

**INFLUENCE OF PARENTAL CONNECTEDNESS ON PUBLIC
SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS' SEXUAL BEHAVIOUR IN
IBADAN NORTH EAST LOCAL GOVERNMENT
AREA, OYO STATE**

BY

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my Awesome God and Father, whose grace was sufficient to see me through. To Him, all praise is due.

And

My husband (Dr. Akin Akinwuntan), children (Oluwatomi and Oluwatoni)

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ABSTRACT

Parental Connectedness (PC), a social and emotional bond between parents and their children, influences the sexual behaviour of adolescents worldwide. In Nigeria, the effect of PC on the Sexual Behaviour (SB) of secondary school students has been little researched particularly in Ibadan North East Local Government Area (LGA), Oyo State, Nigeria. This study was conducted to determine the influence of PC on the SB of Public Secondary School (PSS) students in the LGA.

The study was a cross-sectional survey which adopted a 3-stage sampling technique to select the wards, schools and 802 respondents from eight of the 64 PSS. Eight Focus Group Discussion (FGD) sessions, four each among male and female students, were conducted. Data on socio-demographic characteristics, PC and history of sexual intercourse were collected using a pre-tested semi-structured questionnaire. The PC was measured using a 304-point scale with four domains. The domains of PC were: Parental Control and Monitoring (PCM), Parental Supervision (PS), Parent-child Relationship/Parental Presence (PRPP) and Parent-Child Communication (PCC) with domain maximum scores of 90, 40, 90 and 84 respectively. Overall scores of ≤ 188 and > 188 point were categorised as low and high PC respectively. Scores considered high connectedness for PCM, PS, PRPP and PCC were ≥ 54 , ≥ 24 , ≥ 54 and ≥ 56 respectively. Descriptive statistics and Chi-square test were used to analyse the quantitative data at $p \leq 0.05$, while FGD data were subjected to content analysis.

Mean age of respondents was 15.2 ± 2.0 years, 51.7% were males and 84.0% were living with both biological parents. Mean PC score was 215.0 ± 20.8 and the proportion of respondents with low PC was 10.3%. Thirty percent of the respondents have ever had sexual intercourse and 13.8% had sex three months preceding the study. Mean scores for PCM, PS, PRPP and PCC were 70.5 ± 10.5 , 25.5 ± 6.9 , 80.0 ± 9.3 and 39.0 ± 6.6 respectively. Respondents with high PCM, PS, PRPP and PCC were 93.9%, 48.6%, 97.8% and 1.5% respectively. On PCM, respondents stated that their mothers (82.8%) than fathers (67.0%) always knew where they were. Regarding PS, more respondents reported that mothers (63.8%) and fathers (52.7%) supervised their homework. More respondents (73.9%) were

closer to their mothers than their fathers (63.7%) within the context of PRPP. For PCC, more respondents discussed sexual issues with their mothers (19.3%) than fathers (8.2%). A higher proportion of respondents with low PC (36.1%) had ever had sex than those with high PC (29.3%). More respondents with low PC (19.3%) than those with high PC (13.2%) had sex three months preceding the study. The FGD findings supported the quantitative results that mothers were more connected to their children in all the PC domains.

High parental connectedness was associated with reduced sexual activities among public secondary school students. School-based reproductive health interventions which emphasise parent-child connectedness are recommended to address the reproductive health needs of adolescents.

Keywords: Public secondary school students, Parental connectedness,
Sexual behaviours

Word count: 473

CERTIFICATION

I hereby certify that this research work was carried out by Olubukunola Ayotunde AKINWUNTAN in the Department of Health Promotion and Education, College of Medicine, University of Ibadan.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS USED IN THE TEXT

PC	Parental Connectedness
SB	Sexual Behaviour
PSSS	Public Secondary School Students
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
LG	Local Government
PRB	Population Reference Bureau
WHO	World Health Organization
STI	Sexually Transmitted Infections
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
UNAIDS	United Nations Support for AIDS
PP	Parental Presence
PCM	Parental Control and Monitoring
PS	Parental Supervision
PRPP	Parent –child relationship/Parental presence
PCC	Parent – child communication
SLT	Social Learning Theory
Est.	Estimated
Jnr	Junior
Snr	Senior

DEFINITION OF TERMS

- **Parental Connectedness**, also known as **Parent-Child Connectedness** can be defined as the degree of closeness/warmth experienced in the relationship that children have with their parents.
- **Parents** – These are extended to parent figures that the adolescents live with. They could be their uncles, aunties, grandparents, and some are even their guardians.
- **Sexual behaviours** – is a manner in which humans experience or express their sexuality. A person's sexual practices – i.e., whether he/she engages in heterosexual or homosexual activity. It can also be referred to as any activity-solitary, between two persons, or in a group that induces sexual arousal. It also includes conduct and activities which are intended to arouse the sexual interest of another, such strategies include flirting, foreplay and mating.
- **Risky Sexual Behaviours** – are defined by the increased risk of negative outcome , which can take two pathways: by increasing the chance of contracting or transmitting disease or increase the chance of the occurrence of unwanted pregnancy

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the study

Adolescence is a transition phase when children become adults. Adolescence is a unique intervention point in the life cycle and offers a chance to acquire knowledge about behavioral and sexual changes in the adolescent. One in five Africans and one in three African adolescents live in Nigeria, the most populous country in Africa (UNAIDS and WHO, 2000). The adolescent period is a critical one of development where habits formed would have future implications on adolescent sexual health. Some of these habits are a product of interaction with parents or guardian who are often viewed as models or change agents. One third (36.5 million) of Nigeria's total population of 123 million are youth between the ages of 10 and 24 (Population Reference Bureau (PRB), 2000). By 2025, the number of Nigerian youth is expected to exceed 57 million (Population Division, 1999). An important and complex area of adolescent behavioral health is sexuality. Sexual behaviors vary within and between ages, gender, race/ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and religious groups. Lack of sexual health information and services places these young people at risk for pregnancy, abortion, sexually transmitted infections (STI), and HIV/AIDS.

The family is a primary agent of socialization and can exert a strong influence on adolescent sexual behaviour. Traditionally, parents have been viewed as having a primary influence on adolescents' sexual behaviours. Parents play a critical role in promoting adolescent health and development and used to be change agents who were valuable sources of information and advice that help shape the sexual beliefs and behaviour of their children (Eaton, Flisher and Aaro, 2003). However, in a situation where most secondary school students get more information from the electronic media, the family, therefore, may be exerting little or no influence on their sexual behaviour as reported by Steinberg 2001.

The sexual and reproductive health needs of adolescents differ from those of adults, and are inadequately served in many parts of the world. The World Health Organization (WHO) supports research to help countries understand what adolescents need and how best to reach them to encourage responsible sexual behaviour and help them protect and promote their sexual and reproductive health (WHO, 2001). This study is part of fulfilling this clarion call. This is hinged on the fact that the family environment is critical in supporting healthy adolescent development because parents usually remain close to adolescents and can exercise some degree of authority over their action. Although peers and the community may, from time to time, be equally influential, parents and family are constant elements in most young peoples' lives. It is usually agreed that vulnerability and resilience among adolescents are strongly determined by the family context (Rutter, Graham, Chadwick and Yule, 2006). Variables like family history, parental education, type of parental care; parental monitoring, control and supervision affect the sexual behaviour of the adolescents/ youth. In particular, strong parents/children communication ties, high parental expectations, and the mere parental presence in the home have been observed to provide some protection from high-risk health behaviors (Seaman, 2003).

Parent-adolescent processes in the home for sexual behaviour have been the focus of research in the United States for the past decade. The levels of parental monitoring may influence an adolescent's sexual behaviour. The strength of parental monitoring in the United States has been associated with a delay in the age of first intercourse (Nagamatsu, Saito and Sato, 2008). Adolescent sexual behaviour seems to be related to parental factors, including communication, values, monitoring, control (vs autonomy), and warmth/support. (PRB, 2000) However, there have been few reports investigating the parent-adolescent relationship and how it influences adolescent sexual behavior of the Nigerian adolescents.

Statement of the Problem

Nigeria's birth rate for adolescents is one of the highest in the world, and the prevalence among female adolescents in Nigeria of unwanted pregnancies, abortion, sexually transmitted infections, including HIV, is climbing rapidly (UNAIDS and WHO, 2000). Over 16 percent of teenage females reported first sexual intercourse by age 15. Among young women ages

20-24, nearly half (49.4 percent) reported first sex by 18 years. 8.3 percent of teenage males reported first sex by age 15 and 36.3 percent of young men in 20-24 age group reported first sex by age 18. This is relatively high (National Population Commission, 2008). It is estimated that 15 million adolescent women aged 15-19 gave birth throughout the world and about 11% of the figure is from Africa where adolescent fertility levels are highest (136 per 1,000) and 6.2% from Nigeria. (Ikwuako, 2001).

Many unwanted pregnancies result in unsafe abortions leading to high mortality and morbidity (Ikwuako, 2001). For example, in Nigeria, 50 per cent of maternal deaths are adolescent girls due to illegal abortions. Moreover, abortion complications account for 72 percent of all deaths among girls under 19 years of age (Ponle, 2003). From these startling data, it does appear that sexually active adolescents do not receive family planning. This is rather because of the fear of infertility and they saw abortion as an immediate solution to an unplanned pregnancy rather than the effect of modern contraceptive on fertility that is continuous and prolonged (Okonofua, Otoide and Oronsanye, 2001). Some children also lack parental care and attention either because their parents work out of town or spend insufficient time with their children. This creates a communication gap between parents and adolescents on sexual issues. There appears to be a consensus among Nigerian researchers and observers that many traditional values are changing rapidly and for the worse and the decline of traditional values is obvious in the area of sexuality. This affect youth including adolescents, more than any other group (Naswen, 2001; Ezeh, 2001; Arumala, 2005 and Eruesegbefe, 2005). This is also incensed by the impact of permissive Western culture transmitted through the media especially the use of pornographic materials as well as knowledge and use of contraceptives, especially the condom that has been excessively advertised and contributed to the involvement of adolescents in sexual practices (Onwuzulike, 2002).

In an effort to reduce its high maternal and infant mortality and high rates of sexually transmitted infection and dropout from school, Nigeria developed a national reproductive health policy in 2000 that focuses on preventing risky sexual behaviours during adolescence (WHO, 2001). However, the programme has been hampered by outdated and incomplete information on the sexual knowledge, attitudes, and behaviours of adolescents in Nigeria.

The importance of clarifying needs before intervening is highlighted by the recent evaluation of a sex education intervention in Nigeria and Ghana (Brieger, Delano, Lane, Oladepo and Oyediran, 2001). The increasing prevalence of adolescents problem therefore require the attention of the parents with which they stay or their guardians who stand as role models for these adolescents. This is believed to reduce the risky behaviours practiced by the adolescents. In particular, strong parents/children communication ties, high parental expectations, and the mere parental presence in the home have been observed to provide some protection from high-risk health behaviors (Seaman, 2003).

Justification of the study

Though some studies have been conducted on parental connectedness and sexual behaviour of secondary school students in advanced countries, few studies exist in Nigeria. While several biological factors (timing of pubertal development, hormone levels, and genes) are also related to adolescent pregnancy risk, these factors are impossible or difficult to change, so research focusing on family influence as a key proximal determinant is a useful focus for potential interventions. Therefore, the study is expected to assess the association of parental connectedness on the sexual behavior of secondary school students. Particularly because adolescents often make their parents their role models and as such parents can negatively or positively influence their adolescents.

Research questions

This study has addressed the following questions:

- 1) What is the level of secondary school students' connectedness with their parents?
- 2) What is the pattern of sexual behaviour of secondary school students?
- 3) Does parent connectedness influence secondary school students' sexual behaviour?
- 4) Which domain of parental connectedness affects the sexual behaviour of public secondary school students?

Broad Objective

The general objective of the study is to assess the influence of parental connectedness on the sexual behavior of public secondary school students in Ibadan North East Local government Area of Oyo state.

Specific Objectives

- To determine the level (low and high) of public secondary school students' connectedness with their parents
- To assess the pattern of sexual behaviour of public secondary school students.
- To examine the influence of parental connectedness on the public secondary school students' sexual behaviour.
- To identify which domain of parental connectedness affects the sexual behaviour of public secondary school students.

Research hypothesis

1. There is no significant influence of parent connectedness on public secondary school students' sexual behaviour.
2. Parent connectedness is not a determinant factor to public secondary school students' sexual behaviour.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Concept of Parenting

Parenting is a complex activity that includes many specific behaviours that work individually and together to influence child outcomes. In African countries like Nigeria, parents expand beyond immediate mother and father to include members of the extended family, neighbours and even other persons who in one way or the other is involved in the upbringing of the child (Okpako, 2004). They also provide emotional and material support including model problem solving skills. The basis for good behaviour orientation and good adolescents' attitude development is founded on positive parenting. Parents should therefore take responsibility and blame for the misfortune that befall their children (Okpako, 2004; Utti, 2006).

Darling and Steinberg (1993) defined a parenting style as the emotional climate in which parents raise their children and practices as specific behaviours that parents use to socialize their children. For example, when socializing their children to succeed in school, parents might enact certain practices such as doing homework with their children, providing their children with time to read and attending their school's function.

Spera, (2005) opined that children were born with a blank slate by which parents and the society could easily transmit their values and beliefs to their children. He further stated that they are also born 'innately good' and that is up to parents and society to uphold and further teach the values inherent in children.

Between childhood and adulthood is adolescence, a period characterized by multiple influences from agents of socialization such as parents, teachers and peers but the family and particularly the parents are the first agents of socialization. This process - Socialization refers to the manner by which a child through education, training, observation and experience, acquires skills, motives, attitudes and behaviours that are required for successful adaptation

to a family and a culture (Ladd and Pettit, 2002). The socialization process is bidirectional in that parents convey socialization messages to their children, but their children vary in their level of acceptance, receptivity, and internalization of these messages (Grusec, Goodnow and Kuczynski, 2000). During this period, adolescents transit from the highly dependent and controlled period of childhood into a period marked by an increasing sense of self-exploration and autonomy (Spera, 2005). Specifically, adolescents begin to develop their self-concept and explore their relationship and connections to family, friends and the larger society.

Although parents are among the most influential adults in the lives of young people, adolescents develop important relationships with adults besides their parents. These individuals may be as parent figure (a person who symbolically represents an ideal parent) and they may include teachers, coaches, friends' parents, neighbours, counselors, and religious leaders, having those attributes that one conceptualizes as necessary for forming the perfect parent-child relationship.

Parenting in Adolescence

Parenting has been playing very crucial roles in adolescents' transition to adulthood. It has been recognized as a major vehicle in socializing the child (Utti, 2006). Children at adolescence stage require parental love, care, warmth and serious attention to adjust adequately, in the environment in which he/she finds him/herself. Parenting (or child rearing) is the process of promoting and supporting the physical, emotional, social, and intellectual development of a child from infancy to adulthood. Parenting refers to the aspects of raising a child aside from the biological relationship (Davies, 2000). Parenting according to Okpako, 2004; Ofoegbu, 2002 and Utti, 2006 is the act of parenthood, the child upbringing, training, and rearing or child education. A cordial relationship between adolescents and parents could foster training and acceptability of the norms (Okpako, 2004). Otudah (2006) added that adolescents exhibiting traits of friendliness, cheerfulness, positive emotions and good maturity traits show evidently, that such come from homes where they are accepted and loved. Okpako (2004) noted that a child well brought up will remain a source of joy and happiness for the family. He positioned that adolescents are learners trying to establish their independence and that any lapses in this vital life act may have adverse consequences.

Sexuality Education – Parental Responsibility

Discussing sexuality with your child is one of the most important parental responsibilities. However, many parents feel uncomfortable with the subject ‘sex’. Once it comes to discussing sex issue, parents become nervous as to how to pass information regarding sex to their children, feels tensed up discussing sex education with their ward as such leave the issue unattended.

If the role is relinquished as a parent, the child will still learn about sex, but from other children, television, popular songs, magazine and other sources but in a wrong way. Much of this information will be inaccurate. At the same time, you will lose an important opportunity to discuss with your child the values you associate with sex. In a one-on-one conversation, you can personalize the issues with your child, discuss your child’s fear and worries, and increase pressure for sexual behaviour. Research shows that four out of five parents believe they have an obligation to provide sex education to their offspring, fewer than half of mothers supply their daughters with any information; fathers participate in sex education even less often (Idu, 2012). Sex education is one important issue that must not be over looked but rather handled with seriousness by parents, guardians, teachers and the government. If all hands are on deck to address the issue of given out information to the young ones early in life, a lot of questions that would lead to mis-behaviours later on in life would certainly be avoided. Issues like rape, sexual harassment, incest and other sexual related crime will be a thing of the past.

Commenting on parenting, Turner, Chandler and Heffer, 2009 reported the four categories of parenting styles by Baumrind. These are identified: Authoritative, Authoritarian, Permissive and Uninvolved. Each of these categories is viewed whether they are high or low on parental demandingness and responsiveness. These parenting styles reflect different naturally occurring patterns of parental values, practices, behaviours and a distinct balance of responsiveness and demandingness.

The Four Parenting Styles

1. Authoritarian Parenting

In this style of parenting, children are expected to follow the strict rules established by the parents. The parents are highly demanding and directive, but not responsive. It is a type of parenting in which parents are obedience- and status-oriented. They have high demands on the children and expect orders to be obeyed without explanation (not responsive). Failure to follow such rules usually results in punishment. Authoritarian parents fail to explain the reasoning behind these rules. If asked to explain, the parent might simply reply, "Because I said so."

Authoritarian parents can be divided into two types: non-authoritarian directive, which are directive, but not intrusive or autocratic in their use of power, and authoritarian-directive, which are highly intrusive. An authoritarian parenting style allows parent to set standards and enforce these standard through punitive techniques. Some marks of this type of parenting include unquestioned obedience which gives room for quarrel and aggression. With this type of parenting, parents tend to be harsh, rigid, unresponsive and somewhat less affectionate. On the other hand, the child feels discontent, insecure, and hostile, under stress, fearful, moody and prone to quick temper. Their aggression is usually turned inward leading to self-inflicted punishment, such as suicide, cultism and other forms of aggressive behaviour.

2. Authoritative Parenting

Like authoritarian parents, those with an authoritative parenting style establish rules and guidelines that their children are expected to follow. However, this parenting style is much more democratic. Authoritative parents are responsive to their children and willing to listen to questions. Some of the features of this kind of parenting include: kindness, control, communication and command. In all these, parents are direct, honest, warm, responsive, purposive, and achievement oriented. If these are well imbibed, a child is expected to be of a mature behaviour, independent, well socialized, obedient, self-reliant, friendly, assertive and competent member of the society.

When children fail to meet the expectations, these parents are more nurturing and forgiving rather than punishing. Turner et al, 2009 reported Baumrind suggests that these parents

"monitor and impart clear standards for their children's conduct. They are assertive, but not intrusive and restrictive. Their disciplinary methods are supportive, rather than punitive. They want their children to be assertive as well as socially responsible, and self-regulated as well as cooperative"

This style of parenting has proven to be the best parenting style.

3. Permissive Parenting

Permissive parents, sometimes referred to as indulgent parents, have very few demands to make of their children. These parents rarely discipline their children because they have relatively low expectations of maturity and self-control. According to Baumrind, by Turner et al, 2009, permissive parents "are more responsive than they are demanding. They are nontraditional and lenient, do not require mature behaviour, allow considerable self-regulation, and avoid confrontation". Permissive parents are generally nurturing and communicative with their children, often taking on the status of a friend more than that of a parent.

4. Uninvolved Parenting

An uninvolved parenting style is characterized by few demands, low responsiveness and little communication. While these parents fulfill the child's basic needs, they are generally detached from their child's life. In extreme cases, these parents may even reject or neglect the needs of their children. An uninvolved parent is self-centered, unresponsive, neglectful, pursues self-gratification to minimize cost (in time and effort) to interact with children and always fails to monitor child's activity, where about and companion. Aggression, sexual assault, rape, anxiety impulses, feeling of insecurity and inferiority complex are some of the features of children of uninvolved parent. Some of these children are also alienated from family, they lack social skills for social and academic pursuit and are academic truants usually associating with troubled peers and

delinquents. The parents in this category are alcoholics, psychiatrists, step parent/surrogates emotionally needy and those parents with marital conflict.

The Impact of Parenting Styles

The effect of the parenting styles by Baumrind affect the child's development outcomes. In addition, according to Santrock, 2007, from Baumrind's study, researchers have conducted numerous other studies that have led to a number of conclusions about the impact of parenting styles on children. These are as follows:

- Authoritarian parenting styles generally lead to children who are obedient and proficient, but they rank lower in happiness, social competence and self-esteem.
- Authoritative parenting styles tend to result in children who are happy, capable and successful.
- Permissive parenting often results in children who rank low in happiness and self-regulation. These children are more likely to experience problems with authority and tend to perform poorly in school.
- Uninvolved parenting styles rank lowest across all life domains. These children tend to lack self-control, have low self-esteem and are less competent than their peers.

Parenting style is largely affected by the influence of one's own parents and culture. Most parents learn parenting practices from their own parents. They accept some of these practices and discard some. Temperament, educational achievement, culture and the influence of their spouse affects parenting style as well. Parents who are more highly educated tend to have better jobs, financial security, and this lack of potential stressors has a significant effect on parenting. Temperament of the parent and the child affects style of parenting, and the mother and father may differ in style as well. For example, living in a dangerous neighborhood could make a parent authoritarian c due to fear of their environment (Santrock 2007).

Parent-child connectedness has been shown to have a protective effect on many adolescent risk behaviours in both middle-class populations and poor urban environments and has been shown both to moderate the effect of peer influence and to persist into late adolescence. Whereas unsupervised time, exposure to sexual possibility situations, and out-of-home care increase sexual behaviour; improved parent-child connectedness reduces sexual risk

behaviours. Adolescent sexual behaviour appear to be related to a number of parental factors including communication, values, monitoring and control and warmth and support (Meschke, Bartholomae and Zentall, 2000)

Recent scholarship demonstrates the significant, enduring, and protective influence of positive parenting practices on adolescent development. In particular, parental monitoring, open parent-child communication, supervision, and high quality of the parent-child relationship deter involvement in high-risk behaviour. Authoritative parenting generally leads to the best outcomes for teens. (DeVore and Ginsburg, 2005).

Other parenting styles

There is no single or definitive model of parenting. What may be right for one family or one child may not be suitable for another. With authoritarian and permissive (indulgent) parenting on opposite sides of the spectrum, most conventional and modern models of parenting fall somewhere in between these two styles. The model or style that parents employ depends partly on how they themselves were reared, what they consider good parenting, the child's temperament, their current environmental situation, and whether they place more importance on their own needs or whether they are striving to further their child's future success. Parents who place greater importance on the child's physical security may be more authoritarian, while parents who are more concerned with intellectual development may push their children into a number of organized extra-curricular activities such as music and language lessons. One of the biggest effects on parenting is socio-economic status, in reference with ethnicity and culture as well. For example, living in a dangerous neighborhood could make a parent more authoritarian due to fear of their environment. Parents who are more highly educated tend to have better jobs and better financial security, and this reduction of potential stressors has a significant effect on parenting.

Other forms of parenting include:

Attachment parenting - Seeks to create strong emotional bonds, avoiding physical punishment and accomplishing discipline through interactions recognizing a child's emotional needs all the while focusing on holistic understanding of the child.

Christian parenting – This is the application of biblical principles on parenting, mainly in the United States. While some Christian parents follow a stricter and more authoritarian interpretation of the Bible, others are "grace-based" and share methods advocated in the attachment parenting and positive parenting theories.

Concerted cultivation - A style of parenting that is marked by the parents' attempts to foster their child's talents through organized leisure activities. This parenting style is commonly exhibited in middle and upper class American families.

Overparenting - Parents who try to involve themselves in every aspect of their child's life, often attempting to solve all their problems. A Helicopter parent is a colloquial, early 21st-century term for a parent who pays extremely close attention to his or her children's experiences and problems, and attempts to sweep all obstacles out of their paths, particularly at educational institutions. Helicopter parents are so named because, like helicopters, they hover closely overhead. It is a form of overparenting.

Nurturant parenting- A family model where children are expected to explore their surroundings with protection from their parents

Low parenting - Encourages parents to plan and organize less for their children, instead allowing them to enjoy their childhood and explore the world at their own pace

Strict parenting - An authoritarian approach, places a strong value on discipline and following inflexible rules as a means to survive and thrive in a harsh world.

Extreme Parenting - A fast and loose parenting style in which parents encourage a love of extreme sports in their children by involving them in what traditional parents would consider "dangerous" activities from a young age. These activities include the baby toss, strollerderbies, Skate Park strolling, and other aggressive activities.

Family Structure/Parental presence

Lenciauskiene and Zaborskis (2008), reports that an intact family is a protective factor for adolescents' early sexual behaviour. The presence of both parents is an important protective factor for youths vulnerable to multiple risks.

There is a direct effect of family structure and quality of parenting on risky sexual behavior. Adolescents from a single parent home are more likely to engage in early sex and sex with multiple partners than are adolescents from a two-parent home. Similarly, adolescents who perceive their relationship with their parents as warm and loving are less likely to engage in risky sexual behavior (Simons and Murphy, 2003) Borawski, Levers- Landis, Lovegreen, Trapl (2003) also support the proposition that adolescents are less likely to engage in sexual risk-taking behaviour when they reside with a parent—especially two parents—or when they identify with the views of their parents. Furthermore, the relationship between siblings and

with parents has unique form and attributes but communication is important in any relationship especially in parenting.

Parental control and monitoring

The levels of parental monitoring may influence an adolescent's sexual behaviour. Much of the past interest in the influence of environmental factors on sexual initiation has been related to the family environment. Parent's education, their remaining married to each other, their disapproval of premarital sex, and their monitoring of their children's behavior have been found to be negatively associated with the early onset of sexual intercourse (Goodson, Evans and Edmundson, 1997). Sieverding, Alder, Witt and Ellen, 2005 reported that successful parental monitoring (accurately knowing the whereabouts and activities outside the home) significantly expressed cognitions less favourable of initiating intercourse. However, adolescents who reported successful parental monitoring significantly expressed less sexual intention and successful parental monitoring moderated the effect of attitude on the intention to initiate intercourse.

