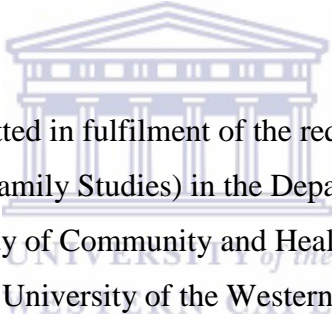


**HOME AND DAY CARE CENTRE ENVIRONMENTS' ROLE IN INFLUENCING
CHILDREN'S BEHAVIOUR DURING EARLY CHILDHOOD DEVELOPMENT**

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Full Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree
MA (Child and Family Studies) in the Department of Social Work,
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ABSTRACT

Approximately 70% of children 0–6 years old worldwide are experiencing care between home and day care centre environments that is conceptualised as dual care. These two environments are entry points into early childhood development services, which further demonstrate the relationship of the two environments in child development. Both environments are therefore crucial in influencing children’s development and their behaviour. Nonetheless, vast research shows that, without diminishing the influence of the day care environment, the home environment is the most influential on children’s behaviour development. This study employed Bronfenbrenner’s ecological system theory, which studies child development and behaviour within environments that a child interacts with, as the overarching theory of this study with the focus based on the microsystem and the mesosystems. The study has its aim to explore the influence the home and day care centre's environment have on the behaviour of children during early childhood development. The study adopted qualitative research methodology with an explorative and descriptive design during the execution of this study. In-depth semi-structured interviews, which were held with parents and practitioners were used as data collection. The transcribed participants’ interviews were analysed through Tesch’s thematic analysis method. The study ensured trustworthiness of the study through aspects of credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability. The participants reported that their children’s behaviour had improved since enrolment in day care centres. Children developed more confident, competent, independent behaviours as well as communicative and physical activity skills. Participants also reported employing largely similar disciplinary methods to maintain uniformity and collaborating to maintain stability in relationships in a way towards creating pathways for positive influence on children's behaviour. However, they experienced challenges in cases of dissimilarity as children had challenging behaviours. In conclusion, dual care during early childhood development positively affects children’s behaviour especially when there is high quality care accompanied by uniformity of rules and stability in relationships among adult figures in these environments. Poor quality in these environments triggers challenging behaviours for children, consequently laying a weak foundation for future productive behaviour of children.

KEYWORDS

Behaviour

Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory

Childcare

Children

Day care centres

Early childhood care

Home

Family



LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ECD	Early Childhood Development
FSES	Family Socio-economic Status
NICHD	National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Study
PPCT	Process-Person-Context-Time model
RSA	Republic of South Africa
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
WHO	World Health Organisation



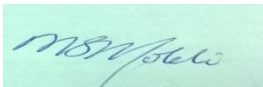
DECLARATION

I declare that this study entitled "*Home and day care centre environment's role in influencing children's behaviour during early childhood*" is my own work and that I have fully acknowledged all the references in a proper manner using in-text referencing and a complete reference list.

Name: Mahlalele Sylvania Moleli

Date: March 2017

Signed:



DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to my parents, brothers and sisters from whom I have learned to serve selflessly any person who is in need, especially children experiencing deleterious challenges in their lives. I thank them for making positive agents of change even during difficult days.

God bless you always!



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The strength to carry out my study was from God the creator and the consoler when I almost lost faith. I take this opportunity to thank

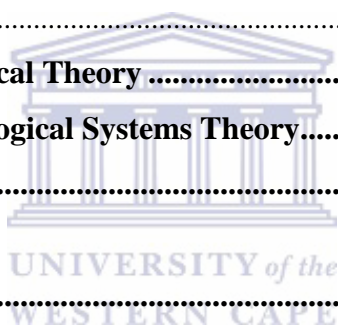
- In particular, my supervisor Dr Charlene J. Erasmus for her patience, motivation and trust in me throughout the whole study as it was very difficult. When I could not get the deeper meaning of my study and therefore felt discouraged, she never ceased to push me until I get the right concept. I thank her for her selfless character in mentoring me; her support to me was unconditional. She has been my counsellor throughout my studies helping to see the positive side of things.
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- I thank all my colleagues, fellow students and everyone who made this study a success through social support, proofreading my work and criticising it as this strengthened my study and helped me become open-minded regarding my study area.

God bless this work and all people who made it successful. THANK YOU ALL!

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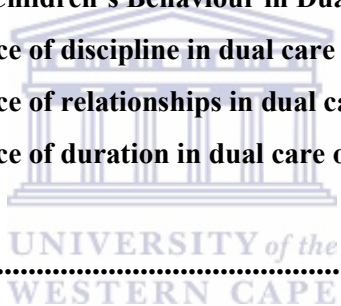
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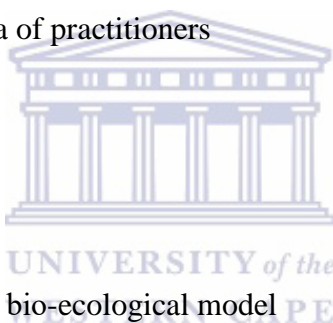
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Background/Rationale

Worldwide approximately 70% of children aged 0–6 years are experiencing non-parental care in the form of family/home-based or centre-based day care centres (Lowry & Hanen, 2012) as the use of day care centres has increased especially in developed and developing countries (Votruba-Drzal, Coley, Koury, & Miller, 2013; Freidman & Boyle, 2008; Belsky, Burchinal, McCartney, Vandell, Clarke-Stewart & Owen, 2007). The increase is due to parents, especially mothers, joining the work force, the need and importance of early learning and stimulation, and preparation for formal learning (Warren, 2013; World Bank, 2011; Bigras, Bouchard, Cantin, Brunson, Coutu, Lemay, Tremblay, Japel & Charron, 2010; Day, 2010). Therefore, children experience care between home and day care centre environments, which denotes dual care in this study. However, the studies which have been conducted in these environments have studied children's behaviour focused on mainly one or two behavioural areas such as maybe social skills and physical activity (Gubbels, Kremers, van Kann, Stafleu, Candel, Dagnelie, Thijs & de Vries, 2011), physical activity and health (Bower, Hales, Tate, Rubin, Benjamin & Ward, 2008) and emotional maturation (Belsky, et al, 2007). Those, which have focused on the holistic (inclusive of all behaviour aspects) picture of behaviour, were conducted in one of the environments, but not both of them (Day 2010; NICHD Study, 2006) focused on day care centres, while Irwin, Saddiqi and Hertzman (2007) and Mackay (2005) focused on the home environment. Despite their differences, the studies which have been conducted in home and day care centres have a consensus that the home environment

has more influence on children's behaviour than day care centres (Warren, 2013; Chan, 2013; Lowry & Hanen, 2012; Ahnert, Gunnar, Lamb & Barthel, 2004; Bigras, et al, 2010; Maggi, Irwin, Saddiqi & Hertzman, 2010), and it is argued that the reason for this is that the home is the immediate environment of the child.

Tudge, Mokrova, Hatfield and Karnik (2009), identified both environments as immediate environments of a child, though at different degrees, especially in the early childhood period since they play a crucial role in laying the foundation for children's future behaviour (Chan, 2013; Bennet, 2011). Thus, children's exposure to dual care occurs very early in life when their brain is malleable and susceptible to any form of exposure that is likely to imprint its influence on children's development accompanied with an increasing the likeliness of influence on children's behaviour (World Health Organisation (WHO), 2012; Baker-Henningham & Boo, 2010; Maggi, et al, 2010; Bohlin, Hagekull & Anderson, 2005). Early childhood is a developmental phase in which the process of emotional, mental, spiritual, moral, physical and social development of children from birth to six years take place (ECD guidelines RSA, 2006). Early Childhood Development (ECD) programmes assist home and day care centres in laying a foundation for children's success in later life, especially disadvantaged children, to ensure their survival by improving their quality of life (Sayre, Amanda, Devercelli, Neuman & Quentin, 2015; Yorke, 2012). The focus on early childhood development has been influenced by the sustainable developmental goals (SDGs) which developed as an improvement on the millennium developmental goals (MDGs). SDGs highlights that children success in later years is profoundly shaped by early access to good health, growth and development; learning opportunities, education, economic resources and interaction with adults especially within their home and day care centre environments which

inevitably shape their behaviour (Bass & Dalal-Clayton, 2012). ECD strategy identifies home and day care centres environments as children foundation shapers for later children success, capacity to participate in community, workplace and society activities (Khan, 2009; ECD guidelines RSA, 2006). In this regard home and day care centres are entry points into ECD services.

According to Peisner-Feinberg (2007), both home and day care centre environments have their own significant and distinct way of influencing children's behaviour, regardless of which one has more influence. Mee (2007) and Tipple and Speak (2005) refer to home as the family dwelling where members of the home establish meaningful relationships through their interactions. In addition, Irwin, et al (2007) underscore that characteristics such as child-rearing practices, family socio-economic status (FSES), family structure, health and type of dwelling influence children's behaviour within the home environment by exerting pressure on the parents. Day care centres refers to child care facilities with distinct structural features, programmes, the dyadic interactions of practitioners and children and between children themselves and characteristics of practitioners (qualities of the practitioners, education and training) which influences children's behaviour (Committee on the Science of adolescence, 2011; Neudeau, Kataoka, Valerio, Neuman & Elder, 2011; Huntsman, 2008). Within these dual environments, parents and practitioners interact with children in activities that stimulate children's behaviour holistically, encompassing all developmental domains namely cognitive, social (emotional, moral, spiritual), communicative and physical domain though in their separate and unique ways (Sayre, et al, 2015; Neadeau, et al, 2011; Bennet, 2011; Frude & Killick, 2011; Khan, 2009; Freidman & Boyle, 2008; Huntsman, 2008). Thus, both environments have a constant kind of binding relationship as they both aim to instil skills for

lifelong survival in children though each has its own way of instilling. Therefore, considering the similarities and differences in childcare within these environments, the study seeks to explore the joint influence of the two environments on children's general behaviour using the ecological system theory as theoretical framework (Harkonen, 2007).

1.2. Theoretical Framework

Bronfenbrenner's ecological system theory (1994; 1977), which focuses on child development in relation to their environment and places the child at the centre of all their surroundings, was adopted as the theoretical framework for this study. This theory posits that children are active actors in their development as they are able to influence and adapt to the environment and in turn, the environment is able to influence the child's behaviour (Bronfenbrenner & Evans, 2000). There is a reciprocal relationship between children and their environment, which allows influence on children's behaviour. Bronfenbrenner (1994; 1977) defines the child's environment in terms of systems, i.e. micro-, meso-, exo-, macro- and chronosystems, which influence the child's development. The immediate environment of the child, called the microsystem, comprises structures of families, neighbourhood and schools, and the mesosystems work as the linkage between the microsystem structures (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). The exosystem is the distant environment of the child as it indirectly influences their behaviour by influencing how the microsystem interacts with the child and children do not directly participate in it (Tudge, et al, 2009; Adamsons, O'Brien & Pasley, 2007; Lewthwaite, 2011). The macrosystem is the broad social context of the child (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Bronfenbrenner & Ceci, 1994). It includes broad social influences on the child's development such as laws, economic circumstances and cultural expectations (Eleuteri & Ardonui, 2014; Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Lewthwaite, 2011; Tudge, et al, 2009;

Adamsons, et al, 2007; Bronfenbrenner, 1979). The chronosystem represents the changes that occur to each system over time, such as the relationship between children and the caregiver over time when the child becomes less dependent on the caregiver and the caregiver less centred on the child (Edghill, 2013; Johnson, 2008). Thus, the chronosystem takes into account the human development and their surroundings over time (Eleuteri & Ardonui, 2014; Bronfenbrenner & Ceci, 1994).

The immediate environment of the child, home and the day care centre environment, is the focus of this study. These structures fall within the microsystem's layer of ecological model (Bronfenbrenner, 1994, 1977). In the study the home environment is constituted by family (parents/caregivers, siblings and relatives within the household) and the neighbourhood which is formed by the adults unrelated to the child and those relatives of the child who live in the village, peers, peer-groups and recreational activities. The day care centre environment is designated by identified infrastructure that accommodates six and more children that interact with Early Childhood Development (ECD) practitioners in the absence of children's family (ECD guidelines RSA, 2006). In this environment there is also a curriculum that practitioners follow in their interactions with the children to complement the home environment (Sayre, et al, 2016; Naudeau, et al, 2011). Children and the signified environments work in a bidirectional way that consequently influences the other's behaviour (Bohlin, et al, 2005). This study, seeks to explore the concurrent influence of the two identified environments on children's behaviour during early childhood development.

Chapter 2 presents detailed discussion on Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory.

1.3. Problem statement

With an increase in using day care centres, it is evident and reality that childrearing occurs within two environments i.e. home and day care centres in their early years (Lowry & Hanen, 2012). In a systematic review of 65 studies, there were contradictory findings with regard to children's behaviour for those children who were exposed to and had the experience of both environments as various aspects were found to collide when comparing home environment and day care centres' influence on behaviour (Frude & Killick, 2011; Huntsman, 2008). These aspects include activities, stability, quality and type of care at home as well as in the day care centre thereby affecting personal attitudes, values, characteristics of children, parents and teachers (Yoo-Seon, 2014; Huntsman, 2008; Vemeer, van IJzendoorn, de Kruif, Renée, Fukkink, Tavecchio, Riksen-Walraven, & van Zeijl, 2008). Harkonen, (2007) elucidated that there was no study that combined both environments to explore their unified role in influencing the behaviour of children. Bronfenbrenner (1979) indicated that interaction of children with their environment aided in building a mutual relationship that enabled a bidirectional influence over the other's behaviour. Studies have shown that in the absence of tragedies, children's behaviour is more positively influenced at home than in the day care centres while day care centres have been shown to have a positive influence on children's behaviour who are more exposed to social maladies (Yorke, 2012; Walker, Wachs, Grantham-McGregor, Black, Nelson, Huffman, & Richter, 2011; Belsky, et al, 2007). The study explores the role of both home environment and the day care centres in influencing children's behaviour during their early childhood (Harkonen, 2007).

1.4. Research Question

What is the role of home and day care centre environments in influencing children's behaviour during early childhood development?

1.5 Aim and Objectives of the Study

1.5.1 Aim of the study

The aim of the study was to explore the role of home and day care centres in influencing children's behaviour during early childhood development.

1.5.2 Objectives

The objectives of this study were to:

- explore the factors that influence children's behaviour towards home and day care centres during ECD
- explore the ways that home and day care centre environments use to assist children to adjust to dual care.



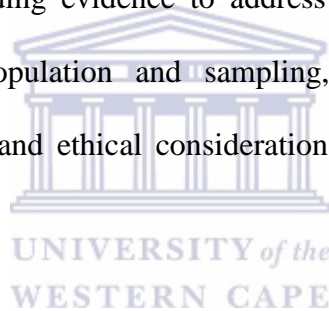
1.6 Research Approach and Design

A qualitative research approach, to explore, describe and understand the depth of meaning of individual experiences from their point of view (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport , 2011; Watkins 2010; Denzin, 2009; Given, 2008) was adopted for this study. Qualitative research uses flexible guidelines in data collection that allow utilising more than one data collection technique and may include combining interviews and observations (Denzin, 2009; Patton, 2005). Due to intense ways of collecting and analysing data, it uses a relatively small sample size (Creswell, 2007). Data analysis requires coding and organising data into themes

and discussing the findings according to the participants' views (De Vos, et al, 2011). The study employed an explorative and descriptive research design. These two designs are suited in this study based on the fact that the field of study is unknown and to be able to integrate the findings in explorative design into the existing research by providing description and explanation in a narrative form to the findings thereby providing comprehensive information (Neuman, 2006).

1.7 Research Methodology

Research methodology encompasses the specific steps that the research process follows in data collection inherently providing evidence to address the research problem (Creswell, 2009). These steps include population and sampling, data collection, data analysis, trustworthiness and verification and ethical considerations. Chapter 4 therefore covers the detailed discussion of these steps.



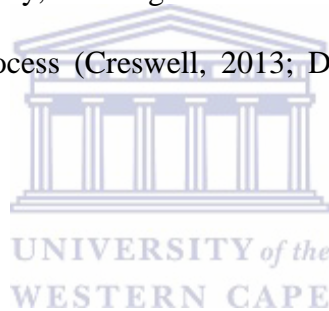
1.7.1 Population and sampling

Population refers to a group of people who have characteristics of interest for the research topic being studied (Babbie, 2010; Denzin, 2009). Parents and ECD practitioners constituted the study population. Both purposive and snowball sampling were used to select the participants. A sample is a subset of the population as not every member can be included (Watkins, 2010). Purposive sampling is useful to generate useful and appropriate data sources (Tongco, 2007). However, as it proved to be difficult to recruit participants, snowballing was furthermore employed to recruit participants from the networks of the participants for this study who had already participated (Neuman, 2006). After interviewing nine parents and five

practitioners, saturation was reached. Data saturation means there is no new information coming forward from the participants (Babbie, 2010).

1.7.2 Data collection

Data was collected using semi-structured face-to-face in-depth individual interviews (Mouton, 2008) with the aid of an interview guide. Field notes and audiotape were used to record the interviews. Audiotape is useful in recording the participants' information in their own voice and it is time-efficient, while field notes are useful in recording the observation and activities at the study site (Creswell 2009). With a qualitative approach, data collection and data analysis occur concurrently, enabling detection of saturation consequently signalling a stop to the data collection process (Creswell, 2013; DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006; Morrow, 2005; Shento, 2004).



1.7.3 Data analysis

According to Creswell, (2013) and Mouton, (2008) data analysis is the process of organising data and giving the full meaning to it. The thematic analysis of 'Tesch' as outlined by Creswell, (2009:186) was adopted for analysing the data in this study. Thematic analysis is a cluster technique in qualitative research that focuses on identifying patterned meaning through the dataset (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The researcher achieved thematic analysis by following the thematic analysis steps as outlined by Creswell (2009:186) which Chapter 4 discusses in detail.

1.7.4 Trustworthiness and verification

Trustworthiness and verification refers to validity and reliability in qualitative research (Morrow, 2005; Shenton, 2004). Lincoln and Guba (1985) as cited in De Vos, et al, (2011), outlined that the trustworthiness must be ensured through credibility, transferability dependability and conformability.

Credibility refers to how true the results of the study are (De Vos, et al, 2011; Morrow, 2005; Shento, 2004). Credibility is the internal validation of the study that it accurately adopted appropriate and well-recognised research techniques (Shento, 2004). It involves evaluating sampling techniques and verifying data through the use of triangulation which refers to the use of different techniques and types and sites of informants; scrutiny by associate researchers; use of commentary journal for reflexivity; and double-checking with the participants that the interpretations and theories arrived at by the researcher have their intended meaning (Shento, 2004; Morrow, 2005). **Transferability** refers to the extent to which the results can be generalised, that is, the extent to which different participants can apply the study results to different contexts and still give a broader sense of the research issue (De Vos, et al, 2011; Shento, 2004). Thus, transferability is the external validity of the study (Babbie, 2010). **Dependability** deals with the consistency of analytical techniques the researcher used while conducting the study (Morrow, 2005). Thus, dependability focuses on whether the study followed repeatable techniques that even when applied by any other person can still generate same results. **Conformability** is the ability of the researcher to conform to the guidelines in conducting a qualitative research. The guidelines include use of reflexivity to minimise any biases in the research by using triangulation, acknowledging her own beliefs and assumptions, and reporting the shortcomings of the study methods through use of audit trail (De Vos, et al, 2011; Shento, 2004).

1.7.5 Ethical considerations

Approval to conduct the study was obtained from the University of the Western Cape Senate Research and Ethics committee before beginning data collection. Prior to recruiting participants for the study, the researcher provided an information sheet to potential participants explaining the benefits, rights and responsibilities of participants (Appendix A). Once participants had indicated interest in participating, the researcher obtained their written consent (Appendix B) prior to allowing their participation in the study (Whiting, 2008). The participants were informed of their rights to withdraw from participation at any stage in the study (Creswell, 2013; Whiting, 2008; DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). The participants' information was kept confidential and their identity remained known to the researcher alone to maintain confidentiality, anonymity and privacy. As an audio tape was used to record the interviews, after each interview, the researcher transferred each interview labelled with a unique code to the personal computer, and they were stored into a password-protected folder known to the researcher and the supervisor only. There was no harm or deceitful act directed to the participants and in case of distress relating to their participation in the study, debriefing sessions were offered for psychological support (Whiting, 2008; Sturges & Hanrahan, 2004).

1.8 Significance of the Study

The findings of this study benefit parents and ECD practitioners in improving childcare in dual care environments in order to influence children's behaviour positively (Legendre & Munchenbach, 2011; Belsky, et al, 2007). The study adds more knowledge to early childcare by bringing into light an understanding of behaviour as an encompassing term involving all developmental domains to allow parents and practitioners to put more effort into stimulating children's behaviour in a holistic way rather than by dividing roles between their

collaboration (Dartle, Ereky-Stevens, Hover-Reisner, & Malmberg, 2012). It further contributes to the existing early childcare policies with regard to children's transition from home to day care centres, ways of assisting children to settle and managing child behaviour within dual care environments (Pirchio, Tritrini, Passiatore, & Taeschner, et al, 2013). As a result, this will improve the quality of care for children between the two environments influencing children's behaviour positively (Bennet, 2011; Huntsman, 2008).

1.9 Definition of key terms

Behaviour is the coordinated responses of whole living organisms to internal and/or external stimuli excluding responses more easily understood as developmental changes (Levitis, Lidicker, & Freund, 2009:10).

Caregiver/childminder is a person who, whether for gain or free of charge, takes care of a child or children in the absence of their biological parents and usually away from their homes (ECD guidelines RSA, 2006).

Childcare is any care arrangement provided to children on a regular basis by someone other than the parents (Huntsman, 2008; NICHD Study, 2006).

Children/Child is any person below the age of 18 (ECD guidelines RSA, 2006).

Day care centres, referred to as crèches, preschools, nurseries, or early childhood development centres are defined as premises used to care for children by providing protection and temporary or partial care for a group of children in the absence of parents (ECD guidelines RSA, 2006).

Early childhood development is the process of emotional, mental, spiritual, moral, physical and social development of children from birth to nine years (ECD guidelines RSA, 2006).

Early childhood is the period of life when humans are most dependent on secure, responsive relationships with others (adults, siblings and peers), not just to ensure their survival, but also their emotional security, social integration and cognitive and cultural competencies which in this study is defined as between the age range of 0 to 6 years (Woodhead, 2006).

Family is a group of individuals joined by marriage, contract or agreement, who live together and provide care, nurturing and socialisation for one another (White Paper on families in South Africa, 2012).

Ecological systems theory is the developmental theory that focuses on how human beings develop and interact with their contexts nested in a form of systems (Bronfenbrenner & Evans, 2000).

Home is an environment of origin where the person is able to retreat, relax, and establish meaningful social interactions with other people (Mee, 2007; Tipple & Speak, 2005).

Parent refers to a person who gave birth to the child (White Paper, 2012).

Practitioner refers to the person formally or informally trained; who works in the ECD centres with children aged 0–6 years (ECD Guidelines RSA, 2006).

1.10 Overview of Chapters

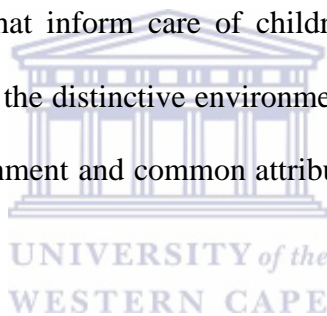
The overview seeks to define the summary of what every chapter of the study entails.

Chapter 1 gives the background to ECD programmes focusing on both home and day care centre environments in relation to children's behaviour. It refers briefly to the theoretical framework that underpins this study. It outlines the problem statement, research question, aim

and objectives together with the research design and methodology employed in this conducting this study.

Chapter 2 outlines the theoretical framework and elaborates on the choice of this theory in the study. The study employed bio-ecological systems theory as the lens to analyse the data collection and discuss the study findings. This chapter covers the history of the theory and its development, theory propositions and theory application to the study.

Chapter 3 explores the literature available on the role of home and day care centre environments in influencing the behaviour of children during early childhood. The literature assists in identifying the factors involved in behaviours that children portray due to exposure to dual care and the elements that inform care of children in both environments. In this chapter the main section is ECD, the distinctive environment concerned in this study namely home and day care centre environment and common attributes on these environments, which depict on dual care.



Chapter 4 covers the detailed description of the methodology employed to conduct the study. It elaborates on the research approach that is qualitative and designs that is explorative and descriptive. It further discusses the research methodology, which entails the research setting, population, and sampling, pilot study, data collection and process, data analysis, verification and trustworthiness, reflexivity and ethical considerations.

Chapter 5 presents the study results in two dimensions, general study demographic data of participants together with general presentation and discussion of results in the narrative form as found during data analysis. The presentation, articulates themes and sub-themes in a table form and heading form during discussions. The discussions substantiate research findings and integrate theory and literature. This chapter particularly focuses on results relating to

objective one, which explores the specific role of home and day care centres environments in influencing children behaviour.

Chapter 6 is the continuation of the results chapter as thus follows the same presentation and discussion of the study results. It presents the findings for objective two, which explores the role of dual care in influencing children behaviour.

Chapter 7 provides summary of the study findings and the drawn conclusion. It further provides the recommendations for practice and policy with specific reference to ECD programs.

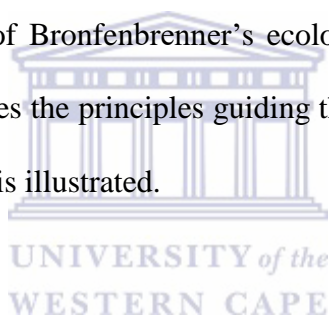


CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

This chapter examines and explores the theoretical framework of this study. In order to understand the developing child in context, it is important to understand childrearing environments and all the factors that are associated with them. Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems theory, which is the overarching theory of human development, provides an explanation of the extrinsic factors that influence the development of children. This chapter provides a detailed explanation of Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory, and how it evolved over time. It also discusses the principles guiding this theory. Lastly, by applying the theory to the study, its suitability is illustrated.



2.2 Bio-ecological Systems Theory

Bronfenbrenner founded ecological systems theory in the 1970s. It involves the study of the multiple interconnected environmental systems that influence development of the individual's behaviour (Evans & Wachs, 2010; Bronfenbrenner, 1977; Tudge, et al, 2009; Liles, 2011; Jonhson, 2008; and Harkonen, 2007). Kurt Lewin (1935), who conceptualised human behaviour as the function of both the person and their environment, influenced Bronfenbrenner (Eleuteri & Ardinoi, 2014; Edghill, 2013; Jonhson, 2008). Lewin viewed behaviour as the result of co-existing facts which are conceived as mutually interdependent by the individual (Edghill, 2013; Kaakinen, Gedaly-Duff, Hanson & Coehlo, 2010). As such, Bronfenbrenner conceptualised the environment in the form of systems, placing the child at

the centre of these systems. Realising that the child's behaviour is not only influenced by their surroundings, but also the biological composition of the child, Bronfenbrenner renamed his theory from just 'ecological system theory' to 'bio-ecological theory' and referred to the individual as the ontogenetic-system (Kaakinen, et al, 2010; Bronfenbrenner, 2005). In his theory, Bronfenbrenner (1976) wanted to bridge how the child and environment influence one another since Lewin found that they are mutually interdependent.

In developing his theory, he was also responding to the restricted theories of developmental psychology, which studied children in strange situations with strange people for brief periods (Eleuteri & Ardinoi, 2014; Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Rosa and Tudge (2013) further showed that Bronfenbrenner was influenced by two ideas, namely, the limitation in the development of psychological research being conducted in the laboratories which affected the validity of the results due to lack of a real life situation. Secondly, he was attracted to the political interest in social policy demands that contributed to children, adolescents and their families' welfare, such as early childhood programmes (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

As a scholar and social psychologist, Bronfenbrenner realised that studies of developmental psychology did not promote children's life in a real setting (Rosa & Tudge, 2013). What contributed to the development of the ecological theory was the idea of a person's environment, social transformation, and the view that in order to understand something one had to learn its importance. Additionally, research needs to consider the native context of that something and the realisation that effects and situations perceived as real, are real in their nativity not strange situations (Bronfenbrenner, 1977; Rosa & Tudge, 2013). Bronfenbrenner then developed his theory, placing the individual at the centre of his environments, namely the microsystem, mesosystem, exo-system, macro-system and chronosystem.

2.2.1 Description of the bio-ecological system theory

Figure 2.1 presents the five layers involved in Bronfenbrenner's bio-ecological systems theory and a detailed discussion of each system's influence on children's behaviour follows.

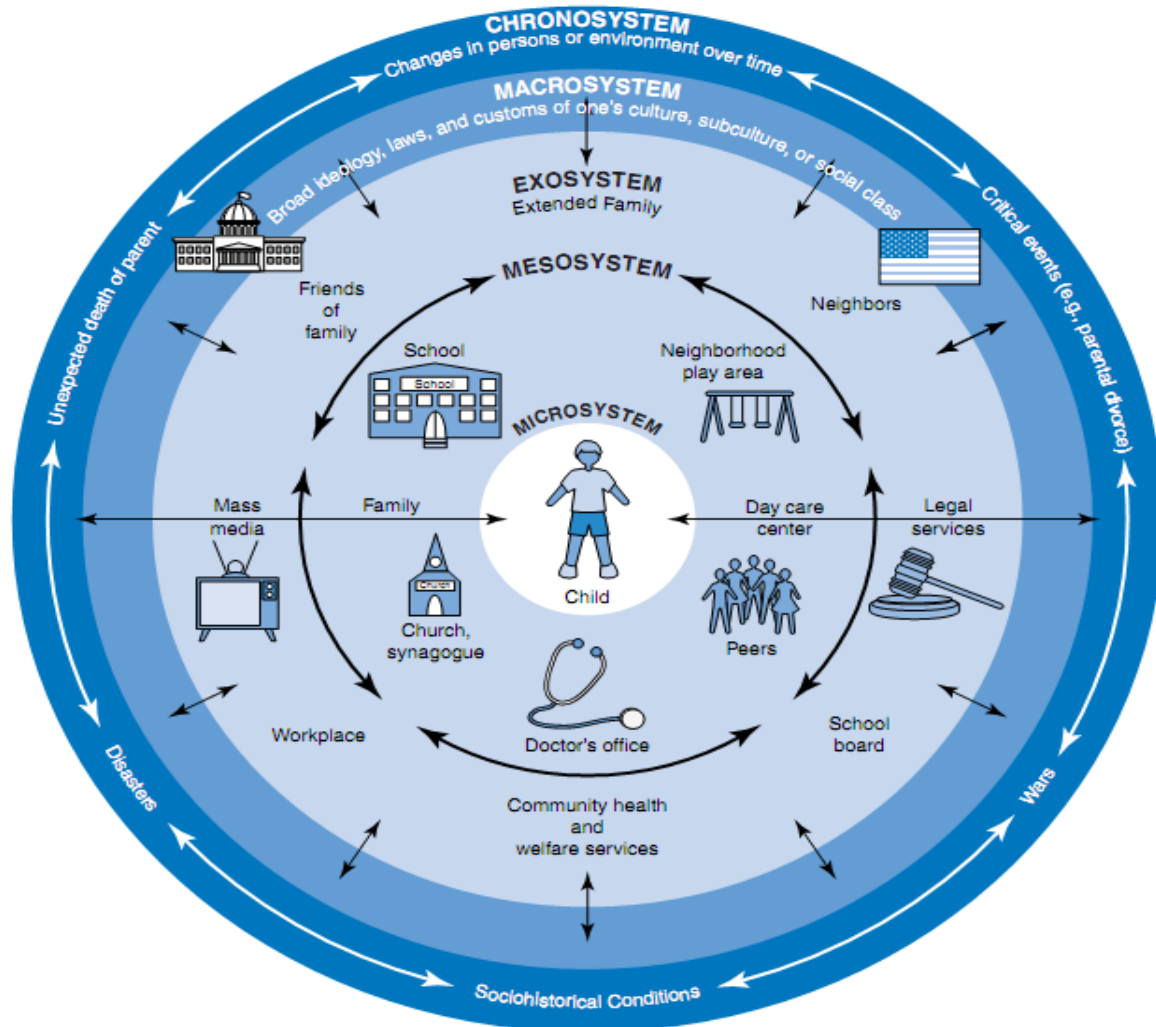


Figure 2.1: Diagrammatic illustration of Bronfenbrenner's bio-ecological model source: (Kaakinen, et al, 2010)

2.2.1.1 Microsystem

Within the bio-ecological theory the microsystem is the child's closest environment (Tudge, et al, 2009; Adamsons, et al, 2007; Bronfenbrenner & Ceci, 1994; Bronfenbrenner, 1979), which includes family, day care centres, neighbourhood, church and all activities and roles

among them (Wilmshurst, 2013; Tudge, et al, 2009). The microsystem is the closest and most significant setting of the child (Lewthwaite, 2011). In this system, the children interact with the environment in a direct and face-to-face manner with significant people, for instance parents, siblings, relatives, friends, teachers and other adults in their environment (Leonard, 2011; Lewthwaite, 2011; Rosa & Tudge, 2013). In this direct interaction, children develop a mutual connection with the significant people and objects in their surroundings, creating a bi-directional influence on each other's behaviour (Arnett & Maynard, 2013; Adamsons, et al, 2007). Therefore, the bidirectional influence alludes that not only do significant people influence a child's development, but also that children's behaviour influences how those people interact with the child, indicating that children are also active participants in their development (Tudge, et al, 2009; Johnson 2008; Adamsons, et al, 2007). Rosa & Tudge (2013) and Bronfenbrenner (2005) therefore identify children as social actors in their development due to active participation and direct engagement with every entity present in their sphere. Thus, children interact frequently and constantly with both persons and objects and the physical features in their environment (Lewthwaite, 2011; Eleuteri & Ardonui, 2014).

Despite the involvement of other microsystem structures in children's development, the family plays the major influential component as it is the first and closest environment that the child interacts with (Wilmshurst, 2013; Lewthwaite, 2011). In this layer, the pattern of activities, roles and interpersonal relations experienced by the child stem from their family's way of doing things (Arnett & Maynard, 2013). It is in this system that the family socialises the child by instilling the family's values, culture and expectations in line with that of the community in their neighbourhood so that the child's intra- and interpersonal skills develop (Keenan & Evans, 2009; Bronfenbrenner, 1979). The intrapersonal skills relate to abilities within the person such as characteristics of temperament, personality and systems' belief, and

interpersonal refers to external abilities to live in harmony with others (Eleuteri & Ardonui, 2014; Johnson, 2008). The family expands the child's perception of reality by expanding and stimulating their competence and involvement with their intra- and interpersonal environment (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

2.2.1.2 Mesosystem

Figure 2.1 demonstrates using the arrows, the link that exists within the microsystem's structures. The mesosystem is the link between the microsystem's structures (Leonard, 2011; Johnson, 2008), meaning that the mesosystem defines the relationship that exists within the microsystem's structures (Eleuteri & Ardonui, 2014; Rosa & Tudge, 2013). Therefore, the mesosystem enables a cross-influence of microsystem structures on child behaviour through its connectivity of the structures (Kaakinen, et al, 2010). The cross-influence implies that the connections osmotically transmit their influence on children. Stability and uniformity of behaviours within the two structures are predictable of positive influence, while instability and ununiformed behaviours are predictable of negative influence on children's behaviour (ECD Guidelines RSA, 2006; NICHD Study, 2006).

Eleuteri and Ardonui, (2014) further indicated that the mesosystem has both a direct and an indirect influence on children's behaviour. Within this system, children are gradually realising their limits in direct participation with other structures (Lewthwaite, 2011). For instance, their opinion is minimal to direct interactions that they have with either parents or practitioners, but is limited in influencing parent-practitioner interactions due to the indirect influence of the parent-practitioner relationship on children's behaviour. The mesosystem thus characterises the social networks of the microsystem structures of which regarding those

networks is limited (Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Bronfenbrenner & Ceci, 1994). Rosa and Tudge (2013) added that these networks may be significant or insignificant subsequently having large or little influence on children's behaviour. Consequently, children gradually begin to understand their place in the large setting as they recognise the limitations that emerge (Tudge, et al, 2009). Nonetheless, the limitations and opportunities within the mesosystem positively influence the microsystem processes, leading to acceptable behaviours as much as the limitations within the microsystem lead to challenging children's behaviours (Lewthwaite, 2011). Therefore, the mesosystem can complement the microsystem in either a positive or a negative way.

In this study, the day care centre environment reflects the microsystem structure that complements children's home environment in influencing their behaviour (Naudeau, et al, 2011). The day care centre environment in this context connects with the home/family environment by means of parent-practitioner dyads. In the absence of parents, ECD practitioners become secondary parents to children, providing them mentorship as parents would (Johnson, 2008). However, Eghill (2013) brings attention to the status of relationship of the structures that if the connections are weak it predicts challenging behaviours for children and strong connections predict positive influence on children's behaviour. The mesosystem asserts that in a debilitating home/family environment, day care centres buffer the home environment by meeting the family halfway, leading to a positive influence on children's development and behaviours (Kaakinen et al, 2010). The uniform standard that the ECD programmes set in assisting families and day care centres carries on when the parent experiences inadequacies although the family lag would compromise children's outcomes. Therefore, equal and balanced participation is required between the two environments for betterment of the influence on children's behaviour. At this level of bio-ecological system

theory, a bidirectional influence occurs between the structures without necessarily involving the child directly though it is at times direct (Adamson, et al, 2007). For instance, children usually do not have a say regarding the day care centre that they attend but parents discuss with the practitioners their children's well-being. As a result, parents enrol children in day care centres with which they (parents) have developed a rapport (Dartle, et al, 2012). Enabling the influence on children's behaviour in the mesosystem therefore, is the cross-form link in the relationships between parents-practitioners, practitioner-child and child-child (Leonard, 2011).

