 2004). The study further affirms that, the vast majority of children will learn this behaviour based on the cues they receive from their environment. However, this is inconsistent with the social learning theory which emphasizes that, behaviour is learned from the environment through the process of observational learning. This theory appreciates the significance of the fact that children can learn aggressiveness from parents and caregivers who are aggressive.

It was evident from the analysed data that, majority of the respondents agree that aggression was common among preschoolers. Findings from Anderson (2000), conducted a study to explore the different types among kindergarten and preschool children in Mohr, Fars province, Iran in 2013-2014. Findings of the study showed that, the prevalence of aggression is 8–20% in 3–6 years old children. Aggression is a kind of behaviour that causes damage or harm to others. Majority of respondents were of the view that, children become violent when aggressive. Children with aggression exhibit frightening and threatening behaviour like (young child kicks, bites or fights with other children). This has been indeed, supported by a research which has shown that aggressive children are at high risk of later serious and chronic violent behaviour and suggests that there is stability in aggression from adolescence to middle age (Kokko & Pulkkinen, 2005; Loeber & Stouthamer-Loeber, 2008; Nagin & Tremblay, 2004). For example, correlational findings from research have shown that, in young male, physical aggression at year 8 was moderately stable to physical aggression at age 30 ($r = .25$) (Huesmann, Eron, Lefkowitz, & Walder, 1984) and weakly stable from age 8 to severe physical aggression at age 48 ($r = .15$) (Dubow ., 2006). Nagin and Tremblay (2009) found that aggressive behaviour at age six predicted self-reports of

violence and serious delinquency during adolescence among boys, nearly one-half of all children who exhibited moderate levels of aggression at age six showed notably lower levels of aggression by ages 10 to 12.

With regards to non-compliance, it emerged from the study that majority of the respondents agreed that it has been of one of the commonly exhibited problem behaviour in the classroom. Hall and Nancy (2003) conducted a study to investigate children problem behaviour that occurred in a classroom in Northern Ireland. The study found that, in-school most preschool children exhibit various form of problem behaviour but the predominant ones are aggression and refusal to take instructions. The study found that in-school and out-of-school secondary school females aspires vocations such as law, administration, nursing, medicine and accountancy. Wilson and Irvine (2006) asserts that in this study, respondents ascribe to Non-compliance as the behaviour which is often exhibited by pre-schoolers. Smith and Carpenter (2005) also concluded his study by stating that, their findings showed that 28.3% of respondents indicated that they children frequently seen showing signs of refusal to instructions; 21.4% indicated that their children display aggression; and 12.0% show destructive behaviour in private preschool. The lowest problem behaviour expressed by children were anxiety problems (1.7%) and disruptive behaviour (2.4%).

The analyzed data from respondent's suggests that children with non-compliance behaviour have hard times focusing on the direction .The data also suggested that , children's sometime choose to ignore directions and find hard to remember the details of instruction because the instruction may be unclear and indirect instructions were delivered instead of clear and direct instructions, parents sometimes completed instructions for the children which impact on their ability to reach the desire purpose and thus complete tasks effectively. This finding was confirmed in literature

by Colvin, (2009) a study by non-compliance has also become highly prevalent within the classroom and teachers have cited this problem as one of the greatest stressors and concerns they encounter. Colvin, (2009) states that non-compliant behaviour has been the overall highest-ranking reason for sending children to the office.

In a survey of 3,305 kindergarten teachers, Lin, Lawrence, and Gorrell (2003) found that 78% of teachers rated “follows directions” as “very important” and “essential” kindergarten entry-level skills. Only the domains of “tells needs and thoughts” and “is not disruptive” were rated higher. Heaviside and Farris (2003) found that over half of the 1,339 kindergarten teachers they surveyed noted that compliance was an important factor for kindergarten readiness. Although compliance appears to be a very important skill, noncompliance appears to be prevalent among preschool-aged children (Roberts & Powers, 2008; Webster-Stratton, 2007). Wruble, (2001) found an instruction completion mean of 6 s (range, 0.5 to 14 s) across 15 child–parent dyads. This empirically derived mean compliance latency corresponded to many of the nonempirically derived compliance criteria in the literature (Forehand & King, 2005); however, because multiple manipulated variables were not systematically controlled during the instructional conditions (unclear and indirect instructions were delivered instead of clear and direct instructions, parents sometimes completed instructions for the children)

Concerning hyperactivity behaviour, the study revealed that there was high rate incident of hyperactive conduct among children. Children who are labelled as hyperactive have a high incidence of being rejected by their same age peers. Cullinan (2002) separates various types of emotional and behavioural problems in terms of seven descriptors: defiance and aggression, hyperactivity, socialized deviance, anxiety, depression, relationship problems, and learning disorders. Tay & Sim (2008) found

that hyperactivity is a common complaint in children and is characterized by increase in motor activity to a level that interferes with the child's functioning at school, at home or socially. Tay and Sim (2008), established that hyperactive behaviour encompasses characteristics such as aggressiveness, constant activity, impulsiveness, poor concentration and easy blurted of the answer before the question.

It was evident from the analysed data that, majority of the respondents were of the view that children with hyperactivity show excessive motor signs activities such as: found it difficult to remain on her seat and wait for his/ her turn, blurted of the answer before the question. Most of the respondents believed that, children suffering from hyperactivity were always engaged in constant activity. The data presented suggests that that hyperactive children exhibit restless behaviour and engage in unplanned activities. According to Tay & Sim, (2008), some children with this disorder will go to the extent of often fidgeting with hands or feet or squirms in seat, leaves seat in classroom, often runs about or climbs excessively in situations where it is inappropriate. Tay and sim, (2008), again found that, hyperactive children may be limited to subjective feelings of restlessness, talks excessively and blurts out answers to questions before the questions have been completed.

With regard to destructiveness, it emerged that respondents had challenges with their pupils who engaged in such a behaviour. They were unable to find immediate solution to such a behaviour. Respondents also expressed their frustration that, they had to tell parents of such children to intermittently monitor their children, for these children were mostly found tempering with other children's play materials and destroying them.' which leaves the owners with cry and mis comfortable. Tserkovnikova (2011), contends that elements of the destructive activity of a person appear in early childhood and the early ages of children destruction could be very close

or similar to vandalism. These destructive activities of children affect classroom learning. A study by Kruzhkova, (2014), on vandalism from childhood to adolescence. The objective of the study was to investigate the genesis of destructive/ vandal behaviour and the sociopsychological and individual personality factors in the formation of readiness to destroy public property and the property of others. Thus, the study concluded that, destructive activity is not only a specific characteristic of adolescents but young children too. The study further concluded that, basic vandal activity originates in the early stages and may be characterized by destructive actions such as throwing objects or items and damaging classroom materials.