Most of the evidence shows that parental supervision and monitoring of children is another important relationship dimension related to adolescents' sexual behaviors in ways that would lower their risk of pregnancy (Miller, Benson and Galbraith, 2001). More specifically, Mauras, 2008 reported that family rules and household routines, parental supervision of dating activities and parental monitoring of teens (Upchurch, Aneshensel, Sucoff and Levy-Storms, 1999) all have been associated with teens not having intercourse, having a later sexual debut, or having fewer sexual partners. Adolescents may attribute their decisions about sex to parental monitoring, which causes adolescents to either reduce their involvement in sexual behaviors or with sexually active peers because of fear of being reprimanded by parents (Xiamong, Feigelman, & Stanton, 2000). Parents not only become monitors, but also act as supervisors and regulators for the adolescent's decision-making process to engage in risky sexual behaviour (Parera & Suris, 2004; Bronte-Tinkew, Moore, Capps & Zaff, 2006). These factors are only related if the parent takes an active role in adolescent's life. Parera and Suris (2004) have discovered that decreased parental monitoring can lead to adolescents having "multiple sexual partners or a laboratory confirmed Sexually Transmitted Infections (STI)"

Parental supervision

Parental supervision and control might also reduce teen pregnancy indirectly by decreasing childrens' association with high-risk peers, and by lowering teen alcohol and drug use, thereby decreasing teenagers' unprotected sexual intercourse (Miller, 2002).

The impact of family and school on adolescent health has been shown repeatedly by studies in North America and Western Europe. (Scales, 1997) The countries producing this research, however, differ dramatically from Nigeria and most countries of Africa in family structure, school attendance, and educational attainment.

In some studies, the influence of various parental communication variables (perception of parental disapproval, quality and content of sexual communication) as well as perception of peer sexual activity on Grade 10 and 12 students' (14- 19 years of age) sexual behaviour have been discussed (Scales, 1997). High-quality parent-adolescent communication has been related to abstinence from adolescent sexual activity and to less frequent sex for adolescent males. In Japanese high school students, females' experience in sexual intercourse has been related to the parent-child relationship. (Resnick et al, 1993) There needs to be an examination of the quality of parent-adolescent communication associated with adolescent sexual behavior in Japan.

Parent-child closeness or connectedness, and parental supervision or regulation of children, in combination with parents values against teen intercourse (or unprotected intercourse), decrease the risk of adolescent pregnancy (Miller, 2002).

Parents play a significant role in the sexual development and behaviours of their children. Parental monitoring and supervision are important avenues for keeping adolescents from risky situations and activities while the teen develops responsible decision-making skills. A supportive relationship between the parent and adolescent is important for enhancing communication and supervision. (Rupp and Rosenthal, 2007)

Parent-child relationships

Many researchers have investigated the association between adolescents' sexual behaviour and family process variables such as parental warmth, support, parent-child closeness, or connectedness (Miller et al, 2001). Steinburg (2001) added that young people who reported

feeling a lack of parental warmth, love, or caring were also more likely to report emotional distress, lower self-esteem, school problems, drug use, and sexual risk behaviours. There is marked consistency in this body of about two dozen studies; all but a few indicate that parent-child closeness is associated with reduced adolescent pregnancy risk through teens remaining sexually abstinent, postponing intercourse, having fewer sexual partners, or using contraception more consistently. For example, parent-child connectedness or closeness is related to both daughters' and sons' postponement of sexual intercourse, and to more consistent contraceptive use by sexually active teenagers. Youth whose parents are open, responsive, comfortable, and confident in discussions about sex and related issues participate less often in sexual risk behaviour, suggesting that the quality of communication influences the message adolescents receive about sex (Guilamo-Ramos and Bouris. 2008).

Parent-child communication

Perception of parental approval/disapproval of teen sexual activity is considered a parental communication variable in Miller et al (2001) mediated conceptual model of family relationships. When young people feel unconnected to home, family, and school, they may become involved in activities that put their health at risk. However, when parents affirm the value of their children, young people more often develop positive, healthy attitudes about themselves. Although most adults want youth to know about abstinence, contraception, and how to prevent HIV and other sexually transmitted infections (STIs), parents often have difficulty communicating about sex. Nevertheless, positive communication between parents and children greatly helps young people to establish individual values and to make healthy decisions. Scale (1997) in his study concerning the frequency of parent-child communication in Japan found that more general communication between a parent and an adolescent up to 16 years of age was associated with delayed first intercourse.

Communication and family connectedness are logically related because parents' values are most effectively transmitted when they have a close relationship. A common finding in the literature is that adolescents (particularly female) want to talk to parents about sexual health and teenagers who perceive that they have a better level of communication with their parents have been found to be less likely to engage in sexual intercourse (Karofsky, Zeng and Kosorok, 2001). Unfortunately, parents are generally rated by teenagers as problematic or ineffective communicators and very few parents report being comfortable discussing sex

(Feldman & Rosenthal, 2000; Rosenthal, Senserrick, & Feldman, 2001). Process and content of communication by parents are related. Empirical findings suggest that when the process of sexual communication with mothers is more open and receptive, the frequency of sexual risk-taking behaviour is lower; when content of communication is higher, risk-taking is lower (Dutra, Miller, & Forehand, 1999). These researchers did find that sexual communication is a family variable; that is, content and process of sexual communication was significantly correlated across mothers and fathers. Dutra et al included these parental communication variables by asking female and male participants whether it was easy to talk with their parents about sex (process) and whether they did not want their parents to know that they were having sex (content). References to "having sex" hereafter mean sexual intercourse unless otherwise stated.

Several studies have found that, although rates of parent-teen sexual risk communication are generally low, mothers play a more pivotal role in sexual communication than fathers and girls receive more communication than boys (Rosenthal et al., 2001). Both process and content of sexual communication with mothers but not fathers have predicted adolescent risk-taking behaviour (Dutra et al., 1999). Fathers are generally rated as poorer communicators about sexuality than mothers, yet fathers are rated as slightly better communicators with boys, suggesting parents adjust communication to the gender of the teen (Rosenthal et al, 2001; Miller, 2002). Mothers are more likely to discuss HIV/STI risk than sexual behaviours, contraceptive use, or physical development with teens. Fathers are most likely to communicate about condom use and STI prevention with sons (Miller, 2002). O'Sullivan, Mayer-Bahlburg, and Watkins (2001) added that maternal communications about sex, often restrictive and moralistic in tone, deterred daughters from confiding in their mothers. Daughters, in reaction, sometimes became secretly involved in romantic relationships. Quality of communication with parents appears to be more influential on female sexual activity, with higher quality of communication with parents being associated with lower sexual intentions and sexual behaviours. In the case of males, the quality of parent/child communication is usually found to have no significant effect on intentions or behaviour (Miller, 2002). Not only do mothers communicate more with teens about sex, but female and male teens also discuss sexual topics more frequently with mothers than with fathers (Dilorio, Kelly, & Hockenberry-Eaton, 1999). However, male adolescents are more likely

than female adolescents to discuss sex-based topics with their friends than with their mothers. In the study, female and male students were asked to choose, from a list of options, what they consider to have been their main source of sexual information on each of three topics: healthy dating relationships, pregnancy prevention, and STI prevention. They were also asked for their preferred source of information on each topic with the understanding, as above, that they could cite a different source for each topic to determine whether parents serve as current or preferred sources of information for females and males for these various topics in which they discovered that the place of parents in the choices of the youths were significant to their sexual behaviour.

Studies by Airhihebuwa and Webster (2004) and Yahaya (2002) revealed that the culture of the people in Nigeria do not really promote discussion on sex between parents and their children. Culture is known to play a vital role in determining the health of the individual and the family. Positive communication between parents and children helps young people to establish individual values and make sexually healthy decisions.

There is growing evidence that various parenting dimensions—connectedness or love, material support, behavioral control or monitoring, and parent-child communication—are positively associated with reduced levels of risk-taking behavior among adolescents. The association often varies by the measures employed, and by other issues such as gender (e.g., whether the adult or young person is male or female) and normative roles and attitudes.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The framework that was used for this study is the Social Learning Theory. The Social Learning Theory (SLT) is built on an understanding of the interrelationship that occurs between an individual and their environment. It emphasizes the importance of observing and modeling the behaviours, attitudes, and emotional reactions of others. Thus it focuses on learning by observation and modeling (Abbott, 2009). SLT poses that people can learn new information and behaviours by watching other people. Known as observational learning (or modeling), this type of learning can be used to explain a wide variety of behaviors.

Concepts of the Social Cognitive Theory

Observational learning: People can learn through observation from people like father, mother, siblings and significant others

Bandura identified three basic models of observational learning:

1. A live model, which involves an actual individual demonstrating or acting out a behaviour.
2. A verbal instructional model, which involves descriptions and explanations of a behaviour.
3. A symbolic model, which involves real or fictional characters displaying behaviours in books, films, television programs, or online media.

Other components as described by Glanz, Rimer and Lewis, 2002.

Environment: these are factors physically external to the person; it provides opportunities and social support

Situation: Perception of the environment; correct misperceptions and promote healthful forms

Behavioral capability: this is knowledge and skill to perform a given behavior; it promotes mastery learning through skills training

Expectations: Anticipatory outcomes of a behavior; Model positive outcomes of healthful behavior

Expectancies: These are the values that the person places on a given outcome, incentives; Present outcomes of change that have functional meaning

Self-control: Personal regulation of goal-directed behavior or performance; Provide opportunities for self-monitoring, goal setting, problem solving, and self-reward

Observational learning: Behavioral acquisition that occurs by watching the actions and outcomes of others' behavior; Include credible role models of the targeted behavior

Reinforcements: Responses to a person's behavior that increase or decrease the likelihood of reoccurrence; Promote self-initiated rewards and incentives

Self-efficacy: The person's confidence in performing a particular behavior; the approach to behavioral change should be done in small steps to ensure success.

Emotional coping responses: Strategies or tactics that are used by a person to deal with emotional stimuli; provide training in problem solving and stress management

Reciprocal determinism: The dynamic interaction of the person, the behavior, and the environment in which the behavior is performed; consider multiple avenues to behavioral change, including environmental, skill, and personal change.

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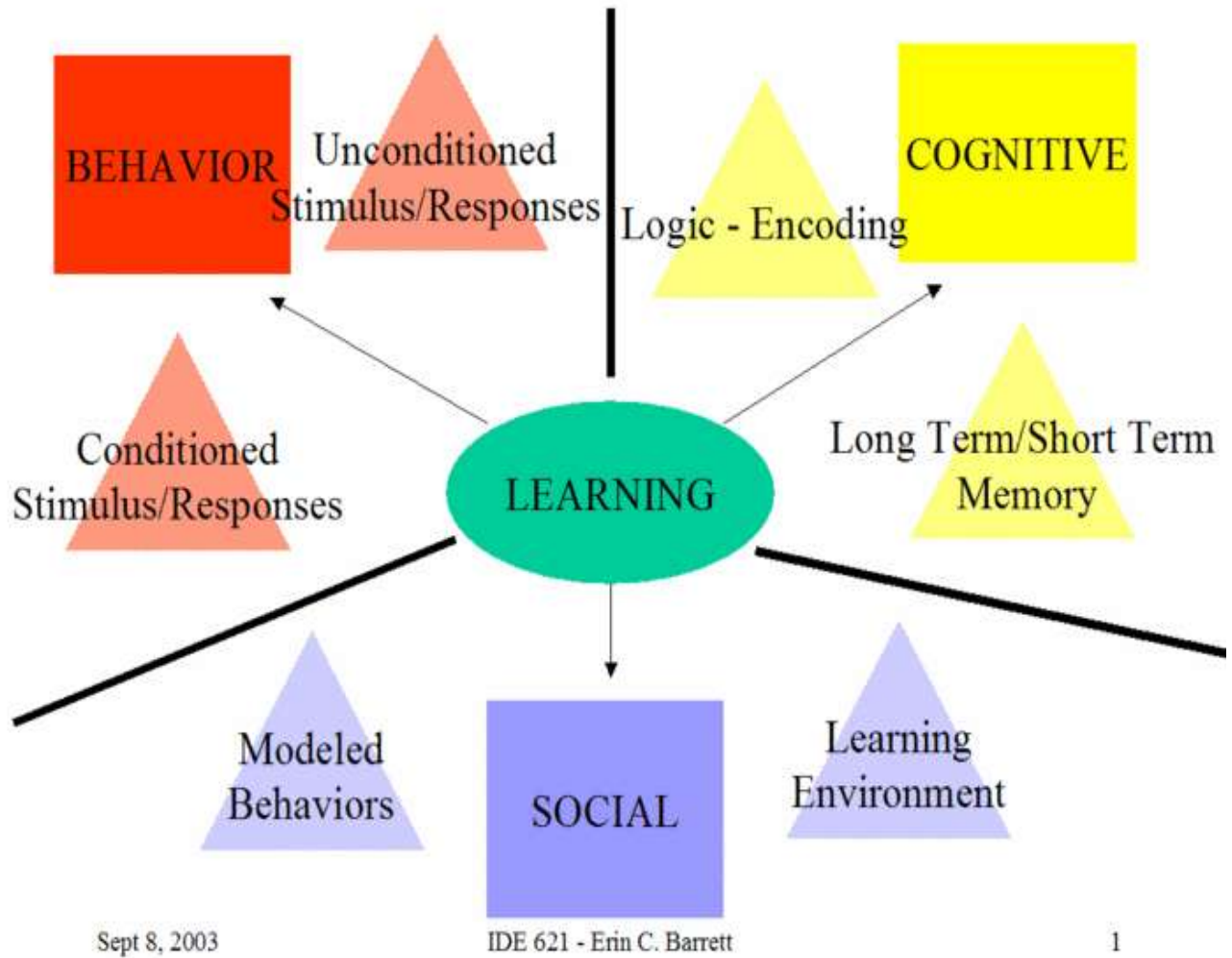


Figure 2.1 - Social Learning Theory diagram

In relation to this study:

The diagram in Fig 2.1 was adapted for the purpose of this study to develop Fig 2.1b.

Observational learning: these are the things adolescents learn from the parents or significant others who play a major role and serve as a role model for the adolescents. They observe them and over time pick up certain behaviours or actions performed by their parents/parent-figures.

Environment: The atmosphere in the home – how close the adolescents are to their parents, how long the parents stay at home with them, if they eat together or commune with one another and the influence of significant others within the home. The type of family; whether monogamy or polygamy is also significant in determining the level of parental connectedness.

Self-efficacy: The age of the adolescent, the level of education, the level of personal confidence of the adolescent and religion (values and value clarification) include some of the factors which would affect the sexual life of the adolescent.

Value Expectation: Adolescents are inquisitive and want to learn directly from their parents. Parents as well would want their adolescents to adopt acceptable sexual behaviours which they model.

Efficacy Expectation: Perceived ability of the parents to influence their adolescent sexual behaviour.

Behaviour: Adolescent may choose to adopt or reject the accepted or modeled sexual behaviour by their parents.

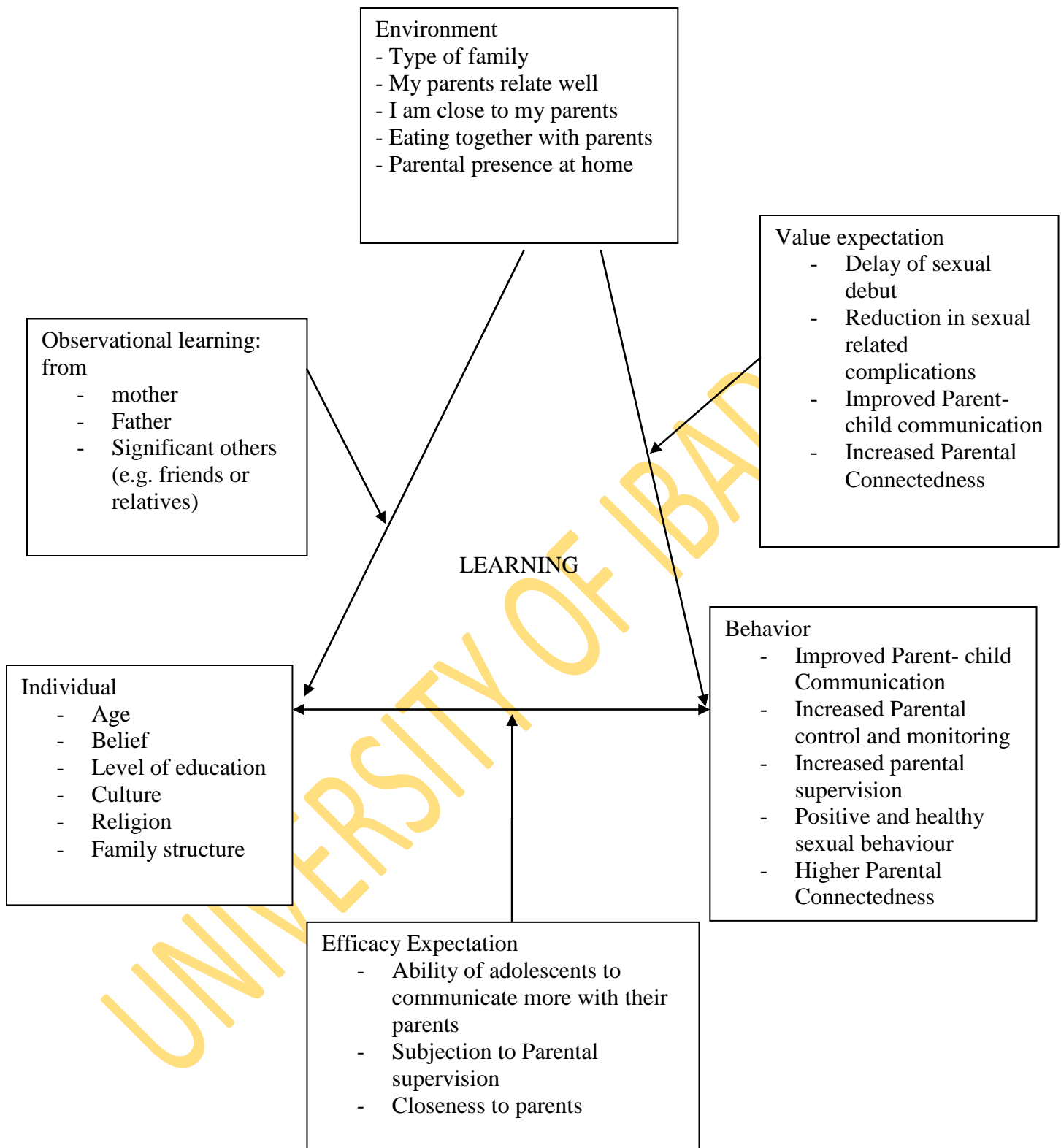


Figure 2.1b - Social Learning Theory applied to the study on the influence of parent connectedness on the sexual behavior of adolescents

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter begins with the study design, description of the study area, study population and study variables. It also describes the methods and instruments of data collection and data analysis, the validity and reliability of instruments and ethical considerations.

Study design

A cross-sectional survey research design was used and focused on assessing the influence of parent connectedness on the sexual behaviour of the public secondary school students in Ibadan North East local Government area of Oyo State.

Description of Study Area

The study site is Ibadan North East Local Government Area, Oyo state. The Ibadan North East local government area was created by the Federal Military Government on the 27th of September, 1991. It was carved from the defunct Ibadan Municipal Government along with others with the Administrative Headquarters situated at Idi-Ape.

It covers a land area of 51.250 square kilometer. Using a growth rate of 3.2% from 2006 census, 2010 estimated figure is put at 374,772. The Local Government Area has the highest population density of 7,313 persons per square kilometer in Oyo State. The local government has 12 political wards. Bounded by Ona-Ara, Ibadan South East and Egbeda Local Government Areas, Ibadan North East Local Government Area is an urban centre which forms part of Ibadan Metropolis.

The residents are Yorubas and other tribes notable for banking and trading activities. It has the largest spare-parts market called Araromi Market Gate (Iso Part). However, majority of the parents whose children attend the secondary schools within this environment are traders, others engage in other professions. A large proportion of students within this local government are from monogamous families and most of the students live with their parents.

Majority of the parents value children with good training/upbringing, hence try to map out time to talk with as well monitor/supervise their wards.

There are 64 public schools in the local government – 45 junior secondary schools and 19 senior secondary schools.

The main language of communication in the area is Yoruba, especially in the traditional or inner core area. English and Pidgin English are spoken along with Yoruba in the other two areas because of the rich mixture of non-indigenes.

Some of the secondary schools within this environment are readily accessible to brothels, drinking bars and have bushes close to them.

Study population

The study population comprised of public secondary school students in Ibadan North East local government area, Oyo state. The schools have Parent – Teacher Associations that contribute to the progress of the school, students or individuals.

Sample size determination

The sample size was calculated using the following formula:

$$N = \frac{(Z\alpha + Z\beta)^2 [p(1-p)]}{d^2}$$

Where N= sample size

$Z\alpha$ = standard normal deviate of α at 5%

P = previous estimate of the proportion of adolescents with parent connectedness

d = level of precision

$$Z\alpha = -1.96$$

$$Z\beta = 0.84 \text{ (if power is 80\%)} \text{ (Araoye, 2004)}$$

P = 0.42 (42% - prevalence of adolescents in Saharan Africa that have parent connectedness associated with their sexual behavior (Biddlecom. A, Awusabo-Asare. K and Bankole A., 2004)

$$= 792$$

The sample size was rounded off to 800 respondents

Sampling Procedure

A multistage sampling procedure was used in selecting the respondents. This consisted of 3 stages. A community diagnoses revealed the number of Public secondary schools in chosen area -Ibadan North East Local Government Area. The school enrolment records also revealed that there are 64 public schools in the local government – 45 junior secondary schools and 19 senior secondary schools.

Stage 1 – A total representative sample of 5 out of the 12 wards were selected and schools were stratified according to their wards.

Stage 2 – The schools were stratified into Public secondary schools (Public junior and public senior) and chosen in 1:1 ratio from each group of schools. In all, 16 schools were randomly selected.

Stage 3 – the proportion of students to be selected in each school were calculated. Classes were randomly selected from each arm within the school. i.e Junior Public secondary schools from JS1 – JS 3 and Senior Public Secondary schools from SS1 – SS 3. Proportionate sampling was used to know the number of students to be selected from each school and selection was calculated thus (See Table 3.1 and 3.1b).

Table 3.1 Distribution of Sample size by schools (Junior schools)

Name of Schools	Total No of Students in the school	Sample size determination (by school)	Calculated No of students
	*Jnr	*Jnr	*Jnr
Loyola	500	$500/14320 \times 800$	30
Queen of Apostles	450	$450/14320 \times 800$	25
Oluyoro	350	$350/14320 \times 800$	20
Renascent	406	$406/14320 \times 800$	25
United	435	$435/14320 \times 800$	25
Holy trinity	420	$420/14320 \times 800$	25
Lagelu	480	$480/14320 \times 800$	30
Olubadan	425	$425/14320 \times 800$	25
Total	3466		
	14320 (total for Jnr and Snr)		

***Junior**

Table 3.1b Distribution of Sample size by schools (Senior schools and Total)

Name of Schools	Total No of Students in the school	Sample size determination (by school)	Calculated No of students	TOTAL By school (Jnr + Snr)
	**Snr	**Snr	**Snr	
Loyola	1700	1700/14320 X 800	95	125
Queen of Apostles Oluyoro	1320	1320/14320 X 800	75	100
Renascent	960	960/14320 X 800	54	74
United	1048	1048/14320 X 800	60	85
Holy trinity Lagelu	1276	1276/14320 X 800	70	95
Holy trinity Lagelu	1370	1370/14320 X 800	75	100
Olubadan	1600	1600/14320 X 800	85	115
Olubadan	1580	1580/14320 X 800	85	110
Total	10854			804
	14320 (total for Jnr and Snr)			

****Senior**

Out of the classes within the school, classrooms were selected randomly for schools that have classes with more than one arm. However, the class was selected for the study if it had only an arm. The male and female class register was checked and every 3rd student in the registers was chosen to participate in the study respectively.

Instrument for data collection

Qualitative and quantitative methods were used for data collection.

Qualitative Method

Focus group discussions (FGDs) were used as a diagnostic tool to determine the influence of Parental Connectedness on the sexual behaviour of Public Secondary School students. The FGD guide was developed by the researcher in close consultation with resource persons within the department of Health Promotion and Education and outside. The FGD guide comprised of 15 guide items targeting the influence Parental Connectedness on the sexual

behaviour of Public Secondary School students within Ibadan North East local government area (See Appendix).

Quantitative Method

The quantitative method used was a semi structured questionnaire (Appendix 3). The information gathered from the FGD guide (Appendix 2) guided the development of this. The questionnaire consists a total of 101 questions which were grouped to cover the sociodemographic characteristics of the respondents, the second measured the level of Parental Connectedness with their children [subdivided into 4 sections to include - Parental Control and Monitoring (PCM), Parental Supervision (PS), Parent-child Relationship/Parental Presence (PRPP) and Parent-Child Communication (PCC)] and the third assessed the pattern of sexual behaviour of the adolescents. The questionnaire was written in English language and transcribed to Yoruba language (See Appendix 4).

Validity of the Instruments

Several measures were taken to ensure that the instrument was valid. The draft was subjected to independent peer review and expert review (project supervisor, a medical statistician) critically examined the instrument and made necessary corrections which were effected for face and content validity. The instrument was drawn in English and was translated to Yoruba language by someone vast in both English and Yoruba languages (See Appendix 3 and 4 for the English and Yoruba version respectively).

Eighty questionnaires (10% of the total sample) were administered and collected from respondents. The findings of the pre-test were used to make necessary corrections for the main study to ensure relevance, appropriateness and adequacy of the items in the instrument. Another step taken to promote the validity of data collected was the training of recruited Research Assistants (RAs). A total of 5 RAs were recruited and trained. Their knowledge of elements of the questionnaire was also upgraded. This involved explaining what each question is seeking for, how it should be asked as well as how the answers should be recorded. Discussions, questions – and – answers, and role-plays were the training methods used. The trainees were also involved in the pre-test of the FGD guide and questionnaire.

Reliability of the instrument

The FGD guide was pre-tested among 32 students and the two versions of the questionnaire i.e. English and Yoruba versions were pre-tested among 80 students in Army Barrack Grammar School, Iwo road, within the Ibadan North LGA. The Local Government has similar characteristics with Ibadan North East LGA. To confirm the reliability of the questionnaire, analysis of the pre-test data was done using the Cronbach's Alpha correlation coefficient of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The Alpha-Cronbach is a model of internal consistency, based on the average inter-item correlation. The test reported reliability co-efficient of 0.7. This was interpreted as a high reliability since a correlation co-efficient that is greater than 0.5 is usually interpreted as high reliability.