2.2.1.3 Exosystem

Exosystem is the broader community context that the child has no direct participation in, yet it influences them (Tudge, et al, 2009; Adamsons, et al, 2007; Lewthwaite, 2011). In this context, examples include the parents' work, legal services, social development services, family friends, media and economic context as indicated in Figure 2.1. For instance, family friends may influence parents' choice about time to initiate children into non-parental care, type of childcare, attributes of quality childcare and location of childcare to name a few. Leonard (2011) and Johnson (2008) suggest that friends' influence may be in a positive or negative way. This implies that harmonious relationships with people/friends in this context supports parents in making informed decisions regarding their children's development unlike in hostile relationships. Dartle, et al (2012) affirms that parental participation in children's activities increases parental involvement and enhances parent-child interaction leading to reduced behaviour challenges. However, at the same time, this context has no direct contact with the child; it supports parents positively or negatively and the influence on the parent transmits to children through the decisions that the parent takes following the influence (Tudge, et al, 2009; Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

As families do not exist in isolation, parents' effectiveness to perform family roles is equally dependent on broader community systems as on their own nucleic form. This means the family needs to be able to stand alone while at the same time depend on the community's support (Eleuteri & Arduino, 2014). During joyous and difficult situations, the family is able to share happiness, receive support and give support within their society. Eleuteri and Arduino (2014) further added that this prosocial behaviour increases social cohesion in the community consequently creating tranquil environments conducive for nurturing children's behaviour positively. Hence, the exo-system is part and parcel of the child's development. Therefore, the family's ability to function and nurture morally developed children, depends on the type of support and pressure the external factors exert on parents (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).



2.2.1.4 Macrosystem

The macrosystem refers to the broad ideologies, laws and customs of one's culture, social class and beliefs as demonstrated in Figure 2.1. These ideologies usually stem from the global, regional or national perceptions (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Bronfenbrenner & Ceci, 1994). For example, the United Nations Child's Rights directly influence family interactions with the child (WHO, 2012; WHO & United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF), 2012). Due to the advocacy on children's rights, malicious acts such as corporal punishment and neglect within home and day care centre environments, children's interactions with people in their setting are enhanced (Tudge, et al, 2009; Adamsons, et al, 2007; Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Consequently, there is a shift from adult/parent/practitioner power dominance during interaction with the child enabling more communication between

adults and children (Lewthwaite, 2011; Rosa & Tudge, 2013). These ideologies transmit through economic, social, education and political systems (Eleuteri & Ardonui, 2014). Consequently, the lower systems (micro-, meso-, and exosystem) functions get affected (Rosa & Tudge, 2013). In relation to this study, ECD is the global strategy adopted by governments to appeal to the reduction of deleterious events or social maladies like poverty, violence and unsafe environments that negatively influence children's behaviour (Atmore, van Niekerk & Ashely-Cooper, 2012; Allie, 2010). Homes/families and day care centres are some of the main entry points for implementing ECD services as they have a direct contact with the child (Naudeau, et al, 2011).

2.2.1.5 Chronosystem

Chronosystem signifies the time aspect in which events occur in the environment (Liles, 2011). As indicated by arrows in Figure 2.1, time cuts across all the systems that affect the child. Thus, over time the systems, child environment and biological makeup change and influence child development and behaviour (Kaankinen, et al, 2010). For instance, in the case of this study, the children's environment changes from the singular care environment of home to dual care environment of both home and day care centre, which influence other system structures. Dartle, et al (2012) shows that children's transition from home to day care centres requires collaboration between these two microsystem entities; consequently, the mesosystem is engaged due to the collaboration between the two environments. This means the child will receive simultaneous instruction from both parents and practitioners regarding discipline and/or rearing methods. Therefore, in this situation (dual care), children are at an increased chance of uniformity and dissimilarity in which uniformity is associated with positive influence on children's behaviour while dissimilarity is associated with confusion in children (Steinberg, 2010). By creating this system, Bronfenbrenner was acknowledging the

inevitability of change over time, which consequently influences the behaviour of children with the developments that accompany them (Bronfenbrenner, 1994; 1979). It is evident that changes occur over time, affecting the development and behaviour of children and that of the environment towards children leading to the development of children's abilities to their full potential or to diminished abilities (Johnson, 2008).

The chronosystem further acknowledges the effect of time concerning biological changes (Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Tudge, et al, 2009; Bronfenbrenner, 2005). In addition to chronology of development, it is the timing factor of events in the child's life (Tudge, et al, 2009; Adamson, et al, 2007), such as a significant person's death, parental separation or in the case of this study, timing of dual care introduction that is likely to affect the children's bond with parents. Belsky and Pluess (2009) in their study to evaluate children's susceptibility found that children who experience separations early in life are likely to have ambivalent or avoidant bonds with parents as opposed to those who initiate on dual care later (3–4 years) who have secure bonds with parents. Bronfenbrenner and Ceci (1994) were of the opinion that mutual relationships form a secure base from which children explore their environment and thus tremor to this base shakes the child's source of intuition leading to children being dominated by their peers (Adamson, et al, 2007; Harkonen, 2007).

The chronosystem was initially not part of the ecological theory. Bronfenbrenner developed it later due to the criticism that ecological theory looked at the systems as static context and yet context changes over time (Bronfenbrenner, 1995; 1979). The ecological theory takes note that development is not static but rather dynamic as it evolves over time (Edghill, 2013; Johnson, 2008). Therefore, acknowledging time with regard to what occurs during the course

of some specific activity or interaction and the extent to which it occurs with some consistency affect both the ontogenetic system (the child) and the environment (Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Adamsons, et al, 2007). Further criticising his theory, Bronfenbrenner developed the Person-Process-Context-Time Model (Tudge, et al, 2009)

2.2.2 Process-Person-Context-Time (PPCT) model

In developing his theory, Bronfenbrenner realised that he still did not answer the 'how' part of the influence that occurred between children and context (Rosa & Tudge, 2009). At this part of his work, he was criticising his own theory. Bronfenbrenner was intrigued by Vygotsky's view that children's interaction with others in their environment played an important and influential role in their development (Edghill, 2013). As a result, he developed the Process-Person-Context-Time (PPCT) Model that recognises processes that occur during interactions as mechanisms that influence behaviour within the context over time. Figure 2.2 presents the PPCT Model.

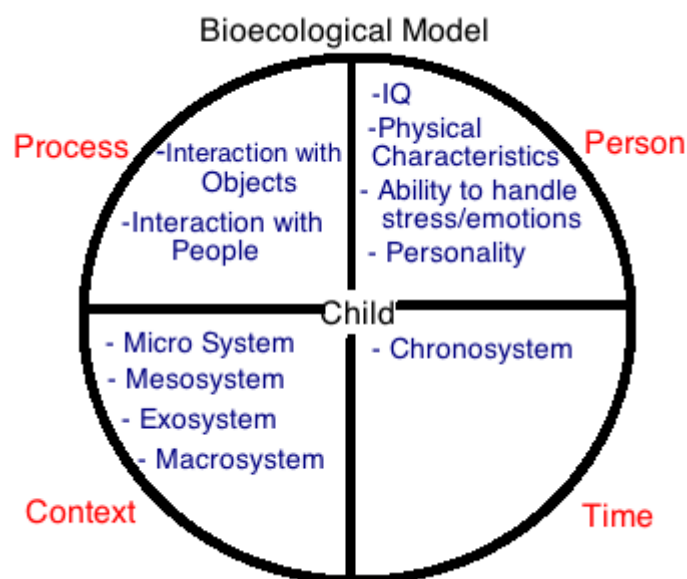
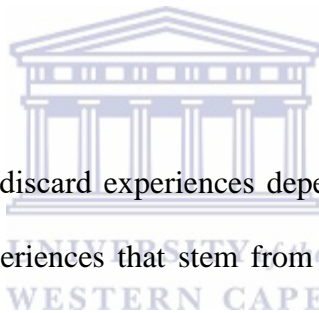


Figure 2.2 PPCT Model (Tudge, Mokrova, Hatfield & Karnik, 2009)

2.2.2.1 Processes

Processes refer to the dynamic interactions and activities between children and their environment (Adamsons, et al, 2007) and are developmental engines within children's environment enabling the occurrence of influence on children's behaviour and development (Liles, 2011). Processes must occur consistently over time within the child's environment in a close or distant manner in order to imprint on children's behaviour and development (Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Shonkoff, Richter, van der Gaag, & Bhutta, 2012). Thus, depending on the frequency and significance of interactions and activities within the child's environment, children will embrace or discard the experiences (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2005).



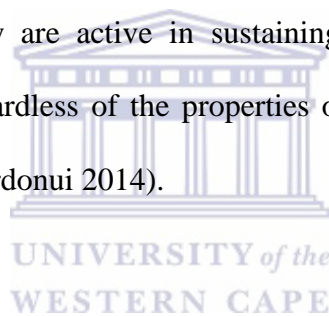
Children's ability to embrace or discard experiences depends on timing and context within which they occur, especially experiences that stem from the close processes (Liles, 2011). Close processes are parenting, teaching beliefs, playing, sharing, clothing, eating and feeding, and they have great influence on the child's behaviour since children have direct participation in those processes (Liles, 2011). These are activities that enable close and direct interactions with parents, practitioners, peers, relatives and siblings, which denote people with whom children interact directly within their immediate environment (Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Edghill, 2013). The distant processes, family health, socio-economic status, traditions and structure, type of dwelling and day care centre and childcare programmes, have a lesser influence on children's behaviour since children have limited to no direct participation in those processes (Liles, 2011; Tudge, et al, 2009). Distant processes therefore, are external forces on the activities and interactions of children's close processes (Johnson, 2008). They determine the activities and manner of interactions. For instance, in poor households, there is less provision

for material resources that can stimulate children and as a result children and parent's engagement is less due to less available resources (Maggi, Irwin, Siddiqi, & Hertzman, 2010). The close and distant engines are assistive in nurturing children's behaviour especially if they occur consistently in a significant context (Tudge, et al, 2009). As these processes occur, they have an influence on the adjustment of children in the broader environment (Tudge, et al, 2009; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2005, Bronfenbrenner, 1994). Maggi, et al (2010) recognised children's behaviour as being susceptible to influence by processes depending on the characteristics, conditions, duration and intensity of the processes in those environments.

Processes promote children's adjustments and adaptation skills in new environments (Evans & Wachs, 2010). For instance, at the day care centres, there is an addition of practitioners, new peers and objects that are more educationally oriented. Thus, from home to day care centres children's experiences are propelled to the next level of stimulation (Allie, 2010). However, Belsky, et al, (2007) indicated that there is stress that accompanies children's transitions leading to relational insecurity, emotional loss, confusion and anxiety in the new settings. Consequently, children may have a negative perception of an environment, dismantling their potential to survive in new settings (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Negative perception decreases children's cognitive functions, motivation, emotional intelligence and memory, leading to challenging behaviours such as low performance, achievement and poor social conduct (Evans & Wachs, 2010; Bronfenbrenner, 1977).

Processes act as driving forces of human development (Rosa & Tudge, 2013). They are central as they have the ability to actualise potentials both for enhancing functional

competency and for reducing degrees of dysfunction (Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Eleuteri & Ardunoi, 2014). Competence means the demonstrated acquisition and further development of knowledge, skill or ability to conduct and direct one's own behaviour across situations and developmental domains while dysfunction means recurrent manifestations of difficulties in maintaining control and integration of behaviour across situations and different domains of development (Rosa & Tudge, 2013). Notably, the power of proximal processes to actualise genetic potentials for developmental competence are increased in an advantaged and stable environment than in a disadvantaged and disorganised environment (Rosa & Tudge, 2013). Catalysts to increase the power of proximal processes are the strong emotional relationships between and during the interaction of children and their environment (Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Tudge, et al, 2009). Thus, they are active in sustaining development in the immediate environment of the children regardless of the properties of the environment, which can be traumatic or stable (Eleuteri & Ardonui 2014).



Processes are significant in child development for their role to reduce reduction of transitional stress during change of environment (Evans & Wachs, 2010; Liles, 2011). Therefore, children are able to settle in dual care knowingly that both environments are conducive to them. The processes quality then becomes very crucial as their quality determine the degree at which children form mutual relationships with either of the two immediate environments to them (Edghill, 2013; Liles, 2011). The high quality processes enable children to develop strong sense of empathy, nurturance, social responsibility, intelligence and social compliance (Evans & Wachs, 2010).

2.2.2.2 Person

In the PPCT Model, a person represents a child (Hutson & Bentley, 2010; Harkonen, 2007). The qualities and properties of the environment have an influence on child development (Tudge, et al, 2009). This makes the child part of the system layer, which is referred to as an ontogenetic system (Bronfenbrenner, 1979) which is described as child agency and self-identity (Evans & Wachs, 2010). This means that the child's characteristics, their innate abilities such as intelligence, temperament, talents and gifts (Liles, 2011) are naturally influenced by the biological makeup and the social aspects surrounding the child (Evans & Wachs, 2010). This system encompasses the individual's differences in cognitions, such as attitudes, physiology and expectations (Adamsons, et al, 2007) which encompass demand, resources and forces (Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Tudge, et al, 2009; Liles, 2011; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2005). The demand refers to those personal stimuli such as age, gender, ethnicity, complexion and physical appearance (Tudge, et al, 2009; Liles, 2011). Within these personal characteristics, the child seeks a way to fit in with their environment so that they become mutually interdependent (Adamsons, et al, 2007). Therefore, they tend to copy, imitate and repeat what they learn from the environment and consequently the environments adjust to their demands by a reward and punishment system, which moulds children's behaviour (Tudge, et al, 2009).

Resources refer to induced characteristics of children such as mental and emotional expectations (Tudge, et al, 2009). These resources include past experiences, learnt skills, intelligence, competence and availability of material resources implying that children's mental and emotional abilities require activation to become functional (Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2005). The resources capable of stimulating children's behaviour are classified as material resources, such as housing, good food, clothing, water and

sanitation (Walker, Wachs, Grantham-McGregor, Black, Nelson, Huffman & Richter, 2011) and immaterial resources, which include caring caregivers (parents and or teachers), educational opportunities and living up to their society's needs (Tudge, et al, 2009; Adamsons, et al, 2007). Semke, Garbacz, Kwon, Sheridan and Woods (2010) concurred that stimulation of children's resources require parents' and practitioners' self-efficacy in order to optimally stimulate children. In contrast, Belsky and Pluess (2009) together with Tudge, et al, (2009) suggested that, in turn, depending on the adults' and children's abilities, stimulation accuracy occurs in differing degrees. Thus, both adults and children need to be ready to exchange resources for stimulation accuracy (Bronfenbrenner, 2005).

However, Liles, (2011) and Rosa and Tudge (2009) indicated that stimulation accuracy between parents and children depends on force. Force refers to developmental trajectories of individuals to deal with differences in temperament, motivation, resilience, persistence and intuition (Tudge, et al, 2009). These personal attributes determine the stimulation accuracy between children and significant people in their environment (Lewthwaite, 2011). Thus, the extent to which both children and significant people reach a mutual understanding of one another's abilities and characters, the more influential pathways creates, consequently modifying and modelling the accepted and unaccepted behaviours within the context in which they occur (Rosa & Tudge, 2013).

2.2.2.3 Context

Context is the differentiated layers of environmental influences ranging from macrosystem down to microsystem throughout the life course of an individual (Liles, 2011). Children are at the centre of layers of systems referred to as the ontogenetic system, thus, they also form their

own context (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2005). Children are social actors, meaning they also participate in their own development through interaction with others and their surroundings (Evans & Wachs, 2010). Bronfenbrenner (1979) recommended that conducting of studies on child development must be in their (children) ecological context for better understanding of the context influence occurrence on children as opposed to a strange situation and laboratories. The ecological context is the actual environment in which human beings lived and live (Tudge, et al, 2009; Adamsons, et al, 2007). In these contexts, children learn, engage, and become creative and derive meaning of themselves and the environment that they are in (Evans & Wachs, 2010). They find their role in their environment. This enables the closeness and direct participation in the events occurring within their environment especially that the timing of these events is important in imprinting children's experience (Maggi, et al, 2010). As a result, children develop behaviour traits corresponding to those of their environment.



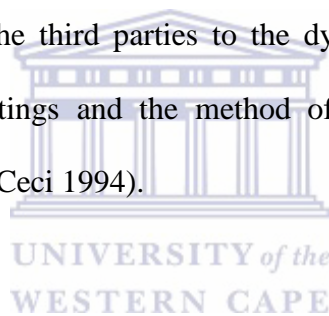
2.2.2.4 Time

The time aspect of the PPCT model is the same as in the chronosystem of bio-ecological system theory (Harkonen, 2007). As illustrated in Figure 2.1 and Figure 2.2, time encompasses all systems and the processes that occur within them. Initially Bronfenbrenner based time aspect on inevitable changes due to the developmental course (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2005). However, Landsberg, Kruger and Swart (2011) maintained that time refers to all aspects of change in bio-ecological theory including change in interactions, activities, surrounding features, systems evolution, shifting ideologies and individual growth. Therefore, children's direct (proximal) participation in activities becomes influential over time with specificity to their duration, frequency, interruption, timing and intensity (Bronfenbrenner & Evans, 2000). Nevertheless, the unstable and unpredictable environments

across space and time such as violent and abusive environment reduce the effectiveness of proximal processes (Landsberg, et al, 2011). Thus, time is an important aspect in the bio-ecological theory as it allows the realisation of uniqueness of cases that affect children in their life course (Bronfenbrenner, 1995). Bio-ecological theory has properties that distinguish it from other developmental theories.

2.3 Propositions of Bio-ecological Theory

Propositions are the principles that guide the theory. Having discussed how bio-ecological theory evolved, a discussion of the principles which guide its application, follows. The propositions of ecological theory include; learning of the developing person, practicing of the learned things, contribution of the third parties to the dyads formed in the environments, interconnection between the settings and the method of the studies conducted on child development (Bronfenbrenner & Ceci 1994).



The first proposition of the ecological theory is about the learning of the developing person (Bronfenbrenner & Ceci 1994). Learning for the child occurs through observation and engagement in ongoing complex activities under direct supervision of knowledgeable adults with whom the child has developed an emotional relationship (Bronfenbrenner & Ceci 1994; Bronfenbrenner, 1979). This emotional relationship works as the catalyst to the development of the child to acquire knowledge and skills (Rosa & Tudge, 2013). The proximal processes enable acquiring of skills and knowledge and they work as driving force towards the development of the child (Liles, 2011; Evans & Wachs, 2010). These processes are enduring activities that occur between parents and children; play in groups or individual, reading, learning new skills, competency and knowledge (Evans & Wachs, 2010). The proximal processes are therefore likely to induce competency and dysfunction (Eleuteri & Ardunoi,

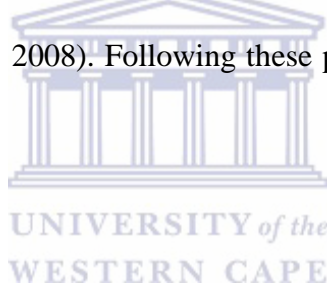
2014). The effects of this competency and/or dysfunction depend on the duration, frequency, interruption, timing and the intensity of the activities (Bronfenbrenner & Evans, 2000). The influence of activities has high dependency on the proximity and endurance of experiences in children's lives (Eleuteri & Arduino, 2014).

In the second proposition, the child is allowed to practise the skills learned in proposition one (Bronfenbrenner & Ceci, 1994). The role of the adult person in this proposition is to allow and provide resources and encourage initiative and engagement in activities (Eleuteri & Arduino, 2014). Thus, the child gradually becomes able through the practise of activities learned in proposition one, as such practice assists in developing their potentials and actualising them (Bronfenbrenner & Evans, 2000). Consequently, the child becomes independent and adults' attention becomes less centred on the child as development occurs (Rosa & Tudge, 2013). Proposition one and two are interdependent (Bronfenbrenner, 1995). The emotional relationship works as the high road to psychological dependency and any interruption to this transition circuit posits ill for future effectiveness in child development affecting mostly the parental roles (Bronfenbrenner & Ceci, 1994).

Proposition three is about the contribution of third parties to the dyads formed in the primary context of children (Bronfenbrenner & Ceci 1994). Examples of the dyads include those of the mother-child, teacher-child and child-child. For example, the third party to the mother-child dyad may be the father, the grandparents and the teachers. The father's support to the mother, even even in separation works as the buffer for the development of the secure emotional relationship necessary for child development (Feyer & Winsler, 2009; Allen & Daly, 2007). The development potential of a setting depends on the extent to which third

parties present in the setting support or undermine the activities of those actually engaged in interactions with the child (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

Proposition four of the ecological theory is about the interconnection between the settings which embed the children (Bronfenbrenner & Ceci, 1994). This means interconnection between the parents and the practitioners and or home and day care centres in this study. Bronfenbrenner (1979) was of the opinion that children's behaviour and development depend on a number of supportive links within the settings that surround them. Such interconnections may take the form of shared activities, two-way communication and information provided in each setting about the others, thereby forming mutual interdependence of the interconnections (Landsberg, et al, 2011; Johnson, 2008). Following these propositions is their application in this study.



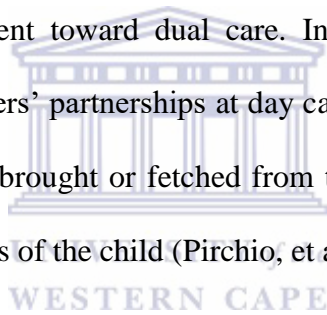
2.4 Application of the Bio-ecological Systems Theory

The study employed Bio-ecological systems theory for its ability to describe child development within more than one context (Harkonen, 2007). It is widely used in childcare research in relation to different contexts such as family, community and day care centres and social policies affecting children (Sylva, Stein, Leach, Barnes & Malmberg, 2011). In this section of the chapter, the theory is applied to the study to show its suitability as the theory of choice. The aim of the present study is to explore the influence of home and day care centre environments on children's behaviour during early childhood (children aged 0–6 years).

In this study, the child is placed at the centre of the two microsystem structures, the home and the day care centre, that have direct influence in their development and behaviour. The microsystem is the immediate environment of the child (Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Adamson, et al, 2007), with the home as the closest environment to children and day care centres being secondary in their closeness (Rosa & Tudge, 2013). In these environments, children interact in a direct manner with significant people such as parents, siblings, relatives, peers and practitioners (Johnson, 2008). However, within the home, parents, especially the mother, are the most significant adult figures and in day care centres, practitioners are the most significant persons. In bringing two adult figures together, parents' closeness supersedes that of the practitioners, making practitioners secondary parents to children. The mutual emotional relationship that builds between children and adults delineates this significance (Edghill, 2013). As both parties engage in a direct and on a face-to-face basis, children become actively involved in the processes and thus learn and practise what they have been exposed to as their spectrum broadens (Bronfenbrenner & Evans, 2000). As children transit from home to day care centre environment, their spectrum expands and they get to implement and practice the skill they learned within their home. Depending on the quality of the skills the day care centre offers, it reduces children's poor skills and maintains the good skills. Thus, it complements the home environment. Nonetheless, Dartle, et al (2012) found that the complement is dependent on the relationship both home and day care centres have, hence, acknowledgement of the role of the mesosystem of bio-ecological theory in this study.

The mesosystem is also a major stakeholder in this study as it is the link and or the relationship that the microsystem structures have (Leonard, 2011). It is part and parcel of the microsystem due to its direct influence on it (Eleuteri & Ardonui, 2014; Adamsons, et al, 2007). In this study, home and day care centre environments are the two microsystem

structures that relate in influencing children's behaviour. This study has used the concept of dual care to refer to the relationship between the home and day care centre environment. Therefore, the study seeks to explore the extent to which dual care influences children's behaviour during the transition and settlement of children in this type of care. Children's adjustments to this type of care have the potential to affect the transition circuits, consequently positively or negatively influencing children's behaviour (Leonard, 2011; Harkonen, 2007). There has to be a consistent bidirectional sharing of information and knowledge in which parents and practitioners engage to enable almost the same information being disseminated to children in both the childrearing settings. Communication is crucial to setting clear ways of how to fulfil the expectations about child development and this is likely to buffer the children's adjustment toward dual care. In the study exploring the role of relationship of parents' and teachers' partnerships at day care centres, it was shown that brief conversations when children are brought or fetched from the centre helps to inform parents and practitioner about the progress of the child (Pirchio, et al, 2013).



The study recognises the exo-, macro- and chronosystem for their influence on the micro-system, which is the environment that directly entails the child, and children are actively participating within. The exo-system is the environment that does not contain the child but has an indirect influence on them (Edghill, 2012; Lewthwaite, 2011). Examples of the exo-system include the policies and bills of rights that govern families and parents' work. Thus, in this study the policies that run the day care centre are of interest for how they contribute in influencing children's behaviour as they have influence on how teachers and children interact. Parents' employment is another factor that leads to children's placement in a day care centre, and therefore the parents' work has a role in influencing the parent-child dyad and

consequently affecting children's behaviour (Belsky, et al, 2007). Within the exo-system, the child has limited influence or participation and yet it affects them.

The macro-system as the overarching context also affects child development and behaviour (Harkonen, 2007). Parents and practitioners are affected and obligated by laws, ideologies, culture and economic issues as to how they nature and nurture children (Rosa & Tudge, 2009). Examples are family and ECD policies that advocate for children's protection. These policies affect interactions within family units as well as day care centres consequently influencing how parents and practitioners relate and interact with children (Eleuteri & Arduino, 2014; Rosa & Tudge, 2013, Lewthwaite, 2011). Another example is that of ECD programmes aim at building human capital (Atmore, et al, 2012; Allie, 2010; NICHD Study, 2006). The worldviews on ECD programmes and policies inform what facilitates proper child development (WHO, 2012; WHO & UNICEF, 2012). As governments involve sectors within the exo-system to enact policies for the programmes, they are thus affecting the microsystem leading to an effect on the child's behaviour.

The chronosystem denotes the time factor (Tudge, et al, 2009). It represents the changes to each system over time such as the child and parent relationship (Edghill, 2011). Thus, it relates to developmental changes, presence and/or absence of people within the child's environment and change of environment over time. In these transition periods, the chronosystem acknowledges maintenance of equilibrium.

Bio-ecological system theory pins down its attention to the child development within the complex layers of the child's environment especially the micro- and mesosystem in this study (Leonard, 2011). These are the most immediate layers which directly affect one another, leading to direct influence on the child's psychological, emotional, personality, physiological needs, materials and activities that occur within the child (Tudge, et al, 2009; Adamsons, et al, 2007). In accordance with the study's focus that seeks to explore the influence of two structures of microstructures on children's behaviour, the ecological system theory helps to conceptualise the dual care having influence on the children. It further helps to conceptualise the transition zones of children from one environment to another, thus it enables the researcher to identify and understand the nature of the environment's influence on children's behaviour (Lewthwaite, 2011; Evans & Wachs, 2010). This theory is suitable for its usefulness in analysing the mass influence of positive and negative effects of environments on child development especially where more than one context within which the child lives/interact, is involved (Eleuteri & Ardonui, 2014). Ecological systems theory recognises children also as having an influence on their behaviour; and therefore, regards them as active social actors due to their participation in influencing their own behaviour (Evans & Wachs, 2010; Johnson, 2008).

2.5 Conclusion

The ecological theory is the overarching theory of this study. It is a developmental theory that centres its focus on children and studies them within their natural context. This way of studying children's behaviour enables the analysis of individuals as unique beings since exposure to the same setting does not necessarily mean same experience but individuals can experience same exposure differently. The proximal processes are the driving forces for the

development and the derivation of meaning to the context that children live in. Children are able to adjust to dual care through utilising these processes. However, a catalyst to their adjustment is the emotional relationship that they develop with the significant people and objects in their contexts especially during engagement in activities. Parents and practitioners are the knowledgeable adults closest to influencing children adjustment as such affecting their behaviour. The effects occur in a bidirectional way between parents, practitioners and the children.

The next chapter presents the detailed literature review regarding home and day care centre environments' influence on children's behaviour.

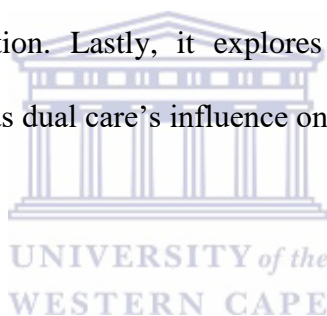


CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explores and examines literature regarding the role of home and day care centre environments' influences on the behaviour of children during early childhood development (ECD). The first section of this chapter focuses on early child development in relation to children's behaviour, followed by a discussion on distinct environments' role of home and of day care centres' influence on children's behaviour. Thus, two environments constitute two sub-sections in the second section. Lastly, it explores the common attributes of both environments, which constitutes as dual care's influence on children behaviour.



3.2 Early Childhood Development

Early childhood development (ECD) is a broad term encompassing the experiences by which those 0–6 year-old children grow and thrive physically, mentally, emotionally, spiritually, morally and socially (Asmal, 2001). Remarkable brain growth is experienced during this phase of development as the child's brain is malleable to any form of environmental exposure and that has an influence on children's behaviour (WHO), 2012; Baker-Henningham & Boo, 2010; Maggi, et al, 2010; Morrissey, 2009; Chilton, Chayatte & Breaux, 2007; Bohlin, et al, 2005). This developmental phase poses greater risk and opportunity for children's development with their brains engaged full time in processing behaviour traits during their interaction with their environment (Sayre, et al, 2015; Shonkoff, et al, 2012; Naudeau, et al, 2011; Fernald, Kariger, Engle & Raikes, 2009). Environments characterised with risks such

as violence, conflict, poor infrastructure, inadequate nutrition, low socio-economic status (SES), lack of recreational activities and unresponsive care poses risks for children's behaviour while on the other hand absence of these environmental risks creates greater opportunity for children's development and behaviour (Biesteker & Kvalsvig, 2007; Allie, 2010).

Early childhood development entails the strategies to uplift children's livelihoods (Biesteker & Kvalsvig, 2007; Allie, 2010). This strategy is multidimensional as it synergises children's biological makeup with child developmental needs such as proper nutrition, stimulating activities, adult responsiveness and sensitivity and safe and healthy physical environments (Baker-Hennigham & Boo, 2010; Morrissey, 2009; Chilton, et al, 2007). Investing in early childhood by improving children's environments lays a strong foundation for building productive human capital for the growth of a nation (Atmore, et al, 2012; Allie, 2010). Early childhood development programmes aim at sustaining child development through formulation of guidelines and policies that influence children's relationship with adults within home and day care centres (Bass & Dalal-Clayton, 2012; WHO, 2012; WHO & UNICEF, 2012). Naudeau, et al (2011) further indicated that the ECD strategy's goal is to provide enabling environments of childcare within home and day care centres for children and to assist parents and practitioners to mentor children to flourish in conducive environments, thus increasing opportunity for every child to reach their full potential (Bass & Dalal-Clayton, 2012; Harkonen, 2007).

Different studies indicate that parents and ECD practitioners are the responsible adults who provide a caring and nurturing environment to children by being sensitive and responsive on

the children's demands in those environments, consequently harbouring positive influence on children's behaviour despite the deleterious events and conditions within the child's environment (Chan, 2013; Warren, 2013; Day, 2010). Belsky, et al (2007) and Woodhead (2006) added that during this period children's lives are most dependent on secure, responsive relationships with others (especially their parents, siblings, peers and practitioners) not just to ensure their survival, but also their emotional security, social, cognitive and cultural integration (Woodhead, 2006). In this regard, parents and practitioners are the adults responsible for building and stimulating children's abilities (Rosa & Tudge, 2013). Concurrently, a mutual relationship forms between children and these adults, and thus the entire environment creating pathways for behaviour influence (Leonard, 2011; Rosa & Tudge, 2013).



3.2.1 The role of early childhood development

Early childhood development acts as a building block that facilitate child growth and development so that children attain their full developmental potential (Atmore, et al, 2012; Sayre, et al, 2015; Shonkoff, et al, 2012; Huerta, Adema, Baxter, Corak, Deding & Gray, 2011). ECD strategies sustains children's development by reducing maladies such as stunting, developmental lag and poverty through enhancing children's nutrition, enacting of children's rights bills and family policies, contributing to family socio-economic status through social grants, and availing greater opportunity to learning and education (Shonkoff, et al, 2012; Allie, 2010). It improves children's educational efficacy necessary for acquiring of basic concepts, skills and attitudes thereby increasing developmental and learning success (ECD Guidelines Republic of South Africa (RSA), 2006; NICHD Study, 2006). ECD programmes are also notable for its effective role in the reversal of effects of deprived innate potential of children, as it supports the developmental needs that enhance and embrace children's innate

potential (Sayre, et al, 2015; Naudeau, et al, 2012). ECD programmes ensure that children's experiences equip them with the necessary skills to survive as individuals, as well as in their relationships with others and the environment (WHO, 2013). It encompasses the activities or strategies put in place by the involved parties to bring about enhancements in early childhood behaviour to ensure the children's survival (Pirchio, et al, 2013).

ECD programmes aim to provide all children with healthy and nourished environments in which children are able to communicate, learn, and be open to opportunities in life (Naudeau, et al, 2011; Allie, 2010). Although, initially, the ECD's major role was to promote opportunities for vulnerable children, it has also benefited children with better livelihoods (Sayre, et al, 2015; Hardy, King, Farrell, Macniven & Howlett, 2010; Rao & Sun, 2010; Cascio, 2009; Walker, et al, 2007). With these benefits afforded to children, their behaviour is improved, in that destructive behaviour such as violence in conflict resolution, externalising behaviours such as aggression, throwing tantrums, bullying and dropping out of school and internalising behaviours such as anxiety and depression have been reduced (Walker, et al, 2007; Slemming & Saloojee, 2013). It is important to adopt a holistic approach in implementing ECD to enhance children's early experiences and their behaviour (Shonkoff, et al, 2012).

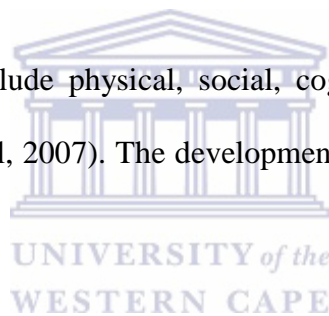
3.2.2 The holistic approach to early childhood development

A holistic approach means an inclusive approach encompassing all domains of human development be they physical, social, cognitive and communicative (Sayre, et al, 2015; ECD Guidelines RSA, 2006). This approach is beneficial in improving children's livelihoods so that they grow and flourish in a wholesome manner (Sayre, et al, 2015). It is best suited in

ECD programmes for its consideration of child development needs and experiences according to developmental stages, use of different child development theories. Involvement of different government sectors such as health, education, agriculture and social development in implementing ECD programmes demonstrates the holistic approach character (Sayre, et al, 2015; Atmore, et al, 2012; Shonkoff, et al, 2012; Naudeau, et al, 2011; Allie, 2010; Chilton, et al, 2007). Although, early childhood development has always been thought in terms of education, it encompasses meeting all children's needs and experiences regardless of if they are at a day care centre or at home (Atmore, et al, 2012; Rotumoi & Too, 2012).

3.2.2.1 Developmental domains

The developmental domains include physical, social, cognitive and communicative skills (Maggi, et al, 2010; Chilton, et al, 2007). The developmental domains are interdependent on one another.

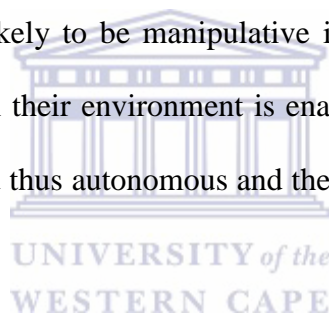


Physical development is about the physical activity of the child (Berk, 2003) and includes the mastery of fine and gross motor skills (Walker, et al, 2007). In this domain children use their sensorimotor skills to familiarise and explore their surroundings (Evans, 2009). The availability of enough space for walking, a responsive carer to guide them by the hand and the resources such as toys and building blocks help to stimulate their physical activity (Maitland, Strantton, Foster, Braham, & Rosenberg, 2013; Hartas, 2011). Physical space encourages the child's motor development as well as engaging their cognitive, linguistic and social development. Physical activity largely encourages play with peers and as a result forms social relationships (Slemming & Saloojee, 2013; Sylva, et al, 2007). However, children living in deprived environments like flats, slums and shacks which usually are overcrowded

and those with some kind of disability, have limited space to sensitise their physical activity due to restricted movement within the household (Liu, 2015; Irwin, et al, 2007). According to Maggi, et al (2010), the day care centres within deprived environments are likely to have ratios that exceed the regulation of ECD guidelines resulting in overcrowding. Both home and day care centres' living conditions should thus be physically safe and spacious to allow for the child's mobility.

The *social domain* encompasses issues such as relationships, emotions, morals, spirituality and or religion and informs the social conduct of the child and their ability to make and maintain relationships (UNICEF, 2012). This domain involves children's socialisation, which means integrating them in interrelationships and/or society (Mee, 2007; ECD Guidelines RSA, 2006). In these relationships, they usually learn about their emotions and how they can express them (WHO & UNICEF, 2012). At this period parents and educators can use, during storytelling, different ways of expression, types of stories and settings to instil emotions in children (da Figueredo & Dias, 2012). They learn about what are acceptable and unacceptable ways of expressing themselves (Johnson, 2008), become able to distinguish between right and wrong and subscribe to the norms and beliefs that the people in their surroundings subscribe to (Anglin, Harlper-Felsher, Kaplan & Newcomer, 2011). Gradually, they learn the cooperative and sharing skills that help them further maintain their relationships (ECD Guidelines RSA, 2006; NHCID Study, 2006). The physical and social learning processes involve the cognitive functions to grasp the essence of behaviour development (Shonkoff, et al, 2012).

The *cognitive domain* includes the skills pertaining to learning and thinking (Johnson, 2008; Allie, 2010). The child's ability to imitate and repeat what others have done displays a particular behaviour of their cognitive function (Shonkoff et al, 2012). Thus, if the child is not able to or does not imitate or repeat it becomes worrisome to the parents and educators about their cognitive capabilities (NICHD Study, 2006). The child's ability to pick up emotions and/or responses of others towards them, to sort and so organise objects and materials maybe by size or colour, sets his concentration span (Conger, Conger & Martin, 2010). As the child grows, the concentration and/or attention increases and they are able to listen and grasp what they are learning from the environment (Walker, et al, 2011). The process of grasping usually involves questioning to seek information and increase their understanding hence; they are likely to be manipulative in trying to get their way in their environment (Berk, 2003). When their environment is enabling, through this understanding, children become independent and thus autonomous and they are able to understand and grasp concepts.