The analysed data further showed that majority of the respondents viewed destructiveness to be common among preschoolers and that children with this problem behaviour tend to engage in deliberate activities to destroy property. The data revealed that respondents sometimes destroy other children's items like pencil, books, erasers, pushing tables and chairs etc. while teaching and learning were in progress. Most of the respondents view children destructive behaviour to intentionally destroying others property. Almost all children engage in these small vandal acts in their communicative environment (Harina, 2005). Children, whom many authors consider the main perpetrators of destructive (Elliott, Huizinga, & Menard, 2009; LeBlanc & Freshette, 2008; Pirozhkov, 2004; Vatova, 2007; Vorobyeva & Kruzhkova, 2014), are quite often prone to vandalism actions against a stranger or public property. This is similar to a study by AACAP, (2012) which suggests that, most children as young as preschoolers can show violent behaviour. The study further suggests that, Violent behaviour in children and adolescents can include a wide range of behaviours: explosive temper tantrums, physical aggression, fighting, threats or attempts to hurt others. The available research suggests that, destruction includes intentionally destroying property or any

willful behaviour aimed at destroying, altering, or defacing property belonging to another. Vatova, (2007) children with intentional destroying/vandal behaviours are repeatedly violent or confrontational and perhaps disobedient, start fights, push, kick, hit or grab, throw things, verbally threaten classmates or staff, or destroy property.

5.2 Part 2: What are views of teachers regarding factors responsible for children's problem behaviour in the pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality?

Numerous themes relating to the children problem behaviour emerged from the questionnaire data. The study revealed that that, potential health (maternal and infant health), variety of prenatal difficulties, child's experience, social environment, parent-child and family relationships were the predominant factors that influences children's problem behaviour.

To begin with, it emerged from the analysis that, potential health (maternal and infant health) was found to be one of the contributing to problem behaviour. Lindeboom (2009) use a policy influencing time of school exit in the UK, and find little evidence of a causal relationship between parental and child and infant health as well as parental health and smoking behaviour. Lindeboom (2009) concluded that, parental (maternal health) adversely result in behavioural disorders among children. Primarily, the data gathered from respondents revealed that, parents of problem children had extremely limited knowledge about their infants and maternal health. Most of the respondents believed that, some parents have little knowledge about their own diet and that of the children. Behrman and Wolfe, (2007) found that, maternal health and education affects child health impart on child's behaviour.

The analysed data revealed that respondents, child's nutrition (diet) appeared as one of the factors contributing to potential health. Primarily, the data gathered from

respondents revealed that, some parent do not give their children enough food to eat and even if, they do, the diet was not balanced. Bellisle, (2007) established that, diet could affect cognitive ability and behaviour in children. Nutrient composition and meal pattern could exert immediate or long-term, beneficial or adverse effects on a child. Beneficial effects mainly result from the correction of poor nutritional status. For example, thiamine treatment reverses aggressiveness in thiamine-deficient adolescents and children (Bellisle, 2007) . According to Bellisle, (2007) a good regular dietary habit was the best way to ensure optimal mental and behavioural performance at all times. SACN (2004) contend that diet lacking essential nutrients or containing too many ingredients that were detrimental in excess was likely to have adverse consequences for brain function and thus mental health and behaviour.

SACN (2007) further established that, lack of certain nutrients, however, may be associated with a range of mental and behavioural disorders. According to SACN (2004) deficiency of omega-3 essential fatty acids (EFAs) in diet is associated with certain mental and behavioural disorders, such as ADHD, depression, dementia, dyspraxia, greater impulsivity and aggressive behaviour, but the association is still only partly understood. Richardson, (2007) argues that significant changes in children's behaviour could be produced by the removal of colourings and additives from their diet (and) benefit would accrue for all children from such a change and not just for those already showing hyperactive behaviour or who are at risk of allergic reactions.

Malnutrition amongst children was most widespread among disadvantaged children living in developing countries. The consequences of malnutrition are severe and long-lasting. Children who are malnourished have longer and more severe illnesses and problem behaviour (Black, 2004; Sepulveda 2008) and have a higher risk of dying (Pelletier, 2004; Schroeder and Brown, 2004), compared to better-nourished children

Kikafunda, (2008) reported that in Uganda, the absence of breastfeeding significantly increased a child's chances of being stunted which is characterized by behaviour changes in children. In contrast McCrary and Royer (2011) use age-at-school-entry policies in California and Texas, and find that potential education has small effects on infant health (as measured by birth weight, prematurity, and rate of infant mortality and children's behaviour), and does not affect prenatal behaviours (as measured by smoking rates and prenatal care). Currie and Moretti (2003) also affirms that, higher maternal education improves infant health. Currie and Moretti (2003) further concluded that, heterogeneous effects suggest that the effects of maternal education on child health depend on characteristics and the sex of the child.

Concerning parent-child and family relationships, the analyzed data revealed that respondents were of the view that, the child interactions with the family and the influence of the immediate surroundings could influence the behaviour of children. Two major theories which support these findings were Attachment Theory (Bowlby, 1969, 1988), Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977) and the Ecological theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1879). Boadu, (2015) contends that, the Attachment theory seeks to preserve some of Freud's insights (about relationships and early experiences in which infant behaviour is organized around managing ever-growing instinctual drives) by casting them in a more scientific framework. Conceptually, the theories assumed that, children behaviour are as a result of the relationship which exist between the child and the parents or other significant adults. Attachment Theory explains how substantial the child's relationships with parents and other significant adults or primary care-givers can influence their behavioural development. Bandura (1977) emphasizes that, behaviour is learned from the environment through the process of observational learning. And this forms the basis of the child's experiences. Social Learning Theory

posits that, people learn from one another via observation, imitation and modelling. Because people can learn via observation alone, their learning may not necessarily be expressed in their execution. Additionally, Bandura (1986) asserts that, learning may or may not result in a behaviour change. He further described his theory of social learning as being developed in a context in which, “the prevailing analysis of learning focused almost entirely on learning through the effects of one’s actions.