Data Collection Process

Data collection for the study took place between June and July, 2011. Eight (8) FGDs were conducted, four each for males and females taking consideration of different age groups of the secondary school the students attended. In order to facilitate free flow of discussion, the students were divided into groups based on their age and class. Eight persons of the target group were brought together to discuss the issues as contained in the FGD guide (Appendix IV). The investigator moderated all the sessions, was assisted by a Research Assistant and recorder who operated the tape used for recording the sessions. Each session took a minimum of 45 minutes. The FGD sessions took a total of 3 days.

The respondents for the study were selected using the sample technique earlier discussed. The questionnaires were administered with the help the trained and recruited RAs to assist the researcher who supervised and was also involved in the study. It was interviewer guided. A total of 820 questionnaires were administered to eligible respondents over a period of 21 days. Where the respondents needed clarification, the researcher and assistants assisted the respondents. However, only 802 questionnaires were accurately filled.

At the end of each day, the questionnaires were gone through and serially numbered for easy identification and recall. The experiences for the day were discussed to aid the researcher and assistants for the next day.

Data Management

All questionnaires were reviewed and edited by the researcher and assistants for completeness and quality of information. Completed questionnaires were coded. The information gathered from the semi-structured questionnaire was entered into the computer and analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software, Version 16.0. Both descriptive and inferential statistics used to analyze the quantitative data.

Data Analysis

The FGD data was subjected to content analysis. Descriptive statistics such as means, medians, ranges and standard deviations were used to summarize quantitative variables, while categorical variables were summarized by proportions and percentages. Frequency tables and graphs were generated for relevant variables. The chi squared test was used to investigate associations between categorical variables and also to compare proportions. All analysis will be carried out at the 5% level of significance. Data was subjected to multivariate logistic regression analysis to identify which of the domain of parental connectedness affects the sexual behaviour of participants.

Respondents' level of connectedness was assessed based on 72-itemscale, 44 of which were measured using a 5-point scale and 28 on a 3-point scale. Scores were allocated to items on the scale. The 5-point likert scale has the highest scoring item as 5 and the lowest as 1 while the 3-point scale had the highest scoring item as 3 and the lowest as 1 with overall minimum and maximum scores of 72 and 304 respectively. The mid-points were used to categorize Parental Connectedness. On the 5-point scale, the mid-point was 3 while it was 2 on the 3-point scale. Overall scores of ≤ 188 and > 188 point were categorized as low and high PC respectively. The assessed four domains of Parental Connectedness (PC): Parental Control and Monitoring (PCM), Parental Supervision (PS), Parent-child Relationship/Parental Presence (PRPP) and Parent-Child Communication (PCC) with domain maximum scores of 90, 40, 90 and 84 respectively. Scores considered high connectedness for PCM, PS, PRPP and PCC were ≥ 54 , ≥ 24 , ≥ 54 and ≥ 56 respectively. Data was subjected to multivariate logistic regression analysis to identify which of the domain of parental connectedness affects the sexual behaviour of participants.

The dependent variable was whether the participant had ever had sex (Yes =1, No=2). The domains of parental connectedness which includes: Mothers' control and monitoring, Mothers' supervision and Fathers' supervision (independent variables) with a p-value <0.05 on bi-variate analysis were entered into the model and cross tabulated against the sexual behaviour of the participants. An odds ratio greater than 1 for a particular variable indicates that those in that category were at risk for the problem compared with those in the reference category. An odds ratio less than 1 indicates that the variable was protective for those in the subject category while those in the reference were at risk. An odds ratio equal to or close to 1 indicates an equal likelihood of having the problem in those in the subject and reference category.

Ethical Considerations

The following ethical considerations were obtained - letters from the Local Government office (see Appendix II) and the Oyo State Ethical Board approval for the study (see Appendix III). Verbal consent was used where respondents could not read or write properly. Informed consent was obtained from respondents by giving them a consent form to fill according to their ability to read and write. The informed consent spelt out the title of the study, purpose, justification as well as the benefit that would be derived from the study. The questionnaire was designed to be anonymous to ensure confidentiality. It was patterned after the ethical principles guiding the use of human participants in research.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

The result is presented in the following sections:

- 4.1: Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents
- 4.2: Respondents' level of parental connectedness
- 4.3: Sexual behaviour of respondents
- 4.4: Association between parental connectedness and students' sexual behaviour
- 4.5: Identifying the domains of parental connectedness that affects the sexual behaviour

4.1 Socio-demographic characteristics

Of the 802 respondents, slightly more than half, 421 (52.5%) were from the coeducational school and girls (56.5%) were a little more than boys (43.5%). The overall mean age was 15.2 ± 2.0 years. Majority were Yoruba (90.3%) [See Table 4.1] About half (51%) identified themselves as Muslims (Table 4.1) with a higher proportion in the girls' school (55.3%) than others (Figure 4.3). Many respondents attended religious activities with a median of 4 days per week (Table 4.2).

Majority of students irrespective of type of school were from monogamous families [Boys only 157 (77.0%), Girls only 118 (66.7%) and Coeducational 290 (68.9%)] (Table 4.2).

Nearly two-third (60.9%) of mothers of respondents in boys' schools were 1st wives but lower in others (Figure 4.2).

More respondents' mothers (53.4%) than fathers (45.9%) had secondary education as the highest level of education (See Fig. 4.3). Most parents (mothers than fathers) belonged to the middle cadre occupation, 71.1% and 54.4% respectively. (Table 4.3a) This finding is similar when compared by sex (Table 4.3b) and in all schools. (See Table 4.3c)

Figure 4.4 depicts the parents' place of work. Majority of mothers (92.1%) than fathers (67.7%) work within town.

Most of the respondents (84.0%) currently live with both parents (father and mother) [Figure 4.5] and finding is similar in all schools (Table 4.4). The median number of years lived with parents was 15 (range 3 – 21). For those not living with their parents, the median duration of time away from their parents is 4 (range 1 – 16) years.

Majority of respondents' parents 706 (89%) live together. (See Table 4.1) However, when compared by schools, more parents from the girls only and coeducational schools (9%; 8.8%) were separated. (Fig 4.6)

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Table 4.1 Socio-demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Variables	Freq (n = 802)	Per (%)
Sex		
Male	387	48.3
Female	415	51.7
Age (years)		
10 – 14	263	32.8
15 -19	531	66.2
20 and above	8	1.0
School		
Boys' only	204	25.4
Girls' only	177	22.1
Coeducational	421	52.5
Class		
Junior Secondary (JS) 1	90	11.2
JS 2	131	16.3
JS3	14	1.7
Senior Secondary (SS) 1	281	35.0
SS 2	259	32.3
SS 3	27	3.4
Type of Family		
Monogamous	565	70.4
Polygamous	237	29.6
Ethnic Group		
Yoruba	724	90.3
Igbo	72	9.0
Hausa	4	0.5
Others	2	0.2
Religion		
Christianity	382	47.6
Islam	409	51.0
Traditional	11	1.4
Frequency of religious activities (days/week)		
1-3	357	44.5
≥ 4	445	55.5
Marital Status of Respondents' Parents		
Married	706	89.0
Separated	68	8.0
Divorced	28	3.0

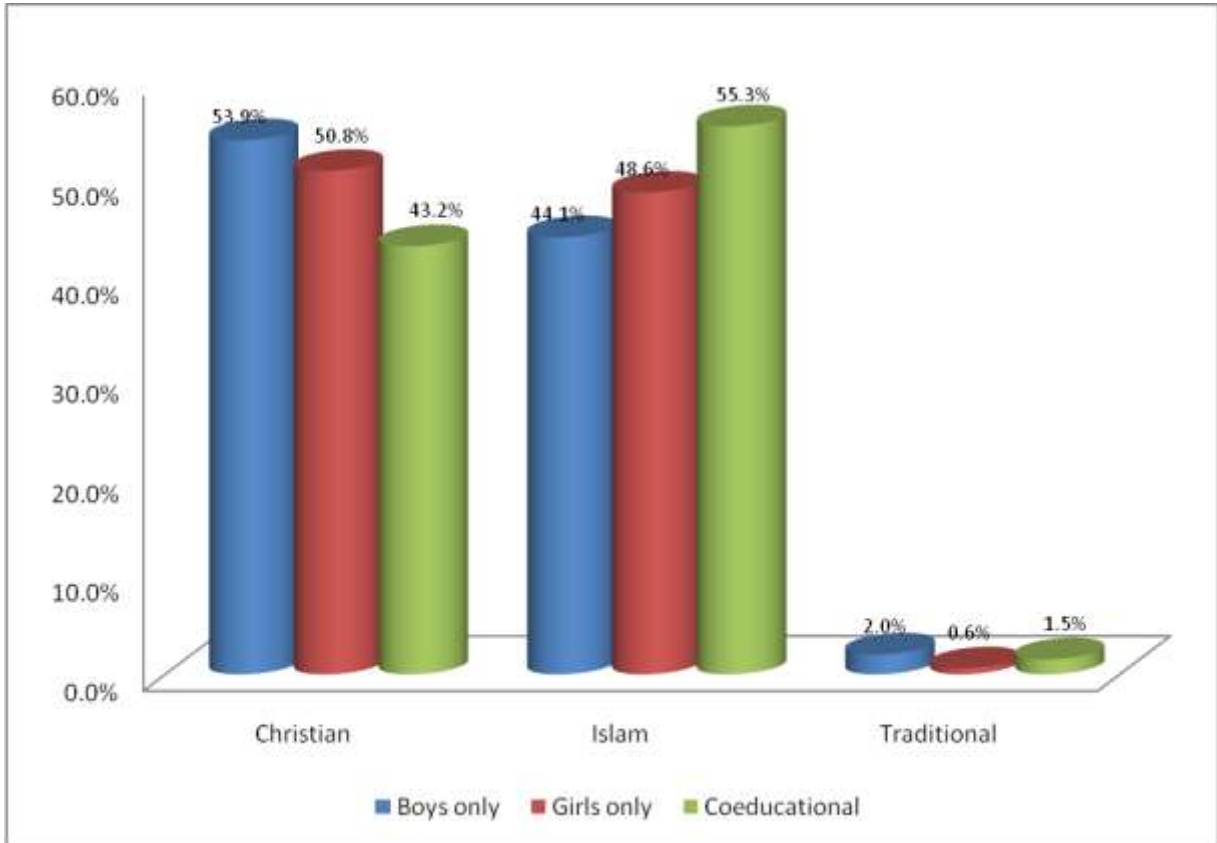


Figure 4.1 Respondents' Religion by type of schools

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Table 4.2: Respondents type of schools by age, family types and frequency of attendance to religious activities

Characteristics	All respondents	Boys Schools	Girls' schools	Coeducational schools	P value
No of respondents	802 (100.0)	204 (25.4)	177 (22.1)	421 (52.5)	-
Mean age (years)	15.2±2.0	14.9±1.9	14.9±1.9	15.4±2.1	0.000
Types of family					
Monogamous	565 (70.5)	157 (77.0)	118 (66.7)	290 (68.9)	0.038
Polygamous	237 (29.5)	47 (23.0)	59 (33.3)	131 (31.1)	
Median no of wives for polygamous (range)	2 (2 – 10)	2 (2 - 10)	2 (2 - 5)	2 (2 - 8)	0.493
Median frequency of attendance of religious activities (days per week)	4 (0 – 7)	3 (0 – 7)	3 (1 – 7)	5 (0 – 7)	0.000

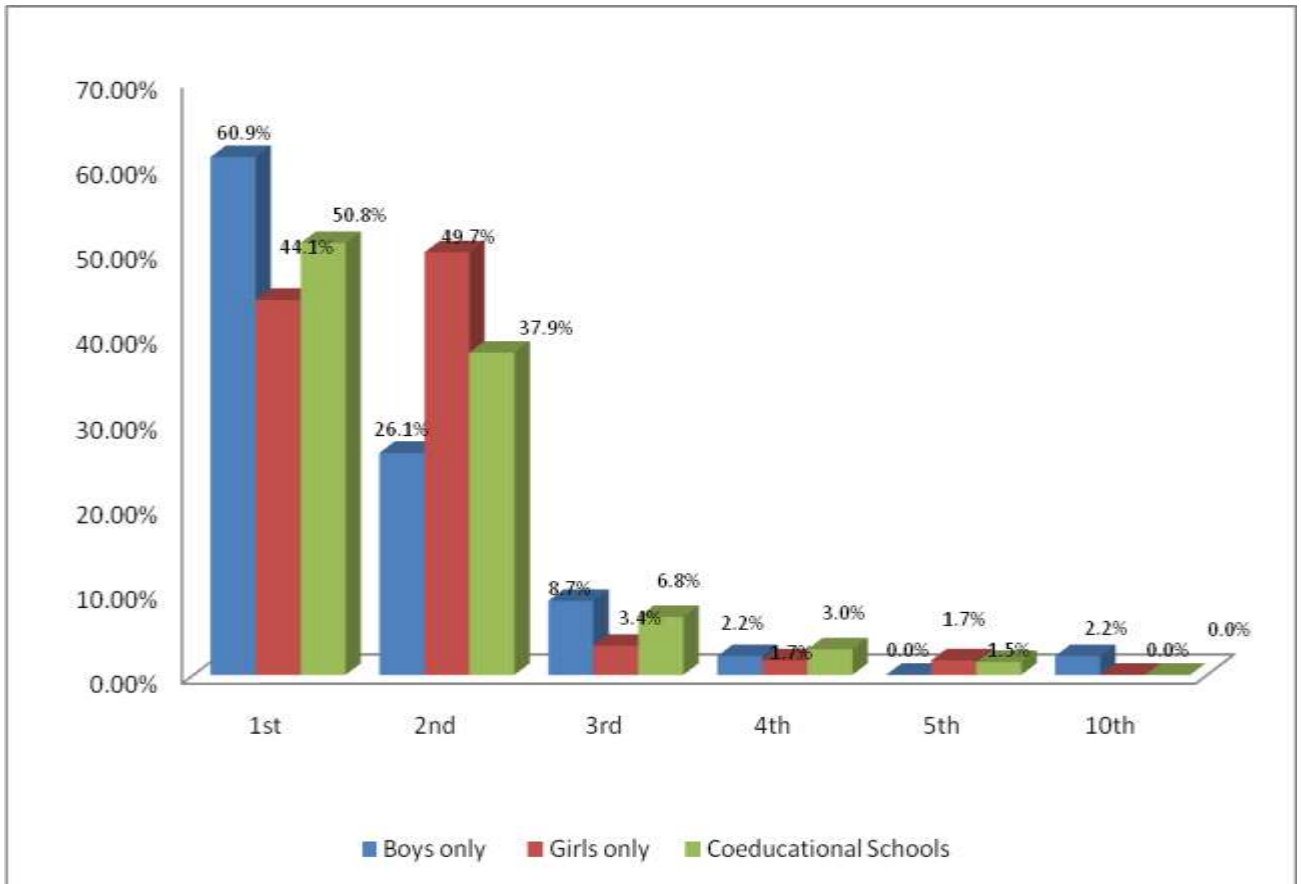


Figure 4.2 Mothers' position among fathers' wives

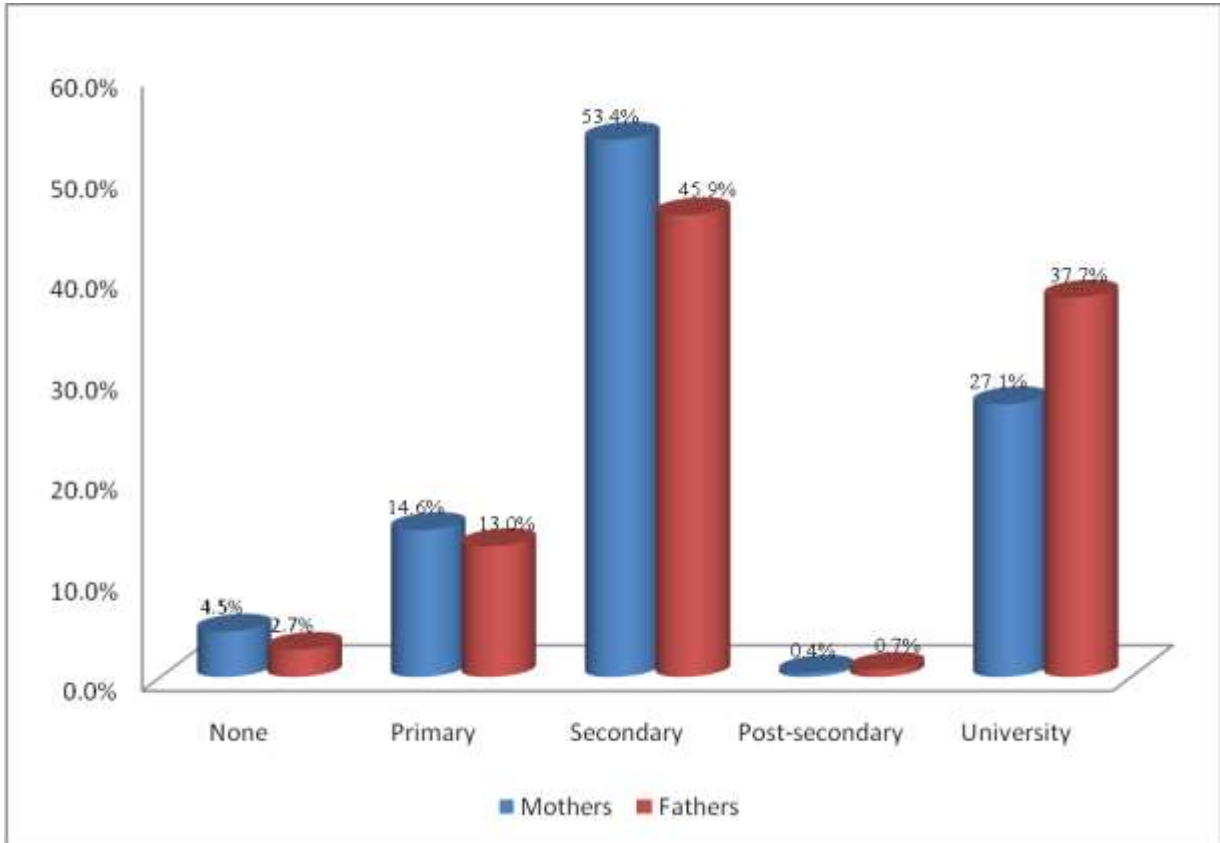


Figure 4.3 Respondents' parents highest level of education

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Table 4.3a: Occupation of respondents' parents

Occupation	No of Fathers		No of Mothers	
	N	%	N	%
Senior cadre (<i>senior public servant, professional, Manager, contractor, large scale trader</i>)	218	27.2	91	11.3
Intermediate grade worker (<i>intermediate grade, public servant, senior school teacher</i>)	106	13.2	80	10.0
Middle cadre (<i>junior school teacher, driver, artisan, pastors, trading, clerics</i>)	436	54.4	570	71.1
Junior worker (<i>petty trader, labourer, messenger, similar grade</i>)	17	2.1	52	6.5
Unemployed (<i>unemployed, full time housewife, student, subsistence farmer, similar grade</i>)	25	3.1	9	1.1
Total		100.0		

Table 4.3b Occupation of Respondents' Parents by Sex

Occupation	Fathers		Mothers	
	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)
Senior cadre	113 (29.2)	105 (25.3)	33 (8.5)	59 (14.2)
Intermediate grade worker	50 (12.9)	56 (13.5)	44 (11.4)	36 (8.7)
Middle cadre	204 (52.7)	231 (55.7)	277 (71.6)	292 (70.4)
Junior worker	5 (1.3)	12 (2.9)	28 (7.2)	24 (5.8)
Unemployed	15 (3.9)	11 (2.7)	5 (1.3)	4 (1.0)

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Table 4.3c Occupation of Respondents' Parents by Schools

Occupation	Boys only school		Girls only school		Coeducational school	
	Father	Mother	Father	Mother	Father	Mother
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
Senior cadre	78 (38.2)	18 (8.8)	50 (28.2)	30 (16.9)	90 (21.4)	44 (10.5)
Intermediate grade worker	26 (12.7)	32 (15.7)	23 (13.0)	17 (9.6)	57 (13.5)	31 (7.4)
Middle cadre	93 (45.6)	131 (64.2)	99 (55.9)	116 (65.5)	243 (57.7)	322 (76.5)
Junior worker	3 (1.5)	21 (10.3)	2 (1.1)	12 (6.8)	12 (2.9)	19 (4.5)
Unemployed	4 (2.0)	2 (1.0)	3 (1.7)	2 (1.1)	19 (4.5)	5 (1.2)

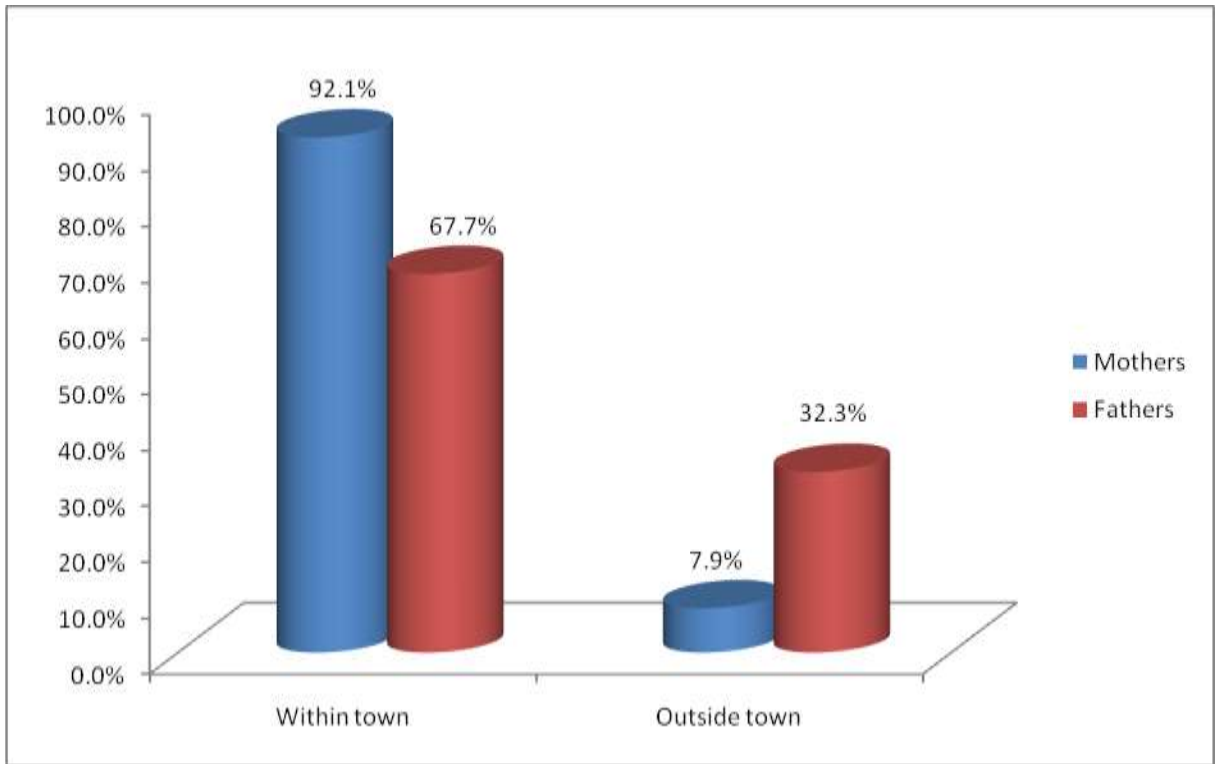


Figure 4.4 Location of respondents' parents' place of work

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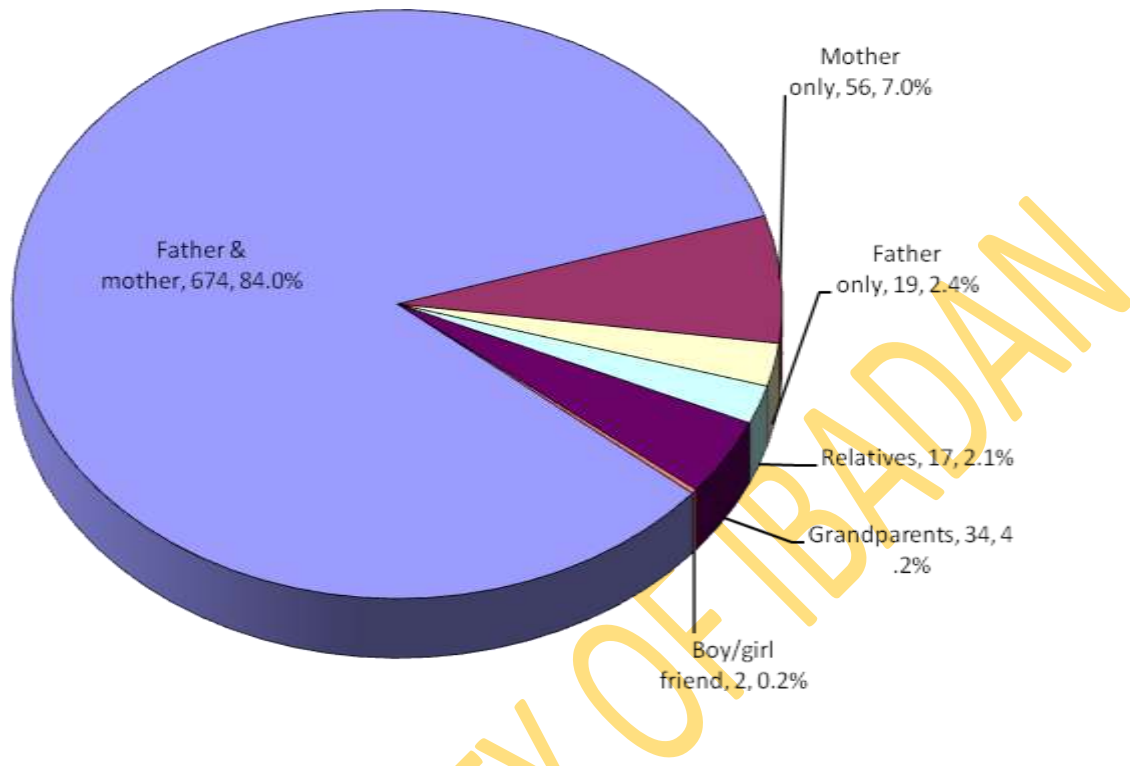