The *communicative domain* includes language use, a means of human communication that consists of the use of words in a structured and conventional way (Bergner, 2011). The language may be verbal or non-verbal (ECD Guidelines RSA, 2006). In order to avoid misinterpretation with children who rely mostly on non-verbal communication, children's minds need knowledgeable adults who are able to effectively understand their expressions (Johnson, 2008). Johnson (2008) further adds that misinterpretation of children's gestures and acting out leads to reprimanding the child, which is likely to demotivate the child to take initiative, which may deter interactions thereby decreasing communicative skills. Language development allows children to relate to their environment as it also enables them to fit in within it (Bergner, 2011; Matthew-Somervill & Cress, 2005).

When the child has developed skills in the above-mentioned domains, they are able to adapt to daily living within their various environments (Shonkoff, et al, 2012). Daily living includes dressing, eating, toileting, washing and interacting with things that are acceptable and/or unacceptable (Atmore, et al, 2012). However, the extent of the adaptation is dependent on the child's stage of development, their character and how enabling the environment is, to support the development (WHO, 2013).

Through the various stages of development, children display different abilities that they develop in support of their home or day care centre environments (Slemming & Saloojee, 2013). Children experience difficulty in adjusting to these environments especially if the disruptions occur in the environment earlier than the pace of their development (Belsky, et al, 2007). Children's abilities develop with the age that they are at and they are likely to delay or quicken depending on environmental support (WHO, 2013). Children from disadvantaged backgrounds lack resources that stimulate them to develop to their full potential in the various domains thereby causing delays in their development, which consequently affect their behaviour (Walker, et al, 2007). According to studies done in the context of children who are disadvantaged, it is evident that those children display disruptive behaviour (Docker, Falk, Kosse & Schildberg-Haisch, 2015; Shonkoff, et al, 2012; Hartas, 2011; Ferguson, Bovaird & Mueller, 2007) such as aggression in playing or problem-solving, tiredness, delinquency or school dropout (WHO, 2013; Tanaka, 2005). Furthermore, they are characterised with low concentration and experience difficulty in grasping concepts (Irwin, et al, 2007). Children also experience delays in sensorimotor development due to inadequate nutrition, and living in a confined environmental space that prohibits them from moving around completely and

freely (Evans, 2009). Spatial restrictions limit the child's exploration and children usually have tiredness or lack momentum to fully reach the target goals in physical training (WHO & UNICEF, 2012). As such, these children's childhood experiences are limit their behaviour (Shonkoff, et al, 2012). However, other children are able to overcome these debilitating environmental challenges and still thrive well, overcoming the behaviour challenges (Conger, et al, 2010; Berk, 2003).

3.3 Behaviour

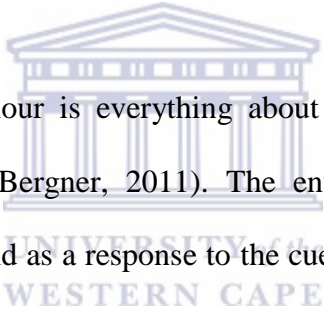
Moore (2011) defines behaviour of children simply as children's characteristics intertwined with their environmental characteristics (Moore, 2011). Behaviour has been defined as any observable movement/action depicted by the organism, (Levitis, et al, 2009; Bergner, 2011); is a response that occurs from both external and internal stimuli (Levitis, et al, 2009) or a process of an inner entity bringing about a bodily movement or environmental outcome which defines behaviour as describable (Bergner, 2011). Therefore, it suggested that behaviour involves motion (observable movement or a reaction or an action) and private or individualised processes unseen, but is expressible (describable) (Bergner, 2011).

Bergner (2011) proposed a model for defining behaviour in order to encompass all of the aspects of child development, which is

(B) = I; W; K; K-H; P; A; PC; S;

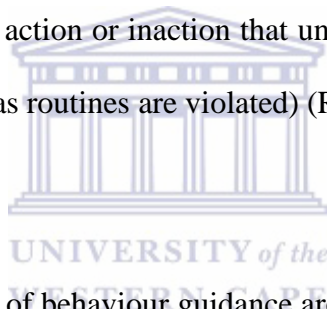
- B = Behaviour
- I = Identity

- W = Want (motivation parameter)
- K = Know (cognitive parameter)
- K-H = Know-How (the skills or competency parameter)
- P = Performance (physical process or processes)
- A = Achievement (Outcome parameter)
- PC = Personal Characteristics (the individual difference parameter)
- S = Significance (meaning or importance)



According to this model, behaviour is everything about human beings; what they do in response to their environment (Bergner, 2011). The environment (external and internal stimuli) sends cues to the brain and as a response to the cues; expression of behaviour occurs in observable and describable actions and reactions that are providing meaning to that response (Todorov, 2013). Leonard and Cronan (2005) further emphasised that societal environment, belief system, personal values and personal environment, moral obligation, legal environment and consequences influence attributes in the proposed model. As such, this draws attention to acceptability and unacceptability of behaviour (Reason, 2016). Terry and Ackerman (2008), suggested that adults (parents and practitioners) working with children must clearly inform children of what behaviour is acceptable and what is not acceptable. There should be a clear code of conduct that aims to optimise children's behaviour by clarifying responsibilities, setting clear rules, and consequences in the settings that children live in (Lowry & Hanen, 2012; NIHDC Study, 2006).

Hooper and Kalidas, (2012) indicated that despite the clarity in behaviour expectations, acceptable behaviours are more audience nuanced than unacceptable behaviour. The authors further showed that the child's environmental norms guide behaviour acceptability. As such between the two environments that engulf the child in this study, the norms are likely to vary. In both the home and day care centre setting, acceptable behaviour is usually encouraged by praising the child and rewarding them for compliance as a way to stimulate the children's personal behaviour norms (Heritage Management Committee, 2009). Reason (2016) on the other hand showed that in the setting that embedded children, interpretation of unacceptable behaviour and guiding it to acceptable behaviour is important. He suggests that parents and practitioners must be able to distinguish between unacceptable behaviour that occurs unintentionally (that occurs as an action or inaction that unwittingly results in harm) and that is intended (one when rules such as routines are violated) (Reason, 2016).



Parental and practitioners' beliefs of behaviour guidance are important in nurturing children's behaviour. Parents and practitioners who hold authoritative beliefs will reason with the child and explain the nature of unacceptable occurrence while those who hold authoritarian beliefs will reprimand the child without offering the explanation as to why their behaviour is unacceptable (Cobanoglu & Capa-Aydin, 2015; Heritage Management Committee, 2009; Leonard & Cronan, 2005). Authoritative beliefs allow children to become independent by providing opportunity to rationalise their own actions while authoritarian beliefs dominate children's ability to take initiative and as a result children become submissive to others be they adults' or peers' opinions (Cobanoglu & Capa-Aydin, 2015). It is therefore crucial in behaviour guidance to take note of a child's personal intuition and the environmental influences as they both influence children's behaviour (Cobanoglu & Capa-Aydin, 2015).

As this study is exploring the role of dual care (care between home and day care centres) in influencing the behaviour of children during early childhood, a holistic definition of behaviour is needed that encompasses all of the external and internal aspects of children's behaviour. This study defines behaviour as the coordination of one or more processes combined to respond to both external and internal stimuli (Levitis, et al, 2009). For instance, as children develop in their physical aspect such as starting to 'walk', which is an observable behaviour, they are faced with 'curiosity' or 'demand' (related to cognitive parameters which happen internally within the child) to explore their environment in order to connect with it (Maggi, et al, 2010). However, acceptability to do or touch things in their environment guides children's curiosity and demand. As such, an environment which is too restricting in terms of rules, space, safety and hygiene and which are characterised by poor nutrition and poverty inhibit children's physical behaviour, and simultaneously negatively affect children's social, cognitive and linguistic behaviours. Physical activity without any supremacy over other developmental domains of children is highly related to enabling engagement of other behavioural aspects as children interact with their environment (Winsler, Tran, Hartman, Madigan, Manfra & Bleiker, 2008; Sylva, et al, 2007).

In behavioural development, the children's internal working models are instantly engaged to produce behaviour (Bergner, 2011; Hardy, et al, 2010). Influences on behaviour especially in young children, occurs on a continual cycle of awareness, experimentation and repetition of learned skills (Shonkoff, et al, 2012; Wong, 2012). Thus, for the home and day care environment to play a role in influencing children's behaviour there has to be a routine exposure to both of the environments' factors such as rules, norms, customs, values,

traditions, fashion and consequences (Pirchio, et al, 2013). According to Hooper and Kalidas (2012), the routine exposure to these environmental aspects influences the behaviour attribute as indicated in the Bergner model. As environment is a major influencer on children's behaviour, a discussion thereof is required.

3.4 Environment

3.4.1 Understanding environment

Environment is a natural surrounding and/or condition in which an organism lives (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). In the case of human beings, this term denotes interlink of complex inseparable systems that constitute physical, chemical, biological, social and cultural elements which are interlinked individually and collectively in a myriad of ways (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). The environment of children, in early childhood, is constituted by a myriad of conditions that are inseparable and which allow the bi-directional influence on each other's (the child and the environment) well-being in a particular time and space (Irwin, et al, 2007). This bidirectional relationship can either have a positive or negative influence on the well-being and behavioural development of the human beings (WHO, 2012; 2013). The environment of the child is therefore as an input mode that influences the development of a child's behaviour through formation of a mutual relationship between the child and their environment(s) (da Figueiredo & Dias, 2012; Tudge, et al, 2009).

Environment plays a very vital role taking advantage directly or indirectly of brain development (WHO, 2013). In the period from conception to preschool years, the child's brain is prone to environmental exposures that can either harm or build the child's behaviour

(Irwin, et al, 2007). The environment immensely networks its effects in the brain circuits forming foundation on all behavioural aspects consequently modelling the child's behaviour (Shonkoff, et al, 2012). Depending on the quality of environmental conditions, the brain can yield either positive or negative behaviour (Atmore, et al, 2012; Taguma, Litjens, Makowiecki, & Early, 2012).

Quality of environments which contain children, is attributable to i) stability (experience of change should be gradual and minimal) (Anglin, et al, 2011); ii) warmth, responsiveness and sensitivity (Biesteker & Kvalsvig, 2007; Lowry & Hanen, 2012; NICHD Study, 2006); iii) trusting and mutual relationships (Allie, 2010); iv) ensure safety, adequate nutrition, water and sanitation (Shonkoff, et al, 2012; WHO & UNICEF, 2012) and (v) stimulating to sensitise the already built-in intelligence that children are born with (Edie & Schmid, 2007). Good quality of a child's environment is associated with optimal well-being and good behaviour outcomes while poor quality is associated with poor behaviour outcomes (Atmore, et al, 2012; Santos, Assis, Bastos, Santos, Santos, Strina, Prado, Almeida-Filho¹, Rodrigues & Barreto, 2008).

A negative environment, however, deforms the positive effects of the environment on the child (Naudeau, et al, 2011). Consequently, the deformation affects the child's behaviour, increasing the chances of problematic behaviour (Shonkoff, et al, 2012) which is usually portrayed as aggressive behaviour, school dropout, restlessness, poor problem-solving skills and delays in language development (Legendre & Munchenbach, 2010). Therefore, the child will still undergo progression even if their behaviour outcomes become worrisome due to environmental risks (Self-guided Learning Package, 2011) such as poverty, low income,

family ill-health, parents' employment and education and physical environmental risk such as pollution, chaos, crowding and noise (Martin, Sontag-Padilla, Cannon, Auger, Diamond, Joyce, Diamond, Spurlock & Chandra, 2015, Evans, 2009). Environmental risks, especially poverty, are likely to contribute to malnutrition severe enough to cause stunting, inadequate stimulation and learning opportunities, deficiencies of vitamins such as iron and iodine, diseases especially Malaria and HIV/AIDS, social and food insecurity (Atmore, et al, 2012; Shonkoff, et al, 2012, Naudeau, et al, 2011; Grantham-McGregor, Cheung, Cueto, Glewwe, Richter & Strupp, 2007). As a result, children are not able to reach their full potential (Martin, et al, 2015). Globally, 200 million children in developing countries are at risk of impaired behaviour relating to their cognitive and language, physical and social-emotional development (Grantham-McGregor, et al, 2007). Approximately 178–219 million children have stunted growth preventing them from attaining their full developmental potential (Walker, et al, 2011). Home and day care centres environments are two closest environment of child that contribute to how children grow develop and behave (Peñalvo, Sotos-Prieto, Santos-Beneit, Pocock, Redondo & Fuster, 2013).

3.4.2 Home environment

Home environment is the immediate environment of the child as it stamps the origins of its members through reproduction, rearing practices and activities within the family and society at large (Li & Tzuo, 2010; Berk, 2003). Home refers to notions of comfort, relationship, place of dwelling and protection (Mee, 2007), as well as a place of retreat in the form of relaxation, freedom, privacy, independence, self-expression, support system and continuity and permanence (Heywood, 2005). In the context of this study, home is referred to as the centre for family life to be more encompassing (Heywood, 2005) where the family dwells and members of the family establish meaningful relationships within and outside their family

environment such as neighbourhood, region and country at large (Irwin, et al, 2007; Mee, 2007; Tipple & Speak, 2005). It is responsible for integrating children into the larger societal system (Baker, 2014; Chan, 2013; da Figueredo & Dias, 2012; Daniel & Koralek, 2009).

Overarching of the home environment characteristics are the parenting practices, parent behaviours and activities within the family (Chan, 2013). These characteristics are mechanisms used to integrate children into both family and society values due to their proximity in influencing children's behaviour. Proximal influencers are those that children have direct participation into (Tudge, et al, 2009) and they are affected the family context. Family context includes family socio-economic status (SES), structure, health and location defined as salient factors (da Figueredo & Dias, 2012). Salient factors are distal in influencing children's behaviour since children have indirect participation in them (Slot, Leseman, Verhagen & Mulder, 2015; Rosa & Tudge 2013; Romano, Kohen & Findlay, 2010). Both proximal and distal influencers enable a reciprocal influence between parents and children (Tudge, et al, 2009; Bronfenbrenner, 2005). A more detailed discussion of factors that influence children's behaviour within the home environment, namely parenting practices and processes within home environment follows.

3.4.2.1 Parenting practices

Parenting is a process that actively involves parents and children in decision-making (Baker, 2014). It also enables socialisation by encompassing parenting responsibilities, language of instruction and disciplinary measures (Martínez-Loredo, Fernández-Artamendi, Weidberg, Pericot, López-Núñez, Fernández-Hermida, & Secades, 2016; Dunkley, 2013; Berge, Wall, Loth, Neumark & Sztainer, 2010). Parents achieve socialisation through parenting practices,

which refers to competencies, talents, craft or qualities of the parents to bring up their offspring (Makofane & Mogoane, 2012; Shonkoff, et al, 2012; Pearson, Atkin, Biddle, Garely & Edwardson, 2009). Parenting is a major component of childcare that nature and nurtures children through direct caregiver-child interaction (Pearson, et al, 2009; Turner, Chandler & Heffer, 2009).

Parenting practices are stratified standards of parenting methods that inform and differentiate ways of childrearing (Sorkhabi, 2012; Berge, et al, 2010; Gracia & Gracia, 2009; Rodriguez, Donovik & Crowley, 2009). Parenting methods are authoritarian, authoritative, permissive and neglectful (Jabaghourian, Sorkhabi, Quach & Strage, 2014; Dunkley, 2013). These methods stratification is according to the behaviours that parents display in caring for their children especially between responsiveness and demandingness (Jabaghourian, et al, 2014; Pearson, et al, 2009). Consequently, the behaviour of children emerges depending on their parents' parenting method (Jabaghourian et al, 2014; Rodriguez, et al, 2009). Table 3.1 outlines the characteristics of each parenting style based on lines of communication, discipline and distribution of power and responsivity.

Table 3.1 Parenting styles (Pearson, et al, 2009)

Parenting styles	Authoritarian	Authoritative	Permissive	Neglectful
Communication lines	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Verbal hostility • High in maturity demands 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Liberal • Enable maturity demands 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Excessive liberty • Low in maturity demands 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Extra excessive liberty • Very low in maturity demand,
Discipline	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Physical punishment • Low on reasoning and explanation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High on reasoning and explanation • Balanced monitoring 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low in monitoring, reasoning and explanation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No clear ways of discipline
Distribution, power and responsivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Psychological control • High coercion • Strict • Low warmth • Less to no parental involvement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High on firm rational control, independence, parental involvement and warmth 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low on firm rational control, • High in granting independence, parental involvement and warmth 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Extra low if not at all any control • Low warmth • Low parental involvement • Low acceptance of own child • High in inconsistency to responsive caregiving

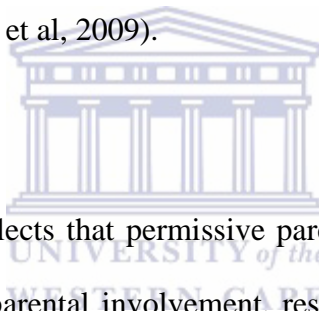
Table 3.1 indicates that parenting styles use communication lines, discipline methods and distribution of power and responsivity to different degrees as pathways to influencing children's behaviour (Jabaghourian et al, 2014; Dunkley, 2013). Parents influence children's behaviour during their interactions using both verbal and non-verbal language as medium for instruction, discipline, sensitivity and responsivity (Matthew-Somervill & Cress, 2005). Consequently, children grasp concepts, acquire vocabulary and develop morals and emotional regulation subsequently informing their developmental domains and therefore pathways for behaviour influence (Mukhovha, 2009). Discipline on the other hand allows children to distinguish between right and wrong, what is acceptable and unacceptable especially in social domain, thereby engaging cognitive competence, communicative skills and physical activity through which children act out their understanding of discipline in the behaviours they display (Baker, 2014; Flaskerud, 2011; Berk, 2003). Power and responsivity distribution is

exercised to allow bidirectional influence on behaviour through which children perceive parents as role models for their behaviours and as such strive to imitate and copy what parents do as the authority figure to them (Baker, 2014; Lee, Perron, Taylor & Guterman, 2011). However, there are variations in how parents exercise their skills within their parenting practices (Berkien, Louwse, Verhulst & van de Ende, 2012; Pearson, et al, 2009).

Authoritarian parenting practice is characterised by high maturity demands, coercion and strict punitive discipline intertwined with high psychological control, low warmth, verbal expression and less parental involvement. Parents who adopt this style of parenting use limited to closed lines of communications, harsh punitive discipline, and control decision with less explanation to children yet they are high in demanding obedience (Pearson, et al, 2014). Human (2010) asserts children who are exposed to authoritarian parenting styles experience inability to develop complex understanding of their needs and that of others due to harsh and punitive discipline by parents and limited communication lines. This way of maintaining order within home environment leads to children externalising behaviours such as aggression and bullying or internalising behaviours such as anxiety and depression (Tanaka, 2005). These children usually have submissive behaviours like copying their peers as they are always controlled at home than to experience autonomy like children in authoritative parenting (Gracia & Gracia, 2009).

Authoritative parenting practice is associated with positive influence on children's behaviour (Pearson, et al, 2009). Children exposed to this practice develop good communication and interpersonal skills, are independent in taking decisions and control especially in play, and are able to balance their needs with that of other people within their environment when

compared with children raised in other parenting practices (Dunkley, 2013). Baker (2014) found that authoritative parenting style leads to high self-concept, self-reliance and self-esteem in children as opposed to other parenting practices. These children voluntarily improve their behaviour, merging it competently with that of environmental demands and enhancing their prosocial behaviours such as cooperation, and sharing (da Figueredo & Dias, 2012; Sorkhabi, 2012). Parents' ability to balance compliance demands, discipline and control with consistency in rules and reasoning influences children behaviour, thereby enabling their maturity, competency and autonomy (Jabagohaurian, et al, 2014). As indicated in Table 3.1, parents who adopt authoritative parenting are highly involved in mentoring their children and thus show high responsiveness, sensitivity and warmth to their children (Martinez-Loredo, et al, 2016; Pearson, et al, 2009; Tuner, et al, 2009).



On the other hand, Table 3.1 reflects that permissive parenting practice is characterised by high granting of independence, parental involvement, responsiveness, sensitivity and warmth; and low demands in maturity, monitoring, reasoning and firm rational control. In the permissive parenting environment, the order is chaotic as there are no clear rules, and parents are inconsistent and lenient with discipline measures (Pearson, et al, 2009; Turner, et al, 2009). Children who are exposed to this parenting style are usually obsessive about their possessions despite that at the young age all children have a problem of sharing what they have (Dunkley, 2013). The outcomes of children exposed to permissive parenting are difficulties in learning how to regulate their behaviour especially when they are exposed to challenging situations, interaction with others and relationship forming (Bronwyn, 2012). Further, Baker (2014) suggested that children of permissive parents have difficulty with taking responsibility, impulse control and independent action as they become too dependent on the parent. Therefore, parents exhibit high responsiveness and autonomy granting as they

are involved yet they are not able to control their children (Jabagchaurian, et al, 2014; Turner, et al, 2009). Autonomy granting is the extent to which children are allowed liberty to express themselves within the family (Rodrigues, et al, 2009). Nonetheless, in this parenting style children's outcomes are much better than in authoritarian and neglectful parenting (Gracia & Gracia, 2009).

Neglectful parenting practice is characterised by low levels of parental responsiveness and demandingness (Martinez-Loredo, et al, 2016; Berge, et al, 2009; Pearson, et al, 2009). Responsiveness refers to the extent to which the parent individual character of self-regulation and assertion in their children is attuned and supportive to children's needs (WHO, 2013; Berge, et al, 2009). Support in this regard is referring to parental interest in their children's activities, listening to their children's needs and being actively involved (Rodriguez, et al, 2009). Demandingness is the amount of control parents imposes on the children's behaviour through parental supervision, rules or structure and the extent to which parents enforce the discipline (Rodriguez, et al, 2009). Thus in this parenting style, due to inexistence of parent responsiveness and demand at home, parents fail to recognise their children's abilities and to flexibly adapt to children's developmental capacities and their well-being (Pearson, et al, 2009). Consequently, parents have unrealistic expectations of children's behaviour; they have poor executive functions and usually give biased and inappropriate child appraisal (Azar, Stevenson & Johnson, 2012) and expect children to regulate their behaviour voluntarily. Lobera, Rios and Garido, (2011) found that neglectful parents are dissatisfied in some specific area(s) of their life and as a result exert their dissatisfaction on the child. In contrast, Azar, et al, (2011) found that neglectful behaviour of parents is associated with parental mental abilities in which they found that mentally challenged parents are likely to have increased maladaptive parenting behaviours. Kim (2009) further found that while neglectful

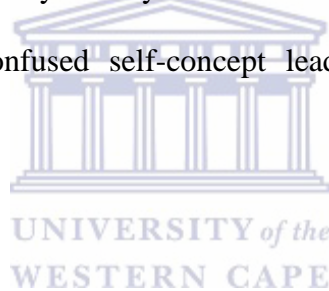
parenting is associated with parental exposure to this type of parenting, sixty percent of parents who were his study sample who experienced neglect, physical and sexual abuse, broke the cycle of abuse.

Chan (2013), Azar, et al (2012) and Chilton, et al (2007) asserted that if neglect emerged from early childhood the experience of neglect traumatised children negatively affecting the neuroscience of the brain structure necessary for development, with the consequence of children's behaviour being negatively affected. Such children have difficulty in impulse control, forming of relationships, social conduct and perform poorly in activities (Berkien, et al, 2012). As a coping mechanism, the child develops avoidant behaviours, as they do not know what to expect from the parents yet at the same they are longing for parental responsiveness (Lobera, et al, 2011). Unfortunately, parents remain disengaged leaving children to fend for themselves thus increasing the behaviour problems especially if the mother is more neglectful compared to the father (Berge, et al, 2010).

Several studies that done in parenting practices have concluded that parenting styles provide an important framework within which parenting behaviour and children's behaviours can be measured (Dunkley, 2013; Sorkhabi, 2012; Human, 2010; Gracia & Gracia, 2009). When comparing the children's behaviour, authoritative parenting seems to outweigh authoritarian, permissive and neglectful parenting. Berge, et al (2010) however, argued that there is no universal parenting style as is assumed with authoritative parenting but rather measure the styles in the context within which they occur. Gracia and Gracia (2009) while studying the parenting style within the Spanish context found that children of permissive parents have better behaviours than the other parenting styles. Especially when compared to authoritative

parenting, they exceeded them in performance. The explanation for this is due to the high level of strictness in authoritative parenting which is associated with restrictions of some kind in child development. Furthermore, as authoritative parenting is high in granting autonomy, it is therefore associated with westernised culture and middle-to-high-class society who hold an individualistic world view and thus in that culture the children's behaviours exceed that of other parenting styles (Rodriguez, et al, 2009).

In addition to this comparison, Berkien, et al (2012) diverts the argument to effects of dissimilarity between parents in parenting styles. Berkien, et al (2012) found that children who experience parental dissimilarity usually have lower self-esteem, low school adaptation and achievement leading to confused self-concept leading to behaviour challenges in children.



Furthermore, family context (parental education, family income, family structure, parental health and location) leads to variations in parenting practices between parents (Maggi, et al, 2010; Jabaghourian et al, 2014; Sorkhabi, 2012). Ferguson, et al (2007) found that children from high family socioeconomic status (FSES) have better adjustment skills and portray the capability to succeed in any situation they face. This relates also to children living in nuclear families rather than single and cohabiting families which are said to be fragile families (Waldfogel, Craige & Brooks-Gunn, 2010). Fragile families are usually economically disadvantaged as compared to a nuclear families (Sarsour, Sheridan, Jutte, Nuru-Jeter, Hinshaw & Boyce, 2011) and are likely to experience stress.

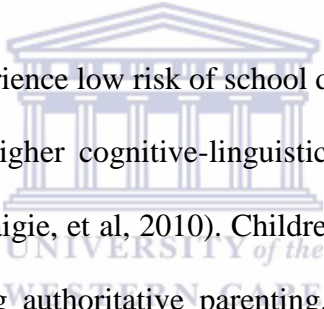
Stress depreciates the quality of parenting since parents harbour depression and as a result, become inconsistent with the discipline, supervision and support of their children consequently leading to adverse behaviour outcomes (Waldfogel, et al, 2010). In a stressful situation parents usually adopt harsh parenting and interact less with their children leading to a decrease in children's performance (Sarsour, et al, 2011). In fragile families, due to low family income, the members are characterised by stress and dissatisfaction, leading to instability within the family (Ryan, Classen & Markowits, 2013). Consequently, the instability brings about an uncondusive atmosphere thereby reducing the quality of interactions between parents and their children as parents are not able to provide adequately for their children's basic needs. Mothers as primary caregivers are usually more affected by stress than the fathers in these families (Chilton, et al, 2007).



The findings of Waldfogel, et al (2010) further showed that single-parent families experience more stress and depression than that shown in the cohabiting and nuclear family structure. Mesmam, van Ijzendoorm and Bakermanns-Kransbur (2011) articulated the reason for family stress to be associated with increased family economic challenges and instability, which are usually high in single-parent families. Children's experiences in stress characterise their behaviour with confusion, anger and resentment, which they normally show through aggression, demandingness and uncooperativeness (da Figueiredo & Dias, 2012).

Moreover, maternal depression is positively associated with poor behaviour adjustment in children (Chilton, et al, 2007). Surkan, Kawachi, Ryan, Berkhman, Vieire and Peterson (2011) found that maternal depression increased risk for illness due to lack of responsiveness to children's needs especially feeding and reduced child activity due to an agitated mother

figure. According to Surkan, et al, (2011) and Chilton, et al, (2007), maternal depression is associated with an increased probability of disordered parent-child relationships, which leads to ineffective parenting hence adversely affecting children's behaviour. Vital to the parent-child relationship is play as it is responsible for the stimulation of developmental domains (Sylva, et al, 2007). However, in depressed parents, especially the mother, there is reduced play, leading to a lag in behaviours per age especially when comparing children's outcomes in physical activity, social and cognitive-linguistic competency (WHO, 2012). Children of depressed mothers have diminished communicative skills due to less attention from the mother. They have difficulty in learning, are usually shy and get upset easily (WHO, 2012).



In nuclear families, children experience low risk of school dropout, idleness, lower health and socio-emotional problems, and higher cognitive-linguistic and physical activity increasing their productivity later in life (Craigie, et al, 2010). Children in this family structure are at an increased chance of experiencing authoritative parenting, which is associated with better child behaviour (Dunkley, 2013). Comparatively, children raised in nuclear families have fewer behaviour problems than is experienced by children raised into fragile families. Research also indicates that within fragile families, single-parent families, parents tend to adopt harsh discipline and maintain rigid control over their children and are usually authoritarian in parenting practices (Waldfogel, et al, 2010). Zirpoli, (2008) explains this behaviour of single parents to be stemming from the overwhelming responsibility of being a provider and a supervisor. Thus, the load of responsibility is too much in the single-parent families increasing challenges of maladaptive behaviour in children especially if the single parent is a mother (Sorkhabi, 2012).

Heckman (2011) however argues that parental efficacy within the family structures is the most important factor in influencing children's behaviour. He agrees with Waldfogel, et al, (2010) that family structure influences parental resources to be less or more effective in their parenting but does not directly influence children's behaviour. In their view, family structure influences parents parenting styles through which direct influence occurs during interactions with the child. Nevertheless, Dunkley (2013) argues that with the wide range of research regarding family structure and children's behaviours, family structure has direct impact on child behaviour because parents and children characters can be grouped according to family structures. Contrary to Dunkley's opinion, Waldfogel, et al, (2010) emphasised that how parents spent time in activities that engage them with their children regardless of family context, is what has direct influence on children's behaviour. Parent's behaviour has more influence than parenting practices and family context as children learn more through copying and imitating what they see parents do in their presence (Craigie, et al, 2010). Culture is another family context character that parents' behaviours (Bradly & Corwyn, 2005) and their ability to self-regulate their emotions depends largely on the beliefs that their society holds. Parents' emotional control allows children to learn how to regulate their own emotions (Frude & Killick, 2011).

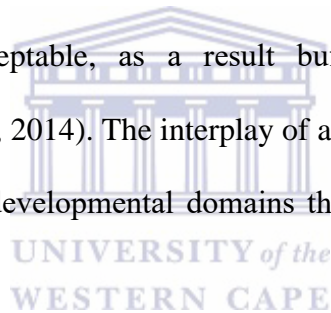
3.4.2.2 Processes within home environment

Processes are interactions characterised by activities through which adults and children engage with each other (Janon, 2009; Irwin, et al, 2007). The interaction sets found within the home environment are parent-child, child-child, society-child and adult-adult dyads (Sarsour, et al, 2011). The activities that these interaction sets usually engage with include play, feeding, singing, reading, rhymes, storytelling, rites and rituals and celebrations of significant periods and moments (Slemming & Saloojee, 2013; Lowry & Hanen, 2012; Frude & Killick,

2011; Feyter & Winsler, 2009). WHO and UNICEF (2012) and Chan (2013) found that these activities allow immense interaction of children, parents and the society, which enable the provision of adequate stimulation and knowledge to children regarding acceptable and unacceptable behaviour traits. These activities are identified as crucial to behaviour development as they create pathways for parents and society to integrate children into culture, discipline, health and responsibility that enhance their interaction within and beyond the home environment (Lowry & Hanen, 2012; Anglin, et al, 2011; Letourneau, Duffett-Leger, Levac, Watson & Young-Morris, 2011; Janon, 2009).

Play is an important component of early childhood stimulation that is central to interactions allowing opportunities for all significant activities that enhance good development to take place (WHO & UNICEF, 2012). As children are actively involved in play, they are able to choose selectively how they interact and with whom (Sylva, et al, 2007). Anglin, et al (2011) indicated that children select peers similar to them, copy behaviour to fit in the group or particular individuals and they take note of their norms and that of peers during play. In copying and imitation of behaviour of their environment (peers and of parents), children are rewarded, praised, satisfied and acquire identity traits (Janon, 2009; Bradley & Crowyn, 2005). Consequently, the nature of source of reward, praise, satisfaction and identity evoke either acceptable or unacceptable behaviour traits in children (Anglin, et al, 2011; Sarsour, et al, 2011). During the engagement in play, whether structured or unstructured, children learn the socialising function beyond the merits of physical activity (Shonkoff, et al, 2012). Play allows them to acquire more vocabulary, become socially competent, learn and engage in prosocial behaviour like sharing and cooperativeness, increasing social cohesion within their family and society (Shonkoff, et al, 2012).

In addition, Slemming and Saloojee, (2013) suggested that feeding, cleaning and clothing the child are other interactive activities that improve children's bond towards their parents. These activities portray to the child, responsiveness, sensitivity and protectiveness of the parent allowing them to trust them (Lowry & Hanen, 2012). Trust in child development is critical in forming bonds as children feel secure and failure to form a trusting relationship with the primary caregiver leads to insecurity (Berk, 2003). Berk (2003) further showed that insecure parent-child relationships are predictable of children's worrisome behaviour as parents become unpredictable and inconsistent in providing for and responding to their children's needs. Secure relationships with the primary carers; allow clear pathways of what is acceptable and what is unacceptable, as a result buffering children's independence, competence and creativity (Birch, 2014). The interplay of activities and interaction within the interaction stimulate children's developmental domains thereby influencing their behaviour either positively or negatively.



Irwin, et al (2007) also highlights that parental involvement in children activities improves the quality of parent-child interactions. Therefore, parent-child interactions rely heavily on family cohesion, which has been associated with better child behaviour as it predicts self-efficacy and self-concept (Leidy, Guerra & Toro, 2010). Though contemporarily fathers are becoming involved in child development, traditionally, mother-child interactions are paramount to child behaviour development as the mother is the most proximal adult figure to the children within the family (Letourneau, et al, 2011; Mesman, et al, 2011; Bradly & Corwyn, 2005).

Therefore, parents' devotion to their children's activities invests a great influence on children's behaviour. Family characteristics such as income, structure, health, location, parental knowledge and awareness of child development are salient factors of the home environment, influencing parenting styles and the process within the family indirectly influencing children's behaviour (Feyter & Winsler, 2009; Irwin, et al, 2007). Thus, resourcefulness of the environment that children are reared in, is positively associated with the behaviour outcomes of the children (Letourneau, et al, 2011; Sarsour, et al, 2011).

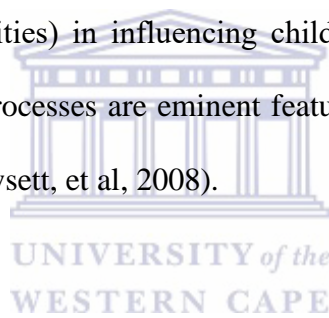
3.4.3 Day care centre environment

Day care centres (crèches, preschools, nurseries, or early childhood development centres (Allie, 2010), premises used to care for children by providing protection and temporary or partial care for a group of children in the absence of parents (ECD guidelines RSA, 2006), are another environment children are actively involved in, and where ECD services are offered (Sayre, et al, 2015). Day care is offered to children in two types of care, namely centre-based day care (CBDC) and family-based day care (FBDC) (Kim, Shim, Wiley, Kim & McBride, 2012; Goodson & Layzer, 2010; Anglin, et al, 2011; Groeneveld, Vermeer, van IJzendoorn & Linting, 2010; Paulsell, Porter, Kirby, Boller, Martin, Burwick & Ross, 2010; Huntsman, 2008). In this study, care by relatives and nannies is not part of day care rather home environment as they are usually occurring within the child's home place (Dowsett, Huston & Imes, 2008). A discussion of day care centres' environment is based on the structure and processes that occur within the day care centres.

3.4.3.1 Structure and processes of day care centres

Structures are the measurable and regulated features of day care centres, which often define childcare quality (Groeneveld, et al, 2010; Taguma, et al, 2010; Brownlee, Berthlsen &

Segaran, 2007). These features include group size, practitioner qualification, adult-child ratio, and premises/facilities such as space for play, toilets, play materials and food schemes (Taguma, et al, 2012; Naudeau, et al, 2011; Huntsman, 2008). Adequacy and appropriateness of these structural features enable smooth running of day care centre processes. The processes refer to the children's day-to-day experiences in day care centres and encompass the social, emotional physical and instructional aspects of children's activities and interaction (Naudeau, et al, 2011; Huntsman, 2008). For instance, spacious classrooms enable smooth child-to-child interaction where they can freely play and exchange toys without invading each other's space. Slot, et al, (2015) drew a distinction that structural features are distal (the child has little to no control over them) while processes are proximal (means that the child actively and directly participates in the activities) in influencing children's behaviour (Rosa & Tudge, 2013). Both the structures and processes are eminent features of day care centres regardless of the day care centre's type (Dowsett, et al, 2008).



3.4.3.1.1 Type of day care centres

The structural features easily define day care centre types more than the processes. The day care centre types include formal (registered) and informal (unregistered) centre- or family-based day care centres (Kernaghan, 2014; Merrill, 2008; ECD Guidelines RSA, 2006). Formal day care centres are certified to practice when they meet minimum quality regulation standards (Taguma, et al, 2012) and adhere to the ECD guidelines (Huntsman, 2008; NICHD Study, 2006). The regulations as outlined in ECD Guidelines RSA (2006) include distinct premises infrastructure, which is safe and hygienic with adequate space to accommodate children's free play, enough play material for refining children's gross and fine motor skills, a clear curriculum, policies for such as physical activity and code of conduct expected between children, practitioners and parents and have qualified staff. Dowsett, et al (2008) take note of

the fact that the ECD policymakers set the minimum standards due to the high demand of day care centres while still pushing for maximum standards that will optimise children's outcomes. In Dowsett, et al (2008) and Barbour, Barbour and Scully's (2008) view, certifying the centres that meet minimum requirements, predicts minimum outcomes for children's behaviour outcomes. Thus, meeting minimum requirement compromises children's behaviour outcome regardless the availability of standard operating procedures (Merill, 2008). Conversely, Atmore, et al (2012) and Allie (2010) indicated that the high demands for childcare prompt the emergence of informal day care centres, which exacerbates poor outcomes for the children, as the government do not have enough resources to monitor day care centres. Nonetheless, between the day care centre types, centre-based day care centres are likely to be more formal than family-based day care centres.