The analyzed data presented, suggested that, there was a relationship between the child, their parent’s behaviour, peers and the social environment. The data further suggested that relationship which existed between the child and family and the environment influenced the problem behaviour of the child. This finding was supported by the theory of attachment, which revealed that the theory of attachment between child and parent (caregiver) highlights several benefits. These include, but not limited to providing and seeking comfort for distress, providing and experiencing warmth, empathy and nurturance, providing emotional availability and regulating emotions, providing and seeking physical and psychological protection (Zeanah & Smyke, 2008). The theory puts too much stress on the mother and child relationship, making the assumption that, separation from the mother can contribute to damaging results for the small fry. Zagora, (2014) contends that, understanding of parental relationships is about system, set of emotional relationships of the parent to the child, parental perception of the child and the means of action and behaviour between them. Parental attitude is a part of the specificity of the parental relationships. It directly influences the attitudes and behaviour of the children. Hay, (2005) also affirms that. It has often been assumed that peers are less important in early childhood, when relationships with family members are more influential. However, recent research shows clearly that even infants spend time with peers, and that some three-

and four-year-olds are already having trouble being accepted by their peers. Hay, (2005) Early problems with peers have negative consequences for the child's later social and emotional development. To understand why some children find it hard to relate to peers, it is important to study the early development of peer relations or relationship. While it may be acknowledged that peers are important, poor peer relations are assumed to be a common correlate of children's behaviour problems (Campbell & Paulauskas, 2009; Serafica & Harway, 2009), and most child clinicians take for granted that children who have problems at home will also have difficulty at school and with peers. All these influences the children behaviour.



5.3 Part 3: What are the effects of children's problem behaviour on classroom activities in the pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality?

In relation to the research question three, several themes emerged from the analyzed data. The data revealed that that, effects of children's problem behaviour on class activities were; impacts on children's learning, difficulties learning new skills, breeds of social exclusion from peers, and associated deviant behaviour such as aggression, withdrawal, and distress.

To begin with, it emerged from the data that, problem behaviour impacts on children's learning. Firstly, the analyzed data from respondents suggested that most children with problem behaviour engaged in activities which draws their attention from what the class activity thereby affecting their academic activities. The data revealed that, children sometimes expressed their emotions in many ways during teaching which calls for the attention of the teacher and intend waste instructional time. Respondents highlighted that, some of the children make noise with objects that they would be holding to divert the attention of those learning. The analyzed data also pointed out that, children exhibit disruptive behaviour which affect their learning in the classroom. Data also revealed that some children also engage in disruptive activities which impede their participation in academic activities in the classroom. As such, this situation they believed influenced and impacted on the general academic performance of the children. Many types of behaviour disrupt children learning. These include talking out of turn, being out of the seat without permission, not paying attention and distracting other children by making noise or touching them (Hinshaw, 2002). It also has been suggested that children exhibiting disruptive behaviours may have difficulties learning new skills (DEC, 2009). Finn, Pannozzo, and Voelkl (2005) also state that teachers can make a big difference in their classrooms by responding to disruptive behavior by

making changes to the lessons, asking students to read out loud, calling on certain students more often to improve academic growth.

Thomas and Guskin (2001) and Thomas and Clark (2008) examined disrupted behaviours in young children between the ages of 0-4 using Diagnostic Classification 0-3, which is an addition to the DSM-IV-TR (2000) used for young children. The authors suggest that the observable behaviour is actually a result from the child's internal stress. Of the 64 children assessed the most common diagnoses from the DC-03 were traumatic stress disorder 23%, disorder of affect 41%, and regulatory disorder 30%. The most common DSM- IV-TR (2000) diagnoses that were given using the same children were adjustment disorder 30%, oppositional defiant disorder 14%, dysthymia 14%, and attention deficit Hyperactivity Disorder 13%. The authors suggest that using an adaptive diagnosing tool may be useful to identify key risk factors that may influence the diagnosis of disruptive disorders

Regnier (2008) found that seventh grade children with disruptive behaviour are not only more frequently absent and tardy than their non-behaviour disordered counterparts, but also are less likely to complete their homework and more likely to earn failing grades. Ladd, Birch, & Buhs, 2009; Merrell & Wolfe, 2008; Vaughn, Hogan, Lancelotta, Shapiro, and Walker, (2002) suggested that children with disruptive behaviour are vulnerable to a host of difficulties during the school years and beyond. They further suggest that, such children are at increased risk for academic and social difficulties, including learning disabilities, peer rejection, and decreased teacher expectations. A child's attention span is a very important factor in the learning process. The amount of time a child spends listening and understanding the teacher affects how much he or she has taken from the lesson (AACAP, 2016).

In relation to breeds of social exclusion from peers, the analysed data revealed that, there was a minimal communication and interpersonal relationship with friends and peers. The findings showed that, there was no existing social interaction between the problem child and their friend and peers. It was claimed that, during the play time the problem child will cause trouble for the peers which make the peers unable to include them in the next activity or play time. The information presented confirmed, children with problem behaviour suffer isolation academically. It was further established that; children with behaviour problem experience a larger form of isolation (segregation) from friends

According to Hay, (2005) recent research shows clearly that, even infants spend time with peers, and that some three- and four-year-olds are already having trouble being accepted by their peers because early problems with peers have negative consequences for the child's later social and emotional development. According Hay, (2005) peer acceptance is affected by many factors in a child's life, such as their relationships at home with parents and siblings, the parents' own relationship and the family's levels of social support. Hay, Payne and Chadwick, (2004) however contend that, peer acceptance is most directly affected by children's own behaviour. Studies showed that highly aggressive children are not accepted by their peers but this may depend on gender (Crick, Casas & Mosher, 2007) Aggressive children are often rejected by their peers, although aggression does not always preclude peer acceptance. It is clear that peer relations pose special challenges to children with conduct disorders and others who lack the emotional, cognitive and behavioural skills that underlie harmonious interaction. The risk for children with early behavioural and emotional problems is exacerbated by the peer rejection they experience (Hay, 2005).