Figure 4.5 Type of People respondents live with

Table 4.4 Type of People respondents live with by type of schools

People respondents live with	Type of School		
	Boys' only N (%)	Girls' only N (%)	Coeducational School N (%)
Father and Mother	171 (83.8%)	146 (82.5%)	357 (84.8%)
Mother only	13 (6.4%)	15 (8.5%)	28 (6.7%)
Father only	9 (4.4%)	2 (1.1%)	8 (1.9%)
Relatives	4 (2.0%)	5 (2.8%)	8 (1.9%)
Grandparents	6 (2.9%)	9 (5.1%)	19 (4.5%)
Boy/Girl friend	1 (0.5%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.2%)

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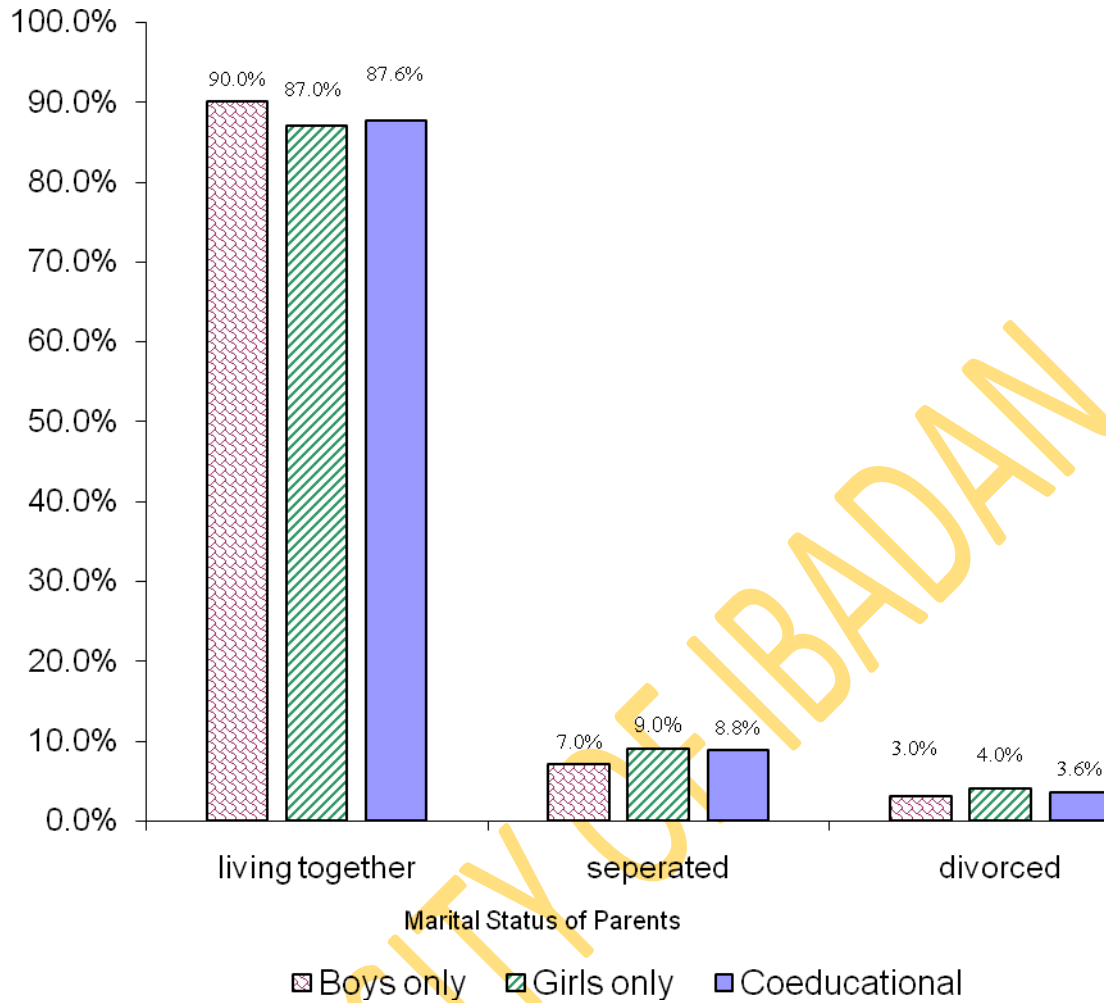


Figure 4.6: Respondents' parents marital status by type of schools

4.2 Respondents' level of connectedness

4.2.1 Parental control and monitoring

The result of the survey on Parental control and monitoring revealed that more mothers (82.8%) than fathers (67.0%) always knew where their children were after school, what they do with their free time (61.7%, 51.5%) and the types of clothes they put on (76.6%, 58.4%). More mothers than fathers always encouraged their children to attend religious activities (85.7%, 82.8%) and are always not pleased when they associate with friends who smoke/drink (70.2%, 66.3%)[Table 4.5] When compared by sex, mothers always knew where girls more than boys (85.8%, 79.6%) were after school, what they do with their free time (71.3%, 51.4%) and what type of clothes they put on (81.4%, 71.3%) . However, fathers encouraged boys (84.2%) and girls (81.4%) to attend religious activities. (Table 4.6a and b) When compared by schools, Parents of respondents in the boys' only schools; more mothers (84.8%) than fathers (80.9%), were not always pleased when their wards associated with friends that smoke or drank alcohol (Table 4.6c and d).

The findings from the Focus Group Discussion (FGD) revealed that parents made efforts to monitor their children's movement. The participants however unanimously agreed that mothers more often than fathers obtained their wards' class teachers' phone numbers in order to be able to call them, made impromptu visits to the school and also attend open day meetings when necessary. One of the participants said,

“Some parents, like my mother, even come to school to know if their child stays in class or not especially when the student has been told to invite his/her parents in the past because some students go under the bridge to rent touts outside to appear as their fathers or brothers. Some also rent area boys to act as if they are their parents”.

When asked to discuss the ways in which parents contribute to students' lives and progress in school, most of the participants said most parents contribute by giving moral support to their children. A participant said:

“Parents must give moral support to their children and take care of [monitor] their movement. Parents should be able to know what their children are doing in and after school”.

Majority of the participants opined that most parents contribute to their children's education and their school work, pay their school fees, buy their books and care for them. One of the participants said,

“Some parents, mostly mothers, when their children get home, they check their assignment..... even SS3 [Senior Secondary class three] students' parents still check their bags to see their assignments every day. That is how parents support their children morally to encourage them to work harder”.

Another participant added that:

“Most parents, most of the time our mothers, come to school regularly to check their children, to know what they are doing. They will ask their class teachers about their performances. If they are declining, they will help them with what they are doing at home so that they have time to read”.

However, the view point of others include:

“Some parents are not educated, so they don't know about their children's education”.

“Some students live with their boy/girlfriend who usually take responsibility in caring for the students”.

“Some students work to earn some money to buy their school needs while others have their parents buy things for them”

“Some parents make their children hawk to sell things after school leaving them little time for study”.

Questions were raised on the relationships between parents of students in their school and their wards' friends. Participants expressed different opinions. Most of the respondents stated that their parents relate better with friends if they are of the same sex and if they are well behaved.

A participant stated,

“Most parents will only allow friends whose parents or homes they know to visit. Some do allow our friends to visit us at home while some do not. Most of our friends can only come to our houses if they are known as good and brilliant students”.

Other participants added,

“For girls, most mothers will not allow male friends because they do not want their daughters to get pregnant or to abort or stop their school. They have to watch them”.

“Most parents tell our friends to go home when they stay too long”.

“Like some parents, if a friend came to visit their child, they want to interview the friend to know his/her character, to know his/her background, to know the type of friends their child is walking with, whether the friend is a bad or good person”.

“They don’t allow us to visit our friends or our friends to visit us”.

Other views stated were,

“We go home straight after school; there is no room to go out with our friends. Some of our mothers look at the time when we get home after school”.

One of the male respondents said,

“For males, our parents will even allow girls to visit us but they watch our male friends very well and do not encourage them to visit our homes”.

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Table 4.5 Parents' control and monitoring

Parents' control and monitoring	Always N (%)		Most times N (%)		Sometimes N (%)		Rarely N (%)		Never N (%)	
	Mother	Father	Mother	Father	Mother	Father	Mother	Father	Mother	Father
My parents know where I am after school	664 (82.8)	537 (67.0)	33 (4.1)	59 (7.4)	47 (5.9)	93 (11.6)	26 (3.2)	30 (3.7)	32 (4.0)	83 (10.3)
My parents know what I do with my free time	495 (61.7)	413 (51.5)	135 (16.8)	112 (14.0)	106 (13.2)	158 (19.7)	20 (2.5)	36 (4.5)	46 (5.7)	83 (10.3)
I do not tell my parents whom I am going to be with before I go out	435 (54.2)	407 (50.7)	43 (5.4)	48 (6.0)	103 (12.8)	109 (13.6)	92 (11.5)	73 (9.1)	129 (16.1)	165 (20.6)
My parents does not know who my friends are	372 (46.4)	341 (42.5)	66 (8.2)	73 (9.1)	107 (13.3)	103 (12.8)	84 (10.5)	82 (10.2)	173 (21.6)	203 (25.3)
My parents know the type of clothes I put on	614 (76.6)	468 (58.4)	61 (7.6)	85 (10.6)	60 (7.5)	111 (13.8)	21 (2.6)	32 (4.0)	46 (5.7)	106 (13.2)
My parents are not pleased when I visit pornographic sites	427 (53.2)	417 (52.0)	54 (6.7)	48 (6.0)	44 (5.5)	51 (6.4)	25 (3.1)	20 (2.5)	252 (31.4)	266 (33.2)
My parents does not monitor the party I attend	456 (56.9)	430 (53.6)	43 (5.4)	44 (5.5)	70 (8.7)	80 (10.0)	36 (4.5)	45 (5.6)	197 (24.6)	203 (25.3)
My parents encourage me to attend religious activities	687 (85.7)	664 (82.8)	34 (4.2)	46 (5.7)	20 (2.5)	38 (4.7)	21 (2.6)	12 (1.5)	40 (5.0)	42 (5.2)
My parents are not pleased when I associate with friends who smoke, drink etc	563 (70.2)	532 (66.3)	16 (2.0)	23 (2.9)	13 (1.6)	21 (2.6)	14 (1.7)	15 (1.9)	196 (24.4)	211 (26.3)

Table 4.6a Mothers' Control and monitoring by sex

Mothers' control and monitoring	Always		Most times		Sometimes		Rarely		Never	
	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)
My mother knows where I am after school	308 (79.6)	356 (85.8)	15 (3.9)	18 (4.3)	27 (7.0)	20 (4.8)	18 (4.7)	8 (1.9)	19 (4.9)	13 (3.1)
My mother knows what I do with my free time	199 (51.4)	296 (71.3)	83 (21.4)	52 (12.5)	61 (15.8)	45 (10.8)	10 (2.6)	10 (2.4)	34 (8.8)	12 (2.9)
I do not tell my mother whom I am going to be with before I go out	173 (44.7)	262 (63.1)	19 (4.9)	24 (5.8)	67 (17.3)	36 (8.7)	57 (14.7)	35 (8.4)	71 (18.3)	58 (14.0)
My mother does not know who my friends are	160 (41.3)	212 (51.1)	30 (7.8)	36 (8.7)	61 (15.8)	46 (11.1)	41 (10.6)	43 (10.4)	95 (24.5)	78 (18.8)
My mother knows the type of clothes I put on	276 (71.3)	338 (81.4)	40 (10.3)	21 (5.1)	36 (9.3)	24 (5.8)	12 (3.1)	9 (2.2)	23 (5.9)	23 (5.5)
My mother is not pleased when I visit pornographic sites	207 (53.5)	220 (53.0)	24 (6.2)	30 (7.2)	18 (4.7)	26 (6.3)	11 (2.8)	14 (3.4)	127 (32.8)	125 (30.1)
My mother does not monitor the party I attend	205 (53.0)	251 (60.5)	22 (5.7)	21 (5.1)	42 (10.9)	28 (6.7)	18 (4.7)	18 (4.3)	100 (25.8)	97 (23.4)
My mother encourages me to attend religious activities	333 (86.0)	354 (85.3)	18 (4.7)	16 (3.9)	9 (2.3)	11 (2.7)	8 (2.1)	13 (3.1)	19 (4.9)	21 (5.1)
My mother is not pleased when I associate with friends who smoke, drink etc	291 (75.2)	272 (65.5)	9 (2.3)	7 (1.7)	6 (1.6)	7 (1.7)	7 (1.8)	7 (1.7)	74 (19.1)	122 (29.4)

Table 4.6b Fathers' Control and monitoring by sex

Fathers' control and monitoring	Always		Most times		Sometimes		Rarely		Never	
	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)
My father knows where I am after school	261 (67.4)	276 (66.5)	28 (7.2)	31 (7.5)	50 (12.9)	43 (10.4)	15 (3.9)	15 (3.6)	33 (8.5)	50 (12.0)
My father knows what I do with my free time	173 (44.7)	240 (57.8)	67 (17.3)	45 (10.8)	91 (23.5)	67 (16.1)	15 (3.9)	21 (5.1)	41 (10.6)	42 (10.1)
I do not tell my father whom I am going to be with before I go out	172 (44.4)	235 (56.6)	25 (6.5)	23 (5.5)	72 (18.6)	37 (8.9)	40 (10.3)	33 (8.0)	78 (20.2)	87 (21.0)
My father does not know who my friends are	148 (38.2)	193 (46.5)	35 (9.0)	38 (9.2)	56 (14.5)	47 (11.3)	47 (12.1)	35 (8.4)	101 (26.1)	102 (24.6)
My father knows the type of clothes I put on	227 (58.7)	241 (58.1)	47 (12.1)	38 (9.2)	45 (11.6)	66 (15.9)	22 (5.7)	10 (2.4)	46 (11.9)	60 (14.5)
My father is not pleased when I visit pornographic sites	208 (53.7)	209 (50.4)	22 (5.7)	26 (6.3)	23 (5.9)	28 (6.7)	6 (1.6)	14 (3.4)	128 (33.1)	138 (33.3)
My father does not monitor the party I attend	175 (45.2)	255 (61.4)	26 (6.7)	18 (4.3)	46 (11.9)	34 (8.2)	23 (5.9)	22 (5.3)	117 (30.2)	86 (20.7)
My father encourages me to attend religious activities	326 (84.2)	338 (81.4)	22 (5.7)	24 (5.8)	15 (3.9)	23 (5.5)	6 (1.6)	6 (1.4)	18 (4.7)	24 (5.8)
My father is not pleased when I associate with friends who smoke, drink etc	279 (72.1)	253 (61.0)	10 (2.6)	13 (3.1)	10 (2.6)	11 (2.7)	7 (1.8)	8 (1.9)	81 (20.9)	130 (31.3)

Table 4.6c Mothers control and monitoring by schools

Mothers' control and monitoring	Always			Most times			Sometimes			Rarely			Never		
	*B	**G	***Co	B	G	Co	B	G	Co	B	G	Co	B	G	Co
My mother...	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
... knows where I am after school	164 (80.4)	148 (83.6)	352 (83.6)	10 (4.9)	7 (4.0)	16 (3.8)	18 (8.8)	9 (5.1)	20 (4.8)	5 (2.5)	4 (2.3)	17 (4.0)	7 (3.4)	9 (5.1)	16 (3.8)
... knows what I do with my free time	94 (46.1)	121 (68.4)	280 (66.5)	50 (24.5)	26 (14.7)	59 (14.0)	38 (18.6)	19 (10.7)	49 (11.6)	6 (2.9)	5 (2.8)	9 (2.1)	16 (7.8)	6 (3.4)	24 (5.7)
I do not tell... whom I am going to be with before I go out	99 (48.5)	111 (62.7)	225 (53.4)	9 (4.4)	12 (6.8)	22 (5.2)	37 (18.1)	22 (12.4)	44 (10.5)	31 (15.2)	22 (12.4)	39 (9.3)	28 (13.7)	10 (5.6)	91 (21.6)
... does not know who my friends are	87 (42.6)	92 (52.0)	193 (45.8)	16 (7.8)	15 (8.5)	35 (8.3)	31 (15.2)	25 (14.1)	51 (12.1)	26 (12.7)	15 (8.5)	43 (10.2)	44 (21.6)	30 (16.9)	99 (23.5)
... knows the type of clothes I put on	145 (71.1)	139 (78.5)	330 (78.4)	23 (11.3)	12 (6.8)	26 (6.2)	17 (8.3)	9 (5.1)	34 (8.1)	9 (4.4)	4 (2.3)	8 (1.9)	10 (4.9)	13 (7.3)	23 (5.5)
... is not pleased when I visit pornographic sites	128 (62.7)	93 (52.5)	206 (48.9)	8 (3.9)	14 (7.9)	32 (7.6)	11 (5.4)	14 (7.9)	19 (4.5)	4 (2.0)	11 (6.2)	10 (2.4)	53 (26.0)	45 (25.4)	154 (36.6)
... does not monitor the party I attend	111 (54.4)	103 (58.2)	242 (57.5)	11 (5.4)	13 (7.3)	19 (4.5)	21 (10.3)	15 (8.5)	34 (8.1)	9 (4.4)	6 (3.4)	21 (5.0)	52 (25.5)	40 (22.6)	105 (24.9)
... encourages me to attend religious activities	184 (90.2)	149 (84.2)	354 (84.1)	11 (5.4)	7 (4.0)	16 (3.8)	1 (0.5)	6 (3.4)	13 (3.1)	3 (1.5)	4 (2.3)	14 (3.3)	5 (2.5)	11 (6.2)	24 (5.7)
... is not pleased when I associate with friends who smoke, drink etc	173 (84.8)	116 (65.5)	274 (65.1)	5 (2.5)	6 (3.4)	5 (1.2)	2 (1.0)	3 (1.7)	8 (1.9)	3 (1.5)	2 (1.1)	9 (2.1)	21 (10.3)	50 (28.2)	125 (29.7)

*B = Boys only schools; ** G = Girls only schools; ***Co = Coeducational schools

Table 4.6d Fathers control and monitoring by schools

Fathers' control and monitoring	Always			Most times			Sometimes			Rarely			Never		
	*B	**G	***Co	B	G	Co	B	G	Co	B	G	Co	B	G	Co
My father....	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
... knows where I am after school	131 (64.2)	108 (61.0)	298 (70.8)	18 (8.8)	13 (7.3)	28 (6.7)	31 (15.2)	16 (9.0)	46 (10.9)	8 (3.9)	6 (3.4)	16 (3.8)	16 (7.8)	34 (19.2)	33 (7.8)
... knows what I do with my free time	85 (41.7)	91 (51.4)	237 (56.3)	38 (18.6)	20 (11.3)	54 (12.8)	54 (26.5)	30 (16.9)	74 (17.6)	7 (3.4)	10 (5.6)	19 (4.5)	20 (9.8)	26 (14.7)	37 (8.8)
I do not tell... whom I am going to be with before I go out	96 (47.1)	104 (58.8)	207 (49.2)	11 (5.4)	14 (7.9)	23 (5.5)	37 (18.1)	17 (9.6)	55 (13.1)	20 (9.8)	16 (9.0)	37 (8.8)	40 (19.6)	26 (14.7)	99 (23.5)
... does not know who my friends are	77 (37.7)	88 (49.7)	176 (41.8)	20 (9.8)	20 (11.3)	33 (7.8)	28 (13.7)	21 (11.9)	54 (12.8)	31 (15.2)	11 (6.2)	40 (9.5)	48 (23.5)	37 (20.9)	118 (28.0)
... knows the type of clothes I put on	116 (56.9)	96 (54.2)	256 (60.8)	29 (14.2)	22 (12.4)	34 (8.1)	28 (13.7)	26 (14.7)	57 (13.5)	11 (5.4)	5 (2.8)	16 (3.8)	20 (9.8)	28 (15.8)	58 (13.8)
... is not pleased when I visit pornographic sites	125 (61.3)	89 (50.3)	203 (48.2)	13 (6.4)	10 (5.6)	25 (5.9)	12 (5.9)	11 (6.2)	28 (6.7)	5 (2.5)	8 (4.5)	7 (1.7)	49 (24.0)	59 (33.3)	158 (37.5)
... does not monitor the party I attend	92 (45.1)	107 (60.5)	231 (54.9)	12 (5.9)	12 (6.8)	20 (4.8)	24 (11.8)	15 (8.5)	41 (9.7)	15 (7.4)	6 (3.4)	24 (5.7)	61 (29.9)	37 (20.9)	105 (24.9)
... encourages me to attend religious activities	176 (86.3)	140 (79.1)	348 (82.7)	12 (5.9)	11 (6.2)	23 (5.5)	8 (3.9)	11 (6.2)	19 (4.5)	2 (1.0)	1 (0.6)	9 (2.1)	6 (2.9)	14 (7.9)	22 (5.2)
... is not pleased when I associate with friends who smoke, drink etc	165 (80.9)	110 (62.1)	257 (61.0)	6 (2.9)	9 (5.1)	8 (1.9)	3 (1.5)	2 (1.1)	16 (3.8)	3 (1.5)	2 (1.1)	10 (2.4)	27 (13.2)	54 (30.5)	130 (30.9)

*B = Boys only schools; **G = Girls only schools; ***Co = Coeducational schools

4.2.2 Parental Supervision

Overall Parental supervision was assessed individually for fathers and mothers. The result of the study revealed that more mothers (63.8%) than fathers (52.7%) always supervise the homework/classwork of their children (Table 4.7). The findings were also similar when compared by sex and by schools. More girls (68.4%, 56.9%) than boys (58.9%, 48.3%) had their mothers and fathers supervise their home/class work respectively. Also, when compared in schools, respondents in girl only schools also had more supervision in this regard from their mothers than fathers (67.8, 54.8%) (Table 4.8a and b).

Majority of the FGD participants agreed that their parents supervised them adequately; their parents (commonly mothers, because they spend more time with them) repeatedly watch all what they do, ask them questions and supervise their homework. Some of the typical responses were:

“They [our parents, especially our mothers] supervise us”.

“Our parents always want to know what we are doing. Some of our parents especially our mothers ask questions about everything”.

“Parents who have or think of good future for their children always ask what they do at school and tell them to study hard so they could be better than them. They advise us to be punctual at school so that we can have good education and not to visit any friends’ house [when we should be in school], because we are in school to learn”.

“They (our parents) tell us to make friends with only the brilliant ones so one could become a great person in future”.

Contrary to the above however, some participants said:

“For some parent, there is nothing that concerns them about their children’s education because they are not educated and do not show any interest in their children’s assignment; whereas some parents still show interest in their children’s study despite being uneducated”.

“Some parents so much trust their children that they don’t have to come to school to know how they are doing or even ask them”.

“Some mothers even send their daughter to collect money from their men-friend thereby when these children grow up they will do likewise. Some parent’s men-friends have sexual relations with these girls”.

When asked to describe the supervision of parents on the television programmes/ movies watched, use of internet and cable television e.g. Digital Satellite Television (DSTV), most of the participants were of the view that some parents who have cable television at home monitor the channels watched and only allowed their children to watch educative programmes. However, some parents do not monitor the stations watched. Majority also felt that most parents do not monitor the use of internet by their wards and for most wards that have phones; their parents do not even know what they watch on their phones.

Some of the typical responses were:

“Some children lie to their parents that they are doing their assignments on the internet and use the opportunity to watch bad things (pornography)”.

“Some parents are not even aware their wards make use of internet because they can sneak out and follow their friends out and their parents don’t know at all”.

“Some parents guide their children to watch educative programs in some channels that relate to the career of interest of their children e.g. Medical documents, Mathematic clinics and so on”.

Contrary to the above, a participant (supported by few others) said,

“Some parents sit with their children and will put off the television instantly when they show sexually intimate scenes while some will sit and watch with their children saying they are learning and gaining experience for the future”.