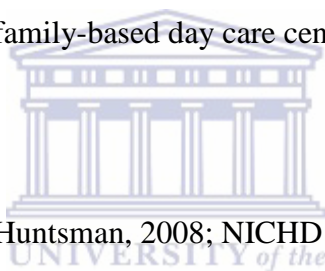
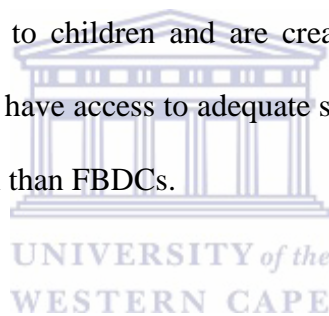


Table 3.2 Day care centre types (Huntsman, 2008; NICHD Study, 2006)

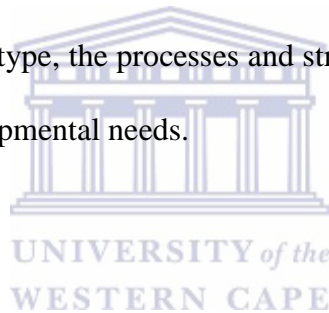
DAY CARE CENTRE TYPES	
Centre-based day care (CBDC)	Family-based day care (FBDC)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cares for pre-schoolers and sometimes toddlers 2 – 5 year olds • Large group of children • Strict schedules • Expensive • Most are registered • Likely to be funded • Offered in a school or distinct building • Practitioners are more qualified • Greater access to ongoing training • Less stable relationship and staff retention • Low wages due to distribution 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cares for infants and toddlers 0 – 2 year olds • Small group of children • Flexible schedules • Less expensive • Few are registered • Rely on parent funds • Offered within the caregiver's home • Less qualified practitioners • Less access to ongoing training • More stable relationship and high retention • Higher wages due to individualised ownership

In comparison with the day care centre types, centre-based day care centres (CBDC) have an increased opportunity of positively influencing children's behaviours than family-based day care centres (FBDC). The opportunity is increased by the likelihood of regular supervision and trained practitioners with one or two having a speciality in ECD leading to improved children's skills, especially cognitive-linguistic and social skills (Kernaghan, 2014; Bigras, et al, 2012). Further advantageous features of centre-based day care centres in this regard are having strict schedules which lead to the improvement of children's discipline as children have clear division of time and activities (NICHD Study, 2006) and they are usually affordable as most of them receive funding (NICHD Study, 2006). Barbour, et al (2008) indicated that trained practitioners with speciality in the field are able to develop programmes that provide optimal stimulation to children and are creative to operate in scarce resource situations allowing every child to have access to adequate stimulation. Consequently, CBDCs cater for larger groups of children than FBDCs.



Large groups are essential in improving children's behaviour (Kernaghan, 2014; Day 2010; Goodson & Layzer, 2010; Groenveld, et al, 2010; Dowsett, et al 2008; Huntsman, 2008). They equip children with survival skills within age mates and older peers (Goodson & Layzer, 2010), interaction is fierce with other children during play and class lessons leading to high competence in cognitive-linguistic and social skills (Huntsman, 2008). Disadvantages of large groups are that they are usually mixed ages (Day, 2010), children are likely to be bullied, engage in fighting, swearing and labelling others in order to fit in to the group (Yeong-sun, 2012). Practitioners' availability to regulate children's interactive skills assist in reducing children's anti-social behaviour consequently leading to utilising older children to be responsible for the younger ones (Bigras, et al, 2012; Dartle, et al, 2012).

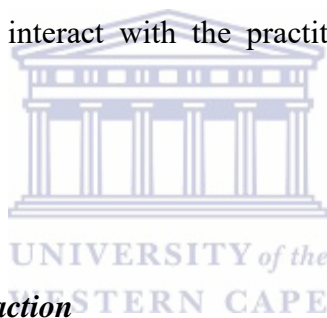
Dowsett, et al (2008) and Groenveld, et al (2010) have found that family-based day care centres on the other hand are less expensive; FBDC caters for smaller groups of children; provide a nurturing home-like atmosphere with higher stable and intimate practitioner-child relationships and usually have flexible schedules for pick-up and drop-off to accommodate parents' working hours. Kernaghan (2014) found that the relatives or non-relatives in their homes usually provide FBDC decreasing opportunities for centre registration and supervision leading to compromised quality in childcare. Low quality in childcare service is predictable of poor behaviour outcomes for children especially in FBDCs where stimulation of cognitive competence is low (Dowsett, et al, 2008). Morrissey (2010) argued that despite the difference, the characteristics of each centre type, the processes and structures within each of them, must suit the children's age and developmental needs.



3.4.3.1.2 Practitioner's qualities

Qualities of the practitioners include their educational level, speciality in the field of ECD and how often they attend training and workshops (Taguma, et al, 2012, NICHD Study, 2006). These qualities are structural features of day care centres and enable the smooth running of the centre's curriculum (Merill, 2008). The curriculum runs smoothly if practitioners are able to develop programmes that strengthen children, address developmental needs of children by using the current knowledge of child development and accommodate children's learning pace (Pirchio, et al, 2013; NICHD Study, 2006; Sinclair, 2004). Dartle, et al, (2012) added that parental involvement in day care centres is crucial for immense follow up on the activities at school. Quality practitioners are able to develop curriculum and activities that grant parents participation in the progress on their children (Merill, 2008).

Furthermore, practitioners' collaboration with one another is important as it enables sharing of information and concerns about children's behaviour, which leads to the development of professional interaction between them, parents and children (Naudeau, et al, 2011; Huntsman 2008). In their study to explore the role of the relationship between parents and educators for children's behaviour, the study revealed that parental involvement increases the caregivers' responsiveness (Pirchio, et al, 2013). Parents and caregivers engage in brief conversations at arrival and departure from the day care centres about the adaptation of the child and developmental progress of their behaviour (Pirchio, et al, 2013; NICHD Study, 2006). This helps to identify lagging and provide necessary intervention early on (ECD guidelines RSA, 2006). Consequently, partnerships between practitioners and parents indirectly influence children's behaviour when they interact with the practitioners (Slot, et al, 2015; Merrill, 2008).



3.4.3.1.3 Practitioner-child interaction

In day care centres practitioners are primary caregivers of children with whom children form relationships during their interactions (Belsky, et al, 2007). Relationships are therefore an integral part of influence in the day care centres (Booren, Downer & Vitiello, 2012); Silver, Measelle, Armstrong & Essex, 2010). Positive relationships with practitioners enable children more learning opportunities in the day care centre environment, develop better relationship with peers, reduced behaviour problems and consequently adjusted children to the demands of formal school learning (Oren & Jones, 2009). In their work Taguma, et al (2012) further found that practitioner-child relationships support learning experiences by providing children with social support and emotional security and as a result, children formed close relationships with the practitioner. These close relationships with practitioners encourage children to listen, concentrate and learn (Tucker, et al, 2011; Hardy, et al, 2010).

Studies of Kim, et al, (2012) and Huntsman (2008) suggested that quality of relationship between children and practitioners relates positively to children's emotional, social, language and cognitive development, school adjustments and less aggressive behaviour in childcare. However, Goodson and Layzer (2010) argued that too close relationships are characterised by increased opportunity of conflicted relationships that lead to demotivating children's learning. As such, practitioners should be able to control the extent of their emotional involvement with children.

Positive caregiving is one noticeable emotional involvement attribute in day care centres (Groenveld, et al, 2010). Day care centres characterised by positive caregiving has shown to improve children's behaviour (Eliassen, 2011). Positive caregiving is characterised by caregiver sensitivity and responsiveness, and stimulation in both environments (Lowry & Hanen, 2012; Daniel & Koralek, 2009; NICHD Study, 2006). As children enter a day care centre environment from a home environment, they usually experience stress (Dartle, et al, 2012; Belsky, et al, 2007). The responsiveness of the caregiver to the children's needs buffers the stress level (Silver, et al, 2010) which enables a smooth transition into day care centres. Failure to buffer the stress levels results in poor conduct and behaviour of children (Silver, et al, 2010). Positive caregiving on the other hand enables practitioner-child interactions which reduce conflict between practitioners and children (Lowry & Hanen, 2012). Barbour, et al, (2008) showed that practitioners' ability to provide positive caregiving is as a result of a practitioners' knowledge and skills which are associated with practitioner education, training/mentoring, and supervision during practitioner-child interactions (Neadeau, et al, 2011).

In contrast, several studies done on day carer's influence on children's behaviour found inconclusive findings regarding positive influence on children's behaviour and the influence of interaction (Pirchio, et al, 2013; Groenveld, et al, 2010; Votruba-Dryzal, et al, 2010; Hermmeter, 2008; Huntsman, 2008; Belsky, et al 2007). Bigger groups of children per educator/practitioner have shown to threaten the practitioner-child interactions allowing less attention to children (Huntsman, 2008). Groenveld, et al, (2010) added that with larger ratios and groups of children there is less stability which impacts negatively on children's behaviour. On the other hand, smaller groups per educator/practitioner with a closer relationship also increase conflicted relationships due to enmeshed relationships (Goodson & Layzer, 2010). In addition, poor practitioner quality is more positively linked with poor outcomes for children than the quality of premises and programmes (Belsky, et al, 2007; NICHD Study, 2006). Votruba-Dryzal, et al (2010) and Hemmeter (2008) found in centres where transition between activities takes long, children become idle which leads to increased chances of poor unmonitored interactions with peers. However, in the studies of Booren, et al (2012) and Silver, et al (2010), they found that the idle moments allow children to engage in free play that increased their socialisation skills and initiative play. This enables children to expand their ideas through conversations using open-ended questions, and it encourages them to help each other by allowing an exchange of information. Dowsett, et al (2008) found that exchange of information enabled children's adjustment and settling in the day care centres. Lastly, according to Barbour, et al, (2008) where the wages of practitioners are low, it has been found to cause instability in day care centres as there is frequent change of practitioners. As a result, children experience difficulty in forming relationships since every time they get used to the practitioners, the practitioner changes (Groenveld, et al, 2010). Lack of mutual relationship with the primary caregiver implies behaviour problems for children. With the given findings from different studies, it is evident that practitioner-child interactions are

paramount to children's adjustment in day care centres and for influencing children's behaviour positively; however, challenges that practitioners encounter in their interactions impedes the quality of their services leading to disruptive behaviour of children.

3.5 Common Attributes of Home and Day Care Centres

Prior to enrolment in day care centres, the child's world evolves around their home environment particularly their family (Tucker, et al, 2011; Silver, et al, 2010). Due to the increasing awareness about the importance of ECD, parents place their children in day care centres creating dual care environments (both home and day care centres) for their children.

Dual care rather than multiple care denotes that there are two distinct environments involved in child care that influence the process mode of information leading to behaviour alterations either positively or negatively (Steinberg, 2010). Frankish (2010) additionally, indicated that children use reflexivity to relate to both environments, drawing inferences in the stable regularities in both environments based on the deliberate rule-system which operates on symbolic structures to describe the underlying logical and causal structures. This means that

in order to adjust to both environments, children pin down the common attributes, which are static, and develop a logical meaning that helps them to live comfortably within the two environments (Anthony, Anthony, Glanville, Naiman, Waanders & Shaffer, 2005). Steinberg (2007) was of the opinion that in a two rule-system rivalry is likely to emerge between two involved parties in this case parents and practitioners. The two environments that embed children are at loggerheads between themselves in seeking the extent of their influence on children's behaviour; however, with their crucial role during early childhood they were able to reconcile and acknowledge each other's contribution (Sayre, et al, 2015; ECD Guidelines RSA, 2006

In both environments, processes occur that enable children to adjust calmly (Brownlee, et al, 2007). The processes encompass relationships, parental involvement, programme intensity, language of instruction, curriculum, daily routine, health and nutrition inputs (Neadeau, et al, 2011; Geoffroy, Côté, Giguère, Dionne, Zelazo, Tremblay, Boivin, & Séguin, 2010). The programmes vary between these environments despite the fact that both are aimed at increasing learning opportunities for children such as reading, playing with numbers, painting and drawing (Sayre, et al, 2015; Neadeau, et al, 2011). In exploring the influence of storytelling at home, it was found that children gain insight of their emotions as the caregivers express the emotions of the story characters (Frude & Killick, 2011). Thus, skilful caregivers are able to read to the child in the tactical form (emotional expressions as they read the story) that allows the child to identify the different emotional, language and cognitive competencies (Frude & Killick, 2011). As a result, they are able to gain awareness, experiment and imitate the caregivers in a way adopting the behaviours of the parent (UNICEF, 2012). Processes as well as attachment, quality of care, and discipline are identified common attributes of home and day care centres.

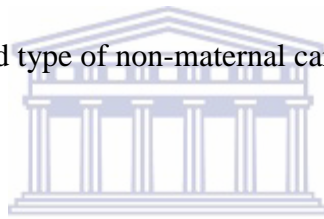
3.5.1 Attachment

Attachment, an enduring bond that children build with their caregivers within their environment (Eliassen, 2011; Mackay, 2005) plays an important role in children adjustment between home and day care centres (Pirchio, et al, 2013; Booren, et al, 2012; Dartle, et al, 2012; Silver, et al, 2010). In this bond, trust is the strong basis for the relationship formation, which increases the child's adjustment to new settings (Daniel & Koralek, 2009). The first new setting that children are exposed to is the home environment. In this setting they form

mutual relationships with the parents, siblings, relatives and community at large. Most of the time the mother is the closest person whom the child relates to, while at day care centres, practitioners are the closest people to children, more than their peers. A positive relationship with the primary caregiver enables pathways for behaviour influence as the child develops security in the presence of the caregiver. Silver, et al, (2010) found that conflict with the primary caregiver in any of the two settings evokes externalising behaviours for boys and internalising behaviour for girls. Children display these behaviours more during sibling or peer interactions (Oren & Jones, 2009). The more secure the child feels and the more the positive experience, the easier they adjust to the new setting (Dartle, et al, 2012). Pirchio, et al, (2013) asserted that the positive experience of children is dependent on the stability of the parents' and practitioners' relationship. The authors suggested that brief conversation during arrival and departure from the day care centres facilitates relationship formation, allows mutual knowledge, cooperation and support about children's behaviour changes. Thus, high parental involvement and partnerships with the practitioner, though a distal influence, create a conducive environment for the child to learn (Taguma, et al, 2012; Allie, 2010; Groenveld, et al, 2010).

Belsky and Pluess (2009) and Dartle, et al, (2012) agreed that relationship formation takes time and depends on the child's character and skills towards relationship forming, and the quality of the dual care to support the child. If the dual care environment is stable and has common attributes, both primary adult figures in these settings mentor children's autonomy by giving them a sense of personal control over their individual behaviours (Berk, 2003). Attachment is crucial in children's interaction as it allows safe, warmth, responsive and sensitive interaction between the children, caregivers and the surroundings, consequently activating behaviour influence pathways (Groenveld, et al, 2010).

Interruption of the process of children's attachment development has been shown to have negative effects on their behaviour (Copeland, Kendeigh, Saelens, Kalkwarf & Sherman, 2011). Geoffroy, et al (2010) in their study found that children show different patterns of stress at day care centres as compared to when they are at home. Their stress increases more when they are taken to day care centres than when left at home. Moreover, Côté, Borge, Geoffroy, Rutter & Tremblay (2008) also found that children who were exposed to non-maternal care in the form of relatives and neighbours experience stress, however lower than that in day care centres as relative/neighbour care is still homely. Bohlin, et al (2005) found that this experience of stress hinders proper attachment pathways between children and caregivers. Despite the quality and type of non-maternal care, children experience stress.

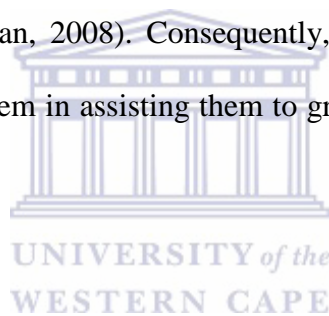


Children are able to distinguish between the difference in the care, security and responsiveness of the caregivers in the day care centres as opposed to the home environment. Further, the child may experience difficulties in establishing a trusting relationship with the caregivers due to changing patterns of being raised (Groeneveld, Vermeer, van IJzendoorn & Linting, 2012). Children's increased stress level shows that the day care centre's experience may be uncomfortable, hence their increased stress levels and as a result they need time and ways to adjust to them (Groeneveld, et al, 2012). A secure relationship serves as a catalyst to counteracting the likely effects of stress on children's development of attachments. Frude and Killick (2011) however, noted that children build different attachments to their key figures and thus respond in different ways to the absence of parents and being sent to the day care centres. Therefore, dual care is likely to bring about positive or negative outcomes for children's behaviour depending on the quality of care provided.

3.5.2 Quality of care

In childcare, quality is a profound requisite to ensuring children's developmental outcomes (Hanafi, 2015; Hanafi & Ismail, 2014). The quality of the environment within which children engage has to be healthy to help them optimally actualise their potential, which will enhance their wellbeing and learning (Hanafi & Ismail, 2014). Early childhood development programmes, in adopting a holistic approach in their implementation, improve children's behaviours cognitively, linguistically, socially, emotionally, physically, morally and spiritually (Hanafi & Ismail, 2015). For these benefits, the parents take their children to day care centres as a way to allow them the opportunity to grow in the parents' absence (Balaban, 2011). Day care centres are coerced to fill the gap of the absent parent by providing safety, personal and social competence and appropriate socialisation activities for the children (Vermeer, van IJzendoorn, Kruif, Fukkink, Risken-Walraven & van Zeijl, 2008). Both parents and practitioners thus become responsible for improving quality of care for children (Chan, 2013; WHO, 2012). Both process quality and structural quality factors have to be in place at the day care centres in order to groom the children as well as in their homes (Laverick & Jalongo, 2011). In quality day care centres, the caregiver-child relationship promotes language, children's interactive skills, intellectual, emotional and social development that contributes to the development of productive behaviours (Vermeer, et al, 2008; Geoffroy, et al, 2010). Process quality includes the manner in which caregiver and children engage with activities (Bigras, et al, 2010). Frankish (2010) and Steinberg (2010) found that when children have settled in a dual context they are substantially stimulated, promoting their wellbeing and behaviour positively.

However, deprived families face challenges in meeting the quality childcare at home as well as the informal day care centres (Dowsett, et al, 2008; Huntsman, 2008). Children in deprived families tend to attend poor quality day care centres (Allen & Daly, 2007) which leads to poor and low stimulation for children, predicting challenging behaviour outcomes for children (WHO & UNICEF, 2012). As a result, children experience delays in developmental domains especially delays in self-regulation, motivation, cognitive, competency, interaction skills and physical processes (WHO, 2012). Poor quality is associated with poor caregiver sensitivity and responsiveness to children's needs in both home and day care centre (Albers, et al, 2010). Children in poor quality centres are also likely to be exposed to unqualified staff and consequently, faced with poor adjustment to dual care, which is predictive of behaviour challenges for children (Huntsman, 2008). Consequently, exposure to quality dual care is likely to become significant to them in assisting them to grow drastically (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2005).



Therefore, for caregivers to adequately provide quality care for children, they need to be appropriately sensitive and responsive to the signals of the children, respect the uniqueness of the child's character, talking to the child and explaining activities to them (Felfe, Nollenberger & Rodriguez-Planas, 2015). Early childhood development relies abundantly on skilled and qualified educators for empowering both parents and teacher to improve childcare (Sayre, et al 2015; Allie, 2010). Albers, et al, (2010) found that the key adult figure's sensitivity and responsiveness are attributes of quality care in processes that enhance early child attachment and security to the child and consequently improve children's behaviour.

3.5.3 Discipline

Along with laying foundations in ECD, discipline is a common attribute in dual care with the purpose of facilitating responsibility, confidence and consideration of oneself and others to fulfil behavioural satisfaction and become productive human beings (Baker, 2014). Discipline is characteristic of the home and day care centre environment in influencing children's behaviour (Baker, 2014). According to Zolotor, Theodore, Runyan, Chang and Laskey, (2011) discipline is the process of training people to become sound, confident and useful members of society using corrective measures. In the context of this study, parents and practitioners are children behaviour trainers. Children's experiences of harsh, moderate and permissive discipline in their environment have implications for their behaviour (Flaskerud, 2011).



Discipline is functional when children are able to control their behaviour based on how they understood the acceptable and unacceptable behaviours instead of obeying due to fear of being punished (Baker, 2014; Morrill, Hines, Mahmood & Cordova, 2010). As Gershroff, et al, (2010) put it, the well-planned and instrumental use of discipline is likely not to trigger or evoke reactive aggression in children. However, at both home and day care centres disciplining children at a young age is a great challenge (Flaskrud, 2011). The challenge is posed by the roots of discipline in both settings, adjusting to children's temperaments and the level of understanding and response rate of the child to comply with acceptable behaviours (WHO & UNICEF, 2012). Acceptable behaviours include cooperation, efficacy, confidence, emotional and physical activity regulation (Self-Guide Learning Package, 2011).

Three forms of discipline exist, namely (i) harsh, (ii) moderate and (iii) permissive discipline (Baker, 2014). **Harsh** discipline includes spanking, clapping, pulling hair, ear twisting, verbal reprimands and use of objects (Gershroff, et al, 2010; Flaskerud, 2011; Zolotor, et al, 2011). This way of disciplining the child affects their self-confidence, -efficacy, -esteem and -concept and as a result they tend to have problems in externalising and internalising behaviours (Lee, et al, 2014; Gershroff, et al, 2010). The caregivers' choice of harsh discipline is due to quick results in behaviour change and controlling children's energy, which usually irritates them (Morrill, et al, 2010). In the study of nearly 2 500 parents who participated, 50% of them used harsh discipline regularly, 28% used it once or twice a month and 26% used it more than twice a month (Taylor, Manganello, Lee & Rice, 2010). Lee, et al, (2011) conducted a study focused of the gender differences with regard to discipline. They found that fathers resort to harsh disciplines much more often than mothers and they spank boys more than girls. Furthermore, Flaskerud (2011), while reviewing the American Academy of Paediatrics, found especially at age three when children experience harsh discipline, they usually display externalising behaviours such as screaming, throwing tantrums, fighting, hurting animals or themselves and refusing to share at the age of five. In contrast, Gershoff, et al, (2010) found that these externalising and internalising behaviours are prevalent depending on the extent of the adult that practiced harsh discipline and the interpretation of the child on the technique.

Moderate disciplinary techniques are favoured in child development for their benefit in promoting children's behaviours in early childhood (Flaskerud, 2011). They benefit all children, from both disadvantaged and better backgrounds, allowing them to experience independence and ability to take initiative in the process and exert their energy into useful activities (Morrill, et al, 2010). Moderate disciplinary techniques include setting limits,

sharing ideas, withholding rewards and consequence experience (Flaskerud, 2011). Disciplining children moderately facilitates the gradual growth of self-concept and decision-making, unlike in harsh discipline where development to self-regulate ones behaviour appears to be a snapshot (Baker, 2014). For example, when consequences are used to model children's behaviour, children are given a choice, thus given the opportunity to decide what will work for them. Consequences are learning experiences that parents and teachers may use to help children adjust to dual care (Flaskerud, 2011).

The **permissive** discipline techniques occur in cases when parents and teachers allow children to do as they please (Zolotor et al, 2011). Usually this occurs when parents and teachers overly practise the Children's Rights for fear of being accused of punitive ways of disciplining children (Flakerud, 2011). Other reasons include absent parents, low-skilled teachers and a mismatch between the capabilities and instructional environment of the child (Morawska & Sander, 2009). As a result, children's behaviour patterns are disrupted leading to poor child adjustment to dual care (Morawska & Sander, 2009). Morawska and Sander (2009) found that 40% of children are exposed to vulnerabilities regardless of how gifted and talented they are in mastering their behaviour in challenging situations. This implies that lack of collaboration in care settings and or between parents and teachers as the most proximal adults to children is likely to dismantle children's behaviour (Pirchio, et al, 2013).

There is no excellent way of disciplining children but the internal working models allow them to understand and decide what they make of the disciplinary actions they are exposed to. When the child understands the perceived discipline to be fair and reasonable they are less likely to develop inappropriate behaviour or behaviour problems (Gershoff, Grogan-Kaylor,

Lansford, Chang, Zelli, Deater-Deckard & Dodge, 2010). Therefore, depending on the child's culture, if harsh discipline is normative in their community they are less likely to evaluate their parents' use of it as aberrant or objectionable (Gershoff, et al, 2010). In the study to evaluate the transferability of discipline techniques, conducted in the ethnic groups in the United States of America and in different countries, it was found that black parents use harsh discipline more than white parents (Gershoff, et al, 2012). Cultures differ in the value they place on different children's behaviour and in their belief about parenting practices to promote quality behaviour (Gershoff, et al, 2012). Thus, harsh, moderate or permissive disciplinary techniques are dependent on the environment of the child and the child's interpretation of it.



3.6 Conclusion

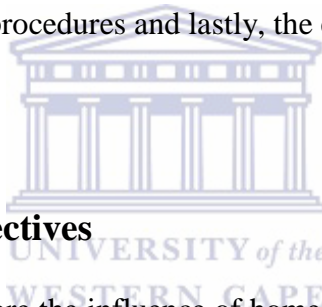
Early childhood development is an encompassing acronym for all services rendered to children to uplift their livelihoods. It lays a strong foundation for children's future behaviour. The two areas of concern in this study are home and day care centres' environments that are termed dual care. Each of these environments influences children uniquely due to the differing attributes of each. Nonetheless, the combination of both environments seems to have greater influence on children's development and behaviour. The literature illustrated that attachment, quality of care and similarity of discipline in these environments enables children to survive in both environments.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The current chapter provides a detailed description of the methodology employed during this study. This chapter also outlines the methodology used to conduct the present study to accomplish the specific aims and objectives as described in Chapter 1. Included in this chapter is a description of the research approach, the research design, research population, sampling and research setting utilised for the study. Furthermore, this chapter discusses the data collection and data analysis procedures and lastly, the ethics considerations.



4.2 Research Aim and Objectives

The **aim** of the study was to explore the influence of home and day care centres on children's behaviour during early childhood development.

The objectives of this study were to:

- explore the factors that influence children's behaviour towards home and day care centres during ECD;
- explore the ways that home and day care centre environments use to assist children to adjust to dual care.

4.3 Research Approach and Design

The study employed qualitative research methodology, a naturalistic, interpretative approach that explores phenomena from within the participant context; and generalises it to the broader context (Ritchie, Lewis, Nicholls & Ormston, 2013; Denzin, 2009; Flick, 2009). It is based on exploring, describing and understanding the depth of meaning of an individual's lived experience (Cronje, 2012; Watkins, 2010; Denzin, 2009; Given, 2008). By using this method, the researcher is able to contribute new knowledge and provide new perspectives in detail and in the manner that the participants experienced them (Tong, Sainsbury & Craig, 2007). It is best suited when investigating a phenomenon that needs a complex and detailed explanation, and that is aiming at describing the contexts, characteristics, experiences of participants and their attitudes towards the phenomenon (Ritchie, et al, 2013; De Vos, Strydom, Fouche, & Delpont., 2011; Creswell, 2007). The qualitative research approach is used for its flexibility in the use of more than one method of data collection (Ritchie, et al, 2013; Watkins, 2010) which enables the researcher to get a broad description of the participants' experiences (Watkins, 2010).

The study adopted an explorative research design. Explorative research design is best suited in exploring an unknown field of study (Creswell, 2013; De Vos, et al, 2011). Explorative research answers a research question in a 'what' form (Babbie & Mouton, 2007). However, the findings in answer to the 'what' questions lacks the integration of the findings in the existing literature as they are abstract, hence the descriptive research design was also adopted in the current study to fill this gap (Ritchie, et al, 2013; De Vos, et al, 2011; Creswell, 2009).

4.4 Research Methodology

4.4.1 Research setting

The research setting is the physical, social and cultural site in which the study is being conducted (Tong, et al, 2007). The study setting is Campus Kids Preschool. It is located within the university campus and functions independently. It is dependent on the school fees from parents, grants, sponsorship, subsidies and fundraising efforts. It provides preschool education and care to 60 children between the age groups of 3–5 years old and supports research facilities for academic departments, which are interested in young children. The centre subdivides children into different age groups with two teachers per group of children.

4.4.2 Population and sampling

The **population** includes individuals who have certain characteristics of interest to the research from which the sample of the study is drawn (Babbie, 2010; Denzin, 2009; Locke, Spirduso & Silverman, 2007). Parents of the children who attend the university day care centre and practitioners employed there constituted the population of the study. This enabled close follow-up on children's behaviour, as they (parents and practitioners) were able to refer to the same incidents that same children pose to them.

Sampling is important to subdivide the population as not every member of the population can be selected as the study sample (Watkins, 2010; Denzin, 2009; Tongco, 2007). According to Tongco (2007) more than one sampling method can be used in one study and as such, purposive and snowball sampling were used as the sampling methods in this study. The study sample excluded parents who no longer have children at the day care centre. The practitioners

were included if they have three months and more working experience with the children in the day care centre.

Parents and practitioners were purposively selected as the population as they are experts in child care between home and day care centres and therefore had an increased chance of providing important answers (Babbie, 2010; Whiting, 2008; Locke, et al, 2007; Tongco, 2007; DiCicco & Crabtree, 2006). Purposive sampling was the primary method of sampling used for this study. The researcher gave the invitations for both teachers and the parents to the principal and awaited their responses. The teachers were selected based on their experience in teaching. Five teachers formed the sample of the research. For the parents, the researcher adopted stratified purposive sampling (Neuman, 2006) where she strategically gave the invitations for parents in groups of 10 to the principal. This increased the chances of any of the parents being selected as the researcher was not given the chance to recruit the parents herself. The strategy of giving the invitations in groups of 10 was to control for a large number of participants, yet the qualitative method uses a relatively small number of participants due to exhaustive data collection methods (Locke, et al, 2007). Purposive sampling is most effective when data review and analysis are simultaneously done with data collection (Tongco, 2007). This allows for the detection of saturation early in the process of data collection (Tongco, 2007). Because of the lack of access to personally recruiting the participants, made it difficult to get to saturation. As a result, the study employed snowball sampling method.

In snowball, the researcher recruits one participant, who then talks to the other persons in their network and connects the researcher to them (Neuman, 2006). It is useful in cases where

participants' recruitment is difficult (Tong, et al, 2007). In the present study, the researcher recruited participants from the networks of parents recruited using purposive sampling resulting in six more parents. Data saturated after interviewing 10 parents and 5 practitioners. Data saturation occurs when there is no longer new information from the participants regardless different framing of questions (De Vos, et al, 2011; Babbie, 2010).

4.4.3 Pilot study

The pilot study ensures that all the processes involved in carrying out the main study run smoothly and it provides a basis for improvement where gaps are identified (Lancaster, 2015; De Vos, et al, 2011). It tests the clarity of questions in the interview guide (Lancaster, 2015). The interview guide/schedules were pretested in a sample drawn from the population but which was not included in the participants selected for the main study (De Vos, et al, 2011). The pretesting was important for ensuring the feasibility of the questions in the guide to derive answers for the research question. At the end, the questions were modified and corrected by rephrasing them for use in the main study while others were totally deleted as they were answered within other questions. As a way to improve the guides, the participants in the pilot study also suggested questions which related more to the research topic adding their own point of view in framing the interview guide questions to make them more succinct. The researcher's interview skills such as probing and doing follow-up on the topics of interest within the participants' answers were also improved.

4.4.4 Data collection

Data collection is the systematic process of gathering information that answers the research questions (Creswell, 2013; Mouton, 2008). The data collection included using an in-depth,

face-to-face, semi-structured interview and observations. Data collection instrument were semi-structured interview guides developed separately for the parents and the practitioners (see Appendix C & D). The guides' questions were open-ended as these questions allow the participants to elaborate their experiences in detail (De Vos, et al, 2011). There were 11–13 questions for each guide. These questions addressed the research question. In qualitative research there are no fixed instruments for data collection but development of instruments is for the specific field that is being studied (Watkins, 2010).

4.4.4.1 Preparation of participants for interviews

In preparation for the interviews, the researcher made several visits to the centre to meet with the principal and to build rapport with the staff. The meetings were about the recruitment of participants. The researcher sent out invitations to both parents and the practitioners with the assistance of the principal, as she did not allow the researcher to engage with the practitioners and parents without her. In booking the appointments for the practitioners, the principal discussed with practitioners and the principal sent the appointment via electronic mail to the researcher.

The appointments with the parents were booked with them individually by the researcher. The principal was engaged to approve the appointment times as the centre and especially her office was the interview venue. The parents who participated gave permission to the principal to provide their contact details to the researcher while other participants contacted the researcher directly as her contact details were in the information sheet attached to the invitations. One-on-one communication established with parents using electronic mail allowed them to respond spontaneously to the interview process (Watkins, 2010). During the

bookings, some parents requested clarification on the process of the interview such as how long would it be and the format of questions as their participation was dependent on those aspects. The researcher explained that the interview was an open discussion of about 30 minutes at most.

Most parents chose the day care centre as the interview venue. Few parents used their offices for the interview. Allowing the participants to choose their own venue was to encourage them to feel comfortable during the interview and enable free discussion that allowed the researcher to get the detailed description of the participants' experiences (Creswell, 2007).

4.4.4.2 Individual interview sessions

The researcher conducted individual interviews using face to face, in-depth semi-structured interview questions (Sturges & Hanrahan, 2004). The interviews lasted about 30 minutes (Flick, 2009). Introduction of the researcher and the participants at the beginning of each interview assisted in rapport building including also the summary on information sheet (Appendix B) issues especially the ethical considerations. The ethical concerns were with regard to rights of participants namely, autonomy, confidentiality, anonymity and protection. Rapport building encourages willingness and freedom during the interviews (Creswell, 2013; De Vos, et al, 2011; Tong, et al, 2007). This was to ensure that their participation is voluntary and that the participant feels free to withdraw their participation at any time. It was to encourage the participants to be comfortable and that their participation is entirely due to their willingness. The researcher assured the participants of the confidentiality to their information. Furthermore, the researcher immediately removed interviews from the voice recorder and kept in a password-protected folder in the researcher's personal computer

(Shento, 2006). Data analysis followed and the study results were validated by involving data verification by participants (Shento, 2006). Prior to commencement of the interviews, participants signed consent (Appendix C) for partaking in the study as well as for audio recording of the interviews (Ritchie, et al, 2013; Sturges & Hanrahan, 2004).

The researcher began the interview with the common question as a way to break the ice, further building rapport (Tong, et al, 2007). The interview took a discussion format to allow freedom to the participants. During the interviews the different forms of questions were used interchangeably, mixing the open-ended and closed questions; and difficult and the easy questions, which helped the participant to relax and ask questions where they did not understand and or get the questions clearly (De Vos, et al, 2011). The researcher was attentive to both verbal and non-verbal responses of the participants and was able to follow-up to both types of response using both closed and open-ended questions (King & Horrocks, 2010; Creswell, 2007). These types of questions also assisted in probing on unclear content and interesting themes came forth. The closed questions were used when the researcher was confirming, paraphrasing or summarising the information that the participants gave (King & Horrocks, 2010; Tong, et al, 2007). Use of open-ended questions was especially for the first time the question was asked or when the researcher felt the participant could say more about the question topic. On the unclear questions, the researcher rephrased them (Watkins, 2010, Given, 2008). Participants' adequate response to questions, freedom to ask questions, sharing of laughter and opportunity to add anything during interviews demonstrated openness of the interviews (De Vos, et al, 2011).

According to De Vos, et al (2011), if there is more than one type of participants such as in this study, it is important to separate the time slots for the interviews to enable efficiency in evaluating the interviews in case there were modifications that needed to be done. In implementing this advice, the researcher did the interviews for the teachers first and the parents' one followed.

In evaluating for interview efficiency, three modes were used namely the audiotape, field notes and data saturation. Audio recording was used for its efficiency in collecting the data verbatim and for time management as it was not possible to remember every word that the participants were saying (De Vos, et al, 2011) and for the accuracy of the exact words used by the participants (Tong, et al, 2007). Furthermore, they are also useful for the process of transcribing and accuracy of the transcriptions (Creswell, 2007). The use of audiotape allows the researcher ample time to focus attention to the participants knowing that all the verbal communication is being captured (Watkins, 2010). Therefore, the field notes, as an extra tool data collection (De Vos, et al, 2011), were used to complement the inability of the audiotaping to record non-verbal communication during interviews and the observations made at the study site pertaining to well-being of the premises and parent-practitioner-child interactions (Watkins, 2010; Denzini, 2009).

Transcription of the interviews was immediately after conducting them. This assisted in improving accuracy as they were still fresh in the interviewer's mind and possible field notes were done (De Vos, et al, 2011). Transcribing and making field notes enabled the analysis of data to occur concurrently with the data collection so to detect saturation (Creswell, 2013), consequently, capturing some of the codes and themes during the data collection (Creswell,

2013; DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006; Morrow, 2005; Shento, 2004). Information repetition despite revision of the question indicated data saturation (Creswell, 2013; De Vos, 2011).

4.4.5 Data analysis

Data analysis is the process of organising data and giving the full meaning to that data (Creswell, 2013; Mouton, 2008). Qualitative data analysis requires the creativity and flexibility of the researcher as it involves chaos (Watkins, 2010). The thematic analysis of 'Tesch' as outlined by Creswell, (2009:186) were adopted for analysing the data in this study. Thematic analysis is a cluster method in qualitative research that focuses on identifying patterned meaning through the dataset (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Data classification was in codes and themes that had similar meaning. In qualitative research, the researcher is the sole instrumental tool for analysing the data (Cresswell, 2013; Hennings, Van Rensburg, & Smit, 2004).

The researcher achieved thematic analysis by following the thematic analysis steps as outlined by Creswell (2009:186).

The **first step** was to make sense out of all the transcription by carefully reading them and jotting down some points. In this step, the results were combined together with the notes that were jotted during the data collection.

The **second step** involved reading each transcription and making margin notes about their individual underlying meaning.