Shore (2016) suggests that, some children are isolated from classmates for a much different reason: their behaviours may turn others off. He further contends that, they may cut in line, talk too much, interrupt conversations, make fun of others, and butt in during games. Not surprising, these children, have trouble making and keeping friends (Kenneth & Shore, 2016). Literature established that, young children who demonstrate problem behaviours in classrooms, playgroups or other social environments are at risk of a number of later difficulties, including social exclusion from peers, and in some extreme cases, social isolation for the child (Doss & Reichle, 2001; Katz & McClellan, 2007). As a result, there is an increased likelihood that peers will dislike the individual child exhibiting disruptive behaviours (Hartup & Moore, 2000). Likewise, Children who display disruptive behaviour in school settings also pay a price in terms of academic underachievement (Hinshaw, 2002), increased rates of drop out (Sutherland & Wehby, 2001), and rejection by peers (Coie & Dodge, 2008). Young children who demonstrate difficult behaviour are more likely to face persistent peer rejection and negative family interactions (Patterson & Fleischman 2009; Crick, 2006)

Concerning the and associated deviant behaviours such as aggression, withdrawal, and distress, respondents believed the problem behaviour produced sub-behaviour such as deviant behaviours. The analyzed data emphasized that, children problem behaviour was characterized by forceful behaviour and delinquent. The data claimed that, this affected the quality of children's behaviour. Research suggested that behaviour problems evident in the preschool years were suggestive of future conduct problems, including aggression, antisocial behaviours and juvenile delinquency (Fox, Dunlap, & Cushing, 2002; Masse, & Tremblay, 2009; Stormont, 2002; Webster-Stratton, Reid, & Hammond, 2001; White, Moffit, Earls, Robins, & Silva, 2000). As

aforementioned, children who engage in aggressive behaviours in preschool often are likely to engage in deviant behaviours in middle school; the early onset of aggressive behaviours is the single biggest predictor of future inappropriate and disruptive behaviours and later adult social maladjustment (Hartup & Moore, 2000). These findings were supported by Conner, (2001) who revealed that, children with problem behaviour exhibit aggressive and other antisocial behaviour towards peers.

Data further confirmed that, behaviour challenges may result in violent actions (behaviour) and other misbehaviour against others. According to Richman, (2002) children who display problems with over activity and peers in preschool are likely to be violent and have other future conduct problems through age eight. White, (2000) research claimed that, various characteristics of preschool children were indicative of antisocial behaviours at age eleven. His research suggests that 70% of the children identified as “antisocial” at age eleven were accurately identified during preschool as antisocial, based on parent ratings of their behaviour, and that behavioural problems in children as young as five years of age can predict behavioural problems in the future. Research conducted with older children supports Campbell’s (2005) findings that behaviour problems have numerous effects on the individual. For example, Moffit (2000) found that children who engaged in seriously disruptive behaviour in adolescence, displayed a long-standing history of behaviour problems such as violence that originated during the preschool years.

5.4 Part 4: What classroom management strategies are adopted to manage children's problem behaviour in the pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality?

In relation to the research question four, several themes emerged from the questionnaire and one- on-one interview. These themes were related to: consistent and sound responses to rule violations, classroom-wide behaviour management strategies, effective instructional practices such as doing activities in turns, behaviour intervention plans, teaching playground rules, routines, and desired behaviours.

To start with, it emerged from the findings that, respondents adopted consistent and sound responses to rule violations. Most of the respondents emphasized that, they always managed their children rule violations with clear and concrete set of classroom rules. Meardor, (2017) argues that rules and expectations should be simple, straightforward and clear, covering the essential aspects of behaviour management. It is essential that you are fair and consistent no matter whom the pupil is. It is essential that they are well written avoiding vagueness and wordiness that can be counterproductive by creating confusion Meardor (2017). Emmer and Evertson, (2012) affirm that, when rules are establish, they response to misbehaviour/problem behaviour. According to Curwin and Mendler, (2011) rules help in classroom management but should be consistent to classroom climate. One of the most recommended techniques for writing rule is “should clear and concrete, and should be stated positively” Through teacher presentation of consistent and sound responses to rules violation. Children learn boundaries for classroom behaviour and the Dos and Don'ts of classroom life (Boostrom, 2001). Establishing schoolwide rules is a fundamental component of schoolwide positive behavioural intervention support programs that are commonly used by schools to prevent and treat emotional and

behavioural disorders (Farmer, Reinke & Brooks, 2014; Sugai & Horner, 2002). When rule violations occur, it is important to have planned, consistent, and explicit/ sound responses that direct student attention to the specific rule they violated and direct professionals to needs for environmental changes and/or instruction (Stormont, 2008).

The analysed data also suggested that, respondents used verbal warning to manage activities of rule violation. Most of the respondents emphasized that, they always managed their children rule violations with verbal warnings either by shouting at them or approaching them with the warning According to Reeve, (2006) verbal reward should include (verbal praise, smile, head nod) while verbal warning (verbal cautioning, looking at the student sternly, asking the children to stop) could be used in place of physical beaten. The reinforcer, or consequences of behaviour, tends to increase or sustain the frequency or duration with which the behaviour is exhibited in the future (Alberto & Troutman, 2006). When teachers revert to making harsh or critical comments, children may actually increase problem behaviours in their classrooms.

It was further revealed that; a minority of respondent apply the consequences of the behaviour in order to deter the children. This afforded them some opportunity to control the children behaviour in the classroom. Reeve, (2006,) established motivating learners to learn behaviour appropriately, knowing the difference between the consequences and the punishment is very keen. Reeve, (2006) further contended, that, reward and penalties are necessary, emphasis on reward (the positive consequence of the right behaviour should always outweigh the emphasis on penalties (the negative consequence). Carr, (2004) stated that, more serious out bursts of misbehaviour, where the child chooses to act inappropriately must be met with consequences, which are clear and logical. For example, if children fight in the yard, it is a logical consequence

that they will have to leave the yard. If children distract others in class they will have to work away from others. It is important that the consequences are fairly immediate, implementable, and appropriate. Carr, (2004) further added that, Consequences might include being moved in the classroom, a loss of privileges, or stay in gin during a break to finish work or tidy up a mess. Consequences should never be physically or psychologically harmful or humiliating (Carr, 2004)

Classroom-wide behaviour management strategies emerged as one of the management strategies adopted to manage children's problem behaviour. Analyzed data pointed out that, because of the nature of children, they use reinforcement. Mostly reinforcement was used to control children misbehaviours. Educators use positive reinforcement to increase the likelihood that a desired behaviour will reoccur again and again. Positive reinforcement increases student's self-awareness and provokes confidence as the schoolchild understands what they are expected to do Pettit, (2012). Positive reinforcement can either be a reward for good behaviour, or simply positive communication in the form of praise or encouragement. (McCarthy, 2010).

A study by Maori, (2008) investigated the classroom management strategies among 50 selected teachers in a New York school. The findings revealed that most teachers reported to using social reinforcement such as verbal praise, positive feedback, use of tokens, use of privileges such as extra computer time, positive touching and positive note home to parents. Another research was conducted by Maini, (2011), in Ontario Canada on the pro-active approach to behaviour in class with children as respondents. Findings indicated that after teachers used reinforcement in the form of rewards and antecedent strategies, the majority of children benefited in academic achievement.