Table 4.7 Parental supervision

Parents' Supervision	Always		Most times		Sometimes		Rarely		Never	
	N (%)		N (%)		N (%)		N (%)		N (%)	
	Mother	Father	Mother	Father	Mother	Father	Mother	Father	Mother	Father
My parents do not supervise the television channels I can watch	215 (26.8)	225 (28.1)	51 (6.4)	52 (6.5)	116 (14.5)	137 (17.1)	82 (10.2)	83 (10.3)	338 (42.1)	305 (38.0)
My parents supervise my homework / class work	512 (63.8)	423 (52.7)	78 (9.7)	89 (11.1)	114 (14.2)	128 (16.0)	36 (4.5)	53 (6.6)	62 (7.7)	109 (13.6)
My parents do not supervise the activities I engage in when my friends come around	307 (38.3)	285 (35.5)	40 (5.0)	52 (6.5)	111 (13.8)	125 (15.6)	67 (8.4)	71 (8.9)	277 (34.5)	269 (33.5)
My parents supervise my use of the internet	310 (38.7)	318 (39.7)	56 (7.0)	53 (6.6)	76 (9.5)	75 (9.4)	31 (3.9)	46 (5.7)	329 (41.0)	310 (38.7)

Table 4.8a Parental supervision by sex

Parental Supervision	Always		Most times		Sometimes		Rarely		Never	
	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)
Mothers' Supervision										
My mother does not supervise the television channels I can watch	95 (24.5)	120 (28.9)	25 (6.5)	26 (6.3)	55 (14.2)	61 (14.7)	39 (10.1)	43 (10.4)	173 (44.7)	165 (39.8)
My mother supervises my homework / class work	228 (58.9)	284 (68.4)	51 (13.2)	27 (6.5)	63 (16.3)	51 (12.3)	22 (5.7)	14 (3.4)	23 (5.9)	39 (9.4)
My mother does not supervises the activities I engage in when my friends come around	128 (33.1)	179 (43.1)	19 (4.9)	21 (5.1)	65 (16.8)	46 (11.1)	39 (10.1)	28 (6.7)	136 (35.1)	141 (34.0)
My mother supervises my use of the internet	121 (31.3)	189 (45.5)	35 (9.0)	21 (5.1)	41 (10.6)	35 (8.4)	16 (4.1)	15 (3.6)	174 (45.0)	155 (37.3)
Fathers' Supervision										
My father does not supervise the television channels I can watch	95 (24.5)	130 (31.3)	21 (5.4)	31 (7.5)	69 (17.8)	68 (16.4)	40 (10.3)	43 (10.4)	162 (41.9)	143 (34.5)
My father supervises my homework / class work	187 (48.3)	236 (56.9)	52 (13.4)	37 (8.9)	72 (18.6)	56 (13.5)	28 (7.2)	25 (6.0)	48 (12.4)	61 (14.7)
My father does not supervises the activities I engage in when my friends come around	122 (31.5)	163 (39.3)	24 (6.2)	28 (6.7)	76 (19.6)	49 (11.8)	36 (9.3)	35 (8.4)	129 (33.3)	140 (33.7)
My father supervises my use of the internet	132 (34.1)	186 (44.8)	30 (7.8)	23 (5.5)	45 (11.6)	30 (7.2)	21 (5.4)	25 (6.0)	159 (41.1)	151 (36.4)

Table 4.8b Parental supervision by schools

ParentalSupervision	Always			Most times			Sometimes			Rarely			Never		
	*B N (%)	**G N (%)	***Co N (%)	B N (%)	G N (%)	Co N (%)	B N (%)	G N (%)	Co N (%)	B N (%)	G N (%)	Co N (%)	B N (%)	G N (%)	Co N (%)
Mothers' Supervision															
My mother does not supervise the television channels I can watch	47 (23.0)	44 (24.9)	124 (29.5)	13 (15.2)	10 (5.6)	28 (6.7)	31 (15.2)	30 (16.9)	55 (13.1)	23 (11.3)	16 (9.0)	43 (10.2)	90 (44.1)	77 (43.5)	171 (40.6)
My mother supervises my homework / class work	119 (58.3)	120 (67.8)	273 (64.8)	33 (16.2)	11 (6.2)	34 (8.1)	33 (16.2)	25 (14.1)	56 (13.3)	10 (4.9)	6 (3.4)	20 (4.8)	9 (4.4)	15 (8.5)	38 (9.0)
My mother does not supervise the activities I engage in when my friends come around	71 (34.8)	83 (46.9)	153 (36.3)	9 (4.4)	7 (4.0)	24 (5.7)	39 (19.1)	26 (14.7)	46 (10.9)	27 (13.2)	9 (5.1)	31 (7.4)	58 (28.4)	52 (29.4)	167 (39.7)
My mother supervises my use of the internet	75 (36.8)	87 (49.2)	148 (35.2)	25 (12.3)	10 (5.6)	21 (5.0)	32 (15.7)	23 (13.0)	21 (5.0)	12 (5.9)	9 (5.1)	10 (2.4)	60 (29.4)	48 (27.1)	221 (52.5)
Fathers' Supervision															
My father does not supervise the television channels I can watch	52 (25.5)	54 (30.5)	119 (28.3)	9 (4.4)	13 (7.3)	30 (7.1)	42 (20.6)	29 (16.4)	66 (15.7)	24 (11.8)	21 (11.9)	38 (9.0)	77 (37.7)	60 (33.9)	168 (39.9)
My father supervises my homework / class work	94 (46.1)	97 (54.8)	232 (55.1)	32 (15.7)	19 (10.7)	38 (9.0)	34 (16.7)	22 (12.4)	72 (17.1)	18 (8.8)	14 (7.9)	21 (5.0)	26 (12.7)	25 (14.1)	58 (13.8)
My father does not supervise the activities I engage in when my friends come around	63 (30.9)	74 (41.8)	148 (35.2)	13 (6.4)	8 (4.5)	31 (7.4)	44 (21.6)	23 (13.0)	58 (13.8)	24 (11.8)	16 (9.0)	31 (7.4)	60 (29.4)	56 (31.6)	153 (36.3)
My father supervises my use of the internet	79 (38.7)	77 (43.5)	162 (38.5)	20 (9.8)	14 (7.9)	19 (4.5)	29 (14.2)	15 (8.5)	31 (7.4)	13 (6.4)	15 (8.5)	18 (4.3)	63 (30.9)	56 (31.6)	191 (45.4)

*B = Boys only schools; **G = Girls only schools; ***Co = Coeducational schools

4.2.3. Parent – child relationship and parental presence

In the study, most of the participants strongly agree that their parents (more mothers than fathers) care about them; they are warm and loving towards them. The survey revealed that above 70% of the respondents strongly agree that their mother (79.9%) than father (72.3%) care about them, are happy with the relationship between them and their mothers (77.6%) than fathers (68.7%). (Table 4.9) When compared by sex, more girls (77.3%) than boys (66.7%) reported they are close to their mothers (Table 4.10a). Participants in the girls' only schools (76.8%) were closer to their mother when compared to their counterparts. (Table 4.10b)

The FGD findings on Parent-Child relationship and presence described participants as very close with their parents and that most parents liked their children and gave them what they needed.

Their views were reflected in their quotes.

One participant said,

“Some parents are good towards their children while some are harsh with their children”

Another reiterated,

“Some parents love their children; they give them whatever they ask for, while some will refuse to send their children to school because they refused to hawk their goods for them”.

When asked how close participants felt students in their school were to their parents, majority felt males were often closer to their mothers while females were closer to their fathers.

One of the participants said,

“Most of the girls are closer to their fathers”

Another opined,

“When you listen to the girls discuss, most of them are closer to their fathers. However, some are close to their mothers too.”

Yet another participant had this to say,

“When the girls cling to their fathers, we the boys don't have a choice but to be close to our mothers and they (mothers) are around most of the time for us to discuss with”.

Some participants however mentioned that some parents do not have time for their children.

When the FGD participants were asked to describe things that could improve the relationship between children and their parents, majority mentioned the following: that parents should be present at home, spend time with their children, take time to monitor their school work and endeavour to ensure good communication such that children could freely discuss with their parents. These could promote the relationship between parents and their wards. Some participants also felt that if the children are good academically, it would strengthen the relationship between children and their parents.

According to one of the participants,

“If a child is good academically and obedient to his/her parents, the parent-child relationship will be promoted and strengthened”.

Some other participants said,

“The type of family the child comes from can promote the relationship between the parents and their wards. In most polygamous families, where there is so much rivalry and competition, there would not be cordial relationship amongst such families thus affecting the relationship between the parents and the children.”

Another participant said,

“Obedience and good behaviour can promote the relationship between parents and their wards”.

Table 4.9 Parent – Child Relationship

Parent – Child Relationship	Strongly agree		Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	N (%)		N (%)		N (%)		N (%)		N (%)	
	Mother	Father	Mother	Father	Mother	Father	Mother	Father	Mother	Father
My parents care about me	641 (79.9)	580 (72.3)	139 (17.3)	171 (21.3)	11 (1.4)	21 (2.6)	6 (0.7)	20 (2.5)	5 (0.6)	9 (1.1)
My parents are warm and loving toward me	580 (72.3)	544 (67.8)	191 (23.8)	209 (26.1)	12 (1.5)	26 (3.2)	10 (1.2)	12 (1.5)	9 (1.1)	10 (1.2)
I feel close to my parents	593 (73.9)	511 (63.7)	171 (21.3)	220 (27.4)	23 (2.9)	39 (4.9)	6 (0.7)	16 (2.0)	9 (1.1)	15 (1.9)
I am happy with the relationship with my parents	622 (77.6)	551 (68.7)	150 (18.7)	191 (23.8)	10 (1.2)	28 (3.5)	12 (1.5)	19 (2.4)	8 (1.0)	12 (1.5)
My parents and I are close to each other	579 (72.2)	501 (62.5)	180 (22.4)	221 (27.6)	16 (2.0)	28 (3.5)	18 (2.2)	33 (4.1)	9 (1.1)	18 (2.2)

Table 4.10a Parent – Child Relationship by sex

Parent–child relationship	Strongly agree		Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
	Boys N (%)	Girls ^c N (%)	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)	Boys N(%)	Girls N (%)	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)
Mother–child relationship										
My mother cares about me	300 (77.5)	341 (82.2)	72 (18.6)	67 (16.1)	7 (1.8)	4 (1.0)	4 (1.0)	2 (0.5)	4 (1.0)	1 (0.2)
My mother is warm and loving toward me	288 (74.4)	292 (70.4)	86 (22.2)	105 (25.3)	6 (1.6)	6 (1.4)	2 (0.5)	8 (1.9)	5 (1.3)	4 (1.0)
I feel close to my mother	285 (73.6)	308 (74.2)	80 (20.7)	91 (21.9)	15 (3.9)	8 (1.9)	4 (1.0)	2 (0.5)	3 (0.8)	6 (1.4)
I am happy with the relationship with my mother	298 (77.0)	324 (78.1)	74 (19.1)	76 (18.3)	7 (1.8)	3 (0.7)	5 (1.3)	7 (1.7)	3 (0.8)	5 (1.2)
My mother and I are close to each other	258 (66.7)	321 (77.3)	102 (26.4)	78 (18.8)	10 (2.6)	6 (1.4)	12 (3.1)	6 (1.4)	5 (1.3)	4 (1.0)
Father-child relationship										
My father cares about me	280 (72.4)	300 (72.3)	76 (19.6)	95 (22.9)	11 (2.8)	10 (2.4)	12 (3.1)	8 (1.9)	8 (2.1)	1 (0.2)
My father is warm and loving toward me	266 (68.7)	278 (67.0)	96 (24.8)	113 (27.2)	11 (2.8)	15 (3.6)	7 (1.8)	5 (1.2)	7 (1.8)	3 (0.7)
I feel close to my father	253 (65.4)	258 (62.2)	102 (26.4)	118 (28.4)	19 (4.9)	20 (4.8)	7 (1.8)	9 (2.2)	6 (1.6)	9 (2.2)
I am happy with the relationship with my father	273 (70.5)	278 (67.1)	85 (22.0)	106 (25.6)	18 (4.7)	10 (2.4)	6 (1.6)	13 (3.1)	5 (1.3)	7 (1.7)
My father and I are close to each other	241 (62.3)	260 (62.7)	110 (28.4)	111 (26.7)	13 (3.4)	15 (3.6)	13 (3.4)	20 (4.8)	10 (2.6)	8 (1.9)

Table 4.10b Parent – Child Relationship by schools

Parent-child relationship	Strongly agree			Agree			Undecided			Disagree			Strongly disagree		
	*B	**G	***Co	B	G	Co	B	G	Co	B	G	Co	B	G	Co
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
Mother-child relationship															
My mother cares about me	161 (78.9)	145 (81.9)	335 (79.6)	35 (17.2)	29 (16.4)	75 (17.8)	5 (2.5)	2 (1.1)	4 (1.0)	2 (1.0)	1 (0.6)	3 (0.7)	1 (0.5)	0 (0.0)	4 (1.0)
My mother is warm and loving toward me	148 (72.5)	118 (66.7)	314 (74.6)	51 (25.0)	50 (28.2)	90 (21.4)	3 (1.5)	3 (1.7)	6 (1.4)	1 (0.5)	5 (2.8)	4 (1.0)	1 (0.5)	1 (0.6)	7 (1.7)
I feel close to my mother	150 (73.5)	132 (74.6)	311 (73.9)	44 (21.6)	38 (21.5)	89 (21.1)	7 (3.4)	3 (1.7)	13 (3.1)	2 (1.0)	2 (1.1)	2 (0.5)	1 (0.5)	2 (1.1)	6 (1.4)
I am happy with the relationship with my mother	154 (75.5)	136 (76.8)	332 (78.9)	43 (21.1)	34 (19.2)	73 (17.3)	4 (2.0)	1 (0.6)	5 (1.2)	2 (1.0)	3 (1.7)	7 (1.7)	1 (0.5)	3 (1.7)	4 (1.0)
My mother and I are close to each other	135 (66.2)	136 (76.8)	308 (73.2)	61 (29.9)	34 (19.2)	85 (20.2)	5 (2.5)	3 (1.7)	8 (20.2)	2 (1.0)	3 (1.7)	13 (3.1)	1 (0.5)	1 (0.6)	7 (1.7)
Father-child relationship															
My father cares about me	146 (71.6)	126 (71.6)	308 (73.2)	43 (21.1)	44 (25.0)	84 (20.0)	7 (3.4)	3 (1.7)	11 (2.6)	4 (2.0)	3 (1.7)	13 (3.1)	4 (2.0)	0 (0.0)	5 (1.2)
My father is warm and loving toward me	94 (46.1)	97 (54.8)	232 (55.1)	32 (15.7)	19 (10.7)	38 (9.0)	34 (16.7)	22 (12.4)	72 (17.1)	18 (8.8)	14 (7.9)	21 (5.0)	26 (12.7)	25 (14.1)	58 (13.8)
I feel close to my father	63 (30.9)	74 (41.8)	148 (35.2)	13 (6.4)	8 (4.5)	31 (7.4)	44 (21.6)	23 (13.0)	58 (13.8)	24 (11.8)	16 (9.0)	31 (7.4)	60 (29.4)	56 (31.6)	153 (36.3)
I am happy with the relationship with my father	79 (38.7)	77 (43.5)	162 (38.5)	20 (9.8)	14 (7.9)	19 (4.5)	29 (14.2)	15 (8.5)	31 (7.4)	13 (6.4)	15 (8.5)	18 (4.3)	63 (30.9)	56 (31.6)	191 (45.4)
My father and I are close to each other	125 (61.3)	107 (60.8)	269 (63.9)	63 (30.9)	50 (28.2)	108 (25.7)	7 (3.4)	5 (2.8)	16 (3.8)	3 (1.5)	10 (5.6)	20 (4.8)	6 (2.9)	4 (2.3)	8 (1.9)

*B = Boys only schools; **G = Girls only schools; ***Co = Coeducational schools

The survey on Parental presence revealed more respondents having their mothers(84.7%) than fathers (61.5%)at home when they wake up in the morning and when they go to bed (84.2%, 61.8%) for mothers and fathers respectively. (Table 4.11).

More girls (87.2%) than boys (81.9%) had their mothers at home when they wake up in the morning, at breakfast (73.3%, 68.0%) and when they go to bed (84.3%, 84.0%). However, more boys (65.1%) than girls (58.3%) always had their fathers at home when they wake up and at bedtime (64.9%, 59.0%) [See Table 4.12a]. Table 4.12b shows parental presence according to the schools. More respondents in the girls' only schools report that their mothers (88.1%) more than fathers (58.2%) are home when they wake up in the morning and when they go to bed (83.1%, 54.8%) than in other schools.

The FGD participants stated that it was important for parents to spend time with their children but that some parents did not feel this was important.

Few participants opined,

“Some parents do not have or spend time with their children, they believe their future or whatever they become depends [only] on their financial support for them”.

Table 4.11 Parental Presence

Parental Presence	Always		Most times		Sometimes		Rarely		Never	
	N (%)		N (%)		N (%)		N (%)		N (%)	
	Mother	Father	Mother	Father	Mother	Father	Mother	Father	Mother	Father
My parents are at home when I wake up in the morning	679 (84.7)	493 (61.5)	37 (4.6)	74 (9.2)	54 (6.7)	126 (15.7)	17 (2.1)	38 (4.7)	15 (1.9)	70 (8.7)
My parents are at home at breakfast time	567 (70.7)	360 (44.9)	69 (8.6)	103 (12.8)	103 (12.8)	171 (21.3)	25 (3.1)	52 (6.5)	38 (4.7)	116 (14.5)
My parents are at home at supper time	613 (76.4)	429 (53.5)	72 (9.0)	98 (12.2)	64 (8.0)	125 (15.6)	22 (2.7)	58 (7.2)	31 (3.9)	92 (11.5)
My parents are at home when I go to bed	675 (84.2)	496 (61.8)	35 (4.4)	73 (9.1)	50 (6.2)	114 (14.2)	14 (1.7)	43 (5.4)	28 (3.5)	76 (9.5)

Table 4.12a Parental Presence at home by sex

Parental Presence	Always		Most times		Sometimes		Rarely		Never	
	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)	Boys N (%)	Girls N (%)
Mothers' Presence										
My mother is at home when I wake up in the morning	317 (81.9)	362 (87.2)	18 (4.7)	19 (4.6)	34 (8.8)	20 (4.8)	9 (2.3)	8 (1.9)	9 (2.3)	6 (1.4)
My mother is at home at breakfast time	263 (68.0)	304 (73.3)	45 (11.6)	24 (5.8)	48 (12.4)	55 (13.3)	15 (3.9)	10 (2.4)	16 (4.1)	22 (5.3)
My mother is at home at supper time	304 (78.6)	309 (74.5)	38 (9.8)	34 (8.2)	23 (5.9)	41 (9.9)	8 (2.1)	14 (3.4)	14 (3.6)	17 (4.1)
My mother is at home when I go to bed	325 (84.0)	350 (84.3)	18 (4.7)	17 (4.1)	22 (5.7)	28 (6.7)	5 (1.3)	9 (2.2)	17 (4.4)	11 (2.7)
Fathers' Presence										
My father is at home when I wake up in the morning	252 (65.1)	242 (58.3)	34 (8.8)	40 (9.6)	58 (15.0)	68 (16.4)	15 (3.9)	23 (5.5)	28 (7.2)	42 (10.1)
My father is at home at breakfast time	182 (47.0)	178 (42.9)	51 (13.2)	52 (12.5)	78 (20.2)	93 (22.4)	26 (6.7)	26 (6.3)	50 (12.9)	66 (15.9)
My father is at home at supper time	220 (56.8)	209 (50.4)	48 (12.4)	50 (12.0)	61 (15.8)	64 (15.4)	20 (5.2)	38 (9.2)	38 (9.8)	54 (13.0)
My father is at home when I go to bed	251 (64.9)	245 (59.0)	35 (9.0)	38 (9.2)	57 (14.7)	57 (13.7)	16 (4.1)	27 (6.5)	28 (7.2)	48 (11.6)

Table 4.12b Parental Presence at home by schools

Parental Presence	Strongly agree			Agree			Undecided			Disagree			Strongly disagree		
	*B	**G	***Co	B	G	Co	B	G	Co	B	G	Co	B	G	Co
	N(%)	N(%)	N(%)	N(%)	N(%)	N(%)	N(%)	N(%)	N(%)	N(%)	N(%)	N(%)	N(%)	N(%)	N(%)
Mothers' Presence															
My mother is at home when I wake up in the morning	167 (81.9)	156 (88.1)	356 (84.6)	13 (6.4)	10 (5.6)	14 (3.3)	17 (8.3)	6 (3.4)	31 (7.4)	2 (1.0)	2 (1.1)	13 (3.1)	5 (2.5)	3 (1.7)	7 (1.7)
My mother is at home at breakfast time	138 (67.6)	132 (74.6)	297 (70.5)	32 (15.7)	11 (6.2)	26 (6.2)	25 (12.3)	23 (13.0)	55 (13.1)	5 (2.5)	1 (0.6)	19 (4.5)	4 (2.0)	10 (5.6)	24 (5.7)
My mother is at home at supper time	161 (78.9)	124 (70.1)	328 (77.9)	20 (9.8)	16 (9.0)	36 (8.6)	12 (5.9)	22 (12.4)	30 (7.1)	3 (1.5)	4 (2.3)	15 (3.6)	8 (3.9)	11 (6.2)	12 (2.9)
My mother is at home when I go to bed	174 (85.3)	147 (83.1)	354 (84.1)	10 (4.9)	10 (5.6)	15 (3.6)	11 (5.4)	13 (7.3)	26 (6.2)	2 (1.0)	3 (1.7)	9 (2.1)	7 (3.4)	4 (2.3)	17 (4.0)
Fathers' Presence															
My father is at home when I wake up in the morning	129 (63.2)	103 (58.2)	262 (62.2)	28 (13.7)	16 (9.0)	30 (7.1)	28 (13.7)	25 (14.1)	73 (17.3)	6 (2.9)	14 (7.9)	18 (4.3)	13 (6.4)	19 (10.7)	38 (90)
My father is at home at breakfast time	99 (48.5)	72 (40.7)	189 (44.9)	33 (16.2)	26 (14.7)	44 (10.5)	42 (20.6)	39 (22.0)	90 (21.4)	13 (6.4)	14 (7.9)	25 (5.9)	17 (8.3)	26 (14.7)	73 (17.3)
My father is at home at supper time	111 (54.4)	79 (44.6)	239 (56.8)	26 (12.7)	24 (13.6)	48 (11.4)	43 (21.1)	27 (15.3)	55 (13.1)	12 (5.9)	22 (12.4)	24 (5.7)	12 (5.9)	25 (14.1)	55 (13.1)
My father is at home when I go to bed	130 (63.7)	97 (54.8)	269 (63.9)	22 (10.8)	21 (11.9)	30 (7.1)	32 (15.7)	25 (14.1)	57 (13.5)	8 (3.9)	13 (7.3)	22 (5.2)	12 (5.9)	21 (11.9)	43 (10.2)

*B = Boys only schools; **G = Girls only schools; ***Co = Coeducational schools

4.2.4 Parent-child communication

About half of the respondents (52.6%) never discussed sexual issues with their mothers but a larger proportion with their fathers (71.8%). More respondents always discuss issues on pregnancy with their mothers (19.3%) than their fathers (8.2%). (Table 4.13a)

When compared by sex, more girls than boys always discuss sexual issues with their mothers (32.0%, 19.4%) than fathers (9.4%, 17.8%). See Table 4.13b. This finding was the same in coeducational schools than others. (Table 4.13c) Respondents communicate anytime with their mothers (28.1%) than their fathers (13.1%) but more with their fathers (36.4%) at night. (Figure 4.7)

The importance of good communication between parents and their children was highlighted by the FGD as the participants all agreed that this was an important factor in ensuring a good relationship between parents and their children.

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Table 4.13a Frequency of how respondents discuss sexual issues with their parents

Sexual Issues	Response	How often does respondent communicate with parents and significant others	
		Father	Mother
Sex	Always	108 (13.5)	208 (25.9)
	Sometimes	118 (14.7)	172 (21.4)
	Never	576 (71.8)	422 (52.6)
Menstruation	Always	54 (6.7)	240 (29.9)
	Sometimes	73 (9.1)	160 (20.0)
	Never	675 (84.2)	402 (50.1)
Growing up	Always	261 (32.5)	400 (49.9)
	Sometimes	191 (23.8)	224 (27.9)
	Never	350 (43.6)	178 (22.2)
Family planning	Always	145 (18.1)	213 (26.6)
	Sometimes	112 (14.0)	126 (15.7)
	Never	545 (68.0)	463 (57.7)
Relationship with the opposite sex	Always	89 (11.1)	156 (19.5)
	Sometimes	89 (11.1)	128 (16.0)
	Never	624 (77.8)	518 (64.6)
Virginity	Always	121 (15.1)	248 (30.9)
	Sometimes	80 (10.0)	121 (15.1)
	Never	601 (74.9)	433 (54.0)
Pregnancy	Always	66 (8.2)	155 (19.3)
	Sometimes	81 (10.1)	136 (17.0)
	Never	655 (81.7)	511 (63.7)

Table 4.13b Frequency of how respondents discuss sexual issues with their parents by sex

How often does respondent communicate with parents and significant others					
Sexual Issues	Response	Father		Mother	
		Boys N(%)	Girls N(%)	Boys N(%)	Girls N(%)
Sex	Always	69 (17.8)	39 (9.4)	75 (19.4)	133 (32.0)
	Sometimes	73 (18.9)	45 (10.8)	71 (18.3)	101 (24.3)
	Never	245 (63.3)	331 (79.8)	241 (62.3)	181 (43.6)
Menstruation	Always	26 (6.7)	28 (6.7)	38 (9.8)	202 (48.7)
	Sometimes	30 (7.8)	43 (10.4)	57 (14.7)	103 (24.8)
	Never	331 (85.5)	344 (82.9)	292 (75.5)	110 (26.5)
Growing up	Always	136 (35.1)	125 (30.1)	160 (41.3)	240 (57.8)
	Sometimes	104 (26.9)	87 (21.0)	111 (28.7)	113 (27.2)
	Never	147 (38.0)	203 (48.9)	116 (30.0)	62 (14.9)
Family Planning	Always	75 (19.4)	70 (16.9)	92 (23.8)	121 (29.2)
	Sometimes	79 (20.4)	33 (8.0)	71 (18.3)	55 (13.3)
	Never	233 (60.2)	312 (75.2)	224 (57.9)	239 (57.6)
Relationship with the opposite sex	Always	44 (11.4)	45 (10.8)	47 (12.1)	109 (26.3)
	Sometimes	50 (12.9)	39 (9.4)	64 (16.5)	64 (15.4)
	Never	293 (75.7)	331 (79.8)	276 (71.3)	242 (58.3)
Virginity	Always	53 (13.7)	68 (16.1)	65 (16.8)	183 (44.1)
	Sometimes	36 (9.3)	44 (10.6)	48 (12.4)	73 (17.6)
	Never	298 (77.0)	303 (73.0)	274 (70.8)	159 (38.3)
Pregnancy	Always	31 (8.0)	35 (8.4)	49 (12.7)	106 (25.5)
	Sometimes	36 (9.3)	45 (10.8)	48 (12.4)	88 (21.2)
	Never	320 (82.7)	335 (80.7)	290 (74.9)	221 (53.3)

Table 4.13c Frequency of how respondents discuss sexual issues with their parents by schools

		How often does respondent communicate with parents and significant					
		Father		Others		Mother	
Sexual Issues	Response	*B N(%)	**G N(%)	C N(%)	B N(%)	G N(%)	C N(%)
Sex	Always	26 (12.7)	12 (6.8)	70 (16.6)	24 (11.8)	46 (26.0)	1138 (32.8)
	Sometimes	36 (17.6)	15 (8.5)	69 (16.4)	36 (17.6)	39 (22.0)	97 (23.0)
	Never	144 (70.6)	150 (84.7)	282 (67.0)	144 (70.6)	92 (52.0)	186 (44.2)
Menstruation	Always	7 (3.4)	16 (9.0)	31 (7.4)	18 (8.8)	79 (44.6)	143 (34.0)
	Sometimes	13 (6.4)	15 (8.5)	45 (10.7)	31 (15.2)	39 (22.0)	90 (21.4)
	Never	184 (90.2)	146 (82.5)	345 (81.9)	5155 (76.0)	59 (33.3)	188 (44.7)
Growing up	Always	69 (33.8)	50 (28.2)	142 (33.7)	85 (41.7)	96 (54.2)	219 (52.0)
	Sometimes	55 (27.0)	41 (23.2)	95 (22.6)	56 (27.5)	52 (29.4)	116 (27.6)
	Never	80 (39.2)	86 (48.6)	184 (43.7)	63 (30.9)	29 (16.4)	86 (20.4)
Family Planning	Always	36 (17.6)	19 (10.7)	90 (21.4)	42 (20.6)	43 (24.3)	1128 (30.4)
	Sometimes	39 (19.1)	16 (9.0)	57 (13.5)	33 (16.2)	21 (11.9)	72 (17.1)
	Never	129 (63.2)	142 (80.2)	274 (65.1)	129 (63.2)	113 (63.8)	221 (52.5)
Relationship with the opposite sex	Always	16 (7.8)	20 (11.3)	53 (12.6)	18 (8.8)	37 (20.9)	101 (24.0)
	Sometimes	20 (9.8)	14 (7.9)	55 (13.1)	34 (16.7)	30 (16.9)	64 (15.2)
	Never	168 (82.4)	143 (80.8)	313 (74.3)	152 (74.5)	110 (62.1)	256(60.8)
Virginity	Always	25 (12.3)	32 (18.1)	64 (15.2)	32 (15.7)	79 (44.6)	1137 (32.5)
	Sometimes	15 (7.4)	18 (10.2)	47 (11.2)	21 (10.3)	26 (14.7)	74 (17.6)
	Never	164 (80.4)	127 (71.8)	310 (73.6)	151 (74.0)	72 (40.7)	210 (49.9)
Pregnancy	Always	8 (3.9)	14 (7.9)	44 (10.5)	24 (11.8)	37 (20.9)	94 (22.3)
	Sometimes	19 (9.3)	25 (14.1)	37 (8.8)	26 (12.7)	37 (20.9)	73 (17.3)
	Never	177 (86.8)	138 (78.0)	340 (80.8)	154 (75.5)	103 (58.2)	254 (60.3)