The **third step** was to make list of all notes and cluster them in a table form.

The **fourth step** was to abbreviate the topics as codes and link them to the appropriate segment in the transcriptions.

The **fifth step** was to find the most descriptive wording for the topics and develop them into categories grouping them according to how they relate to each other. The summaries made during data collection largely assisted in this step.

The **sixth step** was to determine the abbreviations for each category and alphabetising of the codes. The codes were placed in alphabetical order that enabled easy connection to the transcriptions.

The **seventh step** was to assemble the data material belonging to each category in one place and do preliminary analysis. Combining this analysis with the one made during data collection reduced workload.

The **final step** was to recode the existing data if the need arose. These eight steps have the ability to engage the researcher in a systematic process of analysing textual data (Creswell, 2009:186). During the data analysis process, the researcher listened to the voice recorder while reading the transcriptions for accuracy check; asking the associate researchers to verify the data transcriptions and last review of the themes was done by the supervisor as the expert in qualitative research (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006; Morrow, 2005; Shento, 2004).

4.4.6 Ethical considerations

This section elaborates on the characteristics of ethical considerations namely, permission, autonomy, confidentiality and participants' right to no harm, as they were practised during the study process.

- **Permission**

Prior to conducting the study, the researcher obtained permission from the Senate Research Committee of the University of the Western Cape (Appendix A). Furthermore, the university registrar and the day care centre management granted permission to the researcher to use the university day care centre as the study site. Lastly, the participants provided their permission by their acceptance of the invitations to participate in the study. The invitations included the information sheet (Appendix B).

- **Autonomy**

To exercise the right of participants to participate voluntarily in the study (Watkins, 2010; Creswell, 2007) during the recruiting of the participants, the researcher provided an information sheet (Appendix B). The information sheet explained the rights and responsibilities of participants. It gave the summary of the study and the proceedings of how the research was going to be conducted such as use of audiotape, explained the ethics inherent in this study, provided the researcher's contact details in case of any further inquiry and response to willingness to participate in the study (Appendix C).

In the introduction for the interviews the researcher further informed participants of their rights of voluntary participation and then the consent form (Appendix C) was signed to protect both the participant and the researcher (Whiting, 2008). When the participants gave consent to the interview, it also included the use of audiotape. Note taking consent was verbal (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). The researcher informed participants of their rights to withdraw from participation at any stage in the study (Creswell, 2013; Whiting, 2008; Hennings, et al, 2004). This was to ensure that their participation was voluntary and that they could feel confident to share their experiences and perceptions with the researcher (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006).

- **Confidentiality**

In maintaining confidentiality, participants' information, their identity, and data collected from them remained secure with the researcher. Participants' identity remained known to the researcher alone to maintain anonymity and privacy.

The researcher transferred each interview to her personal computer, and they were stored in a password-protected folder, the password was known to the researcher only. The researcher ensured that she left along with the participants so that she transferred the interviews in her own space (Whiting, 2008; DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). The pseudonyms were attached to the participants' transcriptions to assure that their identity could not be linked to their transcriptions (Whiting, 2008; DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). Thus, significant codes were used to identify the participants' interviews in the folder.

- **Right to no harm**

It was anticipated that some respondents are likely to experience stress during the interviews (Creswell, 2013). Distress triggers include touching on unwanted memories that the participant may ventilate during the interview. Debriefing support in the form of counselling with the university counselling unit was organised for participants who may require it (Whiting, 2008; DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006; Hennings, et al, 2004). In this study there was no harm or deceitful act directed to the participants.

4.4.9 Limitations of the study

Though the study was well structured and constructed, there are several methodological limitations identified that had both direct and indirect effects on the study outcomes. The

limitations are the difficulties experienced during the data collection and are inevitable in research methods (De Vos, et al, 2011).

- **Participants' recruitment**

Teachers – The lack of direct access to the teachers during recruitment affected the sampling methods as only those teachers that the principal talked to were involved in the study sample. Thus, there were increased chances of influence on the experiences of the teachers to the extent that the first interviewee had actually prepared a possible response to the topic. However, the ability of the researcher to treat every interview as unique, change of principal and not providing the interview guide prior to the interviews, to a large extent eliminated the probability of influence on the teachers' information.

Parents – The researcher relied on the principal to give the invitations to the children. As the result, the principal gave an invitation to children of parents who usually participated in research which presupposed early saturation of data. However, few of them responded, which allowed the researcher to give invitations to any of the parents as long their children were at the centre and source other parents who could participate through the network of the parents who had participated.

- **Interview venue**

Shared confidentiality – The use of the day care centre as the interview venue meant the principal also knew parents who participated since appointments bookings involved her, as her office was the exact venue.

The researcher assured the participants that only the researcher had access to their information. Once the parents had agreed to the date, the researcher had to confirm the appointment with the principal then get back to the parents to confirm the appointment. In

some way the parents were uncomfortable but only found the venue to be convenient rather than comfortable; however, the principal totally abandoned the office to make the parents feel free during the interview.

Presence of non-participants and presence of the principal – The conducting of interviews in the centre and in the presence of non-participants to some extent affects the participants' freedom. Especially that most of the participants chose it primarily for convenience not comfort. In granting them their freedom, the current principal removed herself from the office.

Teachers – There were little differentials in teachers' answers. The fact that the ones who were still to come for the interviews had discussed the questions with those who had already been interviewed regardless the researcher's plea. The researcher then rephrased the questions and changed their order, also used different probing techniques and probed on the different aspects of the participants' responses to counter for the discussed questions. This enabled new information to come forth and participants realised the uniqueness of their experiences that was notable in their gestures. The answers remained identical though with different emphasis and wording that strengthened the past interviews.

Practitioners' interviews proceeded while they were duty, thus they had not much choice about choosing the interview venue. Moreover, in the first interview with one of the practitioners the researcher had to conduct it in the presence of the principal. This resulted in rigidity during the interview for both the researcher and the participant. The previous principal interrupted the session by answering the phone, asking questions such how as many questions left. The researcher relied mostly on attentive listening and probed for those unclear areas of the information, mostly summarising the interviews with the practitioners.

Parents – In order to increase parents' comfort, the interviews occurrence aligned with children's pick-up hours. This also assisted in reducing the influence of other parents especially on the response. Again, the interviews took place when practitioners were busy so that most were not able to know which parents had participated.

Time - The time limit forced on the researcher when conducting the interviews, put pressure on the researcher in terms of her execution of probing skills while adhering to the time for the participants. However, the interview guides were revised to address the key themes of the research questions so the participants' responses provided the proper answers to the research. This improved the focus and attentiveness of the researcher to the participants' responses. The techniques of communication that assisted the researcher to get the full description were probing, paraphrasing, reflection and using short narratives to clarify questions. At this point, the researcher relied mostly on attentive listening and direct, short questions.



Furthermore, the chaotic situation at the university interrupted the data collection process, which affected the continuous and active involvement with the collection process. However, before resuming the data collection the researcher rekindled her mind by reading the transcriptions of previous interviews.

The researcher intended to interview both parents however, only female parents and practitioners participated in the study, and as a result, the views of male participants are lacking.

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter outlined the methodology applied in conducting this research study, discussing and explaining the actual procedures and methods adopted in the course of data collection and data analysis to data verification. The collected data was analysed using the thematic step according to 'Tesch'. The credibility, transferability, dependability conformability and reflexivity were trustworthiness elements used to verify the data. The ethics consideration ensured that the participants were not subjected to any harm.

The next chapter presents the results and discussion of the study findings.



CHAPTER 5

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

HOME AND DAY CARE CENTRE ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS

5.1 Introduction

The aim of this study was to explore the role of the home and day care centre environments' influence on children's behaviour during early childhood. In achieving this aim, a qualitative approach was utilised by adopting an explorative and descriptive design. Thematic analysis, a step-by-step approach to data analysis in which the transcriptions and notes made during data collection are combined and the underlying meaning of the transcription is made by making notes, and data clusters to derive meaning from the information provided by the participants (Creswell, 2009). The clusters facilitated development of most descriptive topics relating them to the transcription segments. Preliminary analysis occurred during codes assembling and recoding made where necessary to provide more clarity (Creswell, 2009). This chapter further presents the participants' demographic data and the format for presentation of study results done in two chapters.

5.2 Demographic Data of Participants

Demographic data was used to provide the background to understand the type of participants and the point from which the participants' perception of their experiences originates. Table 5.1 and Table 5.2 present the demographic data of the participants suitable for both chapters. Table 5.1 and Table 5.2 present parents and practitioners' demographic data respectively.



5.2.1 Demographic data of parents

Gender, marital and employment status, number of children that they have, extended carers who occupy the house or have consistent contact with the child/children, type of day care centre the child has been exposed to, the child's age at date of enrolment and the period of exposure to day care were factors that encapsulate the demographic data of parents.



Table 5.1: Demographic data of Parents

Parents	Gender	Marital status	Employment status	No. of children	Extended carers	Type of child care	Age of enrolment	Period of exposure
1	Female	Married	Not clear	2 Boys	None	Centre	B1 4 years B2 3 years	1 year - 6 hours per day 1 year - 6 hours per day
2	Female	Married	Working mother	2 Boys	None	B1 Family day care B2 Centre and family day care	B1 1year B2 2 months	B1- 4 years B2 - 1 year and 2 months - 8 hours per day
3	Female	Married	Working mother	2 Girls	Maternal grandmother	Centre high quality Centre low quality	G1 2 years G1 2 years	1 year 3 months - 8 hours per day
4	Female	Married	Working mother	2 Boys	Maternal grandparents	B1 Centre B2 Still at home (baby)	B1 4 years B2 baby	3 months - 8 hours per day
5	Female	Married	Working mother	2 Boys 1 Girl	Maternal grandparents	B1 Centre B2 Centre G1 Centre	B1 4 years B2- 3 years G1- 3 years	B1- 1year B2 - 2 years G1 is not clear, all spent 8 hours per day
6	Female	Single	Student	1 Boy	Nanny	Centre	B1 3 years	4 months - 8 hours per day
7	Female	Separated	Student	1 Boy	Father, Father's family Maternal grandparents Sister	Family day care and centre	B1 2 years	1year 3 months - hours spent vary
8	Female	Married	Working mother	2 Boys	Nanny and both paternal and maternal grand parents	B1 Centre B2 Still at home (baby)	B1 4 years	5 months – 8 hours per day
9	Female	Married	Working mother	1 Boy 1 Girl	None	G1 Centre B1 Still at home (baby)	G1 2 years	1 year, 5 months months – 8 hours per day

5.2.1.1 Gender

The demographic data indicated that all parents interviewed were females.

5.2.1.2 Marital status

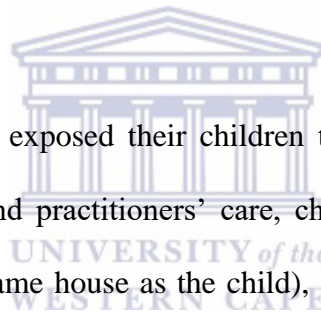
As indicated in the Table 5.1, seven parents indicated that they were married, one is a single parent and one separated from her husband.

5.2.1.3 Employment status

Six of the parents are working mothers who reported the fathers also are working. Two of the parents are students and one participant did not clarify her employment status, but reported that the father of the child is working.

5.2.1.4 Extended carers

Parents have all mentioned they exposed their children to both their care and the care of practitioners. Besides parental and practitioners' care, children have also been exposed to fathers (who do not live in the same house as the child), grandparents, siblings and nannies who have consistent contact with the children at home. Seven of the nine parents indicated that their children stay with both parents at home. Eight of the parents reported that children are also in consistent contact with the maternal grandparents. One of parents specified that her child is also in contact with the father's family and the same parent mentioned that her sibling sister is also present in the child's life. Two parents indicated that their children are also under the care of a nanny. Only one indicated that her child has no contact with any extended carers.



5.2.1.5 Number of children

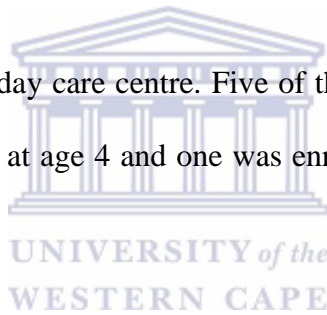
Seven of the parents had more than one child; two other participants have only one child each. Two of the parents have indicated that they have both boys and girls, while six parents have only boys and one parent had only girls.

5.2.1.6 Type of childcare

Seven of the parents reported enrolling their children at centre-based childcare only. Two participants' children have experienced both centre-based and family-based day care, and amongst these parents, one has indicated that one of her children experienced family-based day care only.

5.2.1.7 Age of enrolment

Of the 15 children, 14 were in a day care centre. Five of these children had been enrolled at age 2, four at age 3, another four at age 4 and one was enrolled at age 1. The fifteenth child was still a baby under home care.



5.2.1.8 Period of exposure

Seven of the parents have indicated that their children spent at most eight hours per day at the day care centre; one parent's children spent at most five hours, while another parent showed that the time her children spent there varies. Besides the hours spent in the day care centre, parents indicated length of time in years spent in day care centres. Six children have been there for one year, one for two years and one child for four years. Two children were there for about six months. One parent was unclear about the period of exposure of her child.

5.2.2 Practitioners' demographic data

Table 5.2 presents the practitioners' demographic data, which includes their gender, teaching experience, age group that they are responsible and their occupation, that is, whether they are a teacher, a teacher assistant or the principal.

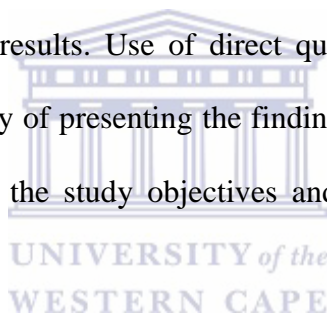
Table 5.2: Practitioner's demographic data

Practitioners	Gender	Practice experience	Age group	Training	Occupation
1	Female	16 years	3 – 4	Primary foundation	Assistant educator
2	Female	20 years	2 – 3	Basic education	Educator
3	Female	7 years	4 – 5	Basic education	Educator
4	Female	8 years	4 – 5	Still in training	Assistant educator
5	Female	Did not mention	4 – 5 mostly	Basic education	Principal

The practitioners were all females and their work experience ranged from 5–20 years of practice. Three of the educators were responsible for the 4–5 years age group. The principal oversees all the age groups. The rest of the educators are responsible for all the other age groups. Three practitioners have received basic education training while one is still training to become a qualified practitioner. One practitioner has foundation phase teaching qualification and received on-the-job training for basic education. Amongst the practitioners, two occupy the post of teacher; two occupy the assistant teacher position and the final practitioner is the principal.

5.3 Presentation and Discussions of Findings

Presentation of study is in two chapters namely, home and day care environmental factors results and discussion (Chapter 5); and dual care results and discussion (Chapter 6). The presentation is distinctly suitable to ensure meeting of study objectives therein ensuring adequate response to the research question and closing the problem statement loop. Each of these chapters, focus on one objective of this study. These chapters present the findings and the discussions concurrently with appropriate literature and theoretical justification or negation. Data analysis process aided extraction of the study results from the verbatim transcriptions. The emerging ideas were coded and then grouped into themes presented in Table 5.3. Table 5.3 presents the themes and sub-themes derived from the data and these guides a detailed discussion on results. Use of direct quotes from the transcripts ensured credibility of the results. This way of presenting the findings enabled more detail and clarity on emerging themes in meeting the study objectives and thereby answering the research question.



This chapter presents the findings of objective one of this study, which focuses on the factors that influence children's behaviour within the home environment and the day care centre environment respectively. It discusses behaviour as the major variable affected in both objectives.

Table 5.3: Themes and sub-themes

THEMES	SUB-THEMES
Theme 1: Understanding behaviour	
Theme 2: Home environment's influence on children's behaviour	Sub-theme 2.1: Parenting practices' influence on children's behaviour
	Sub-theme 2.2: Multi-caretaking's influence on children's behaviour
	Sub-theme 2.3: Family background's influence on children's behaviour
Theme 3: Day care centre environment's influence on children's behaviour	Sub-theme 3.1: Role of day care centre's influence on children's behaviour
	Sub-theme 3.2: Practitioner qualities' influence on children's behaviour
	Sub-theme 3.3: Day care centre type's influence on children's behaviour
	Sub-theme 3.4: Ratio's influence on children's behaviour
	Sub-theme 3.5: Physical environment influence on children's behaviour
	Sub-theme 3.6: Programmes' influence on children's behaviour
Theme 4: General perception of dual care	General perception of dual care
Theme 5: Effect of dual care on child behaviour	Sub-theme 5.1: Timing of introduction into dual care influence on children's behaviour
	Sub-theme 5.2: Transition influence on children's behaviour
Theme 6: Management of children in dual care	Sub-theme 5.1: Influence of discipline on children's behaviour
	Sub-theme 5.2: Influence of relationships on children's behaviour
	Sub-theme 5.3: Influence of duration on children's behaviour

5.3.1 Theme 1: Understanding behaviour

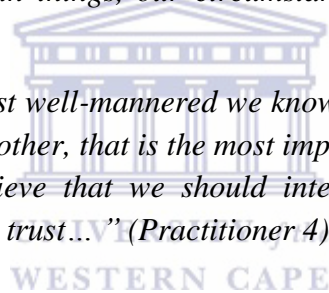
In understanding behaviour, the results of this study revealed that behaviour is more easily defined using attributes and context than to give a clear statement of the exact meaning of the word. Furthermore, it relates mostly to social aspects than to behaviour in terms of cognitive function, physical development and communicative skills of children. In support of these

findings, Moore (2011) defines behaviour as the product of the interaction between the person and the environment. In this regard, behaviour is associated with social conduct, manners, values and morals (Anglin, et al, 2011). The social domain informs the social conduct of the child and their ability to make and maintain relationships (UNICEF, 2012). In the participants' voice:

“It means, it has to do with respect for me. It has to do with listening to instructions. It has to do with valuing somebody else’s opinion and judgement that is behaviour for me. Behaviour towards certain laws recommendations what is acceptable and what is not... ” (Parent 2)

“The person’s behaviour is a lot about the person’s intention, the person’s integrity, the person’s result in behaviour because of that now we all live certain values our believe system that we grow up with and that dictates a lot about how we behave towards certain things, our circumstances dictates how we behave. Yah!” (Parent 4)

“How can I say, we all just well-mannered we know what we are supposed to do. We have respect for each other, that is the most important thing and we trust each other here. We also believe that we should interact with children and their behaviour...is just around trust...” (Practitioner 4)



Participants found it easier to use interconnected sentences that have different attributes to express how they understand behaviour. These attributes were associated with the social aspect of behaviour that describe it as the interactions of people and included aspects such as respect, listening to the instructions of others, well-mannered, seeking attention, disciplined and trust. Behaviour is broad, as it is not directed to a particular set of behaviours, but involves all behaviours, be they observable or describable (Bergner, 2011). Observable include behaviours such as interaction skills, physical activeness and non-observable (describable) behaviour such as character, cognitive and emotional expressions (Lazzeri, 2014). Through the voice of the participant, behaviour:

“...is like the characteristics of the personality how you handle life, you know, your perception of life, how you deal with things, that’s now I would say behaviour” (Parent 6)

“... it’s the way the child holds him/herself like conduct themselves, or communicate with themselves with other person” (Practitioner 3)

Furthermore, some of the participants defined behaviour within the context of children’s exposure to home and day care centre context.

“Behaviour is if you are disciplined, you listen, you respect, respond to what you are supposed to do” (Practitioner 1)

“Behaviour is when the child...I will define it, behaviour as children’s, emotional behaviour of the kids. When they’re happy, they won’t cry, kids will love to come to school, the way that they interact with the teacher with, their friends or with parent and also with strangers visiting the centre...” (Practitioner 5)

According to the participants children discipline entail listening, respect for others and response to instructions and children must be emotionally balanced and adapt to behaviours in their environment. Thus, as the person is living in a particular surrounding, they merge their behaviour to be compatible with that of the environment in order to ensure their survival in that environment (Rosa & Tudge, 2013). As Bronfenbrenner’s ecological system theory defined it, behaviour is a product of human interaction with their environment and engages the mind to process and determine the suitable responses for a particular environment (Bronfenbrenner, 2005; 1979). According to this view of behaviour, some of the participants were able to provide a general definition of behaviour inclusive of other aspects of behaviour.

Participants said:

“It’s got a lot to do with one’s thought process and how you will actually internalize the environment that you are exposed to” (Parent 2).

“It’s a response to stimulus that you get whether it’s positive or negative,...it’s something that children mimic from what they see ...they come into the world without experiences, so behaviour is learned thing from parents and environment and still in the surrounding” (Parent 8)

Thus, behaviour is the product of a person's mind through thought processes and internalisation of environmental signals in order to produce behaviour corresponding to the surroundings, thereby influencing children’s behaviour in that environment (Bergner, 2011). According to this view, behaviour understanding is better within the context that triggers it. Especially during early childhood development, the child’s mind is still malleable and it undergoes rapid growth in which any experience is likely to form the foundation of the child’s behaviour (Pirchio, et al, 2013; Rotumoi & Too, 2012). Therefore, children are likely to actualise or discard certain behaviour depending on which behaviour their environment supports (Maggi, et al, 2010).



Behaviour is understood as an inclusive term and is not particular to a set of behaviours. It includes a person's character, activities, perception, competency in dealing with situations, communication and self-conducts. Bergner’s proposed model of defining behaviour supports this view of behaviour (inclusive view) that the responses may stem from identity of the person, motivation, cognitive, knowledge and skill, performance, achievement, person’s character and the significance of meaning the person derived from their experiences (Bergner, 2011). This model allows for encompassing all aspects of behaviour and does not suction it to a particular context or behaviour aspect. This view then describes behaviour as equivalent to the responses in all human aspects. As such other participants understood behaviour broadly as:

“...the way we act or respond to the things that happen or just in general the way we react towards some things...” (Parent 3)

“It’s your reaction in any situation” (Practitioner 5)

This way of defining behaviour indicates that behaviour is a response regardless of context or aspects involved. According to the broad view on understanding behaviour, it is how an organism responds to both internal and external stimuli (Levitis, et al, 2009). This is with the understanding that behaviour is the outcome of something whether from within the person or around the person thereby making behaviour observable or describable.

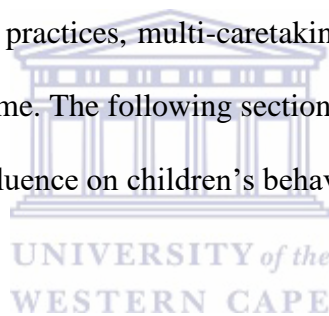
Depending on the interactions of the children and the dual care environments' influence, the behaviour may be positive or negative towards dual care. It depends on the ways that dual care uses to help children adjust, consequently influencing their behaviour. The environment becomes the input mode triggering the organism's behaviour (Levitis, et al, 2009). Therefore, prior to exploring the influence of dual care on children's behaviour it is important to explore the factors of the composites of dual care environments namely home and day care centre environment that influence children's behaviour.

Theme Two discusses the factors that influence children's behaviour within their home environment.

5.3.2 Theme 2: Home environment's influence on children's behaviour

Parents and practitioners refer to home environment as the context of family than other factors such as neighbourhood and location of family (Irwin, et al, 2007). This view on home environment trims the definition of home environment to nuclear family context in which,

notions of comfort, relationship, protection, retreat, relaxation, freedom, privacy, independence, self-expression, support system and continuity and permanence form family life and home for children and their parents (Mee, 2007; Heywood, 2005). As such, family members establish meaningful relationships within the family environment consequently stamping the origins of its members through reproduction, rearing practices and activities within the family (Li & Tzuo, 2010; Irwin, et al, 2007). This observation is in line with the ecological theory, which views the family as the immediate environment of children with which they interact, and therefore, the most influential environment of the child (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). Within the home environment, the findings of this study suggest that the factors influential on children's behaviour include parenting, multi-caretaking and family context. These factors (parenting practices, multi-caretaking and family context) formed sub themes that support this main theme. The following section discusses the sub themes together with their positive or negative influence on children's behaviour.



5.3.2.1 Sub-theme 2.1: Parenting practices' influence on children's behaviour

Sorkhabi (2012) defines parenting practices as stratified standards of parenting methods that structured to inform and differentiate ways of upbringing a child. Parenting practices stratification is according to authoritarian, authoritative, permissive and neglectful parenting practices, which are the behaviours that parents display in caring for their children especially between responsiveness and demandingness (Jabaghourian, et al, 2014). Within the home environment, these standards are the most influential factors that guide children to determine their behaviour (Baker, 2014; Pearson, et al, 2009; Turner, et al, 2009). The findings of this study reveal that during parent and children's interactions, parents adopt these methods variably. This is implicit of the fact that parent's parental practices are different yet they (parents) have to both equally rear their child. For instance, participants' perception is that:

“For me there must be one parent that is strict both can’t be soft. And say like do this can’t do that and the one parent is like ... soft and when they come ... But the soft one must know his limits. ... then me and my husband we do always explain to them.” (Parent 1)

“My husband believe that we must reason with boys... then after few reasoning and I’ll step in and then I’ll say no now you spoken about a few times now you gonna get a hiding because u are not listening anymore”(Parent 8)

Strict parenting behaviour is characteristic of authoritarian parenting which usually includes harsh methods of discipline like a hiding (Baker, 2014). Softness is associated with permissive parenting in which parents allow children to do whatever they like (Dunkley, 2013). Explaining, reasoning and being assertive with children is associated with authoritative parenting (Dunkley, 2013; Sorkhabi, 2012). Strictness, softness and assertiveness are parental behaviours associated with parental demandingness, which describes the amount of control parents impose on the children’s behaviour through parental supervision, rules or structure and the extent to which parents enforce the discipline (Rodriguez, et al, 2009). The demandingness accompanies responsiveness, which refers to the extent to which the parent's individual character of self-regulation and assertion in their children is attuned and supportive to children’s needs (WHO, 2013; Berge, et al, 2009). Support in this regard is referring to as parental interest in their children’s activities, listening to their children’s needs and being actively involved (Rodriguez, et al, 2009). Thus, the parent’s ability to reason with their children in grooming their behaviour shows to what extent parents are interested in their children’s development thereby challenging their competency in judging what acceptable and unacceptable behaviour is. Competency is associated with mastery of self-regulation of social, cognitive, physical and communication behaviours (Docker, et al, 2015).

In addition, this study found that parents use different parenting styles depending on the severity of behaviour that children displayed and the parenting styles differed between parents. Thus, where danger is imposed parents engaged more with authoritarian than authoritative parenting methods, implying that context of parent and children influences the parents' parenting practices. This means that each parenting practice gives positive behaviour outcomes depending on the context in which they are applied. The author's concern is implicit of the idea that at least parents' differences in parenting should be viewed as complementary to each other's weaknesses resulting in uniformity of parenting practices that the child is exposed to (Berge, et al, 2010). Conversely, one of the parents showed that the parenting dissimilarity causes confusion in children.

“On weekend I must take him to his father. So, now he must go that side and there he just plays. He's very naughty when he's that side coz; I think he can take over now. Here we have rules. Because now he thinks, no, I can't do what I want to. You can't tell me, coz my daddy said. It affects him in a very bad way because now he think, no, I can't do what I want to... But I told him if they are not gonna stick to my rules then they must come see him by us because then his whole behaviour is gonna change. You see! Then he's not gonna be the same. So, then that's why I say they must come by us. But they are adopting now at the moment, teaching and telling him what to do, otherwise, he's just going to be a normal rude boy and I can't take that.”(Parent 7)

In the parent's view, parental dissimilarity affects children's behaviour negatively, evoking feelings of anger and rudeness to the extent of leading the child to grow in that negative line (Pearson, et al, 2009). However, being assertive towards one another as parents, helps parents to reach consensus that improve the child's behaviour for the better. Berkien, et al (2012) supports the views of parents that children who experience parental parenting dissimilarity are characterised with anger, which leads them into having a low self-concept. Pearson, et al, (2009) adds that these children are therefore likely to have reduced attention in

responding to instructions thereby affecting their behaviour negatively. As a result, these children are likely to carry on their behaviour into the day care environment thereby affecting the behaviour of other children. One of the parents mentioned that it was a concern for the day care centre that at some point the principal called a parents' meeting due to behavioural issues that they are experiencing at the centre.

“the principal furthered that to all the parents needs to be here because that needed to address the parents say look the way you speak at home, your child is bringing it to class, so there is a little of a behavioural issue we finding it, when we speak to more children in class, so you as parents when you say. You’re having a fight with your spouse you can’t do this in front of the child you need to be aware that it affects your child coz you know children mimic you and so they come to school then mimic the same at school” (Parent 8)

Therefore, within the home environment parent’s behaviour influences that of their children since children observe and then imitate the behaviour of parents in or outside their home environment. The bio-ecological theory states that children learn skills through observation and engagement in ongoing complex activities under the direct supervision of knowledgeable adults (Bronfenbrenner & Ceci 1994). This means that as the family environment is the most proximal environment, the behaviours that children develop there become deeply rooted in children regardless of whether they are good or bad, the fact that authority figures portray those behaviours, children mimic them and practice them in broader contexts. Behaviour that children portray usually reflects how their family functions. For instance, a practitioner’s perception is that when children misbehave, it is that the parents’ methods of parenting are deficient.

“We expect the parents to teach their children to be obedient but it’s not always the case. So, sometimes we have to call the parents in if the child misbehaves like speak to the parents and just ask them to even guide, to teach them to respect to behave and things like that” (Practitioner 1)

The study results therefore relate the practitioners' perception of child misbehaviour as positively linked with poor parenting practices. According to Irwin, et al (2007), factors such as family context especially family structure and family socio-economic status have great contribution on parenting practices. Belsky, et al (2007) and Ahnert, et al (2004) added that due to balancing family life and employment life, parents' interaction with their children have reduced leading to children remaining unsupervised therefore likely to indulge in mischievous behaviours.

5.3.2.2 Sub-theme 2.2: Multi-caretaking's influence on children's behaviour

As shown in Table 5.1, parents' marital status reveals that the family structures within which children grow are nuclear families, single parent families and extended families. Information as reflected in Table 5.1, further shows that within these family structures the relatives, especially the grandparents and siblings, are other adult figures whom children interact with. In this regard, it means that children experience multi-caretaking within the home environment. Multi-caretaking refers to care besides that of the parents and can be in the form of facility placement, relative care (father, extended family members and nannies). However, in the context of this study it refers to care arrangement within the family, other than facility-based care. Most participants mentioned leaving their children in the care of their maternal grandparents especially before the age of two.

*“my mother used to take care of them so this was gonna be the first time that they're in care of someone I didn't know. I didn't know that person personally”
(Parent 3)*

“If they go to my mother they'll spent time getting dirty in the yard singing if its summer time ...” (Parent 8)

“My daddy used to take him to school... he (my child) used to open the door while they were driving. He don't want to go. So my sister had to keep him” (Parent 7)

Care by extended family is informal childcare as there is no formal agreement drawn up, except in the case of the nanny (Chan, 2013; Liu, 2015; Bradly & Corwyn, 2005). Notable in the parents' voice is the use of maternal relatives as another care arrangement for their children rather than to use paternal grandparents. Traditionally, mothers are the most proximal adult figures to children, based on the fact of social construct of mother roles (Letourneau, et al, 2011; Bradly & Corwyn, 2005). As such, mothers tend to trust their own mothers rather than another person with their children and the father tends to succumb to the mother's decision due to the perception influenced by socially constructed roles of mothers as best carers of the children. Thus, children become exposed to informal multi-caretaking within the family environment.



When multi-care occurs within the family, the extended family seems to adhere to the parents' way of raising the child that helps to maintain uniformity in the way the family members interact with the child (Chan, 2013). However, separated parents who share custody have shown the debilitating effects on the child. For instance, in the case of Parent 7, with whom the childrearing is between the mother's family and the father's family, being tossed between the two families with different values was burdening to the child.

“There they let him do anything he wants to do. So you see that changed him and then after weekend we then must struggle with him again. Coz he says, “So You can't tell me, coz my daddy said.” So, like Sunday we say no with this and this and that. And then he comes back to be okay now. I'm at home I must do this, I must do that.” (Parent 7)

Children exposure to multi-caretaking often confuse them due to complex interactions and differing demands and responsiveness that adults involved in their care have. Adult differences increased chances of disagreement in child-rearing methods, resulting in children behavioural problems. This finding corresponds with Berkien, et al, (2012) where the extent of similarities as opposed to dissimilarities in child-rearing have a positive influence on children's behaviour regardless of whether parents are separated or staying together.

“But I talked to them also how that they are messing in my way of disciplining him... Then he's not gonna be the same. So, then that's why I say they must come by us. But they are adopting now at the moment, teaching and telling him what to do” (Parent 7)

“Well it's very difficult coz there is... a disagreement between myself and his father but I've his father to cooperate with me...” (Parent 2)

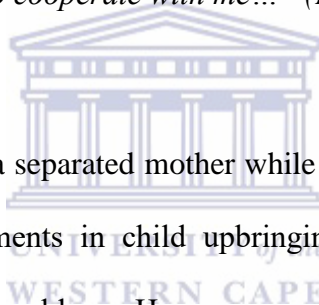


Table 5.1 shows that Parent 7 is a separated mother while Parent 2 is still married. Based on these parents' history, disagreements in child upbringing occur despite multi-caretaking leading to children's behavioural problems. However, parents' ability to discuss and agree to cooperate on uniform rearing practices reduced parent stress and child confusion thereby positively affecting children's behaviour positively.

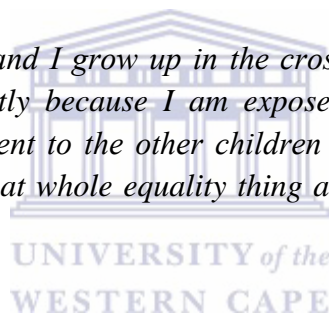
“He (my son) doesn't like to go to bed in time. So, that is still a challenge. But it's not as difficult as he used to. Each morning it was a fight and screaming. But that's taken care of now. He knows when his father say he must get done he must get dressed, you can't be late for school you can't make your mother late.” (Parent 2)

Therefore, it depends on the consensus that parents have about their methods so that they provide the same context for their children in rearing them.

5.3.2.3 Sub-theme 2.3: Family context influence on children's behaviour

The findings of this study indicate that family context is another factor influencing children's behaviour within the home environment. This finding is in line with the findings of Hartas (2011) and Conger, et al (2010) that suggested that children's behaviour is influenced by characteristics such as socio-economic circumstances, resources, family structure, education and location, which form family context, consequently defining the family class. Parents' ability to deploy family resources efficiently despite their differing context portrays positive parental behaviour, which osmotically transmits positive behaviour to their children. In reference to one of the participants' quotes it is indicated that limited resources are a major family influence on children's behaviour.

"I mean if I am a child and I grow up in the crossroads, maybe a shack. I am going to behave differently because I am exposed to differently and I've got limited resources equivalent to the other children and I'm not able to grow up like other children. So, that whole equality thing also has effects on how people behave" (Parent 8)



The difference in equality pertaining to resource access influences children's behaviour differently depending on their family classification. The basis for families' class is usually the family's socio-economic status (FSES) and characteristics of parental education, place of dwelling and family income (Letourneir, et al, 2011). Children living in shacks and slummy areas which are disadvantaged places of dwelling experience limited resources compared with children from high FSES class families and areas. One of the practitioners in support of the parent's view and clarifies more on limited resources and its effects on children's behaviour:

"Most of the kids that I worked with came from the low income group. The manners of the children the way that they treat on another, how the kids interact. They were very violent. They don't play nice. They're bully, fighting a lot. But I think they come from the background where that is normal in the house, lots of

drinking, lots of drugs using. So, there's huge impact that these behaviour in the house had on kids behaviour at school" (Practitioner 5)

From these quotes, it becomes evident that low-income or resource-limited families are characterised by poor interaction skills and low stimulating activities, which leads to incompetency and misconduct such as bullying and fighting. Children's misconduct is likely to be learned behaviour from parents who display poor coping mechanisms with problematic family situations such as low FSES (Conger, et al, 2010). As such, availability of resources is related to improving children's behaviour due to the satisfaction and stability they bring within the home environment (Conger, et al, 2010). The practitioner further indicated that:

"Yah! There is a difference when the child comes from different background that is low income. The way that they speak, the manners everything. There's a huge difference, I look at this from middle income and higher. There's a huge difference" (Practitioner 5)

Even though the participant did not explicitly indicate the difference, the studies of Ferguson, et al (2007) and Ryan, et al (2013) found that children in high FSES, have better adjustments and competency skills and they portray higher capability to succeed in any situation that they are exposed to. The reason for this difference is the satisfaction that resources' sustainability and stability bring within the home environment (Ferguson, et al, 2007). Maggi, et al (2010) suggested that mixing children of different FSES classes, however, positively influences children's behaviour.

Furthermore, Waldfogel, et al (2010) related resource sustainability and stability to family structure and those children who are staying with biological parents who are in nuclear families in contrast to single and cohabiting families which are said to be fragile, are likely to

experience higher FSES. Single parent and cohabiting families are grouped as fragile families as they are at high risk experiences such as poverty, abuse, violence, illness (depression, stress) and collapse (Conger, et al, 2010). Waldfogel, et al (2010)'s argument is further substantiated by the participants that absence of one parent within the household burdens the remaining parent, resulting in overwhelming responsibility.

Oh! That (family income) has a huge impact especially with parent where there's only the mother present or where there's no father figure and vice versa" (Practitioner 5)

"(Taking a deep breath) I'm a single mommy so... at home it (day care) just make my life much easier. You see, so "eish man" (an expression of peculiar and yet happy feelings). I'm really happy though, it's really tough (financially) sometimes but, yah! (Parent 6)

This study finding suggests that even though placing the child in day care centre does not contribute to financial resources it reduces the burden of responsibility on single parents thereby improving the interactions of parents and children. Nonetheless, the burden depends on the access to support parents have (Cooper, McLanahan, Meadows & Brooks-Gunn, 2009). In the case of the separated parents, the extended family became supportive as she moved in with her own parents.