Wafula, Malimbe and Kafu, (2011) in their study, presupposed that reinforcement in the secondary school classroom in Kenya aims at encouraging student's positive academic achievement, teacher efficacy and in a nutshell effective teaching and learning. The findings revealed that positive reinforcement was more elaborate and often used by the teachers in the classroom management. The findings were that forms of incentives are good in themselves but those that tend to be material in nature, should not be frequently used. This is because children might perform the task for the sake of the reward. The study concluded that positive reinforcements are essential techniques in classroom learning behaviour management.

Another study by Dillion and Wanjiru, (2013) investigated the reinforcement strategies for teachers and learners of English in an urban primary school in Kenya. The findings indicated that positive reinforcement was more impactful and elaborate often used by the teachers in the classroom management. Moreover, the findings revealed that forms of rewards and appraisal are good in themselves in reinforcing learners.

Garber, (2006) adds that reinforcement strategies in classroom instruction can promote academic achievement and builds children' character. However, on correcting infringement on the spot, Rogers, (2016) refers to the on-the-spot techniques you use to manage Children while teaching. It assumes you have already established things such as rules, routines and relationships with your children. However, you use it before having to use formal consequences (or in some school's – being sent. In short, it is a set of strategies that help you nip small problems in the bud and keep everyone's focus on the lesson at hand (Roger, 2016).

From the analysis of data, it was revealed that, respondents adopted the use of reward and punishment, to control and to manage the class behaviour. These improved

upon their behaviour and influenced wellbeing of the children as well. According to Albaiz and Ernest, (2015) behaviourism, holds that rewards increase the likelihood of desired behaviours, and punishment decreases the repetition of undesired behaviours. Punishment should be used in the classroom to decrease undesirable behaviours. Punishment in the classroom needs to be implemented with care, and should never be used to single Children out or to punish behaviours that are due to a specific disability, (Taurozz, 2015). Munn, (1999) suggest that, by recognizing and rewarding 'good' behaviour and punishing 'bad' behaviour it is believed that the good behaviour will be encouraged. Research on teachers' classroom talk has shown that teachers use praise very infrequently. (Smith, 2009). Munn (1999) asserts that praise and reward systems involve the formal and public recognition of good behaviour. Once the behaviour has become an established habit, rewards can be given every now and then to encourage the child to maintain the preferred behaviour (Njeru, 2012). Munn (1999) further states that, at some stage (perhaps if misbehaviour is persistent or serious but not if there is an isolated minor problem) parents are informed that their child has been given a punishment for breaking classroom or school rules. Punishments differ in the degree of severity of their unpleasantness, and may include sanctions such as reprimands, deprivations of privileges or liberty, fines, incarcerations, ostracism, the infliction of pain, and the death penalty (Doyle, 2009).

The analysed data further indicated that, minority of the respondents used reminders to manage classroom behaviour. A behavioural reminder is a brief, neutral prompt to help the children to remember and follow classroom behavioural expectations (Simonsen, Fairbanks, Briesch, Myers & Sugai, 2008). Simonsen, (2008), further contended that, this strategy is used when the student appears to be distracted or otherwise requires a simple reminder of expected behaviours. Children need

reminders in school to keep their work and behaviour on track. According to Munn, (2014) using reminding language before children start a possibly challenging task, or right when they start to make a mistake, teachers help them stay on task, organized, responsible, and safe.

It emerged from the study that, respondents adopted behaviour intervention plans to help manage children's problem behaviour. Findings revealed that, changing a child's environment reduces the occurrence of the behaviour. The analyzed data further indicated that, change sitting arrangement make sure that children's behaviour help to reduce the problem behaviour. It was also affirmed that, respondents used classroom modifications such as changing the sitting position and rearranging classroom as a behaviour intervention plan. Classroom physical environments can influence the way children behave. The physical arrangement and features of the classroom environment, such as seating arrangements, lighting, and organization, can influence Children' behaviour and attention to academic tasks (Evans & Lovell, 2009; Fullerton & Guardino, 2010; Schilling & Schwartz, 2004). This was found in literature that, the classroom environment plays a central role in encouraging positive behaviour (Hemmeter, Ostrosky & Corso 2012). Classroom physical environment can affect learning by changing patterns of teacher–student interaction and by reducing distractions and “downtime” (Trussell, 2008). For example, certain kinds of seating arrangements can facilitate student interaction but can also distract children during individual work. Classrooms cluttered with furniture can result in Children constantly bumping into each other and create an environment where disruptive behaviour is likely to occur (Caroline, Guardino, Shirind & Antia, (2012).

Researchers have investigated the relationship between the classroom environment, children behaviour and the academic engagement (Hood-Smith &

Liffingwell, 2003, Vesser, 2001). A well-organized classroom permits more preventive interaction between the teacher and children, reducing the probability that problem behaviour will occur (Martella, Nelson & Marchand-Martella, 2003). Findings revealed that, respondents used environment modifications such as changing the sitting position and rearranging classroom as a behaviour intervention plan. Modifying the classroom environment may serve as a direct intervention for children who demonstrate ongoing disruptive or behaviour problem (Conroy, Davis, Fox & Brown, 2002). Environmental modification is a preventive, whole -class approach that may decrease chronic behaviour problem or prevent behaviour problem for children who are a risk, and all children with minimal or no problem behaviour to access learning without interruption (Emmer & Stoough, 2001).

According Danko, (2010) environmental modification are an essential part of classroom management, many teachers are not aware of the process of implementing them. Literature further affirm that, classroom space can be modified in variety of ways (Bullard, 2010; Guardino, 2008) including arranging classroom furniture, to define learning areas, improving accessibility and availability of materials.

Nevertheless, it was also revealed that, a minority of the respondents implemented time out as intervention plans to control children's problem behaviour. From the analysis, it was revealed that, respondents also adopted time out to control children's problem behaviour. Time-out has been used by teachers to address a broad range of maladaptive behaviours across a variety of educational placements (Costenbader & Reading-Brown, 2005). A survey of teachers of children with E/BD in the Midwest found that nearly three quarters (70%) used time-out in their classrooms at some time (Zabel, 2006). According to Katsiyannis (2017) time-outs, however, are subject to abuse when educators fail to understand and apply the behavioural principles

that make the procedures effective in reducing problem behaviours. Some teachers continue to use time-outs even when they are not effective in reducing a children's inappropriate behaviour. Moreover, the inappropriate use of time-out may lead to legal problems; recent court cases have ruled that extreme use of time-out procedures may violate Children' individual rights (Yell, 2006). Furthermore, Nau, Van Houten, and O'Neil, (2001) in one of their first studies exploring time-out, concluded that time-out was shown to be effective in reducing problem behaviour like disruption in a general education elementary school classroom. Restrained time-out, also called movement suppression, was effective in reducing aggressive behaviours for a student with E/BD (Noll & Simpson, 2009), and (Luiselli, Suskin & Slocumb, 2004). It was also effective in reducing self-injurious behaviours for a student with E/BD (Rolider & Van Houten, 2005).