*B - Boys' only schools; **G - Girls' only schools; C – Coeducational schools

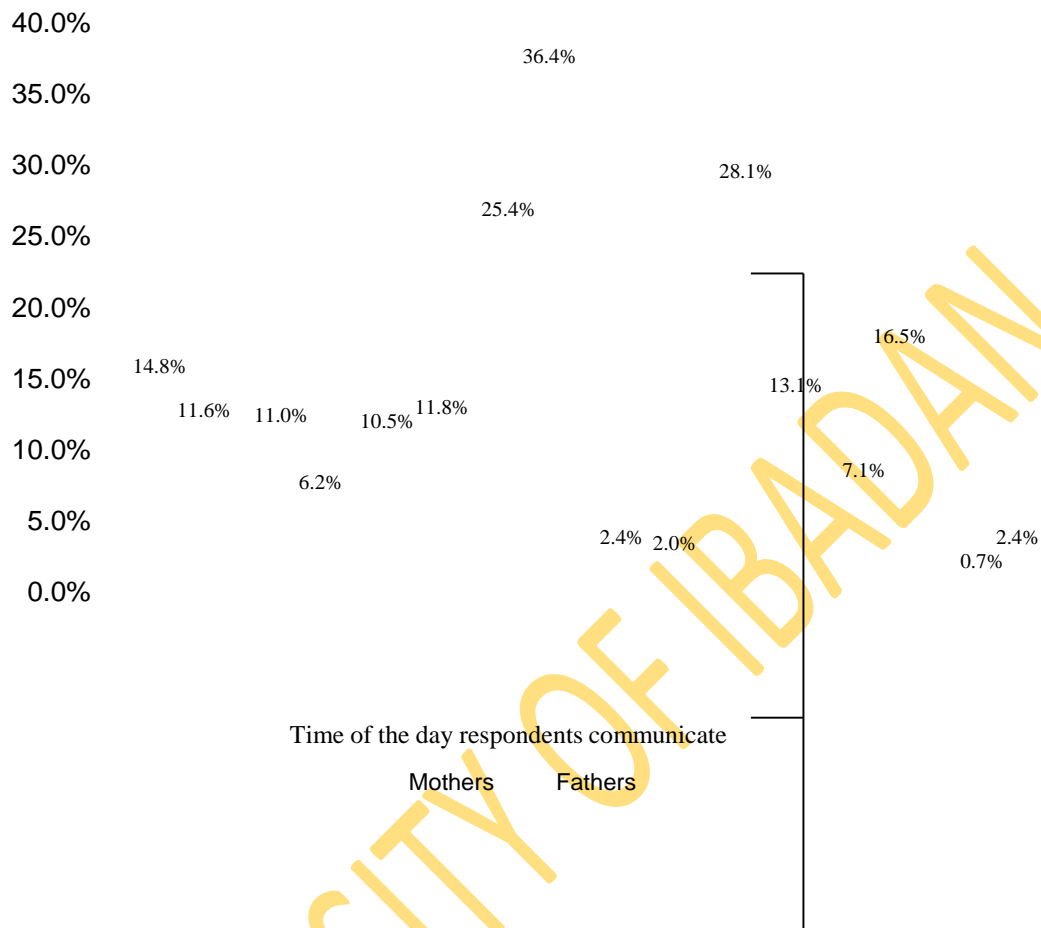


Figure 4.7: Time of the day when respondents usually discuss important issues with their parents

4.2.4.1 Communication on sexual and reproductive health issues

From the survey, Table 4.14 revealed a higher mean score for girls (36.9 ± 5.8) in Mothers' control and monitoring than in boys (35.4 ± 5.8). The mean score for overall Parental connectedness in the respondents was 215.0 ± 20.8 with a mean score of 212.6 ± 20.0 for boys and 217.2 ± 21.3 for girls revealing more girls than boys are connected to their parents (Table 4.15).

During the FGD, most of the participants said students within the area of study do not like to discuss sexual issues with their parents.

Some of the reasons given for this were that,

"Our parents would say we are not serious and that we should face our studies".

"Our parents would shout down on us and say we are too young to be discussing sexual issues".

"They would simply tell us to face our studies".

However, contrary to these statements, few participants stated:

"For some of us, our parents would sit us down and counsel us, this would help us not to make mistake"

"Some of our parents share their own experience with us to learn from"

When asked to describe the closeness of females or males to their mothers and fathers, most of the participants felt that most children either boys or girls were closer to their mothers because they were always at home and also give advice.

Participants said that,

"Most of us are close to our mothers. Most people are close to their mothers and some are close to their fathers because some fathers are better advisers".

When asked about factors that could hinder communication on sexual issues between students and their parents, the participants mentioned that presence of parents at home was very important. However, most participants felt the parents (especially their fathers) were too busy with their businesses and did not have enough time for their

wards. Most parents come home late and have little time to communicate with their wards.

These were some of their responses:

“Some parents work outside town and have little time to spend with their children”.

“Our parents return late from shop or even work and have little time to discuss with us (the children)”

Most of the participants reported that students prefer to discuss sexual issues with their mothers while some like to discuss with their relatives that live with them.

Some of their responses were as follows:

“Some of us prefer to discuss with our uncles, aunties or siblings”.

“I prefer my mum. When I started bed wetting (wet dreams), I told her. She said my son is now a big boy”.

“Some matters are better with our friends especially when it is a group discussion with ones friends. Some may be boyfriends or even girlfriends”.

When discussants were asked to describe how the relationship of parents with their adolescents in this school can affect their sexual behaviour.

Some of them had this to say,

“Parents should know the in and out of their children and the type of friends they have too. Parents should have good relationship and time with their children. It will make them free with their parents. Even when the child does not ask things directly, with his attitude and the way he is saying it, you will get some things out of him when he is free with his parents”.

“Parents should know the mode of dressing of their children”

Table 4.14 Mean scores of different aspects of connectedness by parents

	Min and Max. score obtainable	Range of scores obtained	Mean score for all respondents	Mean for Boys	Mean for Girls	<i>P</i> value
Mother's control and monitoring	9 – 45	16 - 45	36.2±5.8	35.4±5.8	36.9±5.8	0.000
Father's control and monitoring	9 – 45	11 – 45	34.3±6.1	34.1±5.8	34.6±6.4	0.314
Mother's supervision	4 – 20	4 – 20	12.9±3.8	12.3±3.8	13.2±3.8	0.001
Father's supervision	4 – 20	4 – 20	12.6±3.7	12.2±3.6	13.0±3.7	0.001
Mother-child relationship	9 – 45	9 – 45	41.6±4.7	41.5±4.8	41.7±4.5	0.392
Father-child relationship	9 – 45	4 – 54	38.4±6.5	38.9±6.3	38.0±6.7	0.070
Mother-child communication	14 – 42	3 – 31	20.9±4.1	19.6±3.5	22.1±4.3	0.000
Father-child communication	14 – 42	3 – 40	18.1±3.5	18.6±3.3	17.6±3.7	0.000
Overall connectedness score	72 – 304	119 – 279	215.0±20.8	212.6±20.0	217.2±21.3	0.002

Table 4.15 Mean scores of different aspects of Parental connectedness

	Min and Max. score obtainable	Range of scores obtained	Mean score for all respondents	Mean for Boys	Mean for Girls	<i>P</i> value
Parent's control and monitoring	18 – 90	35 - 90	70.5±10.5	69.5±10.1	71.4±10.9	0.012
Parent's supervision	8 – 40	8– 40	25.5±6.9	24.6±6.8	26.3±6.9	0.000
Parent-child relationship	18 – 90	36 – 90	80.0±9.3	80.3±9.2	79.7±9.4	0.381
Parent-child communication	28 – 84	6 – 69	39.0±6.6	38.2±6.1	39.7±6.9	0.001
Overall connectedness score	72– 304	119 – 279	215.0±20.8	212.6±20.0	217.2±21.3	0.002

4.3 Pattern of sexual behavior of respondents

From the survey, respondents were asked for who influenced first sexual intercourse (Fig. 4.8a). About half of them (52.3%) were influenced by their friends while 5% said they were forced (raped). Females (12.5%) more than males (0.7%) had their first sexual intercourse influenced by rape. Among males, other people who influenced their first sexual intercourse were relatives (4.6%) and 4 males (2.6%) reported that first sexual intercourse was a mistake. (Fig. 4.8b)

Overall, 241 (30.0%) had had sexual intercourse. One hundred and eleven (13.8%) of respondents had sex in the 3 months preceding the survey. Gender differences were evident as more males, nearly twice had ever had sex (male 63.5%, female 36.5%) and had sex in the last 3 months (male 62.2%, female 37.8%) Mean age at first sexual intercourse is 13.1 ± 1.9 years. (male 13.2 ± 1.9 , female 13.0 ± 2.0). Median current number of sexual partner is 1 regardless of gender (Table 4.16). Two hundred and forty-three (30.3%) respondents mentioned that their mothers were aware of their sexual behaviour and 213 (26.6%) mentioned that their fathers were aware of their sexual behaviour (Fig. 4.9). There were 81 (10.1%) respondents that made use of family planning always. (Table 4.17)

Of all the respondents, mothers of 559 (69.7%) and fathers of 589 (73.4%) respondents were not aware of their sexual behaviours. (Figure 4.9)

The FGD participants deliberated on common sexual and other reproductive health problems adolescents encountered. Most of the participants said although many adolescents know about condom, unplanned pregnancy; however, subsequent procurement of abortions still occurred and this led to school dropout and expulsion of students. The participants also mentioned that pregnancy, abortion and sexually transmitted infections occur among their school mates especially the coeducational schools.

Some of the typical responses include:

“When it happens, you might just notice the affected students no longer come to school. Most of them stay away because of the shame. It is common in coeducational schools”

“It [unplanned pregnancy] occurs but the shame is much. Some are not able to continue their schooling. Such students will not come back because of the fear of being expelled from school”.

One of the discussants said, “Some parents even abort pregnancies for their daughters”.

Regarding the occurrence of Sexually Transmitted Infections (STIs) among their schoolmates, some participants said,

“For sexually transmitted infections, you won’t know because they would be ashamed to discuss it and they are usually very secretive”

“Some are able to hide all these things and can make it a secret between them and their friends”.

When asked about their opinion on the sexual behaviour of students in their schools, most of the participants said that although some students were involved in one sexual relationship or the other, some students are focused. Some of the participants mentioned that some male students usually referred to as “(International Toasters Union - ITU), influenced some good students to become involved in bad sexual practices. They further added that a few female students could also be classified as being “Olu Igbo” (Master of the forest)” or “Itu” This is common with students in the coeducational schools than their counterparts in boy only or girl only school. A participant said, “The “Itu girls” are the “big”(well-exposed and bold) - ones. They even “toast” boys [ask the boys to date them] themselves”.

Another participant said,

“You will hear terms like “I polished that girl” when you pass by [these group of students and overhear their discussions] but for some of us if our mothers get to know that we have sexual relationships, they would kill us”

Yet another participant added,

“Boys are all hardware (term used for strong guys)but girls are software (term used to describe the girls)

Regarding the average age of sexual initiation and number of sexual partners participants felt other students in their school had, most participants said it was

common around the age of 15 years. They also added that there were still some students that were ‘very innocent’ and had not initiated sexual intercourse.

One of the participants said,

“Can you imagine Junior Secondary One(JS1) student having sex like four times when we were still in year one?”

Most of the students knew about condom use and said that even those who were not sexually active knew about condoms. This is common among boys. Some of the discussants mentioned that some students make use of nylon and other methods.

A discussant said,

“Ask most of these students to open their purses and you would find condoms there”!

Another discussant said,

“Some people use ordinary nylon, for a quick sex especially in coeducational schools.

Another discussant added,

“Some of these students take a concoction with some medication to avoid getting pregnant”.

The FGD participants also mentioned that most students were influenced to have sexual intercourse by their friends. Other factors they felt could influence sexual behaviours were watching pornographic movies.

A participant explained,

“Pornographic films like “hard core, structure”, when they watch it..uhm” Some say they were doing assignments on internet browsing and watch “action things”.



Figure 4.8a Persons/things that influenced first sexual intercourse

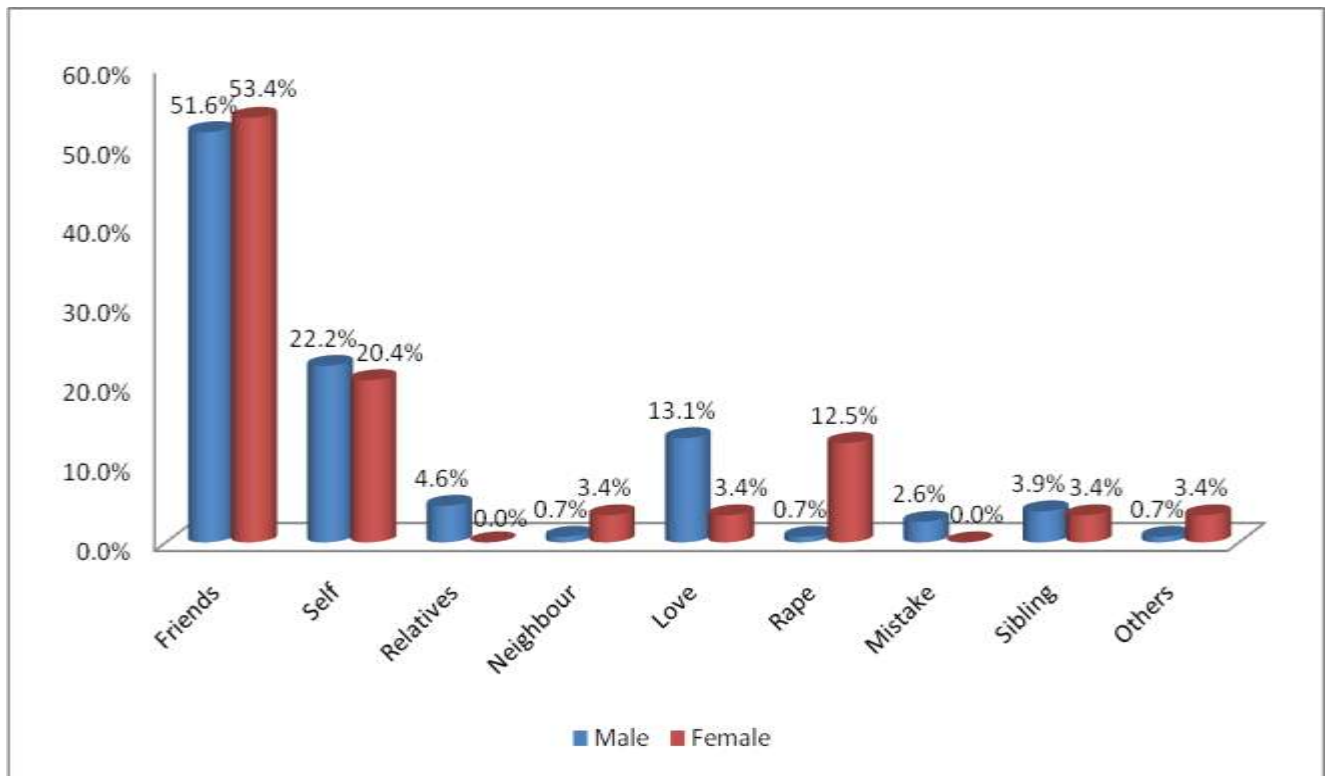


Figure 4.8b Persons/Events/things that influenced first sexual intercourse of respondents by sex

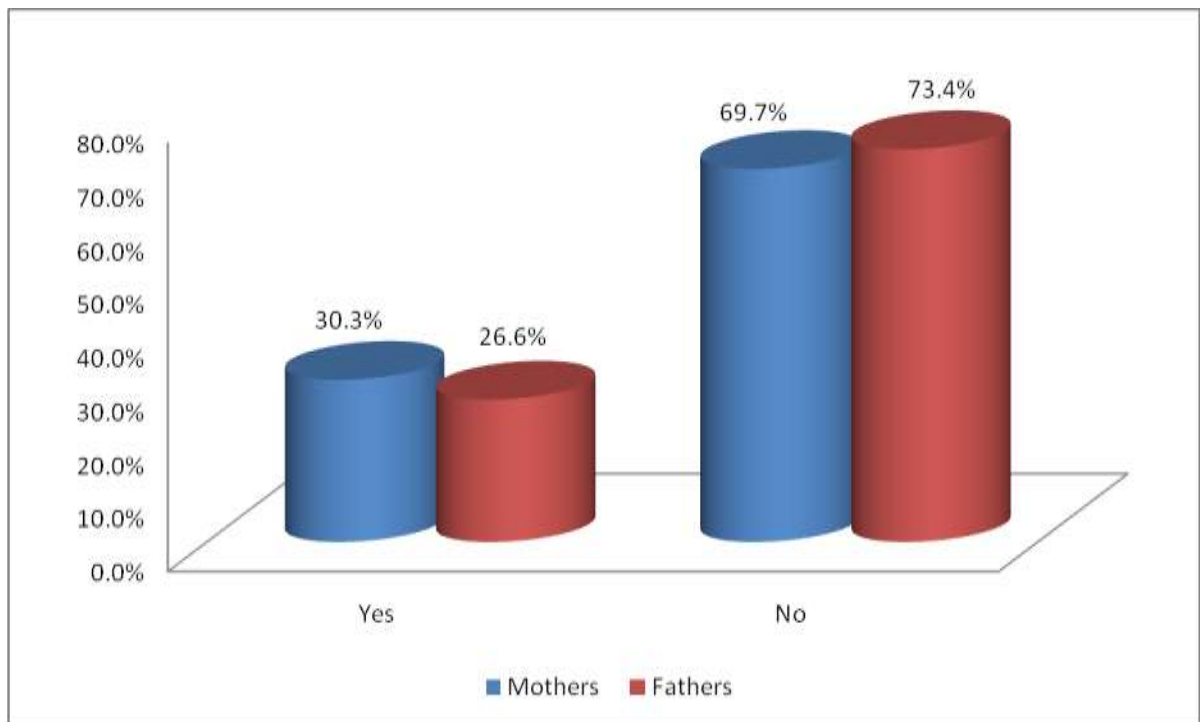


Figure 4.9 Awareness of the sexual behaviour of the respondents by their parents

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Of all the respondents, 241 (30.0%) had ever had sex, of which 153 (63.5%) were males. When asked on their sexual history in the last 3 months, 111 (13.8%) had sex in the last 3 months preceding the study, more males 69 (62.2%) than females 42 (37.8%). The mean age (with SD) for all the respondents at first intercourse is 13 ± 1.9 , males 13.2 ± 1.9 and females 13.0 ± 2.0 . (See Table 4.16) Few (2.6%) had ever treated Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STDs) (See Table 4.17)

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Table 4.16 Sexual activities by gender

Sexual activities	All	Male	Female	<i>P</i> value
Ever had sexual intercourse				0.000
Yes, n(%)	241(30.0)	153 (63.5)	88 (36.5)	
No, n(%)	561(70.0)	234 (41.7)	327 (58.3)	
Had sexual intercourse in last 3 months				0.002
Yes, n(%)	111(13.8)	69 (62.2)	42 (37.8)	
No, n(%)	691 (86.2)	318 (46.0)	373 (54.0)	
Mean age at first intercourse	13.1 ± 1.9	13.2 ± 1.9	13.0 ± 2.0	0.461
Median no of previous sexual partners	2 (0 – 12)	3 (0 – 12)	2 (0 – 12)	0.456
Median no of current sexual partners	1 (0 – 5)	1 (0 – 5)	1 (0 – 5)	0.861

Table 4.17 Use of family planning and history of sexually transmitted infections of respondents that have had sex by gender

Sexual activities	All	Male	Female	<i>P</i> value
Use of family planning methods				0.000
Sometimes	70 (29.1)	44 (28.8)	26 (29.5)	
Always	63 (26.1)	42 (27.5)	21 (23.9)	
Never	108 (44.8)	67 (43.8)	41 (46.6)	
Ever treated STI?				0.000
Yes	18 (7.5)	9 (5.9)	9 (10.2)	
No	223 (92.5)	144 (94.1)	79 (89.8)	

On the issue of persons respondents discussed sexual matters with, the survey revealed that only 275 (34%) respondents preferred to discuss sexual issues with their mothers, and 40 (5%) discuss with their fathers. However, 92 (11%) respondents like to discuss sexual issues with their friends. (Figure 4.10)

Apart from the parents, other people that respondents discuss sexual matters with were siblings, relatives (uncles, aunties and grandmothers), friends, nobody and others (these included teachers, neighbours and “area sisters”). The respondents however prefer to discuss issues on pregnancy (61.5%) and family planning (59.6%) with nobody. (Table 4.18)

During the FGD, participants were asked for their preferred sources of information on sexual issues. Most of the participants agreed there were many sources of information for students but that most got information from television, pornographic films and the internet. They said, “The “ITU” boys/girls” sneak out of the school and watch these films. They teach or pass it on to friends around them.

Others said that most students would not watch bad films at home, or do so when their parents are not at home.

One participant said,

“Like now, most of us learn about condom even on the television”.

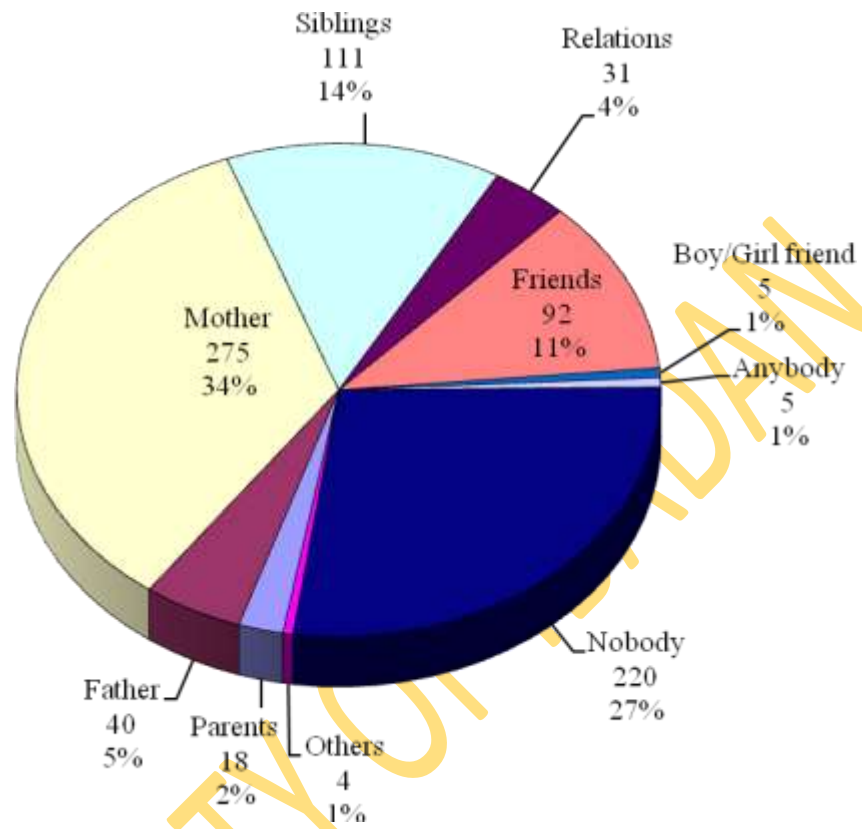


Figure 4.10 Respondents' preference for discussing sexual issues

Table 4.18 Other people respondents discuss sexual issues with

	Sexual issues discussed						
	Sex	Menstruation	Growing up	Family planning	Relationship with the opposite sex	Virginity	Pregnancy
Other Persons	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)	n (%)
Sibling	105 (13.1)	91 (11.3)	110 (13.7)	67 (8.4)	108 (13.5)	101 (12.6)	80 (10.0)
Relative	60 (7.5)	41 (5.1)	55 (6.9)	41 (5.1)	28 (3.5)	37 (4.6)	35 (4.4)
Friend	299 (37.3)	213 (26.6)	268 (33.4)	213 (26.6)	228 (28.4)	212 (26.4)	192 (23.9)
Other	4 (0.5)	1 (0.1)	2 (0.2)	3 (0.4)	4 (0.5)	3 (0.4)	2 (0.2)
Nobody	334 (41.6)	456 (56.9)	367 (45.8)	478 (59.6)	434 (54.1)	449 (56.0)	493 (61.5)

4.4. Influence of parental connectedness on the public secondary school students' sexual behavior

In the survey, respondents who were not connected with their parents were more than one and a half times more likely to have had sex in the last 3 months than their counterparts who are connected with their parents. (Table 4.19)

Respondents who had low connectedness to their parents were significantly older when compared with their counterparts who were connected ($p=0.075$). A higher proportion of respondents from monogamous families (518, 91.7%) were also highly connected to their parents compared with 201 (84.8%) from polygamous families. (Table 4.20)

Over 25 % of the respondents currently have one sexual partner and had low connectedness compared with 17.9 % that had high connectedness to their parents (Figure 4.11).