"My father takes him to rugby. He (my son) has time to watch T.V. and then my father come in and he must step down because it's my father's turn. So then he must go play... my mommy says take him. Let him go play... when I came back to campus and I heard that there's a crèche here, I told my sister to go and find out about the centre" (Parent 7)

Comparing the two single parents, one parent mentioned having support from the nanny only within the home environment, while the other one has support from the extended family

through her parents and sister. The members of the extended family within the household contribute in different ways to assist the mother with rearing the child. The overarching theory of this study indicates that the support to parent-child dyad is critical as it influences parent-child interaction (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). Parent 7 indicated that the child's biological father is involved with the rearing of the child and shares the responsibility with her.

Concerning father involvement, Feyter and Winsler's (2009) study results concluded that father involvement in childrearing buffers the mother's inability to nurture the child. As a result, children benefit from parental dual care arrangements enabling appropriate behaviour adjustment in children. Support in childrearing has therefore more influence on children's behaviour than the family structure. Heckman (2011), Waldfogel, et al (2010) and Tanaka (2005) are of the opinion that in nuclear families parents are usually supportive of each other, sharing the responsibility of providing, protecting and creating conducive environment for their children's development. In comparison nuclear families invest greatly in their children's development through their availability and involvement in their children's upbringing thereby influencing their behaviour positively (Heckman, 2011).

Conversely, the results of this study indicate that not only nuclear families can invest in their children but also fragile families. Parents, who relate to fragile families as much as nuclear families, indicated engaging in activities with their children, therefore making time to be with their children. Therefore, despite the challenges of responsibility that they have, they still make time to engage in activities with their children allowing them to know their children better.

“We would sit and colour something in or would play one of his car stuff or he had this game on my cell phone and we would play with” (Parent 6)

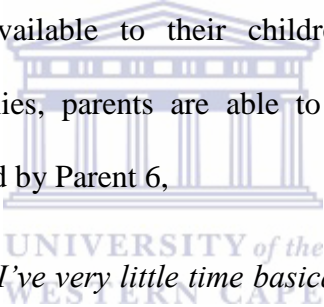
“We played and he tickled me and he said 'laugh mommy' and he tickled me and he ran away. So, I think he just miss me, making up time” (Parent 7)

“We spent a lot of time family wise, we do movies... So there'll be time, when they, we sit in the room and then play together. And we will read stories, we read books, we do counting and stuff like that, we paint, we draw coz I like colours so also we that as well. So, there's a lot of, even if now the grandparents also do like they watch T.V. together. They read stories and then you know play with them and” (Parent 8)

The activities that they engage in include sitting together to watch television and colouring-in or drawing, playing games, running around, teasing one another like tickling and reading stories or books. These activities are not particular to a certain family structure but apply to all families. For example, skills such as emotional regulation and expressions that used in a happy or sad and approving and disapproving situation allow children to learn regulating their emotions. Children learn more about them in activities such as storytelling in which parents usually engage the emotions and gestures to communicate feelings and how to react (emotional intelligence and regulation) when they are faced with situations (Frude & Killick, 2011). In this regard, parents are stimulating child competence and personal conduct, meaning cognitive behaviour and social behaviour respectively. Play, running around, drawing, colouring and tickling for example, has proven to stimulate children's gross and fine motor skills therein influencing children's physical behaviour (Copeland, et al, 2011). They further suggest that play improves children's health by reducing sedentary behaviour that increases illnesses such as obesity. Ill health is associated with reduced physical activity thus negatively affecting children's physical behaviour.

Moreover, Chan (2013) proposed that amongst all activities children and parents engage in, play is a catalyst to a bidirectional influence between parent and children thereby increasing influence on each other's behaviour. The results of this study reveal that the time parents and children spent together in activities is a mechanism through which positive or negative effects transmit onto children's behaviour thereby allowing children to acquire skills consequently increasing investment for later years.

The study results further indicate that the difference within these family structures is the amount of time parents are available to their children. In married couple families comparatively with fragile families, parents are able to spend adequate time with their children. For instance, as indicated by Parent 6,



"I'm a single mommy so, I've very little time basically coz when I come, it's this and that and that and that cleaning and the works and then I've got my own research and stuff like that also. So, I've got very limited" (Parent 6)

In contrast to time factor Lowry and Hanen, (2012) argued that it is not only about the amount of time spent together but about rather, how time together is spent and about this (time) is regardless of the family structure and FSES. As there are still married couple families who are not able to spend most time with their children yet they are still able to influence their behaviour. For instance, Table 5.1 indicates that Parent 2 is married however in an interview with her she mentioned that time spent with children is limited to weekends since she is a working mother.

“There’s not much time at night I know weekend is basically the only time we have with the kids” (Parent 2)

Thus the study findings affirm that activities that children and parents engage in are more influential as there is direct contact with them in time whereas FSES and family structure have a direct impact on parents thereby influencing parents’ availability and involvement with their children. In an attempt to find the drive of behaviour influence, time spent engaging in activities with children regardless of family background and or situation is the driving force on children’s behaviour influence (Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Bronfenbrenner, 2005). This claim is further substantiated by the fact that most parents are working mothers implying that FSES is not a limiting factor to resource availability but rather the parent’s availability to their children. Practitioner 3 indicated that as parent, they are unavailable to their children due to the busy life that they lead despite what makes them busy.

“I think, I think most people leave a busy life, like is also, ok I’d say at out stage we leave in a busy life some of the parents they need to, they don’t have someone who can look after the children at home and then maybe that is, that influences them to bring children to the school” (Practitioner 3)

In this manner, parent’s availability to their children depends on their efficacy to manage their time so that they become readily available for their children. When parents provide little time to be with their children, they harbour problematic behaviour for children since children spend time unsupervised (Cooper et al, 2009). Therefore, they get used lack of supervision and feel free to do anything or develop the attitude that parents are discipline instruments (Committee on the Science of Adolescence, 2011). Therefore, even the practitioners may try to direct the child; however, the home environment is more influential than any other context to the child.

According to these parents, busy lives have some limitations to interactions with their children. Nonetheless, they use the time they have profitably to know their children instead of blaming and becoming discipline instruments. Belsky, et al (2007) and Ahnert, et al (2004) suggest that what is important is what the parent does while they have time with the child since other parents may have ample time but show no interest in getting involved with the child. Parents who spend much time with their children, value the role of day care centres in that their children have become better people.

“He learned to sleep on his own room. So he’s been a bit more independent since he started school.” (Parent 4)

“The crèche made them more mature and confident, you understand? And they learnt more things at crèche than they did at home” (Parent 1)

“She’s a bit more independent if I can say it that way. She’s become a bit more independent also realising that it’s ok for me to be alone sometimes. You don’t have to always be in somebody’s company. So, I think she’s open up in that way with me now and that has created a better child for me at home. Coz she’s not so needy. She doesn’t need my attention all the time, uh! Because what that used to create is the space where I then don’t give much attention to the other child because she wants my attention all the time. But now I think it has created a little bit of a more of a balance. She’s really not needy anymore.” (Parent 3)

Thus when parents spend time with their children it allows them to know their children better and recognise the changes more closely. The overarching theory of this study indicates that the more time parents spend with their children, the more insight they have in understanding each other’s behaviour and this is enabled by the frequent engagement in activities (Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2005). Hence, some of the children are able to have good behaviour outcomes regardless of their family background (Zimmerman, 2013; Berk, 2003). The PPCT Model distinguishes between the influencing factors as proximal and distal

processes; in which proximal processes such as parenting practices and activities directly influence children's behaviour due to time spent close to one another, as opposed to family background that is distal, therefore it has little influence on children's behaviour (Tudge, et al, 2009).

The next section discusses day care centre environmental factors that influence children behaviour.

5.3.3 Theme 3: Day care centre environment's influence on children's behaviour

In this theme, the results indicate that day care centres have a more positive than negative influence on children's behaviour. Lowry and Hanen (2012) found that the level of care in the childcare setting plays a major role in predicting children's behaviour outcomes. As such this study's results agree with studies that quality of day care centres is crucial to children's behaviour outcomes (Sayre, et al, 2015; Naudeau, et al, 2011; Huntsman, 2008). High quality childcare more than low quality childcare positively influences children's behaviour and this finding is substantiated by the NICHD Study (2006) and ECD Guidelines RSA (2006) regarding aspects of day care centres' environment quality. The aspects of quality found to correspond with that in the guidelines, include practitioner quality, type of day care centre, ratio of practitioner per children's physical environment of the centre and programme quality (Gerber, et al, 2007). Brownlee, et al (2007) stated that these aspects are then grouped as structural and processes determinants; structural refers to measurable components that can be easily and reliably measured such as ratio, group size, physical environment conditions including health and safety, and practitioner qualification; and processes refers to dynamics between individuals and the context such as children's interactions and their participation in

different activities. These aspects of day care centre environment were then discussed as sub-themes that support the main theme including the role of the day care centres on children's behaviour.

5.3.3.1 Sub-theme 3.1: Role of day care centre on children's behaviour

This sub-theme is focused on perceptions of participants especially parents' perceptions regarding the role of day care centres in influencing their children's behaviour. The study findings reveal that day care centres have positive influences on children's behaviour. In line with this finding is the study of Sayre, et al, (2015) and Naudeau, et al, (2011) who found that day care centres are a major entry point into ECD services. When they adhere to ECD policies, they are able to provide a quality service to children consequently laying a strong behavioural foundation for children to survive in the future. Enacting day care centres enhanced children's livelihoods and simultaneously influencing children's behaviour positively (Biesteker & Kvalsvig, 2007; Allie, 2010). Day care centres thrilled parents by the positive influence that they have noticed in their children's behaviour since they enrolled their children. Children grew more independent, confident, open, talkative, competent, playful and manipulative as this parent indicated:

“He is independent, he learned how to draw, paint, play with blocks, he talking a lot, he's more mature, he doesn't hit back his younger brother but he decides to report him, ... he is overly hyper now he has this high energy level. ...he would get up in the mornings if he wants to go to the toilet he would get up by himself now and go to the toilet and just call for me to come and clean him when he's done (laughter)” (Parent 4)

“He's much more disciplined also. Oh! My child but now I very impressed (laughter). I'm very happy since my child has been here, like it's amazing... I'm like, what is that 24-piece puzzle... (Bragging) so, my child is clever (broke into laughter). He is singing a lot, he is much happier, saying poems improved vocabulary, my child is intelligent he is able to complete a puzzle by himself, he

picks up what he has been taught, he reports what he learned, he has this positive attitude, he is talking a lot He likes being around other kid” (Parent 6).

The attributes of behaviour that parents have described following enrolment of their children in day care are inclusive of all developmental domains with more emphasis on cognitive functions of children’s behaviour such as intelligence, ability to learn and acquire vocabulary and report. This view on day care centres supports Dowsett, et al, (2008) and Bigras, et al (2010) on their view that day care centres largely develop children cognitively than other aspects of behaviour due to fact that they prepare children for formal learning in primary schools.



The findings further suggested that the day care centre environment complements the home environment in influencing children’s behaviour. As evidenced in this study theoretical underpinning, home environment is the initial environment in which children learn skills that enhance their behaviour and day care centres are secondary though they are not merely hierarchical contexts but the two contexts work together to mentor children’s behaviours (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). Nonetheless, parents experience challenges to fully stimulate their children’s behaviour as they are not specialised in early childhood development; consequently, this leads to inadequacies that are likely to result in developmental delays or behaviour inhibitions and as a result they send their children to day care centres.

“... I don’t know how to teach my child something certainly about, for instance, shapes and colours and has to teach him how to make him to understand this is what it is. You know like they basically can. I think they are trained to teach children how to do that... So what I then do I just go from where they left and at home it just make my life much easier. You see, so “eish man” (an expression of inexplicable and yet happy feelings). I’m really happy. It’s really tough sometimes but, yah!” (Parent 6)

“You’re at home you get to give that structure of a routine, so that when I do eventually go to school coz they sort of half way already, so when they do come to crèche is more like the social skills they build in and learning to share with other children so the other basic you already covered at home that’s what I think” (Parent 8)

“But if they (children) stay at home, I’m not sure if the grandma can take a preschool teacher’s place and teach the child to draw and to write” (Practitioner 3)

In this regard, parents are able to influence their children’s behaviour however, are limited in some way therefore require further assistance from the ECD practitioners. This observation corresponds with the theory that within the microsystem which is constituted by both home and day care centres, children learn skills, initially from home and are further mentored in day care centres, by knowledgeable adults especially who they have constant and direct contact with (Rosa & Tudge, 2013). Therefore, when parents require further assistance it is encouraged that they select a day care centre that delivers high quality services so that children’s behaviour proceed a step further. Low quality services positively relate to poor behaviour development for all children but more especially those from poor backgrounds (Letourneau, et al, 2011). Day care centres have to be a better environment so that they positively influence children’s behaviour, as illustrated by one of the practitioners:

“I think if the child comes from a low income background it came from an abusive family, whether the child attend ECD centre where he gets scold and shouted at. That is not gonna be good. So I think that is why social development have their policies. They do cater for that. So, yah that must help the child to adjust. Children must be, experience safety and feel cared for, neh, Yep!” (Practitioner 5)

For the day centres to complement the home environment they must be a better and safe environment and this is in line with Sayre, et al, (2015) who found that debilitating home environment plus low quality day care centres exacerbate negative behaviour in children. It is

therefore important for parents and practitioners to jointly, though at different levels, support children's learning (Pirchio, et al, 2013). Subsequently, positively influence children's behaviour as children further learn skills that prepare them to survive and advance as they progress in life.

Moreover, parents' awareness of children's developmental needs plays a substantial role in stamping the role of day care centres on children's behaviour. In this regard, change of environment to the day care centres was for stimulation of children's cognitive functions as indicated by one of the parents.

"I think he is at the stage of his life where his mind is growing. His mind is like the sponge, is adapting, so he must be in the place where he can learn or he can explore more. So, here he is learning more here." (Parent 7)

This means that parents are aware of children's brain plasticity, which in early childhood phase environments in which children live should enrich their skills (Slemming & Saloojee, 2013; Belsky & Pluess, 2009). Enriching environments activate children's intelligence quotient (IQ) to have discretion on their own behaviour hence depending how enabling the child's environment is, the child is able to store or discard the behaviours that they learn (Maggi, et al, 2010). However, that IQ functioning requires a skilful adult to mentor the child (Bronfenbrenner, 1994).

Other parents indicated the stimulation of children's social abilities.

"But with middle one I could see that he needed to be with other kids also. So, that is why we put him early coz then the eldest one was a school so he was getting bored at home. So, that is why. For the baby also she didn't want to be at

home any more she said herself she wants to go to school. I think it's more for the interaction with the other kids as well and that is why we decided to put them at crèche" (Parent 5)

"This environment now when he is in crèche and he is with other kids, it's it kinder helps him a lot where he was just alone with the nanny like before and there he's now singing a lot. He is a much happier child" (Parent 6)

Day care centres as an environment of early child development contribute in activating children's cognitive and social skills. Sylva, et al (2007) added that during children's physical activities especially in children-initiated play compared with practitioner-initiated, children display more of their skills during interactions. The bio-ecological system theory also suggested it is through interactions that children's behaviour is enhanced as they put into practice what they have learned (Bronfenbrenner, 2005). This means exposing children to different environments to enhance their learning and concurrently inducing behaviour changes as they adjust to those environments. One of the parents indicated that:

"... So, they were like a step further in crèche than what they did at home... They ask me questions that I don't even know where they get the question. So, our crèche activates them... For me it's like their behaviour for me is nice, they more... open and they talk a lot and they say what they did at school" (Parent 1)

In this regard, children's behaviour changes for the better due to the influence of day care centres. As attested by the bio-ecological theory, different environments that engulf children broaden their spectrum, as children become a step further than when they are in one environment (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). Nonetheless, the theory still suggests that the exposure should be equivalent to children's developmental stages due to children's grasping abilities (Rosa & Tudge, 2013). In support of this suggestion, parents said:

"I wanted them to be a little bigger" (Parent 3)

“I think when he is 2 years old he is still a bit small to really grasp anything so I think 3 years, from 3 years onwards. But I mean, if the parents don't have any choice, 2 years is probably fine. But I would say 3 years is good time to enrol a child at crèche like this really man” (Parent 6)

Therefore, day care centres are a place of growth that further broadens children's spectrum especially in improving their interactions and relationship formation. Day care centre exposure in early childhood is then a positive step in children's behaviour as it equips the children's foundation with skills.

Day care centres are helpful in complementing home environment's inadequacy especially as parents, grandparents and nannies usually lack training in EDC. Day care centres are therefore influencing children's behaviour positively thereby stimulating their behaviour holistically. They (day care centres) are able to positively enhance children's behaviour through use of qualified practitioners, working in conducive environments that enable good interaction with the children thus by being spacious and having teaching aids to stimulate children's behaviour appropriately.

5.3.3.2 Sub-theme 3.2: Practitioner quality's influence on children's behaviour

The findings of this study demonstrate that practitioner quality is the most influential aspect on children's behaviour in day care centres. Practitioner quality refers to their character and educational training (Gerber, Whitebook & Weinstein, 2007). This theme further affirms that ongoing education activities like participation in professional development activities such as workshops and meetings while employed also relate to practitioner quality thereby improving practitioner competence in ECD (Bigras, et al, 2010; Brownlee, et al, 2007). Table 5.2

indicates that three of the practitioners were qualified as basic education practitioners and two have undergone on-the-job training therefore were assistant practitioners. Assistant practitioners are able to work competently under the supervision and guidance of qualified practitioners. As such, this sub-theme also attests that mixing qualified practitioners with assistant practitioner assists to improve the quality of care without distinguishing practitioners' qualifications (Dawsett, et al, 2008). None of the parents mentioned anything about the practitioners' qualifications but rather practitioner personality qualities. In their quotes parents indicated that:

“All of this the teachers (pointing to the photos) are not just here, they go extra mile for you, for the child learning development and growth of the individual and this is a plus” (Parent 2)

“The teachers are very confident. They know how to handle the child. They handle the children like a mother should handle the child. So, when the child get sob and crying and the mommy leaves, then they jump in to say ok, “I am here” then they're like look after the child like the mother look after them” (Parent 1)

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Not mentioning practitioner qualifications in judging childcare implies that for parents, practitioner personality is more valuable than their qualification. Parents did not differentiate amongst practitioners. They generally described them as confident, patient, attentive to children's behaviour and are all putting an extra effort into holistic child development and learning. Therefore, practitioners with higher levels of education in the day care centres are more knowledgeable about appropriate educational practices than lower educational practitioners, which makes them more helpful to both their colleagues and children (Brownlee, et al, 2007). They are better equipped to plan and provide holistic stimulating activities that foster children's social, language and cognitive development, and they are more knowledge about implementing an educational programme that promotes the development of children's ability to understand and adjust to broader contexts (Saracho & Spodek, 2007).

Irwin, et al (2007) showed that mixing people of different qualities diffuses inadequacies of the entire group. In this way the day care centres through the practitioner quality are able to provide better personal care and a more sensitive response towards children's needs during their interactions with children consequently improving children's behaviour in a wholesome manner (Brownlee, et al, 2007). In addition to parents valuing practitioner's personal qualities over qualifications, one of the parents indicated that there are practitioners who shout at children as if they have not had training in childcare:

“Because you some crèche and some teachers that shouting your children and don't actually have patience with the children but they doing the studying of day care” (Parent 1)

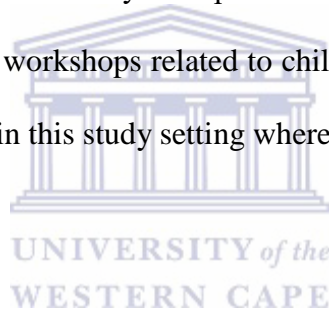
Qualifications are an added advantage to the already existing goodness. However, as recommended in ECD policies practitioners must have both of the attributes (NICHD Study, 2006). The recommendation is for the day care centres where there are only assistant/unqualified practitioners, the practitioners experience limitations in employing a holistic approach in children stimulation although they are good-natured (ECD Guidelines RSA, 2006). One of the parents indicated that a retired nurse who was an expert in the medical care of children rather than children's learning and development established a day care that her children had attended.

“The teacher was a registered nurse and she could take care of all the aspects of personal hygiene, infection control and she would tell me exactly why the child was sick. But in terms of learning, development, it's nothing in comparison to this school” (Parent 2)

“...it was like 8 children. So it was not an actual crèche it was only a day mother. (In this new crèche) it has made a huge difference in his behaviour. He is more open to new things. He is learning more, his vocabulary started growing. That

side it was just teaching him rhymes necessary usual rhymes and stuff like that but he can see he is learning something now. ” (Parent 7)

Thus, in day care centres where practitioners are unqualified but have good personality, children grow though become stuck instead of their livelihoods improving. There is nothing different from the home environment. The study of Allie (2010) indicated that unqualified practitioners usually have day care centres as a way of earning a living; to keep busy after retirement and as a result, their skills are limited in stimulating children holistically. In day care centres where practitioners are not qualified, children’s behaviour becomes compromised as there are lags encountered in stimulating them. However, mixing their practice with qualified practitioners is likely to improve children’s behaviour, thereby getting on-the-job training and attending workshops related to children's care during early childhood as in the case of the practitioners in this study setting where the practitioners are mixed.



In addition to their qualifications, the practitioners attend workshops to revitalise their knowledge in caring for children.

“You know, I got this other day the National Curriculum framework from birth to 4 years... from the social worker ... this one this ECD policies on children. they have guidelines that we have to follow to ensure that the child gets the care they are supposed to get in accordance with the bill of rights for the kids... ah they have guidelines to say what do you need to have in place they have developmental stages. They say about children’s care... No they don’t say anything about children’s behaviour” (Practitioner 5)

“I think when we go to college or university they tell you this is how you must work at the working place and all the workshop that we get they do tell us this is what we do at the preschool or day care.... We get sort of guidance from department of education like because we have to follow the child’s curriculum, policies, some kind of rules” (Practitioner 3)

The participants show that in renewing their knowledge, they revisit their academic training information to inform their practice. They work together with social workers, which creates a platform for them to exchange information. The ability of the practitioners to go beyond the scope to develop their code of conduct based on the guidance of their informants (social workers, National Curriculum Framework and Children's Bill of Rights) show that these practitioners have the children's interest at heart. Therefore, this means the practitioners' informants have a locus in influencing how the centre influences children's behaviour. In this regard, according to the bio-ecological theory, the exosystem which denotes the Children's Bill of Rights and the National Curriculum Framework are influencing children's behaviour yet children's influence in those is limited (Tudge, et al, 2009). Corresponding to the practitioners' ability is the encouragement in the NICHD Study (2006) which showed that quality practitioners do not rely only on policies but involve their own personality and intuition in their practice to mentor children's skills efficiently thereby laying a strong foundation for the holistic behaviour of children. Therefore, beyond the training, the study findings refer to the quality of the practitioners as personal character intertwined with training that the practitioners received to strengthen their practice. This means for parents, the personality of the caregiver is of utmost importance and then their qualification is the bonus for the care of the children.

“You see you leave your child there for the whole day and I couldn't mark coz I work the whole day and so that meant I should find a place that I'm comfortable with. I could see that love that the teachers actually have for the kids and that put me at ease” (Parent 4)

“For my own experience, just had a child now. It was...it's so difficult and it's painful to leave your child with somebody else. ... It's all about trust ... also the time it feels like it's long but it's not actually long” (Practitioner 3)

“Don't think the level of care is different because uhm! I think with these teachers ... take care of the children like they're almost as they're their own” (Parent 3)

The participants indicated that leaving children in the care of someone less known to them as parents, is worrisome which could be another reason why most of them preferred to leave their children with their parents. However, when the time comes for enrolment in day care centres, trust and uniformity in the care plays an important role for influencing child behaviour especially when there is love at the place of that makes them comfortable that their children are in good care. This study's findings reveal that the mother factor within the practitioners as mothers themselves has an effect on how they care for children and they thus treat them in a way they would like their own children to be cared for. As practitioners are proximal adults in the day care centre environment they become the mentor of the child while at the same time the child executes the learned skills from home. The second property of ecological theory states children execute skills learned in property one in a broader context including the day care centres (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). Thus, practitioners become the child's secondary parents who further mentor them thereby influencing their behaviour. The practitioner's quality intertwined with the quality of the day centre environment, influences children's behaviour. Thus for the practitioners to be more productive their work environment must be conducive to allow them to assist children regardless of the day care centre type.

5.3.3.3 Sub-theme 3.3: Influence of day care centre type on children's behaviour

Table 1 indicates that there are two types of day care centres identified in this study namely the centre-based childcare and family-based childcare. The day care centre types were identified by the characteristics that the participants mentioned during the interviews. The centre-based day care centres' characteristics are discussed prior to family-based day care centres' characteristics. The similarities and differences are discussed simultaneously where possible.

In this sub-theme the results show that centre-based care is characteristic of a large group of children who have shown both the positive and negative influence on children's behaviour. In line with this finding, is the study of Song, Spradlin & Plucker, (2009) which concluded that depending on the practitioner skills to direct and organise class groups, children's behaviour is positively influenced. The policies of the day care centre that was used as the study setting showed that they cater for a maximum of sixty children which leads to dividing children into smaller manageable groups as indicated by the practitioners.

"I've been working with the 4 – 5-year-old" (Practitioner 1)

"Um!!! The age group is 2-3 at the moment" (Practitioner 2)

"The preschool there's 25 – 20 children ..." (Practitioner 3)

Dividing children according to age groups was strategic to improving attendance and responsiveness to children's needs, subsequently children's behaviour is positively influenced (Dawsett, et al, 2008). One of the practitioners showed that:

"Because the child's needs, the one that is two years old is not going to have the same that the one that is 4 – 5 years old. The 4 – 5-year-old is more independent, follows routine at the least with no struggles. The 3 – 4 the 2 – 3 years or needs a lot of guidance and the lot of play and a lot of repeat... And then when they to the 3 – 4 year old group, it's like they've this growth spare comparing to the 4 – 5 year old challenges." (Practitioner 5)

It is advantageous in large groups of children to divide children as this improves sensitivity to each child's needs and improves the practitioner proximity to the child by enabling individualised attention from which children build attachment (Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Lowry & Hanen, 2012). According to the developmental theories, children's needs differ with age,

situation and personal character (Belsky & Pluess, 2009; Berk, 2003). Mixed age group day care centres which is common in family-based day care centres, presents low process quality compared to segregated age groupings in centre-based care due to the older ones grasping the concepts faster than the small ones (Bigras, et al, 2010). As result, younger children are likely to feel neglected causing them to withdraw from activities consequently causing delays in skills development. Division of children in centres creates manageable groups. They are able to form secure attachment with the practitioners. Secure attachment is a solid base from which children explore their environment with continuous search of the proximal adult in their environment in case unforeseen danger on them (children) (Bronfenbrenner, 2005). The security the child feels in the presence of the caregiver, allows them to explore their environment by positively influencing children's physical activity. Morrissey (2010) further explains that in large groups, children receive more social stimulation, which improves their social conduct behaviour than in smaller groups usually found in family-based day care centres. The higher stimulation in the centre-based care is associated with availability of funding to support the centre, play materials, clear curricular and specialised ECD practitioners as a result children receive holistic stimulation; thus, cognitive and linguistic skills are better stimulated (Bigras, et al, 2010)

Furthermore, within this sub-theme the study results revealed that poor quality ECD services in the centre-based day care centres exhibit more debilitating behaviour outcomes for children compared with the family-based day care centres. According to Morrissey (2008), this higher negative influence is evoked by delayed response or the likelihood of the practitioner to be biased in attending to children's needs and/or correcting unacceptable behaviour.

... they were fine like for the whole year but there were sometime in October, November last year when we used to drop them at crèche and would like, you know? ... the child would cry for the first time when they go to crèche you know. They cry because it's a new environment and all of that. But this is the end of the year. So I didn't understand why is this happening, and I asked if anything happened, if maybe there were an incident with another child, they fought or something like that... The teachers just couldn't say. They said not according to their knowledge. Nothing happened. ... we only put the children there because, that was, they were much affordable for us financially but they weren't necessarily a better environment for the child to be in" (Parent 3)

In reference to the parent's quote, the practitioners in the previous centre poorly managed the children in a large group as they could not explain the change in the child's behaviour.

Gray (2011) together with Teszenyi and Hevey (2015) opposes the dividing strategy that it limits children's ability to develop survival skills within different age groups emphasising that children in mixed day care centres have better social and survival skills than their counterparts. In contrast, Jansen, Veemstra, Omel, Verhulst and Reijneveld (2011) found that the survival skills that children develop in an environment of survival of the fittest are such that they have a negative influence on children's behaviour thereby encouraging behaviour such as bullying and copying as a means to fit in with others. These authors further add that these survival behaviours are usually related to social interactions and are usually approved through the satisfaction they feel when they fit in, consequently leading to poor social conduct behaviours (Jansen, et al, 2011).

"May be this one child is bullying her or whatever the case maybe. I think in my opinion; it would've been something like that where there was an incident with another child" (Parent 3)

"Like the issue of, he doesn't like one of the girls in his class because she always beats him when it comes to eating and playing games... But also she was mean to

one of his closest friends in class. There's a girl that he's very close to and he didn't like that and because of that girl two of them have a disagreement" (Parent 8)

"My child is usually the one who copies others. So, he came home acting like the other children. so, it was like good. Then he had like this face he pulled and stuff. He said and stuff like that but we spoke to her about that and she couldn't do anything because she couldn't control that boy because he was much older than my son" (Parent 7)

From the parents' quotes, it is evident that children may engage in unwanted behaviour as a way to fit in. The unwanted behaviours include pulling faces, vulgar language, meanness and bullying. In this case, they normally target the children whom they feel superior to, like the girl who was mean to the other one. In this regard, it takes a watchful practitioner to intervene and help children improve their interaction skills. Regardless of the day care centre type, the practitioners should be able to redirect the child's behaviour (Song, et al, 2009). On the other hand, the parents' quotation showed that there are children who are responsible and their character is already coming out that they are protective of others as a result this enables the bullied children to survive and/or the child may develop their strategies like copying what others do in order to survive (Belsky & Pluess, 2009).

Centre-based childcare settings generally display higher quality levels than those observed in regulated family-based settings pertaining to the practitioner quality (Bigras, et al, 2010). For instance, Parent 7 showed that in the centre the child was still copying however, the effect was positive as practitioners were watchful of what the child copied.

"...here you can see there's, he stopped doing that (pulling of face and saying stuff). They say he is the funny one. So, usually he just do stuff like he is watching T.V. like repeat adverts. He's just a copier. There is a difference you can, coz he was much more aggressive at the other crèche and he is not like that anymore." (Parent 7)

Therefore, the study findings reveal that children's behaviour in the day care centres are more dependent on the ability of the practitioner that attends to the child regardless of the day care centre type. As indicated by the overarching theory of this study, children's skills and ability to adjust requires a knowledgeable adult that will positively mentor children's skills especially in the day care centres where the general perception is to build children's educational foundation (Bronfenbrenner, 1994; 1979).

Regarding infant care in centres, the results of this study were that family-based day care centres supersedes centre-based day centres. Gray (2011) found that during infancy, childcare is better in a homely environment than at a day care centre. As such, family-based day care centres are best since they are characteristic of smaller groups of children increasing interactions between children and siblings within the family that they are cared in (Gray, 2011; Song, et al, 2009).

“It was a day mother and a daughter looking after ... like 8 children. So it was not an actual crèche it was only a day mother” (Parent 7)

“I had somebody looking after them like a day mother, before and they reach the age of two and then they went to crèche.” (Practitioner 2)

The literature is evidence to the fact that family-based care centres are suitable for infant care as they provide a setting which is homelier and usually children receive more individualised attention since there is a smaller group per adult (Morrissey, 2010). Participants preferred family-based day care for babies since children need extra care in safe environments:

... for me they two young man, when they have to separate from their parents so long to a new environment to crèche and at the crèche there's lot of germs, lots of

germ so at that age the child is still likely to get sick, and me with my own kids...”
(Practitioner 2)

“I am not actually advisable with babies that’s in crèche. I feel very uncomfortable because they’re still small and too dependent also” (Parent 1)

Therefore, children’s health and safety were generally higher in the family-based day care centres; although the evaluation of educational component was minimal while compared with centre-based day care centres (Allie, 2010). Sylva, et al (2007) found that infants exposed to centre-based day had more behavioural problems compared to the one who attended the family-based day care centre.

Centre-based day care is characterised by large group of children as opposed to family-based day care. Centre-based day cares are usually affordable allowing coverage of more children into EDC services consequently influencing most children’s behaviour positively by uplifting children’s livelihoods. A skilled practitioner is important to help advice on the strategies to manage children without compromising their behaviour. The smaller ratio of practitioners per children is important in large groups as it encourages immense relationship of practitioner-child interactions and practitioner’s responsiveness.

5.3.3.4 Sub-theme 3.4: Ratio influence on children’s behaviour

Ratio is the number of children per practitioner according to parents. The study results show that in the day care centres ratio plays a crucial role pertaining to children’s behaviour. Corresponding to this finding is the results of Huntsman’s (2008) study, which found that in day care centres where there, is adherence to ratio as per ECD regulations childcare quality improves predicting positive influence on children’s behaviour.

“I’d say the quality is much better coz even simple things the amount of teacher that are per class...they have, I think two or three teacher per class and there they only had like two people that looked after 30 children. The ratio was just too much.” (Parent 3)

“There is two teachers and two teacher assistants and so there’s 4 people looking after one class” (Parent 4)

The ECD regulations show that ratio of is influence by the age and developmental phase of the children (NICHD Study, 2006). For instance, infants’ ratio per practitioner is one practitioner to three or four children maximum, for toddlers it is one to six children per practitioner and for preschool-aged children one practitioner per a maximum of 10 children (ECD Guidelines RSA, 2006). The basis for ratio calculations are demands of care and attention that children require (De Schipper, Tavecchio & van IJzendoorn, 2008; De Schipper, Riksen-Walraven & Geurts, 2006). Smaller ratios enable close relationship within the care setting, concurrently increasing the reciprocal influence between children and the practitioners and children themselves (Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Bronfenbrenner, 1994). Therefore, the smaller the ratio, the more direct contact to the child enabling enhanced interactions for individual attention. In the voice of one participant, children get dedicated attention that also allows them to assist them to adjust to day care centres.

“So, you get dedicated attention. Nothing! That’s what children needs when there are still small and demand it. I think that has a lot of what kept him going, the fact that he got that (referring to the love, care and attention)” (Parent 4)

The study results reveal that practitioner proximity is crucial and it offers a sense of security that supports the child's transition. In line with this finding is the study of De Schipper, et al (2006) into the effects of child–caregiver ratio on the interactions between caregivers and children in childcare centres that attested to improvement of quality services rendered to children in terms of space, materials to play and attention. Thus, ratio is important as children

receive behavioural stimulation in their developmental domain due to increased interaction with adults. Children receive more cognitive stimulation, have more language interactions with adults, experienced fewer negative interactions with adults, and watched less television than children attending other types day care despite larger group sizes and higher adult-child ratios (Winsler, et al, 2008).

Thus, ratio is one of the measurable quality indicators predictive of children's behaviour outcomes as it improves the curriculum programmes' delivery in day care centres. Smaller ratios of practitioner per children create pathways for children to receive responsive care and attention enabling increased positive influence on behaviour and sense of security (Bigras, et al, 2010). Therefore, with smaller ratios, children easily develop trust toward the practitioners, increasing chances of relationship formation between practitioners and children. Trust plays a major role in enabling pathways for behaviour influence as children look up to the practitioners as their role models in the day care centre setting (Berk, 2003). Especially at the infancy and toddler stages, experience of undivided attention evoke feelings of trust from which children are able to listen and follow instructions as they are given. The bio-ecological theory has shown that a mutual relationship with the practitioner is the base from which children experience security leading to positive influence on children's behaviour (Bronfenbrenner, 2005; 1994).

“I have 2 and 3 year olds. At their age they need wonderful love. They want security and one you've got them you can do anything with them. You know like teach them love, that's the main thing here” (Practitioner 2)

According to the theory, ratio is one of the regulatory attributes of day care and as such it has a distal influence on the child's behaviour as it influences the practitioner's decision on how

they will set the ratio at their centres. And in the centre a balanced ratio allows a conducive learning environment for children as adherence by practitioners to operational ratios improves the programme delivery to children.

5.3.3.5 Sub-theme 3.5: Physical environment of the centre's influence on children's behaviour

The study findings revealed that the physical environment of the centre has an enormous influence on children's behaviour. In line with this finding are the recommendations of ECD Guidelines of RSA (2006) and Allie (2010) that the physical environment is more important for stimulating children's physical activity. Copeland, et al (2011) adds that the influence basis of the physical environment is on the physical well-being of the centre environment. Physical well-being of the centre refers to active play opportunities, fixed play environment, portable play environment, sedentary opportunities, practitioner behaviour, practitioner training/ education and physical activity policies (Sylva, et al, 2007). Most parents showed that they were attracted by the centre physical well-being in choosing the day care centre for their children especially the location of the centre and the premises of the centre in terms of building structures, the space for children to play, health and safety, and materials for teaching and play by children. The centre's location attracted parents mostly with its convenience and the fact that it is within the university campus.

*“So he say now the *Kiddys is a nice crèche, it's convenient, is on the route where he must come to work and I just pick them up and from there we go home” (Parent 1)*

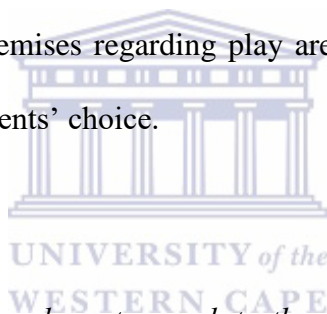
“It was close by to home ...the times were appropriate for us because they could stay later, uh! The extra mural times as well” (Parent 5)

“I think location was the first thing... is around university” (Parent 8)

“I work here on campus so its close by and if anything happens, then I’m close by so, that is the reason why. Convenience” (Parent 6)

This study's results and that of Burchinal, Vandergrift, Pianta and Mashburn (2010) correspond in that convenience of the day care centre is the most influencing factor for parents’ choice of day care centres. Convenience meant increased parental responsivity in the case of any emergency. The accessibility of the facility to parents made them feel closer to their children. Consequently, this proximity feeling transmits a positive effect to children’s behaviour knowing that the parent is nearby (Teszenyi & Hevey, 2015).