Finally, on teaching playground rules, routines, and desired behaviours. Analyzed data revealed that, respondents made every effort to explain playground rules, routines, and desired behaviour to children in the classroom. Respondents often discuss with children, anytime playground rules, routines, and desired behaviours were complicated for children to act safely. Literature maintains that, to prevent problem behaviours in the classroom, it is often necessary for teachers to change their own behaviours (Vaughn, Bos & Schumm, 2000). The same strategies and procedures will not necessarily be equally effective with all children. Classroom routines can positively affect children' academic performance as well as their behaviour (Cheney, 2009; Vallecorsa, de Bettencourt, & Zigmond, 2000); therefore, one proactive strategy is for teachers to adopt a consistent classroom routine. According to Mayer, (2005) a well-defined rule in the classroom can prevent many behavioural difficulties. When children are involved in the development of the rules, they are more likely to adhere to

them and understand why they have been put into place. Ringina, Oliver, Daniel and Reschly, (2007) maintain that, rules should also be explained according to “what it is” and “what it is not”. Each rule should be explained in detail to ensure that children understand what is included in the rule. Ringina et al (2007) again stated that, rules and routines should be explained using clear, concise language. As well, they should be explained through the use of specific examples and role-playing. These concrete activities are very beneficial for the child who is behaviourally affected. As well, the teacher should teach that rules may be different in special areas (e.g., the lunchroom, hallway, school bus, or playground) (Oliver & Reschly, 2007).

Findings further suggest that, respondents employed easy to understand language and concise sentences to help teach playground rules, routines, and desired behaviours. On the other hand, other respondents also adopted the use of breaking rules, routines, down into smaller steps and model the steps. Oliver and Reschly, (2007) that, if the routine is complicated, the teacher breaks it down into smaller steps. A visual or written chart supports the verbal instruction. Once the routine is explained in detail, the teacher demonstrates or models the task, using the student’s visual or written plan. The teacher then asks the children to repeat the step. Rules and routine should be explained in easy to understand language using short, concise sentences (Oliver & Reschly, 2007).

Swanson, (2005) also claimed that, rules should be observable, easy to understand and clearly illustrate what the student should do, rather than simply what not to do. A rule such as "no hitting" does not provide any information about what is desired or appropriate. Alternately, "keep hands to self" or "keep hands on the table" specifically describes the appropriate behavior. Finally, Savage, (2009) argued that, routines should include knowing how to participate in discussions, behaving as

expected in groups, and following rules for getting the teacher's attention. Once these routine tasks are identified, teachers should establish clear, discrete procedures for handling routine events that are simple, easy for children to understand, and quick for them to perform (Savage, 2009). Of course, classroom routines will vary according to the teacher's goals, by grade level, and Children' ability to exercise control of their behaviour (Burden, 2003; Colvin & Lazar, 2005; Savage, 2009).

5.5 Summary

In this chapter, the findings provided by the questionnaire and interview discussion in chapter four have been discussed in relation to the literature review in the study. This chapter discussed the research findings on the types of children's problem behaviour, followed by the factors that are responsible for children's problem behaviour. Thirdly, it discussed the effects of children's problem behaviour on class activities. Finally, it concluded the chapter with the discussion of the fourth research question which was focused classroom management strategies that are adopted to manage children's problem behaviour. The next chapter deals with the summary, conclusions and recommendation of the study.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

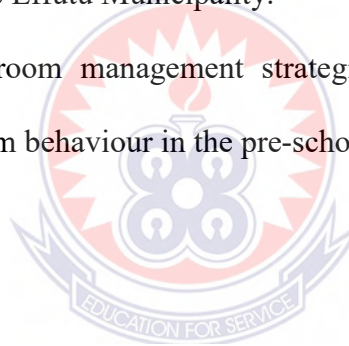
6.0 Overview

This final chapter comprises major findings and conclusions. This chapter would focus on the recommendations of the study and suggested areas for future research.

6.1 Summary of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine children's problem behaviour and classroom management strategies among selected schools of the Effutu Municipality in the Central region of Ghana. To achieve this purpose, the following research objectives were formulated to guide the study:

1. Determine the types of children's problem behaviour prevailing in pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality
2. Ascertain views of teachers regarding responsible for children's problem behaviour in the pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality
3. Explore the effects of children's problem behaviour on class activities in the pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality.
4. Investigate classroom management strategies that are adopted to manage children's problem behaviour in the pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality



To achieve these objectives, the sequential explanatory mixed method was employed around the following research questions:

1. What are the types of children's problem behaviour prevailing in the pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality?
2. What are the views of teachers regarding factors responsible for children's problem behaviour in the pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality?
3. What are the effects of children's problem behaviour on class activities in the pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality?
4. What classroom management strategies are adopted to manage children's problem behaviour in the pre-schools of the Effutu Municipality?

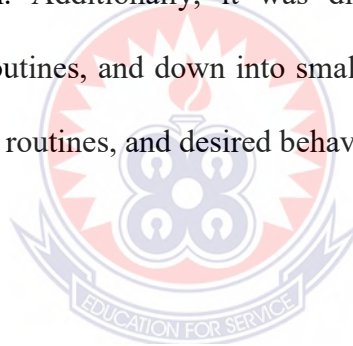
The conceptual framework of the study explored children's problem behaviour and classroom management strategies among schools of the Effutu Municipality. The conceptual framework discussed four main concepts; types of children's problem behaviour factors that influence the development of children's problem. Afterwards, the effects of children's problem behaviour on class activities and classroom management strategies. This information acquired from the conceptual framework directed and influenced the process of data collection and analysis, which also guided the development of themes for the findings. The conclusions answer the four key research questions stated. The following key findings emerged from the study.