Respondents that were highly connected to their parents and had one sexual partner were 8.3% compared with 16.9% that had low connectedness. (Figure 4.12)

Table 4.19 Relationship between the Sexual behaviour of respondents and Parental Connectedness

Sexual behaviours	Low Connectedness	High Connectedness	OR (95% CI)	P
I have had sex before				0.201
Yes	30 (36.1)	211 (29.3)	1	
No	53 (63.9)	508 (70.7)	1.36 (0.85, 2.19)	
I had sex in the last 3 months				0.130
Yes	16 (19.3)	95 (13.2)	1	
No	67 (80.7)	624 (86.8)	1.57 (0.87, 2.82)	
My mother is aware of my sexual behavior				0.970
Yes	25 (30.1)	218 (30.3)	1	
No	58 (69.9)	501 (69.7)	0.99 (0.60, 1.625)	
My father is aware of my sexual behavior				0.289
Yes	18 (21.7)	195 (27.1)	1	
No	65 (78.3)	524 (72.9)	0.74 (0.43, 1.29)	
I make use of family planning methods				
Sometimes	10 (12.0)	75 (10.4)	1.06 (0.41, 2.69)	0.811
Always	10 (12.0)	71 (9.9)	1	
Never	63 (75.9)	573 (79.7)	1.28 (0.63, 2.61)	0.624
Ever been treated for any sexually transmitted disease				0.548
Yes	3 (3.6)	18 (2.5)	1	
No	80 (96.4)	701 (97.5)	1.46 (0.42, 5.07)	

Table 4.20 Relationship between Parental connectedness and the sociodemographic characteristics of the respondents

Characteristics	Low Connectedness	High Connectedness	OR (95% CI)	P
No of respondents	83 (10.3)	719 (89.7)	-	-
Mean age (years)	15.6±2.1	15.1±2.0	-	0.075
Type of family				
Monogamous	47 (8.3)	518 (91.7)	1	0.004
Polygamous	36 (15.2)	201 (84.8)	1.97 (1.24, 3.14)	
Religion				
Christianity	43 (11.3)	339 (88.7)	1.20 (0.76, 1.90)	0.499
Islam	39 (9.5)	370 (90.5)	1	-
Traditional	1 (9.1)	10 (90.9)	0.95 (0.12, 7.61)	0.637
No of religious weekly activities	4.2±2.2	4.3±2.1	-	0.716
Fathers' usual place of work				0.034
Within town	47 (8.7)	495 (91.3)	1	
Outside town	35 (13.5)	224 (86.5)	1.65 (1.03, 2.62)	
Mothers' usual place of work				0.018
Within town	71 (9.6)	668 (90.4)	1	
Outside town	12 (19.0)	51 (81.0)	2.21 (1.13, 4.35)	
Who participants live with				0.000
Parents	67 (8.9)	682 (91.1)	1	
Non-parents	16 (30.2)	37 (69.8)	4.40 (2.32, 8.33)	
Are your parents				
Living together	49 (6.9)	657 (93.1)	1	
Separated	23 (33.8)	45 (66.2)	6.85 (3.84, 12.24)	0.000
Divorced	11 (39.3)	17 (60.7)	8.68 (3.85, 19.54)	0.000

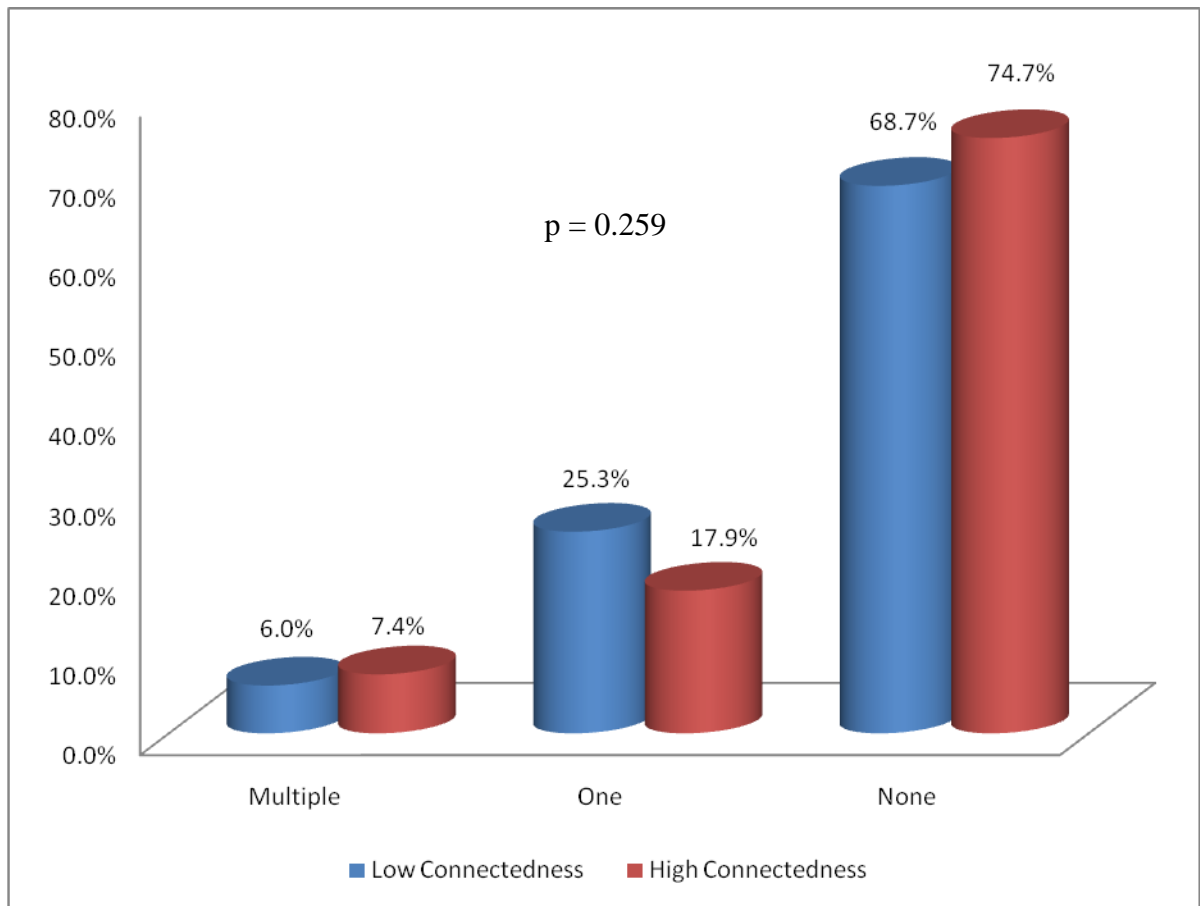


Figure 4.11 Connectedness and number of current sexual partners.

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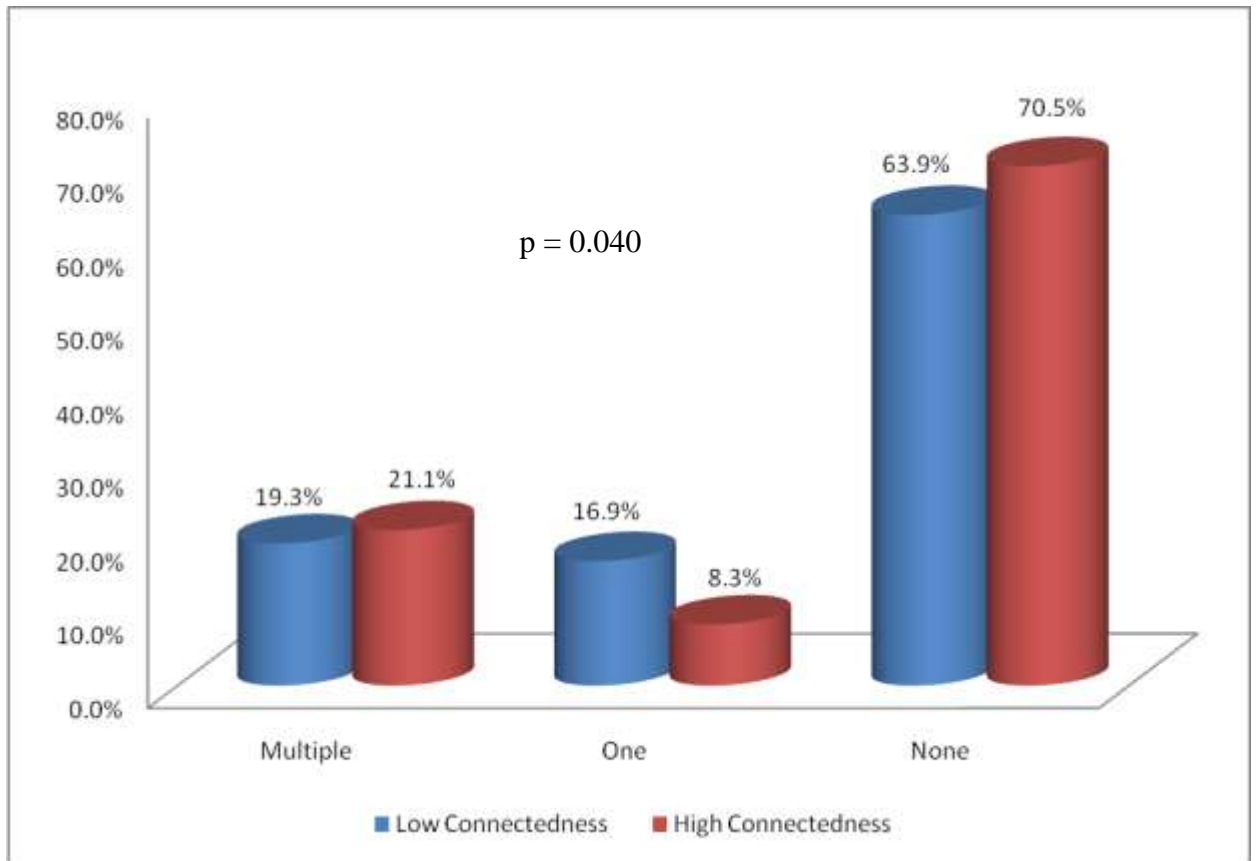


Figure 4.12 Connectedness and number of sexual partners ever had

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4.5 Identifying the domain of parental connectedness that affects the sexual behaviour of public secondary school students

Association between control and monitoring and sexual history of respondents in the survey revealed that respondents with mothers than fathers control and monitoring were 2 times more likely to not have had sex than their counterparts. Parental (mother and father) supervision were significant in the history of having had sex (0.006, 0.033 respectively). (Table 4.21)

Table 4.21 Association between the domains of parental connectedness and respondents' sexual behaviour

Domains		Ever Had Sex		X ²	O.R (95% C.I)	p-value
		Yes	No			
Mothers' control & monitoring	Yes	214 (28.7)	532 (71.3)	9.450	2.32 (1.34, 4.00)	0.002*
	No	27 (48.2)	29 (51.8)			
Fathers' Control & monitoring	Yes	203 (29.2)	493 (70.8)	1.954	1.36 (0.88, 2.09)	0.162
	No	38 (35.8)	68 (64.2)			
Mothers' supervision	Yes	98 (25.4)	288 (74.6)	7.692	1.54 (1.13, 2.09)	0.006*
	No	143 (34.4)	273 (65.6)			
Fathers' supervision	Yes	90 (26.1)	255 (73.9)	4.524	1.40 (1.03, 1.91)	0.033*
	No	151 (33.0)	306 (67.0)			
Mother-child relationship	Yes	235 (29.8)	554 (70.2)	1.630	2.02 (0.67, 6.08)	0.202
	No	6 (46.2)	7 (53.8)			
Father-child relationship	Yes	231 (30.7)	522 (69.3)	2.308	0.58 (0.28, 1.18)	0.129
	No	10 (20.4)	39 (79.6)			
Mother-child communication	Yes	206 (29.3)	496 (70.7)	1.332	1.30 (0.83, 2.02)	0.248
	No	35 (35.0)	206 (29.3)			
Father-child communication	Yes	176 (34.2)	338 (65.8)	11.963	0.56 (0.40, 0.78)	0.001*
	No	65 (22.6)	223 (77.4)			

*statistically significant

Results of multivariate logistic regression are presented in Table 4.22. This revealed that mothers' control and monitoring was a significant determinant of having initiated sex. Respondents with low connectedness scores in the mothers' control and monitoring domain were twice more likely to have had sex than their counterparts with high scores. (OR = 2.152, 95% CI = 1.24-3.74).

Mothers control and monitoring was statistically significant, revealed that respondents with good mothers control and monitoring were 2 times less likely to have ever had sex than their counterparts. (Table 4.22)

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Table 4.22 Adjusted Odds' Ratio for parental connectedness domains and respondents' sexual behaviour

Domains		Ever Had Sex		O.R _A	(95% C.I)	<i>p</i> -value
		Yes	No			
Mothers' control & monitoring	Low connectedness	27 (48.2)	29 (51.8)	2.152	1.24 – 3.74	0.007*
	High Connectedness	214 (28.7)	532 (71.3)	1		
Mothers' supervision	Low connectedness	143 (34.4)	273 (65.6)	1.352	0.93 – 1.97	0.117
	High Connectedness	98 (25.4)	288 (74.6)	1		
Fathers' supervision	Low connectedness	151 (33.0)	306 (67.0)	1.156	0.79 – 1.69	0.455
	High Connectedness	90 (26.1)	255 (73.9)	1		

*statistically significant

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

This chapter is organised into five sub-sections as follows: socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents, respondents' level of connectedness, sexual behaviour of respondents, association between parental connectedness and students' sexual behaviour, identifying the domains of parental connectedness that affects the sexual behaviour and implications of the findings for health education. The chapter ends with the conclusion and recommendations including suggestions for further studies.

Socio demographic characteristics of the respondents

From this study, more respondents were girls. This is not surprising as recent primary and secondary school enrollment reveal improvement in education of girls (UNICEF, 2007). This study further shows that many respondents attended religious activities with a median of 4 days per week. This finding is corroborated with that of Child Trends (2011) where data from the Monitoring the Future survey indicate that 43 percent of eighth graders, 40 percent of tenth graders, and 33 percent of twelfth graders attend religious services at least once a week, Child Trends (2011).

In this study, most of the respondents, irrespective of the type of school, currently live with both parents (father and mother) with a median number of 15 years. Similar finding was reported by Poon (2008) which indicated that a large majority of the respondents in the study live with their parents. Living arrangements may have a significant impact on the lives of adolescents, as adolescents depend largely on their families, and especially their parents, for financial, emotional and psychological support (WHO 2007). In its Poon's study in Thailand, the majority of young children aged between 9 and 14 years live in the same household as their parents with males having a slightly higher proportion of co-residence with parents than females. Those whose parents do not reside at home are looked after by other family members such as grandparents or relatives as part of a common practice in Thailand. Some studies support the proposition that adolescents are less likely to engage in sexual risk-taking behaviour when they reside with a parent—

especially two parents—or when they identify with the views of their parents (Biddlecom, Awusabo-Asare and Bankole, 2009; Borawski, Levers-Landis, Lovegreen and Trapl 2003; Li, Stanton and Feigelman, 2000).

Respondents' level of connectedness

i. Parental control and monitoring

From this study, mothers monitored their children better (especially the girls) than the fathers as shown in the higher proportion that were aware of the whereabouts of their children after school, what they do with their free time, the types of clothes they put on, encouraging their children to attend religious activities always and showing displeasure at associating with friends who smoke/drink. Page (2011) reported that it is only natural that mothers want to protect their children to ensure that they are kept safe instinctively.

Researchers have suggested that parental awareness of children's friends is an important part of parenting (Feiring and Lewis, 1993). Bearman, Bruckner, Brown, Theobald and Philber, 1999 stated that parents, knowing their children's friends can have a two-fold effect by helping pre-empt their involvement in negative social activities, and keeping parents aware of their children's social behaviours thus helping to raise more socially adept children. This is reflected in the 10 rules that the National Centre for Missing & Exploited Children provided parents, of which the number one rule is making sure to know where children are located at all times (National Centre for Missing & Exploited Children www.ncmec.org accessed March 2012). Knowing a teen's whereabouts and behaviour during out-of-school hours is perceived to be associated with lower rates of drug and alcohol use, pregnancy, and delinquency, as well as reduced susceptibility to negative peer pressure (Gray and Steinberg, 1999). These finding is similar to those from some other studies. Kim, (2008) stated that the extent to which parents know the whereabouts and activities of their children outside home and school (parental supervision), positively correlated with reduction in teen sexual activity (Lohman and Billings, 2008; Huebner and Howell, 2003). Furthermore, parental control has been related to adolescent sexual activity and better monitoring is associated with postponing intercourse or less frequent intercourse (Jacobson & Crockett, 2000). In a study of some 750 children ages 13 and older, adolescents who received more parental monitoring were more likely to delay sexual initiation one year later compared to peers who received less monitoring from their parents (Kim, 2008). Hope and Chapple (2005) also found that

parental monitoring at ages 11–13 was protective against sexual initiation 4 years later for males and females in a multi-ethnic sample. Presumably, parental monitoring and supervision reduce adolescent intercourse by restricting opportunities for sexual activity; but, some studies indicate that sexual activity is more likely when parental control is excessive (Miller, 2002) or intrusive (Upchurch, Anehensel, Sucoff and Levy-Storms, 1999).

Similarly, Roche, Mekos, Alexander, Astone, Bandeen-Roche and Ensminger (2005) reported that greater parental decision-making (i.e., whether the parent makes decisions for the youth, such as who the youth spends time with, how often, and what they are allowed to watch on TV, curfews, choice of clothing and diet) at ages 12–13 was protective of later sexual initiation for males and females. In contrast to the findings of this study, five longitudinal studies conducted in multi-ethnic samples reported no association between parental monitoring and sexual initiation for males or females (Upchurch et al, 1999; Whitbeck, Yoder, Hoyt and Conger, 1999; Browning, Leventhal, and Brooks-Gunn, 2005; Baumer and South, 2001; Sieverding, Adler, Witt and Ellen, 2005).

There was sufficient evidence indicating that parental monitoring can be a protective factor against early sexual debut. Although Longmore, Manning and Giordano, (2001) reported that parental monitoring was protective of early debut for males and females aged 13 years in a predominantly white sample, findings from two longitudinal studies among multi-ethnic samples reported a protective association for females only (McNeely, Shew, Beuhring, Sieving, Miller and Blum, 2002), and one longitudinal study reported a protective association for males only (Smith, 1997).

ii. Parental Supervision

Findings from this study revealed that more mothers always supervised the homework/class work of their children and types of programmes and movies watched (especially the girls) than fathers and with better supervision in girl only schools. This might be due to parental perception that girls are more vulnerable to reproductive behavioural risks than the boys.

This applied to dating teens as well. However, teen sexual behaviour appeared uninfluenced by parenting style, either supportive (characterized by frequently praising and spending time with the child) or coercive (characterized by spanking, yelling, or arguing with the child) parenting (Kim, 2008).

iii. Parent-child relationship and parental presence

In this study, most of the participants strongly agree that their parents (more mothers than fathers) displayed love, warmth and love towards them – a finding well supported by the FGD results. This might be because mothers spend more time with their adolescent children than the fathers. Commendador (2010) also found that adolescents that had close parental relationships benefit from self-esteem and confidence. Poor parent-child relationships may enhance susceptibility to peer influences or increase the propensity to associate with deviant friends.

Ikramullah, Manlove, Cui, and Moore (2009) reported that an overall good, positive relationship between parent and child was found to delay sexual experiences for adolescents. Miller, Benson, and Galbraith (2001), also reported that better parent-child relationships are associated with postponing intercourse, less frequent intercourse and fewer sexual partners. Although most studies are cross-sectional, similar relations have been found longitudinally (Miller, Sabo, Farrell, Barnes and Melnick, 1998). These relationships allow both parent and child to develop better lines of communication, which will allow for the likelihood of them having an open dialogue about sex.

iv. Parent-child communication

This study showed that more respondents (male and female) were more comfortable discussing some sexual issues growing up and virginity with their mothers than their fathers. This may be attributed to the perception that mothers have better attributes of being sympathetic listeners than the fathers. It has been reported that the more mothers communicated with their adolescent children about the social and moral consequences of sexual activity, the less likely adolescents were to engage in sexual intercourse (Guilamo-Ramos, Jaccard, Dittus and Bouris, 2006).

However, the impact of parent–child communication appears to depend on openness of the communication, a clear focus on sexual topics, the quality of the parent–child relationship, and the parents values regarding adolescent sexual activity (Miller et al, 2001). Wight, Williamson and Henderson (2006) examined the comfort of communication with fathers and mothers in a mixed-gender sample and reported both a protective and risk association for father–daughter communication only. Females who reported being very comfortable talking about sex with their fathers were less likely to report early sexual debut compared with those who were uncomfortable or very uncomfortable; however, females who had some comfort were at increased risk. In contrast, McNeely et al. (2002) reported a protective association for females using a maternal communication measure focused on disapproval of sex. However, they reported no association for males or females regarding other topics of communication. Only one longitudinal study reported bivariate analyses, indicating a protective association for females only (Wight et al., 2006).

Influence of parental connectedness on sexual behaviour

In this study, participants who indicated that they were not connected with their parents were more than one and a half times likely to have had sex three months preceding the study than their counterparts who are connected. This might be due to such adolescents being more vulnerable to peer pressure and myriads of social influence beyond the school. Family connectedness has been found to be protective of ever having sex from two longitudinal studies (Sieving, McNeely and Blum, 2000; McNeely et al., 2002; Manlove, Ryan S. and Franzetta, 2007; Ream and SavinWilliams, 2005; Ramirez-Valles, Zimmerman and Juarez, 2002; Jaccard and Dittus, 2000; Miller, Norton, Curtis, Hill, Schvaneveldt and Young, 1997; however, 31 findings from 11 longitudinal studies (Sieving, McNeely and Blum, 2000; McNeely et al., 2002; Ream and SavinWilliams, 2005; Regnerus and Luchies, 2006; Hope and Chapple, 2005; Longmore, Manning and Giordano, 2001; Upchurch, Aneshensel, Mudgal and McNeely, 2001) demonstrated no association. For example, two studies using data from the National Longitudinal Study of Adolescent Health (Add Health) indicated that greater levels of mother–child connectedness, parental closeness, and parent–child shared activities were all protective of sexual initiation (Sieving et al, 2000; Ream and SavinWilliams, 2005). Although there was a protective effect for boys between mother–child connectedness and initiation of sex for 10th and 11th graders, no association was found for girls of the same age (Ream and

SavinWilliams, 2005). There was also no association between family connectedness indicators between fathers and sons and sexual initiation (Ream and SavinWilliams, 2005). Notably, more studies reporting “no association” used measures referring to “parents” in general, rather than to a specific parent (Ream and SavinWilliams, 2005; Regnerus and Luchies, 2006; Longmore, Manning and Giordano, 2001; Upchurch et al, 2001).

Furthermore, Bingham and Crockett in their study suggest that family connectedness can be a protective factor for early sexual debut with two findings from two longitudinal studies indicating a protective association (Bingham and Crockett, 1996). However, four findings from three longitudinal studies (Crockett, Bingham, Chopak and Vicary, 1996; Paul, Fitzjohn, Herbison and Dickson 2000) reported no association. Bingham and Crockett (1996) assessed quality of parent relationship and reported a protective association; though, this association became non-significant after adjusting for self-esteem and positive effect prior to first intercourse. Browning and colleagues (Browning, Leventhal and Brooks-Gunn, 2004) assessed “family attachment and support” and reported a protective association when controlling for individual, family, and neighbourhood predictors.

On the indirect effects of family connectedness on Adolescent Sexual and Reproductive Health (ASRH) outcomes, studies revealed that family connectedness had indirect protective effects through individual factors [e.g., academic performance, depression, substance use (Scaramella, Conger, Simons and Whitbeck, 1998), self-control (Hope and Chapple, 2005) and external factors (e.g., peer deviance [90], number of partners (Regnerus and Luchies, 2006), and eating meals with a parent (Regnerus and Luchies, 2006). One longitudinal study from England reported an indirect risk effect for early sexual initiation (Taris and Semin 1997)]. This risk effect was mediated through decreased conflict and through lack of explicit parental standards or expectations for their child’s behaviour. Another longitudinal study (Ary, Duncan, Biglan, Metzler, Noell and Smolkowski, 1999) reported a more complex pathway involving both family connectedness (operationalised as family involvement) and parental monitoring. Family involvement mediated the effects between family conflict and parental monitoring; parental monitoring then affected “problem behaviour” (e.g., sexual risk-taking), both directly and through youth association with deviant peers.

Implications of the findings for health promotion and education

The results of this study highlights far reaching implications for planning, development, implementation and evaluation of adolescent sexual and reproductive health education in the school setting in the study area and Nigeria at large. This has been subdivided into the students, parents, school and the State/LGA educational board. Through health education and information, ensuring health promotion, students will be able to understand the need for parental control, monitoring, supervision, relationship/presence and communication. Programmes such as educative seminars, debates, after-school clubs or interactive meetings for students and also involving their parents on their relevance in influencing the sexual behaviour of their children can be used to bridge the gap of adolescent sexual and reproductive health. Parents can also benefit from Parent-Teachers Association (PTA) meetings stressing their relevance as major key players in interacting and communicating the right message to their children most especially the adolescents in the secondary schools who are in their formative years. The school authorities can implement special educative sessions on parent-child relationship, communication and importance of control, monitoring and supervision in the school curriculum to enlighten students, thus reducing bad influences outside the home on the student. In-school activities such as debates within students can also educate the students.

The use of billboards, posters or banners, within the school premises, educating students on the importance of communicating with their parents can also help to influence positive sexual behaviours and openness in discussing sexual related issues between parents and their children. School counselors, peer education and mentoring by trusted and respected students, particularly effective for working with adolescents and young adult can be encouraged. The findings of this study could also be used by the State/Local Government educational board as a training needs assessment for the design and development of a training curriculum for upgrading the knowledge and skills of teachers, educators, parents and their children relating to the design and implementation of parent-child connectedness, parent-child communication, adolescent sexuality and reproductive health education programmes.

Several changes may be needed; hence, programmes should be tailored to suit the age, gender and other characteristics of the adolescents as well as the cultural context taking the peculiarities of the study population.