The conditions of the centre's premises regarding play areas, play materials and health and safety issues further influence parents’ choice.



“I did visit the centre to explore, to speak to the teachers to understand how it works, the hygiene, I mean all of that, you know, normal mother psyche-concerns (laughter)” (Parent 4)

“... and then also the premises the way it looks, suit our criteria. My husband is in the paramedic business; we were worried about the first aid... also safety” (Parent 8)

“Because it was in somebody’s garage ... there wasn’t much of the facility. The teacher was a registered nurse and she could take care of all the aspects of personal hygiene, infection control ...but in terms of learning, development, it’s nothing in comparison to this school” (Parent 2)

The safety of the premises is crucial to children’s health as well as play materials that support learning are important to refining both their fine and gross motor ability. In their studies, the findings of Copeland, et al (2011) and Belsky & Pluess (2009) suggested that children's physical activity of is highly related to the extent to which the environment's cleanliness and

space allows free movement to develop their gross motor behaviour. They further added, however, that development of physical ability was dependent on the capacity of the child as children's character, creativity in play, level of engagement and practitioner involvement influences how they become physically active. As such, one of the practitioners indicated that they have policies regarding children's physical activity, health and safety in adherence to regulations.

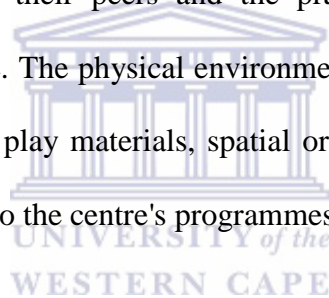
“Children must experience safety and feel cared for while the sent for partial care in the family, (reading from the section in the policy) ... if the child comes from a low income background came from an abusive family, whether the child attend ECD centre where he gets scold and shouted at. That is not gonna be good. So I think that is why social development have their policies. They do cater for that. So, yah that must help the child to adjust. Children must be, experience safety and feel cared for, neh, Yep!” (Practitioner 5)

Thus, safety issues extend also to acting as a safeguard for children who are experiencing debilitating home environment circumstances. This safeguard serves to conform to the aim of the ECD service which is to uplift the living conditions of children that are likely to affect children's behaviour due to the negativity they impose on them (Sayre, et al, 2015; WHO, 2012; Allie, 2010). As one of the parents indicated, regarding the facility they sent their children to, the premises were poor as it was in somebody's garage thus not only was the hygiene compromised but also safety, leading to diminished physical activity as in such premises there was not enough space for children to develop. Another parent whose child also attended a low-quality centre indicated that the reason they enrolled their child there was the affordability of the centre.

“They weren't necessarily a better environment for the child to be in. But we only put the children there because, that was, they were much affordable for us financially but the facility wasn't very nice” (Parent 3)

Thus, despite the effort of ECD to uplift children's well-being, their family situation largely affects the exposure of children's experiences leading to either positive or negative influence on children's behaviour. Notable from the parents' voices is the fact that their family challenges compromise their children's outcomes. In this regard, Sayre, et al (2015) and Neadeau, et al (2011) recommended that ECD service should also extend to supporting parents through parent intervention programmes to empower them to improve on their children's behavioural wellness.

The higher the day centre physical environment's quality the better the conditions to facilitate better interactions of the child, their peers and the practitioners, consequently creating pathways for behaviour influence. The physical environment influences children's behaviour through the centre's educational, play materials, spatial organisation, and hygiene practices, making it easy for them to adapt to the centre's programmes and culture (Bigras, et al, 2010).



5.3.3.6 Sub-theme 3.6: Programme quality's influence on children's behaviour

A further factor that was evident from this study's results that has an influence on children's behaviour is day care centre programmes and their quality. Programmes in day care centres refers to curriculum and extramural activities that fuel interactions of children and practitioners influencing children's behaviour (Bigras, et al, 2010; Sylva, et al, 2011). The elements of quality programmes include childcare providers' warmth and sensitivity, their capacity to organise a physical and social environment that meets the needs of children in relation to their developmental level, and their positive interactions with children and parents (McWilliams, Ball, Benjamin, Hales, Vaughn & Ward, 2009). The centre's programmes attracted most parents to enrol their children at this particular centre. The centre's

programmes included swimming and fitness, learning other languages, lesson plans, play materials and the teaching aids that the practitioners use for child stimulation.

“The programme and the stuff, was quite good... They actually have activities that somehow I’d say, tame those energies coz they always divert them into activity that instead of doing things for the sake of doing them, the child actually learns.” (Parent 4)

“Like I found out there are swimming classes, they have fitness and fun, they had Xhoza lesson. I said no, he definitely must come to the school because he’s gonna learn more. You see. He’s gonna adapt to the big world. Yah he must explore the mind” (Parent 7)

“They’re able to colour in between the lines, they’re able to write... he is writing his name now, uh! ... they learn Xhoza, ... they like even with exercising, they more active coz they are doing fun and fitness.” (Parent 5)

The programmes of the centre are aimed at a developing the children’s holistic behaviour. They are stimulating to the child’s developmental domains. According to Burchinal, et al (2010), day care centre programmes are the indicators of quality of stimulation to children to prepare children’s developmental domains especially the cognitive and social skills for elementary school. Programmes are designed in a routine form that clarifies the specifics of each activity that they engage with:

“We follow a program. We work around the theme every week. how many children play with the sand and water and we’ll have to count how many have if we have uh! ... Language development during our program they talk to their friends. They have story time ... we have construction toys to develop their fine motor skill so that as part of the pre-writing they develop all those muscles in the fingers. We do art and creative work that is the big part of our program. And we also develop them emotionally ... we praise them, to build self-confidence, and socially they also paint and they painting and pasting and get next to their friends and this is how they communicate and then relate to their friends and they also socially develop. They also do some thinking to make decisions what colour they are going to paint, and how they are going to paint, and how they are going to use their paper when they get paper for creative work. So we also have music and

movement, where children must listen to songs and they must move like slow or fast...” (Practitioner 1)

In this quote, the practitioner is showing application of the holistic approach as per guideline recommendations for the programmes in the facility. As the practitioner explained, programmes have to be age appropriate in order to satisfy the developmental needs of children thereby positively influencing children’s behaviour. Winsler, et al (2008) found that school programmes are often primary mechanisms in policy that strategise curriculum to develop children’s behavioural skills. According to the ECD guidelines a quality programme should fulfil the developmental needs of children holistically as that capacitates children’s abilities positively (NICHD Study, 2006). However, between the care settings, it was found that most centres classified as high quality stimulated children’s cognitive and linguistic skills more than social and physical skills (Sylva, et al, 2007). Peisner-Feinberg (2007) and Winsler, et al (2008) found incorporation of ECD services in day care centres to be a positive influence mostly for disadvantaged children, and that experience of inadequacy of stimulation in the children’s developmental domains negatively affects children’s behaviour, exacerbating that of children from vulnerable backgrounds more. It is therefore, recommended that ECD policies pertaining to day care centre programmes must put more emphasis on equal service delivery for a strong foundation on children’s behaviour. In this regard, the study findings indicated that the day care centres' programmes are proximal as they engage both the child and the practitioner in a direct reciprocal relationship that is the structural feature of the day care centres.

Conversely, Sylva, et al (2007) argued that the quality of a holistic approach matters, as there are differences between high- and low-quality centres in their approach to this method of

teaching children. The authors furthermore showed that the difference is in respect of a practitioner-directed model that practitioners adopt in large groups. As a result, children's self-efficacy, confidence and capacity to make their own decisions is reliant on the practitioner that negatively affects children's independence, as opposed to small groups where teaching occurs in a more proximal manner, which allows children to have frequent access to informal teaching which enriched children's abilities. Smaller groups allow more child-directed activities. One of the parents indicated that smaller groups in which children groupings are in the new centre have made a huge difference on her child's behaviour.

“It has made a huge difference in his behaviour. He is more open to new things. He is learning more, his vocabulary started growing. That side it was just teaching him rhymes, necessary usual rhymes and stuff like that but he can see he is learning something... the moment we changed crèche he immediately changed... when he came here he must act formal. Coz this is a formal crèche because you must do this. ... There's the rules here “mos” he must change. I think the maturity also come in coz he is much clever for his age. He has a max open mind, so he knows, when he is doing something wrong, but then he will see what you gonna say about it. (Laughter) Always testing” (Parent 7)

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In the parent's view, in the previous centre that the child attended the curriculum was not quality as it focused on the usual content that children could even learn at home. In addition, in the current centre, they had a firmer and clearer curriculum that both practitioners and children had to follow. Brownlee, et al, (2007) substantiated the parent's view by identifying key components of quality childcare that they include such as adult availability, stimulation, firmness, warmth, autonomy, achievement and organised day care setting. In addition, Tucker, et al (2011), suggested that the effort of education that transpires in children's care centres has to be followed up at home to instil the desired children's behaviour thus between the two environments that encompass children there must be cooperation. Parents showed that they were impressed by the influence of the centre on their children's behaviour.

“I am impressed with my child since he’s been here so whatever they teach him here, I just basically add on to it. ... they have this book, the teacher-parent book. Then I can as a parent see what they’re teaching him in this week. So then at home then I would, say for instance, they are focusing on, like this week they are focusing on kitchen and the bedroom. Like pronounce those words. So, I will, at home use those words a lot so that not only at the crèche, you know, get those words but I also enforce it at home. And help them basically but we are helping each other in helping him catch up” (Parent 6)

It is evident that the programme's influence on children is dependent on both the home and day care environment denoting dual care influence on children's behaviour. However, it is not always a clear-cut case, as inconsistencies between the two environments have a negative influence on children's behaviour, as in the case where parents brought children late to day care.

“There are parents who bring children on time there are those that bring them late and they miss out on work that we start with at the time that we start school some children come late and they finish and they didn't get that work and some children are also upset about that, coz they say I didn't get my work...” (Practitioner 2)

Copeland, et al (2011) found that missing activities saddens children to the extent that they feel embarrassed and they get discouraged from participating, especially in peer activities, as those activities are likely to relate to what the child has missed. The authors continue to indicate that even though defects on cognitive behaviour may reflect later, the emotional difficulties reflect immediately. Therefore, if the programmes focus on cognitive and linguistic skills, it may be difficult to address the social challenges. Thus, there is still a long way to go in balancing the efficacy of ECD services in day care centres, as this requires more effort from the practitioners in implementing a holistic approach.

In the previous two themes, it is evident that children are receiving distinct influences on behaviour from both environments. The home environment's influencing factors are in uniformity of parenting practices and family background especially FSES and family structure. Parenting practices have a direct influence on children's behaviour compared to family context, which has an indirect influence. Day care centres' influencing factors include practitioner quality, type of day care centre, physical environment, ratio and programmes. Programmes in day care centres have a direct influence on children's behaviour as they increase interaction between children and practitioners. The next theme focuses on the combined influence of this environment on children's behaviour.



CHAPTER 6

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

DUAL CARE

6.1 Introduction

This chapter is a continuation of the results chapter. It focuses on answering objective two of this study, which explores the mechanisms used to assist children to adjust to dual care. This chapter explores how the combination of the two environments' (dual care and home) influences children's behaviour. The concept of dual care refers to the combination of home and day care centre environmental care. The overarching theory (bio-ecological theory) of this study views child development as evolving within various environmental contexts that are grouped as systems namely, micro-, meso-, exo-, macro – and chronological system (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Well-being of the environment pertains to quality and is incorporated in the discussion of introduction and support to dual care. Support is discussed in the next theme as the management of the effects of dual care. The findings of this study suggest that generally, dual care has a positive effect on children's behaviour. In line with this finding is the ecological theory, which views broadening the child's environment as inevitable due to the chronology of evolution and the dynamics incumbent in child development (Bronfenbrenner, 1994).

Three themes emerged for this objective, namely the (i) general perception about dual care, (ii) effects of the dual care influence and the (iii) management of children's behaviour in dual care.

6.2 Theme 4: General Perception of Dual Care

This theme provides a general description of the perception of dual care. The perceptions were from parents as they are the ones who bear primary responsibility for their child's care. Most parents were impressed by the positive change they see in their children since enrolment into dual care. Parents indicated that,

“Dual care, wow, well, the child here at crèche he learns a lot more than I have time to learn to teach him at home. So am, I'm totally pro (meaning fan of) for dual care ... I am impressed with my child since he's been here so whatever they teach him here, I just basically add on to it. I'm basically helping them and helping me so, yah! Something like that” (Parent 6)

According to the parent, parents and practitioners support each other in childcare. The motherly care that children receive at day care centres provides a sense of belonging in both environments especially as indicated in the previous chapter where dissimilarity in care have a negative influence on children's behaviour.

“I don't think the level of care is different because uhm! I think with these teachers at the school, they try to show the children, I don't know, if it's because they're mothers themselves. They take care of the children like they're almost as they're their own. so, I don't think there's confusion for them, between the type of care I give them and the one that the teacher gives them. They're feel a sense of belonging both at home and at the school” (Parent 3)

This perception about dual care implies that even though there may be differences in care, generally dual care increases children's abilities between their home and other environments. Home and day care centres are two constituents of the microsystem environment of the child as indicated in the bio-ecological theory (Bronfenbrenner, 2005; 1994; 1979). The principles that govern this theory explain that depending on the nature

and nurture qualities of the environments of the child, children's behaviour can be positively or negatively affected (Tudge, et al, 2009). Thus, depending on environmental well-being, children introduction, across their evolutionary journey and how the environment supports the child, are pathways to which behavioural influences are created. During this period of journeying, children experience effects, which relate to timing of exposure and support during the transition into dual care.

6.3 Theme 5: Effects of Dual Care on Child Behaviour

Effects are usually a result of change. Both parents and practitioners agree that children's behaviour is highly rooted at home more than at day care centres; change from home to day care centres makes children's behaviour susceptible to change (Rosa & Tudge, 2013). Changing children's care environment is bound to change their behaviour (Rosa & Tudge, 2013). The results of this study revealed that generally the effects of dual care on children's behaviour are positive. The positive effect is that dual care broadens the children's world by introducing them to different environments beyond home enabling them to develop skills and behaviours suitable to those environments. In line with this finding is the bio-ecological theory, which demonstrates that influences on children's development and behaviour are due to number of contexts grouped into systems (Tudge, et al, 2009). The results of this study further attested that the extent of effects of these contexts especially dual care on children's behaviour depended on the timing of the introduction into dual care and what is done during the transition into dual care till children are settled.

6.3.1 Sub-theme 5.1: Dual care timing's influence on children's behaviour

Timing refers to the onset of the commencement of dual care. The study results revealed that both children and parents experienced stress due to separation, a new environment, and unfamiliar people in the new environment. Parents' stress further stemmed from the fact that they did not know the practitioners or the centre well. During this initial time, this study found that children's age, readiness, maturity and previous exposure played a major role in enabling children to adjust to dual care. In support of this finding, both parents and practitioners mentioned that:

"Because they are in 4 – 5s they are more grown up they come happily they come they sit in... (Practitioner 4)

"You also get kids that settle in completely, their parents prepared them at home saying tomorrow you're going to school" (Practitioner 5)

"The eldest one, he was a lot more mature he understood he must stay a while mommy will pick him up later..." (Parent 1)

"When they come to my class they some of them have been to other 2 classes already so that's really good" (Practitioner 1)

Parents and practitioners indicated that children who settle in well were those that were mature enough to understand change, coupled with age, suggesting that older children had less negative reactions than younger children did. The participants further showed that children parents prepared before enrolment into the day care experience have less negative reactions as well as those who have previously been exposed to day care. This preparation or prior exposure decreases negative effects on their behaviour (Datler, et al, 2012).

However, with regard to age, one parent indicated that her younger child (baby) settled in better than the older siblings did. This view supported the conclusion in other studies, which

revealed that presence of siblings in the same day care contributes to minimising children's negative reactions thereby influencing their behaviour positively (Belsky, & Pluess, 2009; Belsky, et al, 2007). The comment of a parent also suggested that being older did not guarantee less negative reaction towards dual care.

“The older both cried the first time but baby settled in quickly” (Parent 5)

In addition to age difference, one of the practitioners added that:

“Some of the five year olds may be, never left the mum or grandma's sight so to be left with somebody that they don't even know it's (shaking her head with implication of trauma for the child)” (Practitioner 3)

Thus, the child may be older but they are not yet ready to expand to the broader environment. In this regards age's influence on children's reaction toward dual care has less influence and as a result. the child may still not settle in well. In the case presented by one of the practitioners, the child was age appropriate but nonetheless had separation anxiety that made them sick.

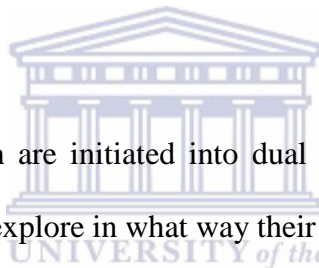
“I think in the beginning it's difficult for any child to let go of the mom to come to a new place, new people strangers.... There is one that had separation anxiety so severe that the child would get sick...the child was traumatised to come to school...” (Practitioner 5)

Notable on both practitioners' response is the element of trauma that children experience regarding separation despite their age. This suggests that children feel more attached to parents and their home environment, and are therefore not able to handle their emotions in unfamiliar contexts. Thus, separations threaten children's attachment leading to ineffectiveness of the concept of age in children's transition. However, the findings of

Ahnert, et al (2004) suggested that age should be coupled with type of attachment the child had developed with the parents in order to determine whether age has an effect or not. In their study Ahnert, et al (2004) found that age has a positive influence for children who have a secure attachment to their parents compared with that of children who have avoidant and ambivalent attachments to their parents.

Another practitioner's view on age and attachment showed that younger children remain more attached to the parents than older children, which exacerbated the risk of poor settling.

“Other classes usually 2 – 3 years old classes, they are still attached to parents because they don't know the environment and the teacher and they must get used to us...” (Practitioner 4)



This suggests that when children are initiated into dual care it is advisable for parents to consider the age of the child and explore in what way their children are attached to them so as to prepare themselves as to what ways will they use to assist the child to adjust to dual care without negatively influencing their behaviour. The attachment, which is synonymous to mutual relationships in bio-ecological theory, becomes the basis for children's adjustments in dual care (De Schipper, et al, 2008; Belsky, et al, 2007). As such, depending on how long children take to form relationships between themselves and the environment, their behaviour is likely to be influenced positively or negatively. The behaviour of children who settled in well was positively influenced while those who took long to bond in the new settings, displayed negative behaviours (Dartler, et al, 2012). One of the parents said:

“It's almost like that first week it's like trust we had with him was now breaking because your leaving me here with this people I don't know... he crew attached to them in a very short period of time. He's very attached to his teachers.... he listens to his teacher more now than he listens to his mother. I've lost my power slightly” (Parent 4)

Therefore, separating from parents threatens the attachment that children have with them thereby increasing the likelihood of negative behaviour in children, such as distrust. Children cried, screamed and clung to the parents, afraid of separation anxiety. Children experienced anxiety since they have always been within their home and now the new environment is overwhelming for them (Belsky & Pluess, 2009). During this separation, especially the first day or week is the most difficult time.

“The first day was very hard, I could see he was very hurt, he was screaming, I think the first week was tough because it was emotional...” (Parent 4)

“He’d start clinging and say oh! Mommy! And cry more and more” (Parent 2)

“The little one had trouble he cried a lot he was at home with me all the time but why (like the child didn’t understand why must the mother leave him here at crèche now)” (Parent 1)

“Especially those who come for the first time they cry, they have separation anxiety they wanna be with the parents” (Practitioner 2)

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As shown by the children’s reactions, it is clear that children experience fear and stress during the transition into dual care. Stress is usually associated with poor behaviour outcomes especially if its management is poor (Belsky, et al, 2007). During this emotional event, children tend to develop new behaviours as a way of coping with stress, such as biting of nails and begging parents.

“He was crying a lot. He learned the habit, I think it was his way of trying to deal with anxiety...because he got the habit of biting his nails, but I think it was his coping mechanism, but I’m working on that... “coz I mean for two years he has been with the nanny and me but now he’s with this new environment, surroundings, lot of kids so ... Yah!”(Parent 6)

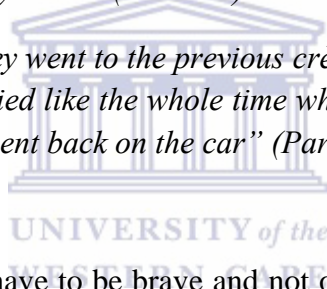
“I think it was cultural shock, the different environment that he was in....and he would come to me (persuading the mother) and say mommy please I am not brave

enough, please don't take me to school again and the next morning he would wake up crying telling me again he is not brave..." (Parent 4)

According to the bio-ecological theory, as new environment affects children, they derive meanings that enable them to develop the behaviours that suit that environment. However, these behaviours are usually negative and require adults around the child to redirect them (Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Harkonen, 2007). Nonetheless, parents have shown to need support regarding their reactions to dual care. Most parents reported having had difficulty to adjust to separation.

"I felt like I wanted to stay there" (Parent 4)

"For the first time that they went to the previous crèche that first day was difficult for me... I actually just cried like the whole time when I was in the car, but not in front of them but when I went back on the car" (Parent 3)



However, at the same time they have to be brave and not out act their anxiety in front of the child, assuming that if they do so it will terrify the child even more. Parents' difficulty was mainly due to vague knowledge of the person they are leaving their children with since they had always up to then left them with people familiar to children such as their own parents.

"it's mostly difficult for the parents. ... to leave coz may be they don't know this new person that gonna look after my child. I don't know the person; I've just met with the person. But for us teachers, I think we get used as the years go" (Practitioner 3)

"because before that my mother used to take care of them so this was gonna be the first time that they're in care of someone I didn't know. I didn't know that person personally. So, that day when we dropped them at the school...Argh man (showing remorse)" (Parent 3)

On this first day however, the practitioners' indicated that they experienced less anxiety since they are frequently exposed to handling children's and parents' anxieties. Hence, parents entrust responsibility of managing the reactions of children's transition with the practitioners (Lowry & Hanen, 2012). The first day becomes hectic for the practitioners due to high demand of managerial skills during children's transition.

6.3.2 Sub-theme 5.2: Transition influence on children' behaviour

In this sub-theme the focus is on exploring how children were assisted to settle as they reacted to their exposure to dual care and how their behaviour was affected. Transition refers to the period of settling in day care since enrolment. During this period this study results demonstrate that parents and practitioners explained to children the importance of dual care; they kept consistency in time of fetching their children, praised children and redirected their attention from the stress by giving them activities, which enable children to settle in well. The first and foremost step in assisting children's transition as agreed by parents and practitioners to be that preparation of children is helpful to encourage and instil understanding of dual care.

“They must like prepare them beforehand. To say this is happening. In the New Year you're going to crèche. You're going to meet new children, there's now teachers and that's how they will understand it better, coz some children will think mama's leaving me here, she's not coming back. That's some children's fear” (Parent 1)

“You also get kids what settle in completely. ...their parents prepared them at home, saying tomorrow you're going to a new school. There's a few of them that can tell you why exactly they come here” (Practitioner 5)

Informing children about dual care prior to initiation allows them time to understand the approaching change, in some way lessening the impact of shock. In preparing them, parents and practitioners explain to children the similarities of home and day care centres.

“I explained to him what teacher’s role is, and how they will care for him same like his mama.” (Parent 4)

“I teach them, you come here to learn, to play and to grow and to share with your friends just like at home” (Practitioner 5)

During this explanation, parents and practitioners assure children of drop-off and pick-up times:

“I told the little one, I told him that crèche is not where mummy will leave you there. I come back pick you up when crèche’s out. The crying went away. I explained to him every day when he came out of crèche what’s the next day’s gonna happen and then he say “ok mommy is fine” (Parent 1)

“They (teachers) are very helpful that way because they take him, then they go outside and show him stuff outside and then just tell him that no, mommy will come later or “aupa” [grandfather] will come later to fetch you so then he’s calm” (Parent 7)

The fact that parents consistently fetched children from the centre allowed children to realise that it was another place to be in their parent’s absence, which allowed them to settle in well in time. According to Shonkoff, et al (2012), the frequency of occurrence of change is what influences children’s behaviour allowing children positively to settle in. Another factor that was important in explaining to children was the comparison of care between home and day care on the role of the adult figures that stand in the parent’s absence. Hence, explaining to the child frequently while taking him to the day care centre calmed them down in away bringing no influence on their usual behaviour but rather improving them (Dowsett, et al, 2008).

Again, parents agreed to rely on practitioners in managing children's reactions in some way putting both parents and children at ease that they are in good care.

"When the child gets sob and crying and mommy leaves, the teachers jump in to say, 'ok I am here'" (Parent 1)

*"Teacher *Nikki sent me a message and I were like happy they're fine. I shouldn't worry and then I was at ease knowing that they are fine and they will look after them" (Parent 5)*

"So, I just had to be strong and say goodbye and walk away. It was me working with the teachers" (Parent 2)

The practitioner's intervention in calming the children acted as the catalyst to buffering parents' concerns about care of their children. This intervention had a positive effect on parents, which indirectly affected the children's behaviour positively. This finding corresponds with Pirchio, et al, (2013) that positive effect on the parent-practitioner partnerships transmits to the child, indirectly allowing positive influence of the behaviour to adjust to day care.

During the intervention and care for children the practitioner engaged children in activities that diverted their attention from stressful events by giving them puzzles and playing with them a little. They also comforted them by giving them individualised attention, love and warmth by keeping physical contact with the child. The NICHD study found that the extent of care providers' responsiveness to children's needs is attributable to positive influence on children's behaviour (NICHD Study, 2006).

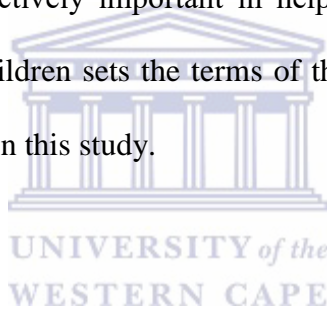
"What we usually do is will take them form the parents and we will take them with us and we will comfort them usually let them sit next to me. Little puzzle or something to keep them busy just to take their attention away from the parents so

that the parent can leave...just play with them a little. We give them extra love just for that moment and then after a while we would like give them their work that they do in the morning then they be settled in for the day” (Practitioner 4)

“There are some that are crying every morning and sometimes we just put them on our laps and talk to them now or give them a toy to play with just to calm them down” (Practitioner 1)

“We receive them in that loving one on one manner, we pick them up...good morning how are you? Each gets that individualised attention” (Practitioner 5)

The practitioners’ responsiveness is usually associated with high quality known to influence children’s behaviour positively as opposed to unresponsive care that is associated with low quality care as such adversely affecting children’s behaviour (De Schipper, et al, 2008). The practitioner’s qualities are distinctively important in helping children to settle down. The manner in which they receive children sets the terms of their interactions with them, which shows to be positive interactions in this study.



Furthermore, practitioners used praise to manage children’s reactions to motivate them to become eager to come back to day care.

“It’s all about praising the child, good morning how are you, am glad you’re here, can you please come back tomorrow... I think it all about praising the child with star to come in with the smile in the face, they get a star coz you’ve been you’ve been a star today, so it motivates the child to come back again coz they know if I come back tomorrow then I am going to get a star or sticker or anything” (Practitioner 3)

Praise is one of the ongoing management tactics for negative reactions towards day care centres until the children were fully settled (Self-Guide Learning Package, 2011). In helping children to settle in, parents and practitioners differed. Practitioners believed in abrupt separation instead of staying a little while in the facility. Abrupt separation eased the

intervention strategies of practitioners (de Schipper, et al, 2008). It required collaboration of the parents and practitioners as practitioners said that:

“We speak to the parents. They must leave the child. They mustn’t stay there ... while the child is crying and this make our task a little more difficult so we ask them to go just give them a hug a kiss and go and we will now try to calm them down, speak to them and take them outside” (Practitioner 1)

“I hold and pat them but what I tell the parents is when the parents is with the child the long they are around the more the traumatic with the separation, so what they must do is to say their good bye in the car, make their kisses and hugs. If they come here, it’s gonna be better for the child to adjust to settle in coz if they stay like half an hour that child hardly or is never gonna settle in.” (Practitioner 2)

According to practitioners, the abrupt separation allows children to settle in more quickly than if the parent stays trying to calm the child. Parents’ presence delays children’s adjustment, gives false hope to the child that the parent will stay and cause delays in stress subsiding. However, in other countries policies recommend that to lessen children’s dramatic responses, parents should stay with the child at the day care, reduce time spent gradually till the child is use to it and then leave (Belsky, et al, 2007). Prolonged exposure to stressful events is associated with feelings of insecurity, which in turn are associated with poor behavioural adjustments by affecting children’s competency to deal with stress brought about by changes in their lives (Bennett, 2011). It also affects the child’s self-control associated with confidence and independence thereby increasing reliance on the parent (Copeland, et al, 2011).

On the other hand, parents encouraged children at home by using their friends at school to manage children’s reactions.

“There’s your friends for you to play with. They can communicate to children and play with them. And there’s teacher there to look after them, you understand?” (Parent 1)

“I explained to him the importance of him going to school and growing and having friends” (Parent 4)

“I always just try to encourage them that no, its fine, you’re gonna see your friends and stuff” (Parent 3)

As parents use friends in encouraging children’s transition into dual care, they recognise the importance of peer interactions and how it contributes positively to children’s development (Winsler, et al, 2008). In addition to parent strategies for managing children’s reactions, another parent’s view was gradual introduction of the child to day care. In this case, the parent used time spent in day care to manage her child’s reactions:

“...because it was his first day and he was a bit of emotional then, we let him stay half day. And then every day after that my husband used to fetch him an hour later until it got to the half-past four mark. So, that he get used to and he gradually instilled into staying up to half-past four. So, we didn’t just start out buy a full day. by the time it got to a full day, he was used to place and he loved it” (Parent 4)

This view of the parent (gradual introduction) is in line with the practice in Sweden that for children’s better adjustment, towards the lapse of maternity leave, the parent is advised to stay in the centre with the child so that they get used to the new environment together (Janon, 2011). This practice has shown to decrease negative behaviour as it reduces the traumatic feelings in children, parent and the practitioner and rather allows the triad to get to know each other better and formed the basis for good relationships (De Schipper, et al, 2008). Though in Sweden the practice is especially for younger children, it can be adopted even for older

children who have always been in the parent's care. Thus, time is important in managing children's reactions towards day care.

6.4 Theme 6: Management of Children's Behaviour in Dual Care

Change of environment inevitably posits change on individual behaviour especially that of children leading to the need for behaviour management. The findings of this study suggest that discipline, relationships and duration in dual care were management strategies towards influencing children's behaviour in dual care. In addition, uniformity, stability and consistency of exposure to these strategies in dual care are the most influential factors in children's behaviour. These findings are substantiated by the NICHD Study (2006) which found that depending on the management of children's transition between the two environments, children's behaviour can be positively or negatively influenced. Furthermore, Bigras, et al, (2010) suggests that the management of behaviour changes vests on the processes that occur in dual care with the view that uniformity and stability of the processes positively influence children's behaviour especially discipline, relationship and duration in this environment. In support of the main theme, the following section discusses these process as the sub-themes.

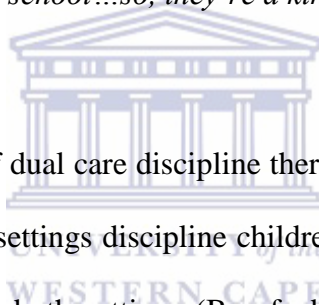
6.4.1 Sub-theme 6.1: Influence of discipline in dual care on children's behaviour

Zolotor, et al (2011) is of the opinion that discipline both at home and in day care centres plays a major role in approving or disapproving acceptable or unacceptable behaviour of children. The study results generally indicate that dual care discipline influences children's behaviour positively especially when it is uniform. In practicing uniformity in child's discipline enables children's adjustment to dual care despite the major influence from the

home environment consequently triggering positive affection to both environments. Parents as primary influencing adults report using the comparison of behaviour similarities to influence children's behaviour in dual care. There must be collaboration between parents and practitioners that enables a uniform way of disciplining children. Evident from other parents is that they always try to bring in similarities of the two settings in order to maintain uniformity of discipline and expectations on children's behaviour.

"I try to tell them this is what you learn at school. So, we doing the same at home, so whatever you do at school you do it here" (Parent 9)

"I told them but this's not right. ... Home is not different from what you do at crèche there's time when we do our homework, when I give you playing time and when you must go to bed. So, that they understand that when they're at home they know what they must do at school...so, they're a kind of balanced? (Parent 5)



The uniformity and similarities of dual care discipline therefore are dependent on how and in what ways adult figures in these settings discipline children. Subsequently, this models their behaviour to suit expectations in both settings (Bronfenbrenner, 1995). In this regard, the influence of discipline in dual care rests on parents and practitioners' collaboration. Parents indicated that:

"As a parent you set that standard when you decide to have children, you're not bringing the child in the world for you, its' you must raise them to be fitting in with everybody else not just yourself... we don't want to be shouting don't do that don't do this we must be able to walk comfortably in somebody's house and our children are gonna behave. ..." (Parent 8)

"What does the parents do at home and the people look at us, and say ok your child is out of line don't you discipline the child at home?" (Parent 9)

Parents relate discipline more to social conduct behaviour which is displayed by the manner in how they are disciplined at home. There is a consensus of several studies that discipline

remains the major responsibility of parents as the primary stimulator of children's abilities (Baker, 2014; Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Flaskerud, 2011; Self-Guide Learning Package, 2011). Therefore, children's behaviour foundation depends on the parents' support and the day care centres just extend what parents have started regarding their children's acceptable behaviour.

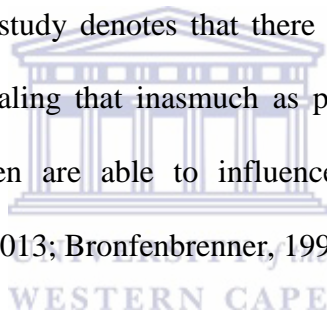
Following the roots of discipline (home environment) the study results further reveal that methods of discipline that both parents and practitioners adopt are diverse and can be grouped as democratic, autocratic and laissez-faire ways of child discipline (Flaskerud, 2011). These methods influence children's behaviour depending on how parents and practitioners adopt them. Democratic methods include those methods in which parents and practitioners reason with the child about what they have done wrong, in a way instilling understanding and inducing competence in the same situation should the child face it again (Self-Guide Learning Package, 2011). They include reasoning, reminding, repeating and reprimanding children.

"I tell them what they did wrong coz if they did it they then don't understand how wrong so you sit with them and tell them this is why you were punished. This is what you did wrong, we don't like it... Even if we had a chat I'll just remind him that you don't do that if you want something you can't go around shouting you need to ask there's ways to do things if you want to get something and sometimes" (Parent 8)

"if we are busy with activity on the carpet and they don't want to act or something like that... we speak to them but they must first apologise then we... let them back to the carpet and do the activity with others" (Practitioner 4)

"Especially with the smaller ones the 3 – 4-year-old you repeat every day the same things and after 3 weeks you see the difference. They start to remember at school, I must behave like this, I must interact like this, hopefully, and they take that home. Coz sometimes the child educates the parent at home, all what you teach in class. When you want something you ask, may I have.... you know small discipline manners" (Practitioner 5)

Participants indicate that they speak to the child while the incident is still new so that the child understands where they have gone wrong. These are verbally moderate disciplinary methods that parents and practitioners adopt in dual care and are democratic. Addressing unacceptable behaviour on the spot has shown to be an effective measure especially with children. Due to their short memory span they are likely to forget if adults take long to address the situation (Berk, 2003). And usually children apologise, as a reflection an understanding their wrongdoing and/or effectiveness of the disciplinary measure. The participants further indicated that children learn from adults' disciplinary behaviour and as such, they reverse the same disciplinary methods when they feel unjustly treated as indicated by Parent 8. The theory of this study denotes that there is a reciprocal influence between adults and children thereby revealing that inasmuch as parents and practitioners influence children's behaviour, so children are able to influence how parents and practitioners discipline them (Rosa & Tudge, 2013; Bronfenbrenner, 1994; 1979).



The quotes also reveal that in disciplining children, adults who adopt democratic means of discipline tend to be patient with children as they consistently repeat corrective measures. Consistency helps to reinforce discipline until behaviour is changed (Zolotor et al, 2011). In line with this finding, is the study of Morrill, et al (2010) who found that repetition in disciplining of children facilitates gradual growth of self-concept and decision-making, consequently allowing children to become competent in their responses. Johnson (2008) asserts that explaining and reasoning with the child reduces misinterpretation of children's behaviour, which builds on children's ability to show competence in behaviour regulation.

Conversely, parent's perception differs from that of the practitioner in that, parents escalate behaviour methods on one misdemeanour especially if the child does not change behaviour, whereas practitioners stick to one disciplinary action until the behaviour is changed. According to Conger, et al (2010), children seem to listen to practitioners as opposed to parents, due to consistency in the decided disciplinary measures. The authors added that children read parental escalation as inconsistency and as such persist in misbehaving until the parent gives up thinking there are no other effective discipline measures. Most parents reported their children are leaning to the most lenient disciplining adult especially within home environment.

“For me there must be one parent that is strict both can't be soft. And say like do this can't do that and the one parent is like both soft and when they come to the child not listening to the parent, they're just doing their own things. For me there must be one parent that must be hard and there must be one parent that keep them in line, to say what you're doing is wrong. If you get a hiding, I explain to you why you got the hiding because the things that you do is not right. You understand? So the soft parent will say ok leave the child's still small, but it don't work like” (Parent 1)

This study's results indicated that beyond verbal discipline, physical methods of discipline include time-out and withholding of treats. These methods are moderate physical methods of discipline (Self-Guide Learning Package, 2011). Time-out is a disciplinary technique that involves placing children in a very boring place like a naughty corner or chair for several minutes following unacceptable behaviour (Zolten & Long, 2006). Corresponding to this finding is the NICHD Study (2006) and ECD Guidelines RSA (2006) that in ECD, children's discipline must not be with the intention to inflict pain but rather to guide them to distinguish competently the consequences of their actions.