6.2 Key Findings

The following key findings emerged from the study:

1. It emerged from the analysed data that, the common problem behaviour children displayed were aggression, non-compliance, hyperactivity, and destructiveness. The analysis revealed that children become violent and exhibit threat when aggressive. The data further showed that children with non-compliance attitude refuse to take instruction/ follow rules. It was suggested that hyperactive children showed excessive activity. The analysed data further indicated that destructive children had the intent to plan deliberate activities or destruction of property(vandalism).
2. The study revealed that the factors responsible for the problem behaviour were potential health (maternal and infant health), variety of prenatal difficulties, parent-child and family relationships. The analysed data revealed that nutrition (diet) influenced the health and behaviour of the mother and the child. It was further discovered that the level of interactions/ relationship with exist the between the child, parent and family influenced the behaviour of the child.
3. It was noted from the analysis of data that impacts on children's learning, difficulty in learning new skills, breeds of social exclusion from peers, and associated deviant behaviours such as aggression, withdrawal, and distress were the effects of the problem behaviour. Additionally, analysed data suggested that children exhibited disruptive behaviour and as well as other distractive activities which impede their participation in academic activities thereby affecting their learning. The analysed data revealed that children faced isolation from peer's leading to rejection during classroom activities. It was further revealed that children exhibited violent behaviour which resulted in injury.

4. It emerged from the analysed data that consistent and sound responses to rule violations, classroom-wide behaviour management strategies, effective instructional practices such as doing activities in turns, behaviour intervention plans, teaching playground rules, routines, and desired behaviours were the dominated management strategies. The analysis suggested that verbal warning and application of behaviour consequences were used as consistent and sound responses to rule violations. The analysed data also revealed that, respondents adopted reward and punishment as well as using reminders as classroom-wide behaviour management strategies. It was further revealed that respondents modified the classroom environment and implemented time out as a behaviour intervention plan. Additionally, it was discovered that respondents used breaking rules, routines, and down into smaller steps as strategies in teaching playground rules, routines, and desired behaviours.



6.3 Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn based on the findings;

1. The predominant type of children's problem behaviours were related to aggression, non-compliance, hyperactivity, destructiveness, threatening and violence, refuse to take instruction/ follow rules, and intentionally destruction of property. These behaviours affects their personal learning and classroom activity
2. The effects of problem behaviour on children revealed that they experienced impact learning, difficulties learning new skills, breeds of social exclusion from peers, and associated deviant behaviours such as aggression, withdrawal, and distress. Analysed data further suggested that, children encountered effects like disruptive, isolation from peers and violent behaviour.
3. The factors responsible for children problem behaviour were related to potential health (maternal and infant health), variety of prenatal difficulties, parent-child and family relationships, nutrition (diet), child's relationship (interactions). These influence their behaviour in the classroom and within the environment.
4. The strategies adopted by the respondents were related to practicing consistent and sound responses to rule violations, classroom-wide behaviour management strategies, effective instructional practices such as doing activities in turns, behaviour intervention plans, teaching playground rules, routines, and desired behaviours. The finding further revealed that other strategies were linked to verbal warning and application of behaviour consequences, reward and punishment as well as using reminders, changing sitting position (modification) of the classroom environment, time-out, breaking rules, routines, and down into smaller steps.

6.4 Recommendations of the Study

The following recommendations were drawn based on the findings of the study:

1. It is recommended that, the Effutu Municipal Assembly, Winneba Educational Directorate and the headteachers of the sampled schools organize behaviour guidance and outreach programmes for their teacher on the various types children problem behaviour and educate the teachers on the various aspects of the children behaviour and it corresponding demands. The above-mentioned institutions should organize field trips to preschool and institutions in the nation to expose teachers to the various early childhood working environment.
2. The Effutu Municipal Assembly, Winneba Educational Directorate and the head teachers selected schools for the study should organize programmes geared towards educating parents and teachers on the factors that are responsible for children problem behaviour. The Assembly should collaborate with the education service directorate to institute scholarship schemes for teachers to facilitate their higher learning in children behaviour. Parents should also be educated on the child nutrition(diet), child's relationship factors to be better informed on the preparation to be made to facilitate their wards behaviour wellbeing.

3. The Effutu Municipal Assembly, Winneba Educational Directorate and the headteachers selected of schools for the study should organize programmes in collaboration with the early childhood unit on how to cope, prevent and improve on the effects problem behaviour to ease the burden of parents and teachers.
4. The Effutu Municipal Assembly, Winneba Educational Directorate and the head teachers selected schools for the study should organise programmes on effective behaviour management strategies for respondents to equip them with proper management skills. Winneba Educational Directorate and the head teachers selected schools for the study should institute policies which would protect the rights children with problem behaviour. The Effutu Metropolitan Assembly, Winneba Educational Directorate and the headteachers of selected schools for the study should also provide facilities that would enable teachers better manage or cope with the situation.

6.5 Suggestions for future Research

The study investigated the children's problem behaviour, factors responsible for the problem behaviour, effects and the management strategies adopted to control the problem behaviour among the selected schools in the Effutu municipality. It was therefore suggested that future studies should focus on increasing the sample of the study to include more respondents for the study, this would make the findings more reliable. It is further suggested that future researchers should explore children's emotional problem disorder among the various public schools. Further study could also be done for children with special needs children to ascertain whether they are different from the normal children. To conclude, researchers should utilize mixed method of data collection to enhance the quality of the study.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION WINNEBA

FACULTY OF EDUCATIONAL STUDIES

DEPARTMENT OF EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

This research Instrument is structured to obtain information with the objective of the thesis writing at the University of Education, Winneba. The research is being conducted on the; **Children's problem behaviour and classroom management strategies among selected early childhood centres of the Effutu Municipality**. The information you provide will be treated confidential and anonymously.

Thank you for your cooperation and assistance.

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Please place a tick (✓) in the appropriate box.

1. Gender

a. Male []

b. Female []

2. Age Range

a. 50-60 years []

c. 40-50 years []

e. 20-30 years []

b. 60 and above []

d. 30-40 years []

3. Educational Level

a. Diploma []

b. Degree []

c. Master's in Education []

4. Years of experience
- a. 0-4 []
 - b. 5-9 []
 - c. 10 and above []

SECTION A

MAIN DATA

Types of problem behaviour

Instruction: Please, read each of the following statements carefully and indicate how you feel about each of them. For each item, please answer using the following scales 4= Strongly Agree (SA), 3 = Agree (A), 2 = Disagree (D) or 1= Strongly Disagree (SD) with the following statements.