Conclusion

Parenting practices have profound effects on adolescent development. The study on the influence of parental connectedness on the sexual behaviour of students in Ibadan North East local government area highlighted and confirmed certain vital issues. Adolescents' perceptions of low parental caring, difficulty talking to their parents about problems, and valuing their friends' opinions for serious decisions were significantly associated with compromised behavioural and emotional health. Good parenting can optimize an adolescent's potential, whereas suboptimal parenting may contribute to youth participation in high-risk behaviours. Interventions aimed at improving the parent-child relationship may provide an avenue toward preventing health risk behaviours in youth. Given the super-protective nature of Parental Connectedness, there is clear and compelling need to cultivate it throughout our communities.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following specific recommendations are made to map out strategies to improve parental connectedness:

1. The students should:
 - be involved in solving problems related to connectedness with their parents through their involvement in seminars, debates and after-school clubs
 - attend as well as inform and encourage their parents to attend interactive meetings.
2. The parents should:
 - Not relent in making unannounced visits to the school to monitor and supervise their children.
 - attend parent teachers' association and interactive meetings regularly to follow up on the school programme and know when their children need more attention or encouragement.
3. The school should:
 - initiate programmes that should encourage child and parent communication such as seminars, debates, games and films.
 - have school counselors who will also visit parents of students with special needs to encourage their involvement.

- encourage peer mentoring by trusted and respected students
 - monitor students to reduce loitering and increase concentration on their studies.
 - ensure the school environment is improved with the use of educative billboards, posters that would educate students on the components of parental connectedness discussed.
4. The State, Local government and other educational boards should:
- review the school curriculum to include knowledge and practice of parental connectedness
 - enlighten teachers and other educators in the school through update courses, seminars, workshops and conferences on parental connectedness.
 - Make efforts to continue to support intensive and comprehensive evidence-based prevention efforts that involve parents, communities, schools and public agencies working together to promote healthier behaviours by youth.
 - support the schools on creating a healthy educative environment for students

Suggestions for further studies

Based on the outcome of this study, the following are suggested for further studies:

1. The development and long-term evaluation of effective parenting interventions.
2. Parent-child programmes that can help parents, especially fathers, improve their comfort and facility in speaking with their child about sex and sexuality.

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APPENDIX I

INFORMED CONSENT

Introduction

Greetings: Good day to you

My name is I am a postgraduate student / research assistance from the department of Health Promotion and Education, University of Ibadan. I am conducting a research on the Influence of Parent connectedness on the sexual behavior of in –school adolescents. I will like you to be a part of the adolescents that would be discussing on the issue, so as to learn and share your views on this matter.

Your responses or discussion will be kept confidential and used only for the purpose of this study. Your name and address shall not be required from you and it shall not be written down anywhere so as to assure you of our level of confidentiality.

I do not intend to take much of your time. You do not have to answer any question you do not wish to and you have the right to ask for clarification on any question you do not seem to understand.

I anticipate no risk as a result of your participation other than the inconvenience of time to participate in the focus group discussion.

While there may be no immediate benefit to you for you participation, it is hoped that we may gain valuable information on the influence of parent connectedness on the sexual behavior of secondary school students in Nigeria which will be of future value to the society.

I certify that the respondents gave a verbal consent to participate in the study.

.....

Moderator's/ Researcher's signature

APPENDIX II

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION FROM THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT



**MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
OYO STATE**

IBADAN NORTH EAST LOCAL EDUCATION OFFICE
IWO ROAD, IBADAN

Your Ref: No. _____
All communications to be addressed
to the Local Inspector of Education quoting
Our Ref: No. _____

Tel: _____
20/5/2011

The Principal,
.....
.....
.....

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

1. I wish to inform your school that Akinwustan Olubukola Ayetunde Matric Number 110806 had been granted the permission to administer her questionnaire for her M.P.H (Health Promotion and Education) programme in your school.

2. The Titled of the research Project is " Influence of Parental Connecteness on Sexual Behaviour of female Students in Ibadan North East L.G.A.

3. Kindly accord her all necessary assistance

4. Thank you.

I. I. Fatoki 20/5/2011
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
IBADAN NORTH-EAST LOCAL EDUCATION OFFICE
IWO ROAD, IBADAN

Mrs. I. I. Fatoki,
Local Inspector of Education
Ibadan North East.

APPENDIX III

ETHICAL APPROVAL FROM THE OYO STATE BOARD

TELEGRAMS.....

TELEPHONE.....



MINISTRY OF HEALTH
DEPARTMENT OF PLANNING, RESEARCH & STATISTICS DIVISION
PRIVATE MAIL BAG NO. 5027, OYO STATE OF NIGERIA

Your Ref. No.
All communications should be addressed to
the Honorable Commissioner governing
Our Ref. No: AD 13/479/161

Date: 19th October, 2011

The Principal Investigator,
Department of Health of Health Promotion & Education,
Faculty of Public Health,
College of Medicine,
University of Ibadan,
Ibadan.

Attention: Akinwuntan, Olubukola Ayotunde.

Ethical Approval for the Implementation of Your Research Proposal in Oyo State.

This acknowledges the receipt of the corrected version of your Research Proposal titled "*Influence of Parent Connectedness with the Sexual Behaviour of Public Secondary School Students in Ibadan North East Local Government Area, Oyo State*"

The Committee has noted your compliance with all the ethical concerns raised in the initial review of the proposal. In the light of this, I am pleased to convey, to you, the approval of the committee for the implementation of the Research Proposal in Oyo State, Nigeria.

Please, note that the committee will monitor, closely, and follow up the implementation of the research study. However, the Ministry of Health would like to have a copy of the results and conclusions of the findings as this will help in policy making in the health sector.

Wishing you all the best



Mrs V.A. Adepoju
Director, Planning, Research & Statistics
Secretary, Oyo State Research Ethical Review Committee.

APPENDIX IV

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE

STUDY TITLE: INFLUENCE OF PARENTAL CONNECTEDNESS ON THE SEXUAL BEHAVIOR OF SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS IN IBADAN NORTH EAST LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA, OYO STATE

INTRODUCTION:

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this focus group discussion. I am Akinwuntan Olubukunola, a Master's student of the Department of Health Promotion and Education, College of Medicine, University of Ibadan, Nigeria. I am carrying out a research on the "influence of Parental Connectedness on the sexual behaviour of secondary school students". My colleagues are We are involving you in a brief discussion on the influence of Parents on the sexual behaviour of adolescents. Please feel free to express your views. All your comments both positive and negative are very important. Notes will be taken, and the group discussion will be tape recorded. Every effort will be made to keep the information you provide confidential.

SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Site:

Date:

Focus Group Category:

Start Time:

Moderator:

End Time:

Note-taker:

Transcriber:

Number of Participants:

S/N	KEY QUESTIONS	PROBES / FOLLOW UP QUESTIONS
1	Who decides that students in this area should attend this school?	Whether their parents are involved in sending them to the school
2	Can you (as a group) describe the relationship between students in this school and their parents?	Probe for closeness to parents, loving, warm, caring
3	How close are students in this school to their parents?	Probe for male closeness to their parents; female closeness to their parents; different age groups and socio-economic class (either low or high)
4	What are factors that promote relationship between parents and their wards?	Probe for presence of parents; time spent with their wards;
5	How do parents know about the movements of their children in this school?	Do they call them; do they send someone to ask after them; are children under the guidance of someone

6	What is the contribution of parents to the affairs of students in this school?	Probe for sex difference; school fees; school uniform; school work – assignment; students’ welfare
7	Can you describe the relationship of parents of students in this school with their wards’ friends?	Probe to know if their friends are allowed in to their homes; if they are permitted to visit their friends or go out with them alone
8	How do the parents of students in this school supervise them?	Probe for watching programmes/ movies with them; looking through school work; assignment; internet use; DSTV codes
9	How well do students in this school communicate with their parents on sexual issues?	Probe for sex difference
10	What are the factors that hinder communication on sexual issues between students in this school and their parents?	Probe for parent – child relationship, Presence of parents at home,
11	What are the sexual and other reproductive health problems adolescents’ encounters?	How common are the following problems among them?- Pregnancy, abortion, sexually transmitted infections, school dropout
12	Who do adolescents prefer to communicate their sexual/reproductive issues with?	Probe for sex difference; their sources- parents, friends, siblings, uncles, aunties, relatives
13	What can you (as a group) say about the sexual behaviour of students in this school?	Probe for age of sexual initiation, number of sexual partners, use of family planning methods, causes/ influence of sexual behaviour
14	Where is the preferred source of students in this to receive information on sexual issues?	Probe for information gathered from television, movies, internet and other mediums
15	What are your suggestions on how the relationship of parents with their adolescents in this school can affect their sexual behaviour	
Thank you for taking the time to participate in this discussion		

APPENDIX V

QUESTIONNAIRE

INFLUENCE OF PARENTAL CONNECTEDNESS ON THE SEXUAL BEHAVIOUR OF PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS IN IBADAN NORTH EAST LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA, OYOSTATE

Introduction

The informed consent form should be read/explained to the respondents in a language he/she understands. If the respondent gives consent to participate in the study after given full information and answer(s) to questions asked, the interview should be continued, otherwise, thank the respondent and terminate the interview.

Survey Identification Number
Date of interview.....
Name of school.....

SECTION A: SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS (Tick the correct option)

1. Age at last birthday (in years) _____
2. Gender: Male [] Female []
3. What class are you in? _____.
4. Type of family. [] monogamous [] polygamous
5. If polygamous, how many wives does your father have? _____
6. If polygamous, what is your mother's position? _____
7. Tribe: [] Yoruba [] Igbo [] Hausa [] other
(Please specify _____)
8. Religion: [] Christian [] Muslim [] Traditional [] others
(Specify denomination please) _____
9. How frequently do you attend religious activities?
(Please write in days per week) _____
10. What is your father's highest level of education? No formal [], Primary [],
Secondary [], Graduate [], Post graduate [], Others (Specify) _____

11. What is your mother's highest level of education? No formal [], Primary [], Secondary [], Graduate [], Post graduate [], Others (Specify) _____
12. What is your father's main occupation? _____
13. What is your mother's main occupation? _____
14. My father's usual place of work _____ Within Town [] Outside town []
15. My mother's usual place of work _____ Within Town [] Outside town []
16. Whom are you currently living with?
 - (a) Father and Mother [] (d) Relatives []
 - (b) Mother only [] (e) Grandparents []
 - (c) Father only [] (f) Boy/girlfriend []
 - (g) Others (please, write here) _____
17. If living with your parents, for how long have you been living with them?
(Write in years) _____
18. If you are not living with your parents, for how long have you been separated from your parents? (Write in years) _____
19. Are your parents: living together []; separated [] or divorced []?
20. Are there other relatives living with you? _____
If yes, please list here? _____
21. How many children do your parents have? Total [] Male [] Female []
22. What is your position amidst the children in your family?
23. How many older siblings do you have? Total _____ Female _____ Male _____
24. How many younger ones do you have? Total _____ Female _____ Male _____

SECTION B

LEVEL OF PARENTAL CONNECTEDNESS WITH THEIR CHILDREN

SECTION B 1: PARENTAL CONTROL AND MONITORING

MOTHER

S/N	Statements	Always	Most times	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
25	My mother knows where I am after school					
26	My mother knows what I do with my free time					

27	I do not tell my mother whom I am going to be with before I go out					
28	My mother does not know who my friends are					
29	My mother knows the type of clothes I put on					
30	My mother is not pleased when I visit pornographic sites					
31	My mother does not monitor the party I attend					
32	My mother encourages me to attend religious activities					
33	My mother is not pleased when I associate with friends who smoke, drink etc					

FATHER

S/N	Statements	Always	Most times	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
34	My father knows where I am after school					
35	My father knows what I do with my free time					
36	I do not tell my father whom I am going to be with before I go out					
37	My father does not know who my friends are					
38	My father knows the type of clothes I put on					
39	My father is not pleased when I visit pornographic sites					

40	My father does not monitor the party I attend					
41	My father encourages me to attend religious activities					
42	My father is not pleased when I associate with friends who smoke, drink etc					

43. I get punished when I disobey Parental instructions. Sometimes

[] Always [] Never ()

SECTION B 2: PARENTAL SUPERVISION

MOTHER

S/N	Statements	Always	Most times	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
44	My mother does not supervise the television channels I can watch					
45	My mother supervises my homework / class work					
46	My mother does not supervise the activities I engage in when my friends come around					
47	My mother supervises my use of the internet					

FATHER

S/N	Statements	Always	Most times	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
48	My father does not supervise the television channels I can watch					
49	My father supervises my homework / class work					

50	My father does not supervise the activities I engage in when my friends come around					
51	My father supervises my use of the internet					

SECTION B 3: PARENT – CHILD RELATIONSHIP

(Parent-adolescent Connectedness/ Parental Presence)

MOTHER

S/N	Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
52	My mother cares about me					
53	My mother is warm and loving toward me					
54	I feel close to my mother					
55	I am happy with the relationship with my mother					
56	My mother and I are close to each other					

FATHER

S/N	Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
57	My father cares about me					
58	My father is warm and loving toward me					
59	I feel close to my father					
60	I am happy with the relationship with my father					
61	My father and I are close to each other					

Parental Presence

MOTHER

S/N	Statements	Always	Most times	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
62	My mother is at home when I wake up in the morning					
63	My mother is at home at breakfast time					
64	My mother is at home at supper time					
65	My mother is at home when I go to bed					

FATHER

S/N	Statements	Always	Most times	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
66	My father is at home when I wake up in the morning					
67	My father is at home at breakfast time					
68	My father is at home at supper time					
69	My father is at home when I go to bed					

SECTION B 4: PARENT-CHILD COMMUNICATION

70. What time of the day do you often talk or discuss serious matters with your father? _____
71. What time of the day do you often talk or discuss serious matters with your mother? _____
72. How often do you communicate with your father? Regularly [] Occasionally []
Never []

73. How often do you communicate with your mother? Regularly [] Occasionally []
 ever []

	Issues	How often do you communicate on the issues with....			Are there restrictions on the issues mentioned?		
		Father	Mother	Others _____	Father	Mother	Others____ _____
74	Sex						
75	Menstruation						
76	Growing up						
77	Family Planning						
78	Relationship with the opposite sex						
79	Virginity						
80	Pregnancy						

****Please fill in either S for Sometimes; A for Always and N for Never***

81. What happens when you ask your father about sexuality issues?

They shout you down []; they sit you down to advice you []; they tell you to face your studies []; others (write here) _____

82. What happens when you ask your mother about sexuality issues?

They shout you down []; they sit you down to advice you []; they tell you to face your studies []; others (write here) _____

83. What happens when you ask others (friends/relatives etc) about sexuality issues?

They shout you down []; they sit you down to advice you []; they tell you to face your studies []; others (write here) _____

84. I enjoy spending time with my mother. [] Sometimes [] Always [] Never

85. I enjoy spending time with my father. [] Sometimes [] Always [] Never

86. I prefer to discuss sexual issues with _____ in the house.

87. I am closer to my friends (friend- connectedness) than my mother. Yes [] No []

88. I am closer to my friends (friend- connectedness) than my father. Yes [] No []

SECTION C: ASSESSING THE PATTERN OF SEXUAL BEHAVIOR OF ADOLESCENTS

89. I have had sexual intercourse before. Yes No
90. If so, what was your age at your first sexual intercourse? _____
91. Who/ what situation influence your action to having a sexual intercourse? _____
92. I have had _____ sexual partner(s) before.
93. I currently have _____sexual partner(s).
94. I had sex in the last 3 months Yes No
95. My mother is aware of my sexual behaviors? Yes No
96. My father is aware of my sexual behaviors? Yes No
97. I make use of family planning methods? Sometimes Always Never
98. If yes, which one? _____
99. How did you get to know about this? _____
100. Have you ever been treated of any sexually transmitted infection? Yes
 No
101. If so, when? _____

APPENDIX VI

IBASEPO AWON OBI LORI IHA TI AWON OMO ILE EKO GIRAMA NI ILU IBADAN NI IJOBA IBILE NORTH EAST LOCAL GOVERNMENT NI IPINLE OYO KO SI IBALOPO

Oro Akoso

A gbodo ka iwe adehun yii fun olukopa ni ede ti yoo ye won yekeyeke. Ti olukopa ba fi ara jin fun ise iwadi yii leyin ti O ba ti dahun gbogbo awon ibeere ti a o beere, iforowanilenuwo yi yoo tesiwaju, tabi ko ni tesiwaju, e ki oluwadi ki e da iwadi yii duro.

Nomba iwadi leeseese:.....
Ojo iwadi:.....
Oruko ile iwe:.....

IPELE A: IGBE AYE OLUDAHUN (E mu idahun ti o ye)

1. Omo odun melo ni yin (odun).....
2. Eda: Okunrin () Female ()
3. Kilaasi wo lowa?.....
4. Iru Ebi yin: Oniyawo kan () Olopo iyawo ()
5. To baje olopo iyawo, iyawo melo ni baba re ni:.....
6. To baje olopo iyawo, kini ipo iya re:.....
7. Eya: Yoruba() Ibo () Hausa () omiran (e salaye):.....
8. Esin:
 - a. Kirisiteni
 - b. musulumi
 - c. esin abalaye
 - d. omiran (so ijo ti e darapo)
9. O ma nto igba melo ti e ma n darapo mo ise oluwa?
(e jowo e ko oye ojo to je lose)

10. Kini ipele eko baba yin
 - a. Kokawe rara
 - b. Alakobere
 - c. Ile iwe girama
 - d. Ile iwe giga
 - e. Ile iwe giga onipele keji
 - f. Omiran (so pato)
11. Kini ipele eko iya yin
 - a. Kokawe rara
 - b. Alakobere
 - c. Ile iwe girama
 - d. Ile iwe giga
 - e. Ile iwe giga onipele keji
 - f. Omiran (so pato)
12. Iru ise wo ni baba yin nse?.....
13. Iru ise wo ni iya yin nse?.....
14. Ibo ni ibi ti baba yin tin se nse.....laarin ilu () odikeji ilu ()
15. Ibo ni ibi ti iya yin tin se nse.....laarin ilu () odikeji ilu ()
16. Tani e ngbe pelu?
 - a. Baba ati iya ()
 - b. Iya nikan ()
 - c. Baba nikan ()
 - d. Ebi ()
 - e. Iya agba ()
 - f. Orekunrin tabi orebinrin ()
17. Ti e ba ngbe pelu obi yin, o to igba wo leti ngbe pelu won (e ko odun).....
18. Ti e ko ba gbe pelu obi yin, o to igba wo ni e ti pinya kuro lodo awon obi yin (e ko odun).....
19. Nje awon obi yin: Ngbe papo () Ti pinya () Ti kora sile ()?
20. Nje awon molebi ngbe pelu yin?.....
To ba je beeni, jowo ko sile nibi?.....
21. Omo melo ni awon obi yin bi? Aropo () okunrin () obinrin ()
22. Kinni ipo ti e wa ni arin awon omo yi ninu ebi?
23. Melo ni awon egbon ti e ni? Aropo () okunrin () obinrin ()

24. Melo ni awon aburo ti e ni? Aropo () okunrin () obinrin ()

IBASEPO AWON OBI PELU OMO WON

IPELE B 1: ONA TI AWON OBI MA NGBA BOJUTO ATI DARI AWON OMO

IYA

S/N	Oro	Gbogbo igba	Igba miran	Igba die	lekonkan	Rara
25	Iya mi mo ibi ti mo ma nwa leyin ile iwe					
26	Iya mi mo ohun ti mo ma nfi asiko ti mi o ba sise se					
27	Mi o ki so fun iya mi odo eniti mo ma wa ki nto jade					
28	Iya mi ko mo iru eni ti awon ore mi nse					
29	Iya mi mo ewu ti mo ma nwo					
30	Inu iya mi kii dun ti mo ba nwo iwokuwo ninu ero ayelukara (internet)					
31	Iya mi ki bojuto ode ariya ti mo ba lo.					
32	Iya mi ma un gbami ni imoran					

	ki n darapo mo awon ise ni ile ijosin					
33	Iya mi ki dunu si ti mo ba ba awon ore tomu oti tabi siga rin					

BABA

S/N	Oro	Gbogbo igba	Igba miran	Igba die	lekonkan	Rara
34	Baba mi mo ibi ti mo ma nwa leyin ile iwe					
35	Baba mi mo ohun ti mo ma nfi asiko ti mi o ba sise se					
36	Mi o ki so fun iya mi odo eniti mo ma wa ki nto jade					
37	Baba mi ko mo iru eni ti awon ore mi nse					
38	Baba mi mo ewu ti mo ma now					
39	Inu iya mi kii dun ti mo ba nwo iwokuwo ninu ero ayelukara					

40	Baba mi ki bojuto ode ariya ti mo ba lo.					
41	Baba mi ma un gbami ni imoran ki n darapo mo awon ise ni ile ijosin					
42	Baba mi ki dunu si ti mo ba ba awon ore tomu oti tabi siga rin					

43. Awon obi mi ma un bamiwi nigba ti mo ba ru ofin won. Nigba miran ()
Nigbogbo igba () rara ()

**IPIN B 2: BIBOJUTO AWON OBI
IYA**

S/N	Oro	Gbogbo igba	Igba miran	Igba die	lekonkan	Rara
44	Iya mi ko ki un bojutomi ti mo ba nwo ero mohunmaworan					
45	Iya mi ma nwo ise amurele mi					
46	Iya mi ko ki bojuto awon ise ti mo ban se ti awon oremi ba wa lodo mi.					
47	Iya mi ma nbojutomi ti mo ba wa lori ero					

	ayelukara (internet)					
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BABA

S/N	Oro	Gbogbo igba	Igba miran	Igba die	lekonkan	Rara
48	Baba mi ko ki un bojutomi ti mo ba nwo ero mohunmaworan					
49	Baba mi ma nwo ise amurele mi					
50	Baba mi ko ki bojuto awon ise ti mo ban se ti awon oremi ba wa lodo mi.					
51	Baba mi ma nbojutomi ti mo ba wa lori ero ayelukara (internet)					

IPIN B 3: IBASEPO OMO ATI OBI

(isunmora obi si omo/fifararo obi)

IYA

S/N	Oro	Gbogbo igba	Igba miran	Igba die	lekonkan	Rara
52	Iya mi ma nse itoju mi					
53	Iya mi tutu o si nife si mi					
54	Mo sunmo iya mi					

55	Inu mi dun pelu ajosepo towa larin emi ati iya mi					
56	Emi ati iya mi sunmo ara wa gan					

BABA

S/N	Oro	Gbogbo igba	Igba miran	Igba die	lekonkan	Rara
57	Baba mi ma nse itoju mi					
58	Baba mi tutu o si nife si mi					
59	Mo sunmo baba mi					
60	Inu mi dun pelu ajosepo towa larin emi ati baba mi					
61	Emi ati baba mi sunmo ara wa gan					

FIFARARO AWON OBI

IYA

S/N	Oro	Gbogbo igba	Igba miran	Igba die	lekonkan	Rara
62	Iya mi wa nwa nile ti boba ji lowuro					
63	Iya mi ma nwa nile timo ba fe jeun owuro					

64	Iya mi ma nwa nile ti mo ba fe jeun ale					
65	Iya mi wa nwa nile timo ba fe losun					

BABA

S/N	Oro	Gbogbo igba	Igba miran	Igba die	lekonkan	Rara
66	Baba mi wa nwa Nile ti boba ji lowuro					
67	Baba mi ma nwa Nile timo ba fe jeun owuro					
68	Baba mi ma nwa Nile ti mo ba fe jeun ale					
69	Baba mi wa nwa Nile timo ba fe losun					

IPIN B4: IBASORO LARIN OMO SI OBI

70. Bi agoo melo ni e ma ba baba yin soro to mu yin lokan?.....
71. Bi agoo melo ni e ma ba mama yin soro to mu yin lokan?.....
72. O ma nto igba wo ni e se ma un ba baba yin soro? Nigbogbo igba ()
lekokan () rara ()
73. O ma nto igba wo ni e se ma un ba mama yin soro? Nigbogbo igba ()
lekokan () rara ()

s/n	Koko	O ma nto igba wo ni e ma un soro lori....			Nje eni awon idiwon lori koko ti e so?		
		Baba	Iya	Omiran	Baba	Iya	Omiran
74	Eda			-----			-----
75	Nkan osu						
76	Toba ndagba						
77	Ifetosomobibi						
78	Ibasepo pelu eda keji						
79	Koti mokunrin						
80	Oyun						

E jowo e ko S fun – **eekokan** A fun **gbogbo** ati N fun **rara**

81. Kilosele nigba ti e bere lowo baba yin lori oro ibalopo?
Won bayin lenumo () won dayin joko lati gbayin ni amoran () won sope ki e koju si eko yin ();
omiran (e ko sibi).....
82. Kilosele nigba ti e bere lowo iya yin lori oro ibalopo?
Won bayin lenumo () won dayin joko lati gbayin ni amoran () won sope ki e koju si eko yin ();
omiran (e ko sibi).....
83. Kilosele nigba ti e bere lowo (ore/ ebi etc) yin lori oro ibalopo?
Won bayin lenumo () won dayin joko lati gbayin ni amoran () won sope ki e koju si eko yin ();
omiran (e ko sibi).....
84. Mo gbadun kin ma lo akoko mi pelu iya mi. eekokan () gbogbo igba ()
rara ()
85. Mo gbadun kin ma lo akoko mi pelu baba mi. eekokan () gbogbo igba ()
rara ()
86. Mo feran ati ma soro ibalopo pelu.....
Ni inu ile
87. Mo sunmo awon ore mi (ibasepo ore) ju iya mi lo. Beeni () Beeko ()
88. Mo sunmo awon ore mi (ibasepo ore) ju baba mi lo Beeni () Beeko ()

IPIN C: GBIGBE OSUWON LORI IWA IBALOPO

89. Mo ti ni ibalopo ri. Beeni () Beeko ()
90. To ba ri be, e to omo odun melo nigba ti e koko ni ibalopo?.....
91. Tani tabi kinni awon ohun to se okunfa nini ibalopo?
92. Mo ti ni..... Olubalopo tele
93. Mo ni olubalopo
94. Mo ti ni ibalopo laarin osu meta Beeni () Beeko ()
95. Iya mi mo nipa iwa ibalopo mi Beeni () Beeko ()
96. Baba mi mo nipa iwa ibalopo mi Beeni () Beeko ()
97. Mo ma nlo awon nkan ifetosomobibi eekokan () gbogbo igba () rara ()
98. To ba je beeni, ewo?.....
99. Bawo ni e se mo nipa re:.....
100. Nje eti gba itoju ri lori arun ibalopo Beeni () Beeko ()
101. Toba je beeni, nigba wo?.....

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