“And if they did something wrong, I leave them in the isolation corner and they stand there for ten to twenty minutes till I told him ok, ... Or, I leave them like alone in the lounge and I keep busy in the kitchen” (Parent 1)

“The bad behaviour, I got a timeout system here. We have the naughty chair if they misbehave they sit on the naughty chair and it according to the age. So, the two year old, they sit for two minutes on the naughty chair but for them it’s a lifetime.” (Practitioner 2)

Both parents and practitioners show that they employed the time-out system, specifying time according to the age of the child. At home, parents usually become inconsistent with time specification as it depends upon the extent of unacceptable behaviour being treated. It indicates that inconsistencies harbour problematic behaviour as the child assumes the parent is not assertive (Self-Guide Learning Package, 2011). Heritage Management Committee (2009) is of the opinion that the child's respect for time-out needs to be rewarded as good behaviour and disrespect of it as bad behaviour in which parents have to reset the time spent in isolation until the child obeys the rules of time-out. Time-out has been shown to be effective in decreasing various behaviour problems such having temper tantrums, destroying objects/toys, not following directions and hurting others (Self-Guide Learning Package, 2011).

Withholding treats, removing children from activities that they like such as games and removing their toys is another method that both parents and practitioners used to discipline children.

“But what I’ve done, which I think is effective is withholding treats from them. I will though, that is the form of punishment if I can put it in inverted commas. So, then they know they shouldn’t be doing that.” (Parent 9)

“Also what they do they like playing with something and then they misbehave you take that toy away, uh and sadness that’s the worst you can do (laughter). It’s torture ...” (Practitioner 2)

According to the participants, these methods have shown to be more effective than spanking, threatening and scolding at the children, which are methods of discipline characteristic of autocratic discipline. Autocratic discipline is associated with harsh ways of discipline which induces fear rather than understanding of what was done wrong (Flaskrud, 2011).

“I always threaten to tell their teacher if they don’t listen (broke into laughter). They start to listen. Coz they don’t want the teacher to know that they were naughty or whatever” (Parent 3)

*“I would explain how he listens to his teacher *Penny he needs to listen to his mommy the same way. Because if teacher *Penny finds out that he does not listen to his mommy he will also get punished. So I go to use it. ...But he is quite afraid of his father. So, if he speaks, he is back in line. Yes, so I’ve lost my power slightly but I’m working on it” (Parent 4)*

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In these quotes, parents indicate that in correcting their children’s unacceptable behaviour, they use people whom children fear more than them and it has shown to be effective as children are back in line. This is however due to fear. Children are usually afraid of the practitioners and fathers since fathers and practitioners are distant to the child compared to the mother (Allen & Daly, 2007). Despite the effectiveness of threatening, it is a disapproved disciplinary method due to conditioning behaviour influence. Threatening induces fear in children and as a result, children’s behaviour becomes conditioned that when there is no fear emerging from their deeds, the behaviour is approved (Berk, 2003). Nonetheless, threatening is one method used in extreme behavioural problems in a way to tame the wild behaviour to prepare the child to be attentive to the explanation of the parents. Furthermore, practitioners indicate that there were children who had no discipline i.e. they were disobedient despite

efforts to help redirect their behaviour, thus they have been exposed to laissez-faire discipline.

“That (environment change) place a huge impact on their behaviour because there is parents that don’t discipline their kids, they spoil their children. The child cries for something they get it when they shouldn’t or not. They just get it and that has the big influence when they come to school. They like cry for everything as well and here they cannot just get what they want when they want it. There is a time and place for everything and that is what we teach them here, to have structure so that has a big impact as the parents don’t discipline about things. They make understand about their behaviour, they well behaved as well” (Practitioner 2)

Children exposed to laissez-faire discipline have greater difficulty in adapting to structured routines in day care centres. On the other hand, practitioners blame parents for their absenteeism since it exposes children’s poor self-discipline, as parents are not there to guide them. Based on the view that the home environment has more influence on children’s behaviour, practitioners on the other hand dispute the parent’s ideas that due to a busy life parents leave children unattended at home resulting in problematic behaviours when children come to a place where there are rules and routine. From the practitioner’s point of view, parental absenteeism at home and less attention exposes children to poor behavioural adjustments.

Parents shift their responsibility of discipline to the practitioner without realising that children are more passionate about what they learn at home than at day care centres. The bio-ecological system theory states that the home environment as the primary source of stimulation of children’s behaviour provides the skills and basics of behaviour that children execute in contexts beyond home (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). As day care centres are secondary contexts of children, what happens in day care centres require backup by parents to instil it.

The theory therefore identifies both parents and practitioners as equally responsible adults without diminishing the proximity of the home environment. Regardless of whether the child spends more time in day care centres the proximity of parents will always exceed that of practitioners yet methods of discipline will always be in place. Dual care discipline generally has a positive influence on children's behaviour especially when both parents and practitioners adopt similar disciplinary measures. However, differences in discipline expose children to problematic behaviour.

6.4.2 Sub-theme 6.2: Influence of relationships in dual care on children's behaviour

The results revealed that the relationship between home and day care centre environment is crucial in influencing children's behaviour. This relationship of dual care environments is critical to influencing children's behaviour as it formulates trust and security for the developing child (Dartle, et al, 2012). In both environments children look up to adults for care, use them as a secure base for stimulating their developmental domains, and consequently influence children's behaviour positively (Belsky & Pluess, 2009). Warren (2013) found that the relationship within the dual care environment represents the mesosystem of the bio-ecological theory. In this theory, Bronfenbrenner indicates that the microsystem constitutes more than one structure that interlinks with other structures. The interlink consequently influences children's behaviour as children stay between these two structures namely home and day care centre (Rosa & Tudge, 2013). One of the practitioners substantiated this claim:

"I'm their mother, here am their mother. I'll take them, hold them, you know. We first make an attempt, give them a lot of love and security and affection. Ok, they feel, I'm in the safe place, I am cared for and then we will start with care like that" (Practitioner 2)

In day care centre, practitioners are children's second parents and as such create a homely environment for children. The responsibility to help children adjust rests more with the practitioner, as they are the responsible people in the new environment and need to help children manage their responses to the new environment (Ahnert, et al, 2004). However, the theory indicates that the two structures must share the responsibility equally in an attempt to stabilise and provide uniformity between the two environments (Edghill, 2011).

Kaakinen, et al (2010) proposed that the relationship of the two environments influence children's behaviour especially that children conceive their coexistence as mutually interdependent. The mesosystem enables a cross-influence of microsystem structures on children's behaviour through its connectivity of the structures (Kaakinen, et al, 2010). The cross-influence that the two environments have then osmotically transmits positive or negative effects, depending on the environment's quality, onto the child, subsequently influencing children's behaviour. Dartle, et al, (2012) indicated that casual meetings between parents and practitioners, as the adult figures within home and day care centres respectively, are the mechanisms that fuel stability and uniformity within care environments. The authors further indicated that these meetings allow information sharing that improves the uniformity of interactions both at home and at day care centres. In support of these authors, participants in this study indicated that they work as a team to enable a reciprocal relationship between themselves.

“You see teachers assist me and I must assist them. We must be cooperative team, teamwork. So if they tell me for example the child needs attention to this and that, I must do that. It's a reciprocal duty towards each other” (Parent 2)

“And the fact that they actually took it up to me says they're actually focusing on your child, you know what am saying, they can tell you that your child's

behaviour has changed. What is happening at home that we are a bit concerned co its now happening here at school. ... I am a bit concerned that your son or your daughter is not okay. You know that was also classful and because I get to speak to this staff I can see that they are actually doing that” (Parent 8)

Notable from these quotations is the understanding that both parents and practitioners have regarding the reciprocal state of affairs that must exist, as they are both involved in childcare (Johnson, 2008). Parents and practitioners’ understanding helps to create a conducive environment that enables discussions about something that is arising in the children’s behaviour and subsequently make suggestions that can help to improve such behaviour.

Parent and practitioner collaboration is important for the positive effect that it transmits consequently improving children’s behaviour (Dartle, et al, 2012). Results from the study of Pirchio, et al (2013) indicated that parents' and practitioners' discussions are helpful to minimise animosity in childcare and leads to parents and practitioners being able to introduce the same information into children’s, learning activities and discipline.

The mutual connection that children develop between the two settings enables them to interact easily with the adult figures. These interactions are proximal influencers on children’s behaviour as they enable a reciprocal feedback between child and adult figures (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2005). Stable relationships coupled with uniform rules aid children’s interactions subsequently creating pathways of influence on behaviour. As such, it is crucial for children to receive equal attention from both sides of their care. When there is a balanced parent-practitioner relationship, it enhances parent-child relationships due to the set expectations. Parental involvement in school activities is associated with increased positive effects on children as it allows mutual emotional connection that helps parents to identify

both good and bad behaviours emerging because of dual care. The emotional connection also exists in day care centres between practitioners and children allowing gradual adjustments to the new environment.

Practitioners' relationship with one another is very crucial in the day care centre. Pirchio, et al (2013) indicated that a conducive working environment helps to retain practitioners in the centre. As a result, children are able to bond with the practitioners leading to positive influence on their behaviour. The bio-ecological theory indicates that emotional connection is the influencing factor in the meso-system as its existence determines the extent to which parents and practitioners influence children's behaviour (Lewthwaite, 2011; Adamsons, et al, 2007). Further evident in the bio-ecological theory is that this emotional connection beyond home creates more complex interconnection. In this study, children connect with parents, practitioners, peers at home and day care centres, and their siblings, all of which have an influence on each other's behaviour.

6.4.3 Sub-theme 6.3: Influence of duration in dual care on children's behaviour

The findings of these study revealed that the period of exposure to dual care is also another effective way in managing children's behaviour. The period of exposure refers to time spent in the dual care environment denoting duration. According to Table 1, on average children spend a maximum of 8 hours per day for two years at the centre while the rest of the time, approximately 16 hours per day is spent at home. At the onset of exposure, children usually have drastic behaviours, which decrease over time as they realise that their life is now between the two environments (Pirchio, et al, 2013). Parents and practitioners indicated that

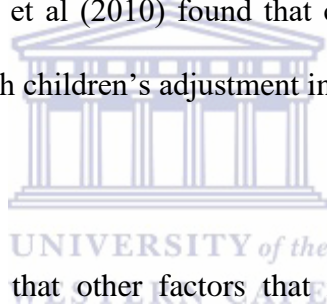
at the outset of dual care children usually cried for a few hours, for two days, a week or a month but as the exposure became consistent children's drastic reaction decreases.

"The middle one took a while. The first, he probably took the first two days and then he was fine after that." (Parent 5)

"So, what I can tell you from that first month after he had adapted to the school ...he no longer wanted to be at home even when he is sick" (Parent 4)

"Some usually just cry like for few minutes and then they settle in like (indicating simple adjustments) but there is children that take a while." (Practitioner 4)

The length of time spent in dual care, results in a decrease in children's drastic reactions towards dual care. There is thus a positive effect on children's behaviour. The studies of Belsky, et al, (2007) and Maggi, et al (2010) found that children's reactions decrease over time and this is a positive link with children's adjustment into dual care.



In addition, this study revealed that other factors that reduce drastic behaviour include children's previous experiences:

"Some usually just cry...That's usually in the other classes. But like I said our classes are the one with the much older (returning children) so, we don't have a lot of crying and things like that, trouble. I can say we have very peaceful class here" (Practitioner 4)

In the instance explained by Practitioner 4 being older and a returning child, plays a crucial role in enabling children's adjustment towards dual care. This is evident in the practitioner's comparison of the older and younger children's reaction to day care centre. In this regard, the children's being older comes with a sense of maturity. In this sense, the developmental theories show that around 3–6 years, children develop a sense of control over their emotions and in becoming responsible of how to react to new situations (Berk, 2003). As such, their

maturity stimulates their resilient ability allowing them to maintain equilibrium despite the challenges posed by being in the new environment. In time, children got used to the change that has occurred in their life. Shonkoff, et al (2012) added that reality of change surfaces due to frequency of exposure as it allows sinking in of reality of existence. This leads to a change in children's behaviour that enables parents and practitioners to realise in what way they have adjusted to change.

Moreover, the study reveals that difference in children's adjustments is due to their character.

*"*Zee, it was about the first week after. She was fine. But for the other one, it took about two weeks to be fine. But she was still a bit shy. But after that she started to talk more and become comfortable more with people." (Parent 3)*

"the eldest... he still takes a little of time to warm up to people before he is comfortable and he goes out to go and play with other children or coz he does his own thing if its unfamiliar places in that" (Parent 5)

Between these children, as parents describe them, shyness and copying are behaviours stemming from the child's character. When they are in unfamiliar places, they shy away and take time to familiarise, thus take time to adjust, while others will copy behaviours to fit into the new environment increasing the rapid adjustment therefore prediction of positive behaviour depending on how the environment approves and disapproves of the copied behaviour (Belsky & Pluess, 2009).

This study results furthermore indicate that day care re-attendance is another reason that enables children's adjustment towards dual care, consequently enabling a positive effect on

their behaviour, as they are already familiar with the place if not the same day care, but the culture around day care centres.

“Well some adjust quickly because they were in this school but the new ones take two to three weeks to adjust to the routine in the class, some of them don’t even cry even when the new ones come in...” (Practitioner 1)

These reasons are in line with the findings of Conger, et al (2010) who found that children use several ways to adjust to the broadening environment. Children’s past experiences with regard to re-attendance and siblings’ presence enables easy adjustment to dual care, lowering the effect of debilitating reactions. As a result, the influence of stress on their behaviour is minimised.



Parents and practitioners then were certain that children had adjusted through their behaviour.

For example:

“He’s eager to come to school in the morning, because if he wasn’t, I think he would have cried and said I didn’t wanna go to school” (Parent 2)

“They didn’t cry anymore. They are always talking about the teachers and their friend that they wanna go there and that’s what not they had with the other crèche. They didn’t like, ever say they wanna go there.... I’d say the quality is much better coz even simple things the amount of teacher that are per class” (Parent 3)

“They start adapting to class routine... some children come late and ... they didn’t get that work and some children get also upset about that, coz they say I didn’t get my work. We talk to the parents we ask them, they can bring them early so that the children can get the stimulation before we start the classes” (Practitioner 1)

The adjustment behaviours notable from the parents and the ECDPs responses are that children became eager to go back to the centre, talked about their teachers and friends; they adapt to the class routine and get upset when they miss activities. These responses show a positive aspect of adjustment and as such predict positive influence on children's behaviour. It is important for parents and practitioners to be critically observant and knowledgeable in nurturing children's behaviour and as such know the attributes of positive behaviours and their consequences and that of negative behaviours (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). At this level of child development (early childhood) this responsibility rests more with parents than the practitioners as they are the most prominent people in laying a strong and good foundation for children's future (ECD Guidelines RSA, 2006).



CHAPTER 7

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

The role that day care centres and the home environment have on the behaviour of children during early childhood development was the aim of this study. A qualitative methodological approach, which is based on exploring, describing and understanding the depth of meaning of individual experiences from their point of view (Watkins 2010; Denzin, 2009; Given, 2008) was employed to achieve the aim. Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 presented and discussed the research findings, which answered the research question: *What is the perception of the role of day care centres and home environment on the behaviour of children during early childhood development?*



The study's two objectives:

- to explore the factors that influence children's behaviour towards day care centres and home environment during ECD
- to explore the ways that day care centres and home environment use to assist children adjust to dual care;

were accomplished in achieving the aim of the study and answering the research question.

The collected data, obtained from the various participants were analysed, from which **six** main themes. Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 presented and discussed the themes integrating literature and theory to substantiate, explain, compare and contrast the findings of this study.

Chapter 7 a brief summary of each of the previous chapters, as well as conclusions and recommendations from the findings.

7.2 Summary of the Study

This section of the study provides a brief account of all chapters.

7.2.1 Chapter 1

Chapter 1 provides a blueprint and outline of the study by discussing the study's rationale, which provides the backup of the study to explore the role of home and day care centres environment on children's behaviour, during early childhood. Bio-ecological system theory, theoretical framework underpinning this study substantiates the study purpose and supports the rationale of this study. The research question, aim and objectives were formulated following the problem statement. This chapter also briefly discussed qualitative research methodology, which was utilised to meet the study aim. This method is suitable in seeking the meaning and understanding of participants' experiences regarding the explored phenomenon

7.2.2 Chapter 2

In Chapter 2, discusses in detail bio-ecological system theory, which is the theoretical framework overarching the study. The overarching theory of this study shows that environment(s) that engulf children influence their behaviour. In the process of helping children reach their full potential, their context needs are broadened, letting them develop skills that help them to survive beyond the home environment. According to the ECD aim, which uses a holistic approach in developing children's behaviour, the theory emphasises that

the high quality of processes, stability and uniformity involved in dual care are predictive of acceptable behaviour of children and low quality is predictive of challenging behaviours of children.

7.2.3 Chapter 3

Literature review, which is Chapter 3, was compiled to explore the available evidence regarding the study topic. Previous research in relation to the study concepts helps to provide relevant insight on how home and day care centres influence children's behaviour. In this chapter, the concepts included early childhood development and its role in child development. This concept focused on children's developmental domains namely physical, social, cognitive and communicative which were discussed involving the holistic approach adopted in implementing ECD services to uplift children's livelihoods. Behaviour as the major factor explored in this study has been placed in between the environments of home and day care centres, which are the closest settings that children interact with during early childhood. Within these environments common attributes, which affect the extent of influencing children's behaviour, are attachment, quality of care and discipline. The literature furthermore indicated that there is a need to explore the joint influence of these two environments on children's behaviour during early childhood development.

7.2.4 Chapter 4

Chapter 4 presented the study methodology, with a qualitative approach and an explorative and descriptive research design. Sampling methods used to recruit participants were purposive- and snowball sampling. The sample included parents and practitioners who were interviewed on a one-on-one basis using in-depth semi-structured interview questions. The

interviews were verbatim transcribed and analysed using Tesch thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is a cluster method in qualitative research that focuses on identifying patterned meaning through the dataset. Credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability enabled data verification. Furthermore, the researcher used reflexivity to eliminate bias, as she was the only analytical tool in data analysis and interpretation of the results. Ethical considerations were discussed as it guides and protects the relationship of the researcher and participants. It covered the permission to conduct the study by the University of the Western Cape; the day care centre selected; the participants; participants' autonomy, confidentiality and right to no harm. Lastly, this chapter indicated the study limitations encountered in participants' recruitment; interview venue and time to conduct each interview. Chapters 5 and 6 presented the study findings as per each objective focus.



7.2.5 Chapter 5

Chapter 5 presents themes that emerged regarding objective one namely understanding behaviour, home environment's influence on children's behaviour and day care centre's influence on children's behaviour.

7.2.5.1 Theme 1: Understanding behaviour

Behaviour is the product of interaction between the person and the environment and it therefore has to be contextually understood. In the context of early childhood, behaviour is understood as an inclusive term encompassing all developmental domains namely physical, social, cognitive and the communicative domain. It involves all behaviours, be they observable or describable. Observable behaviours include interaction skills (social conduct), physical activeness and non-observable (describable) behaviours include character, cognitive

and emotional expressions (communicative skills). In early childhood development, it is important to recognise all domains needing moulding since stimulation in all domains lays a concrete foundation for children's future behaviour. Nonetheless, the dominant view of participants relates behaviour to the social domain rather than on other domains leading to much focus on social conduct moulding than other domains especially within the home environment.

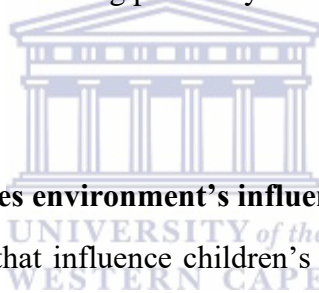
7.2.5.2 Theme 2: Home environment's influence on children's behaviour

Despite the factors encompassed in the entire home environment such as neighbourhood and location of the family, home environment relates to the factors emerging from a family unit such as parenting practices, family background and role of other people such as extended family and siblings in influencing children's behaviour. Parenting practice within the home environment is the most influential factor due to its interactivity with children's behaviour especially its discipline and power distribution between parents and children. Among parenting practices, authoritative parenting has a balanced outcome for children as some children experience both authoritarian and permissive attributes in their nurturing. This study concludes that there is no best parenting practice as parents use all of the practices interchangeably to bring out best results in children's behaviour.

Multi-caretaking within the home environment is positively influential on children's behaviour only if people within the home environment practice similar nurturing practices as those employed by parents. Dissimilarity characterises children's behaviour with confusion, anger and idleness. Multi-caretaking has less effect on children where both parents agree on parenting practices and when extended family members and siblings of the parents adhere to

the biological parents' parenting practices. In a way, multi-caretaking has to be uniform with parental childcare methods in order to influence children positively.

Family context with factors such as family structure, family's socio-economic status, resources, education and geographical status of the dwelling directly influences parents yet only indirectly influences children's behaviour. In the case where family background has less stress, it impacts positively on parents, consequently osmotically transmitting positive effects on children. More stress stemming from family background negatively affects the parent-child relationship. Stable family background posits satisfaction within the home environment, which then influences children's well-being positively due to its positive effect on parents.



7.2.5.3 Theme 3: Day care centres environment's influence on children's behaviour

Within day care centres, factors that influence children's behaviour are practitioner quality, type of day care centre, ratio of practitioners to children, physical environment and the quality of programmes of the centre. This concludes that centre-based day care centres have more positive influence on children's behaviour than family-based day care centres. This is due to the advantage of having qualified practitioners with some having speciality in ECD, adequate staff, greater opportunity of attending workshops, being monitored and receiving funding. Adequate staff increases childcare quality especially in smaller manageable groups consequently improving children's interaction with practitioners. As a result, practitioners and children interact at proximal length during activities, which allows direct influence on children's behaviour. Conversely, poor quality at the centre-based day care centres has deleterious outcome on children's behaviour. This study found that in poor quality centres,

children receive distal interactions with practitioners. They also experience bias in learning as the practitioners focus on fast learning children.

7.2.6 Chapter 6

Chapter 6 presents themes relating to objective two namely general perceptions on the dual care influence, effects of dual care influence on children's behaviour and management of children's behaviour in dual care.

7.2.6.1 Theme 4: General perception of dual care

On their own, each environment has both positive and negative influencing factors on children's behaviour. Each of these environments aims at positively influencing children's behaviour; however, challenging situations that they experience, negatively affect these environments leading to poor behaviour outcomes. Generally, dual care (combination of both environments) has positive influence on children's behaviour as there are fewer challenges noted in the study findings. The two environments complement each other in enhancing children's behaviour reducing the negativity of one another.

7.2.6.2 Theme 5: Effects of dual care on children's behaviour

Effects of dual care on children's behaviour were short-term. They occurred at the onset of enrolment and with time faded away. Children adjust better when they are attending day care centres, and when the timing of introduction into dual care is in line with their maturity, based on age, character and support they get from both home and day care centres. Timing of introduction to dual care and duration in type of care are notable for their influence on

children's behaviour. Most parents and practitioners recommended three years to be an appropriate age for children to start in dual care. At this age, they are able to socialise, and are less dependent on practitioners or parents as they are trying to be independent. Duration in dual care allows them to realise that dual care is their reality and as a result they adjust to it enabling their behaviour to suit both environments.

7.2.6.3 Theme 6: Management of children's behaviour in dual care

Uniformity of discipline, adult responsiveness and sensitivity and stability in relationships have proven to be the most influencing factors in dual care as they enhance the processes in these environments. However, parents and practitioners noted that due to the uniqueness of each environment, uniformity is not one hundred percent and stability is influenced by debilitating situations that both environments uniquely experience but rather they both strive to reach consensus in childcare. The consensus usually reached is by having both regular and casual meetings about how to deal with challenging behaviours and improving children's behaviours. The discussions helped to maintain stability of relationships between parents, practitioners and children. Child-child relationships were also an influencing factor in dual care.

Concisely, dual care has a positive influence on children's behaviour. It broadens children's spectrum and children develop skills that enable them to survive productively as individuals and as members of larger society.

7.3 Recommendations

The following recommendations are with regard to improving ECD services offered to children within home and day care centres. These recommendations are meant for policy makers, parents and practitioners as the responsible people whom quality of these services rely on.

- It is wise for the government to have implemented the ECD strategies as it shows improvement in children's behaviour, nonetheless it is important for the environment(s) that embed children to upgrade their partnerships to uplift children's lives.
- It is important to increase coverage of ECD social workers by 60% due to increasing ECD demand for facilities and to enhance services to young children such as linking them early to social grants, immunisation and funding.
- Monitoring and evaluation of facilities involved in dual care are important to upgrade the challenges this environment faces.
- Policies based on ECD services should include parents and practitioners as equal participants in dual care who have a vested responsibility in influencing children's behaviour.
- The findings of this study should be shared with both parents and the practitioners for them to understand the importance of their collaboration in childcare during early childhood.

7.4 Recommendations for Future Research

- Involve children as part of the sample to learn how dual care affects them.

- Future studies may compare the dual care influence in different contexts of children such as ethnicity, social class, gender, character, age and geographical settings.
- Future research should also explore to what extent each of the environments in dual care uniquely influences children's behaviour in the dual care environment.
- A different methodology should be implemented to explore the impact of dual care.

7.5 Conclusion

The research question was sufficiently explored using a qualitative research methodology. The study concludes that dual care positively affects children especially when there is uniformity in discipline, consistency in discipline methods and duration in this reality and stability in relationships of children and adults in dual care environment. Children become more intelligent, socially competent, independent, outgrow previous habits and are highly active. Dissimilarity in dual care environments on the other hand negatively affects children's behaviour leading to confusion and problematic behaviours.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: ETHICS LETTER



UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE

OFFICE OF THE DEAN DEPARTMENT OF RESEARCH DEVELOPMENT

08 September 2015

To Whom It May Concern

I hereby certify that the Senate Research Committee of the University of the Western Cape approved the methodology and ethics of the following research project by: Ms MS Moleli (Social Work)

Research Project:

Day-care centres and home environment's influence on children's behaviour during early childhood development.

Registration no:

15/6/8



Any amendments, extension or other modifications to the protocol must be submitted to the Ethics Committee for approval.

The Committee must be informed of any serious adverse event and/or termination of the study.

*Ms Patricia Josias
Research Ethics Committee Officer
University of the Western Cape*

Private Bag X17, Bellville 7535, South Africa
T: +27 21 959 2988/2948 . F: +27 21 959 3170
E: pjosias@uwc.ac.za
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APPENDIX B: INFORMATION SHEET



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Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa

Tel: +27 21-959 2459 Fax: 27 21-959 3686

E-mail: cjerasmus@uwc.ac.za or mahlalelemoleli@gmail.com

INFORMATION SHEET

Project Title:

Home and day-care centres environment's influence on children's behaviour during early childhood development

What is this study about?

This is a research project being conducted by 'Mahlalele Sylvania 'Moleli at the University of the Western Cape. I am inviting you to participate in this research project because you have expertise and experience in the field. The purpose of this research project is to explore the relationship of day care centres and home environment on children behaviour during early childhood development.

What will I be asked to do if I agree to participate?

You will be asked to fill in the agreement form for the interview and use of audiotape prior to conducting the interview. You will be asked to respond to the interview questions in the way you understand them. The interview will take about 30 to 60 minutes. The university day care centre will be used as study site. The questions for the interview are exploring the relationship of parents and teachers interactions with the children and how do their behaviour get affected.

Would my participation in this study be kept confidential?

The researcher undertakes to protect your identity and the nature of your contribution. To ensure your anonymity, thus your name will not be included for any purpose in this research project. A code will be used to differentiate different transcriptions of participants. Only the researcher will be able to link your identity and will have access to the identification key especially for the information verification. To ensure your confidentiality, the interviews will be copied to a computer immediately afterwards and deleted from the audiotape. The interviews will be kept in the password protected folder which will be known to the researcher only. The transcriptions will be identified with codes and stored in the lockable filing cabinet, personal to the researcher. If we write a report or article about this research project, your identity will be protected to the highest.

What are the risks of this research?

There may be some risks from participating in this research study. The risks may include the psychological, social, emotional, and legal risks. There might also be the risks that are currently unforeseeable as: all human interactions and talking about self or others carry some amount of risks. We will nevertheless minimise such risks and act promptly to assist you if

you experience any discomfort, psychological or otherwise during the process of your participation in this study. Where necessary, an appropriate referral will be made to a suitable professional for further assistance or intervention.

What are the benefits of this research?

This research is not designed to help you personally, but the results may help the investigator learn more about children behaviour during early childhood and how does it develop and be maintained. We hope

that, in the future, other people might benefit from this study through improved understanding of child-parent-teacher interactions.

Do I have to be in this research and may I stop participating at any time?

Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. You may choose not to take part at all. If you decide to participate in this research, you may stop participating at any time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you stop participating at any time, you will not be penalized or lose any benefits to which you otherwise qualify.

Is any assistance available if I am negatively affected by participating in this study? All possible precautions will be taken to protect you from experiencing any harm from the research process. If however, you are or feel that you are being negatively affected by this research suitable assistance will be sought for you at University of the Western Cape.

What if I have questions?

This research is being conducted by 'Mahlalele Sylvania 'Moleli in the Social Work Department at the University of the Western Cape. If you have any questions about the research study itself, please contact 'Mahlalele Sylvania 'Moleli Kovacs Student Residence, Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa, +27 791 368 494, mahlalelemoleli@gmail.com. Should you have any questions regarding this study and your rights as a research participant or if you wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact:

Head of Department:
Prof. C Schenck
Dept of Social Work
cschenck@uwc.ac.za
021 9592277

Dean of the Faculty of Community and Health Sciences:
Prof José Frantz
University of the Western Cape
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This research has been approved by the University of the Western Cape's Senate Research Committee and Ethics Committee.



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BYLAAG A **VORM TER INLIGTING**

Projek Titel:

Dagsorg sentrums en huisomgewing se invloed op kinders se gedrag gedurende vroeë kinder ontwikkeling.

Waaroor gaan hierdie studie?

Die volgende navorsingsprojek word behartig deur 'Mahlalele Sylvania 'Moleli by die Universiteit van Wes-Kaapland. Ons nooi u uit om deel te neem aan hierdie navorsingsprojek aangesien u ervaring en kennis het van die veld. Die doel van die navorsing is om ondersoek in te stel na die verhouding tussen dagsorg sentrums en huisomgewings op kinders se gehegtheid gedurende vroeë kinderontwikkeling.

Wat sal ek gevra word om te doen indien ek toestemming verleen om deel te neem?

U sal gevra word om toestemmingsvorm vir die onderhoud en gebruik van opname masjien te teken voor die onderhoud. U sal gevra word om op die onderhoudsvrae te reageer op die wyse waarop u dit verstaan. Die onderhoud sal ongeveer 30 tot 60 minute duur. Die universiteit se dagsorg sentrum sal as studie gebied gebruik word. Die vrae vir die onderhoud sal ondersoek instel na die verwantskap tussen ouers en onderwysers se interaksies met die kinders en hoe gehegtheid daardeur geaffekteer word.

Sal my deelname in die studie vertroulik gehou word?

Die navorser onderneem om u persoonlike identiteit en aard van u bydrae vertroulik te hou. Om u te beskerm en vertroulikheid van informasie te versker, sal dit nie van u vereis word om u regte naam te gee aan die onderhoudvoerder nie. In plaas hiervan, mag u 'n skuilnaam gebruik. Harde kopieëe van die vrae-lyste en onderhoudnotas sal gehou word in 'n lissasseer kabinet wat gesluit word en net toeganklik is deur die navorser. Elektroniese data sal beskerm word deur 'n wagwoord waartoe die navorser alleenlik toegang het. U het die reg om enige tyd te onttrek van die studie, sonder enige negatiewe gevolge.

Wat is die risikos van hierdie navorsing?

Risiko's rondom u deelname in die studie mag moontlik ongemak insluit aangesien u private en sensitiewe inligting gaan verskaf. Indien die onderhoud lei tot meer geaksentueerde emosionele ongemak en trauma, sal die navorser u verskaf met 'n verwysing na iemand wat u verdere terapie of berading kan gee. Geen ander risiko's word met u deelname in hierdie

navorsingsprojek geassosieer nie. Indien enige van die vrae gedurende die onderhoud u ongemaklik laat, is u meer as welkom om dit nie te antwoord nie.

Wat is die voordele van die navorsing?

Die navorsing is nie ontwerp om vir u tot voordeel te strek nie, maar die resultate kan die navorser help om meer te leer van kinders se gehegtheid gedurende vroeë kinderontwikkeling en hoe dit ontwikkel en behou word. Ons hoop dat ander mense in die toekoms daarby voordeel sal trek deur 'n verbeterde begrip van kind-ouer-onderwyser interaksies te he.

Moet ek deelneem an die navorsing en mag ek enige tyd onttrek?

U deelname in die navorsing is total en al vrywillig. U mag kies om glad nie deel te neem nie. Indien u besluit om wel deel te neem in die studie, mag u enige tyd onttrek, sonder om gepenaliseer to word daarvoor. Neem asb. kennis dat die navorser u deelname mag stop indien sy vind dat u nie aan die kriteria vir die studie voldoen ine. Die voldoening van kriteria sal bepaal word deur die werwingslys.

Is daar enige hulp/bystand beskikbaar indien ek negatiref geaffekteer word deur my deelname in die studie?

Indien u deelname lei tot verhoogde emosionele ongemak en trauma, sal die navorser u verskaf met 'n verwysing na 'n opgeleide terapeut wat vir u verdere terapie of berading kan gee.

Wat moet ek doen as ek vrae het?

Die navorsing word uitgevoer deur 'Mahlalele Sylvania 'Moleli in van die Universiteit van Wes-Kaapland. Indien u enige navrae het rondom die studie, kontak asb. vir 'Mahlalele Sylvania 'Moleli by +27 791 368 494, of epos - mahlalelemoleli@gmail.com. Sou u enige verdere navrae het rondom die studie en u reg as 'n deelnemer in die navorsingsprojek, of sou u enige probleem ervaar tydens die navorsing wil rapporteur, kontak gerus:

Hoof van Department:

Prof. C Schenck

Dept van Social Work

cschenck@uwc.ac.za

021 9592277

Dekaan van die Fakulteit Gemeenskaps- en Gesondheidsdienste:

Prof José Frantz

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APPENDIX C: CONSENT FORM



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CONSENT FORM

Title of Research Project: **Home and day-care centres environment’s influence on children’s behaviour during early childhood development**

The study has been described to me in language that I understand. My questions about the study have been answered. I understand what my participation will involve and I agree to participate of my own choice and free will. I understand that my identity will not be disclosed to anyone. I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time without giving a reason and without fear of negative consequences or loss of benefits.

Participant’s name.....

Participant’s signature.....

Date.....



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VERLENING VAN TOESTEMING

Titel van navorsingsprojek: Dagsorg sentrums en huisomgewing se invloed op kinders se gedrag gedurende vroeë kinder ontwikkeling

Hierdie studie is aan my beskryf in 'n taal wat ek verstaan en ek stem vrylik en vrywilliglik in om deel te neem aan die studie. My vrae rondom die studie is beantwoord. Ek verstaan dat my identiteit nie bekend gemaak sal word nie en dat ek enige tyd mag onttrek van die studie sonder om redes te verskaf, en dat my onttrekking geen negatiewe effek op my sal hê nie.

UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE

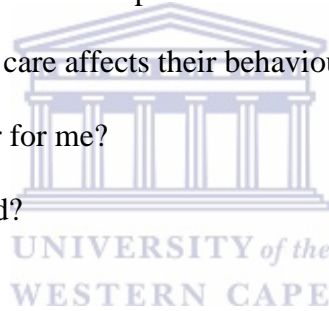
Deelnemer se naam

Deelnemer se handtekening

Datum

APPENDIX D: Interview Guide for Parents

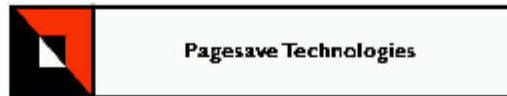
1. How long have your child been in childcare centre?
2. If more than one are significant differences in their behaviour?
3. At what age did you enrol them?
4. How did they react and what did you do about their reaction?
5. After how long did they feel comfortable at day care and how did you know they are?
6. What is your opinion about timing of placement in the day care?
7. What influences your choice of day care centres?
8. Are any changes you have observed and that you believe have had influence on your child behaviour, e.g. your relationship with them and the discipline?
9. How do you suppose dual care affects their behaviour?
10. May you define behaviour for me?
11. Is there anything u can add?



APPENDIX E: Interview Guide for Practitioners

1. May u tell me about your first encounter with the children?
2. What is current relationship with them?
3. Are there some aspects of their behaviour that you are able to identify as their part of grooming from home, such as parenting styles, cultures or traditions?
4. What are the influences of child placement in the day care centres?
5. How do children react to day care centres?
6. What do you do to manage their reactions?
7. May you take me through the process of children adaptation to day care centres? After how long do they adjust to the new setting? Do have returning students?
8. How do you suppose dual care (between home and crèche) affects children?
9. What are your opinions about the timing of dual care for children?
10. How can you define behaviour, and the role that you as the teacher play in the development of it for children? How can you define crèche?
11. Do you think homes of the children play a role in children behaviour at this age, if so how, what have you observed? How can you define home?
12. What are the roles of ECD programs in here? Do they say anything about children adjustments?
13. Is there anything that you feel you want to add?

APPENDIX F: Editorial Certificate



CERTIFICATE OF EDITING

To whom this may concern

This is to certify that I have copy edited the full thesis of

'MAHLALELE SYLVANIA 'MOLELI

Student Number: 3458318

**" HOME AND DAY CARE ENVIRONMENTS' INFLUENCE ON
CHILDREN'S BEHAVIOUR DURING EARLY CHILDHOOD
DEVELOPMENT"**

submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

MA (Child and Family Studies)

**in the Department of Social Work,
Faculty of Community and Health Sciences**

at the
University of the Western Cape

for spelling and grammatical errors

Date: 30 March 2017

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads 'M A Erikson'.

M A Erikson
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