N ^o	Items	SD	D	A	SA
1	Children exhibit various problem behaviour in the early childhood centre				
2	Aggression is a common problem behaviour among pre-schoolers				
3	Children refusal to take instruction from their teachers is a problem behaviour among pre-schoolers				
4	Hyperactivity is a problem behaviour in pre-school centres				
5	Destructiveness is a prevailing condition among children in the pre-school centres				

SECTION B

Some Factors Influencing Problem Behaviour

Instruction: Please, read each of the following statements carefully and indicate how you feel about each of them. For each item, please answer using the following scales 4= Strongly Agree (SA), 3 = Agree (A), 2 = Disagree (D) or 1= Strongly Disagree (SD) with the following statements.

NO	Items	SS	D	A	SA
	Biological Factors				
1	Potential health (<i>Maternal and infant health</i>) of parents influence children problem behaviour				
2	Parents Physiological concerns can influence problem behaviour.				
3	Maturation affects children problem behaviour.				
4	Parents physical and psychological wellbeing can influence problem behaviour in children				
5	lower nutritional status in early childhood influences problem behaviour				
6	Possible allergy to certain nutrients influences children problem behaviour				
7	Variety of prenatal difficulties influence children problem behaviour				
8	Prematurity and very low birth weight increases children problem behaviour				
	Psychological				
1	Child's experience influences problem behaviour				
2	Those involved in the child's life influences problem behaviour				
3	Depressive disorder can increase children problem behaviour.				
	Social Factors				
1	The social environment of the child influences their problem behaviour				
	Parental lifestyle can influence children problem behaviour				
1	Maternal mental state influences children problem behaviour				
2	Parent-child and family relationships influences problem behaviour				
3	Parenting and discipline practices affect children problem behaviour				
4	Location in the social structure influences children problem behaviour				

SECTION C

Effect of Problem Behaviour

Instruction: Please read each of the following statements carefully and choose the response that best describes how true each statement is for you. For each item, please answer using the following scales 4= Strongly Agree (SA), 3 = Agree (A), 2 = Disagree (D) or 1= Strongly Disagree (SD) with the following statements.

N ^o	Items	SD	D	A	SA
	Classroom activity				
1	Children with problem behaviour frequently absent and tardy than their non-behaviour disordered counterparts				
2	Children with problem behaviour are less likely to complete their homework and more likely to earn failing grades				
3	Children with problem behaviour exhibit inappropriate behaviours in the classroom				
4	Problem behaviour adversely impacts children's learning				
5	Children who displayed attention and behaviour problems and generally regarded as "hard-to-manage"				
6	Children with problem behaviour demonstrate behavioural disorders as well as academic difficulties in elementary school				
7	Children exhibiting challenging behaviours may have difficulties learning new skills				
	Problem behaviour children are likely to perform lower on measures of reading ability and general intelligence				
	Social relationships				
1	Problem behaviours displayed by young children can affect many domains of functioning including social skills, communication, and play				
2	Problem behaviour breeds social exclusion from peers				
3	Extreme cases of problem behaviour results in social isolation for the child.				
4	Problem behaviour makes children less socially competent, hyperactive, and aggressive				
5	Children problem behaviour are associated with other more deviant behaviours such as aggression, withdrawal and distress				
6	Problem behaviour increases the likelihood of peers disliking the individual child exhibiting disruptive behaviours				

	Across the lifespan				
1	Problem behaviour are suggestive of future conduct problems, including antisocial behaviours and juvenile delinquency				
2	Problem behaviours evident in early childhood are a predictive factor in the development of behaviour problems at various points in time				
3	Problem behaviour may develop into patterns of behaviour that can follow the child throughout their life.				
4	Most Problem behaviours are powerful indicators of delinquent behaviour at age eleven				
5	Behavioural problems in children can predict conduct problems in the future				
6	Behaviours present in early childhood, more specifically externalized behaviours such as aggression				
7	Challenging behaviours present in young children can have detrimental effects during adolescence stage as well				



SECTION E

Management strategies for Problem Behaviour

Instruction: Please, read each of the following statements carefully and indicate to the extent to which you agree to the items by choosing to the following responses: 4= Strongly Agree (SA), 3 = Agree (A), 2 = Disagree (D) or 1= Strongly Disagree (SD) with the following statements.

N ^o	Items	SD	D	A	SA
	Proactive Interventions				
1	I use visual and verbal cue				
2	I teach about the expected behaviours				
3	I give consistent and sound responses to rule violations				
4	I provide individualized programming for more chronic behavioural difficulties				
5	I make sure rule violations are addressed immediately and effectively				
6	I ensure that individualized behavioural programs are instituted for children with more chronic behavioural difficulties				
7	I make sure that quality teacher-student and peer relationships are encouraged				
	Positive Behaviour Support(PBS)				
1	I use effective school-wide disciplinary practices such as reinforcement of good behaviour				
2	I provide classroom-wide behaviour management strategies				
3	I use effective instructional practices such as doing activities in turns				
4	I practice problem-solving skills training				
5	I specially designed instruction and individualized behavioural intervention plans				
6	I use functional behaviour assessments				
7	I have designed behaviour intervention plans,				
8	I have put in place Individualized Education Plans				
9	I teach playground rules, routines, and desired behaviours				

	Comprehensive Classroom Management				
1	I develop general behaviour standards				
2	I design individual behaviour change plans for children with significant behavioural difficulties				
3	I use appropriate classroom arrangement practices				
4	I have instituted reward and punishment systems				
5	I have reduced transitional time				
6	I practice active student involvement in creating and learning classroom/school behavioural norms				
7	I provide a link of working with parents				
8	I practice the creation of a community of caring and support				
9	I provide comprehensive program addressing the needs of children with problem behaviours				



APPENDIX 2

SEMI- STRUCTURED INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Types of problem behaviour among children

1. What are the types of problem behaviour children exhibit?
2. Why is/are this/these problem behaviours of interest to the children?
3. What motivated the children to put up such behaviours?
4. What are the characteristics of the various type of problem behaviour?

Views of teachers regarding the factors responsible for the problem behaviour

1. What factors are responsible for the problem behaviour?
2. What is the nature of the factors that are responsible for the problem behaviour

The effects of children's problem behaviour

1. What's the effects are associated with the children problem behaviour?
2. What are the effects of problem behaviour on children's learning ?
3. What is the nature of effects on the children's social life?
4. Does the child's diet affects his/her behaviour in the classroom?

Management strategies adopted to manage children's problem behaviour

1. What management strategies did you employ?
2. What is the nature of the strategies you have employed?
3. What happens after applying the strategies?