

ASSOCIATION BETWEEN FAMILY STRUCTURE, PSYCHOLOGICAL AND ACADEMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF ADOLESCENT STUDENTS IN CALABAR

BY

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DECLARATION

This dissertation is submitted in partial fulfilment for the Award of Masters in Child and Adolescent Mental Health (M.Sc.), University of Ibadan. The report here has not been previously published or presented for the award of a degree to any other institution.

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CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that the conduct of this study and the preparation of the thesis were carried out by UMA, A. UMA in the CENTER FOR CHILD AND ADOLESCENT MENTAL HEALTH, UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN under my supervision.

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DEDICATION

To the Almighty God; my lovely wife Chinasa Uma, and my children Chukwuemeka, Chiazokam, Chiduikem, Chizurum and Chimdiebube for their support, encouragement and prayers.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CBCL:	Child Behaviour Checklist
SDQ:	Strength and Difficulty Questionnaire
SHQ-M:	Modified School Health Questionnaire
SPSS:	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
YSR:	Youth Self Report

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ABSTRACT

Introduction: Living in a single parent's homes has been reported to have some negative effects on children and adolescents. Adolescents in single parent's homes have been found to be underachievers in academic activities than those in two parents' homes. They are also known to be at increased risk of suffering various forms of abuses, having emotional, conduct and peer related problems than adolescents from two parents' families. The proportion of children living in single parent's homes in Nigeria has rarely been studied. This study looked at the association between family structure and the psychological and academic characteristics of students.

Methods: This was a cross sectional descriptive study. A multi stage random sampling was used to select secondary school students from two Local Government Areas. The first stage was random selection of five secondary schools from each of the two Local Government Areas. The second stage was the random selection of one junior and one senior classes from each of the schools. Then the students were randomly selected by simple 'yes' or 'no' balloting. The Modified School Health Questionnaire (SHQ-M) and Strength and Difficulty Questionnaire (SDQ), were used in the study to obtain information from students on their socio-demographics, academic and psychological characteristics.

Results: A total of 430 adolescent students were recruited into the study. Roughly a third (29.3%) of the adolescents were from single parent homes; (11.6% from divorced, 11% from single or double orphans and 6.7% from never married homes). Students from single parent homes were more likely to repeat a class, suffer sexual abuse and hunger; they were also more likely to have emotional, conduct and peer related problems than those in two parents' families. Students from single father homes were significantly more likely to have peer related problems than those from single mother families. Also students from never married homes were significantly more likely to suffer sexual abuse than students from other single parent's homes.

Conclusion: Children from single parent families were found to have greater risk of repeating a class, suffering various forms of abuses and having more emotional, conduct and peer related problems than those from two parents' homes.

Recommendation: Mental health programmes need to be developed in schools to provide academic and psychological support for adolescents from single home parents.

Keywords: Family structure, single parents, two parents, academic performance and psychological status

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Family structure is a term used to describe the composition of a family; whether it is made up of parents and children as in nuclear family, or whether in addition to the above; grandparents, uncles, aunts, cousins, niece are included as in extended family. It also describes whether or not one or two of the parents are living together and involved in care and upbringing of the child/children, (CCPC, 2015). The extended and two-parent families are predominant in Nigeria (Olaniyi and Orok, 2009). Family has a defining effect on the life of its members. It affects the social network of the members, the type of friends they keep and often their view about life. The family has a profound influence on the child's academic performance, social and emotional development as well as his/her achievement in life (Hakan, 2013). The number of parents in a household has a huge influence in shaping the character of the children in it (Olaniyi and Orok, 2009). It also influences the availability of resources for its members.

Two- parent family can be married, cohabiting or stepfamily (Hakan, 2013). The level of commitment in two parents' homes is highest in married couple who have never been divorced, followed by those in stepfamily and lastly in cohabiting setting (Hakan, 2013). According to that report (Hakan, 2013), the proportion of cohabiting partners and children in single parent homes vary inversely with the rate of marriage. The proportion of two parent families ranges from 85% to 94% in Asia and Middle East; 76% in Nigeria to as low as 36% in South Africa (World Family Map, 2014). Cohabiting is highest in Central and South America, followed by Europe and North America (World Family Map, 2014). Two parents' families whether biological or stepparents vary widely. The range of two parent families in Europe is between 76% in United Kingdom to 89% in Italy/Poland. The proportion of two parents' families in

Canada is 78%, while in Colombia it is 62%, (World Family Map, 2014). About 13% of children live in single parent homes in Nigeria against 43% seen in South Africa (World Family Map, 2014). The report attributed this high rate in South Africa partly due to high incidence of AIDS orphans. Single parent homes account for about 27% of families in North America among the whites and as high as 63% among African Americans (Hakan, 2013). In North America about 7% of children live in a household without at least one of their biological parents, (World Family Map, 2014). According to the World Family Map (2014), Ethiopia has 4% cohabiting families, while Kenya has 4% and Nigeria has 2%. Colombia has the highest proportion of children born to unmarried mothers, as high as 84%. Forty percent of children in North America are from unmarried relationship, ranging from 27% in Canada to 55% in Mexico, (World Family Map, 2014). Children from unmarried relationship are more likely to have negative outcome in many areas of life, from social to academic. Parents in such homes are also more likely to have unstable relationship, which further worsens the children's outcome in life (Demo and Alan, 1998). Many see two parents' family as the ideal family type, where as a single parent household is often described as a deviant home (Adelani et al., 2015). This belief is probably due to the findings that; children from two-parent homes have higher standard of living, receive better upbringing and have better parents-children relationship than those in single parent setting (Senna et al, 2001). Again they experience less family conflicts. Their parents are more likely to work hand in hand to parent them. The children are more career-focused, have better coping skill and are more resilient (Senna et al., 2001). According to them also, parents of two-parent household have better parenting skill; are less likely to use harsh punitive measures and feel less stressed (Senna et al., 2001). Further, two-parent homes are financially more buoyant. They are also more likely to live in a healthier environment with better schools.

According to Azuka-Obieke (2013), a single parent family is one in which one of the two parents or persons responsible for the conception of the child or children lives with and takes the sole responsibility of caring for the child or children. The single parent family has been described as a 'broken family', which is derogatory (Julie, 2015) and has the connotation of abnormality attached. As such, single parent family often suffers stigmatization.

Single parent family can be from death of spouse, separation/ divorce and never married. In Nigeria, the death of a spouse is still the commonest path to single parenthood (Olayele and Oladeji, 2010), whereas divorce and bearing children out of wedlock is commoner in western worlds (Hakan, 2013). In Nigeria, the proportion of single parent's families is 24% and the prevalence of children living in such homes is 13%, (World Family Map,2014). There is a consensus by researchers that the rate is increasing (Adelani et al., 2015; Azuka-Obieke, 2013; Olaleye and Oladeji, 2010), probably due to increasingly greater acceptance of single parenthood by the society (Hakan, 2013; Anthonia and Agapetus, 2012). In Nigeria however, some researchers have looked at the causes, adverse effects and possible benefits of a sole parent family. Many of the researchers reported that a single parent family is associated with more negative outcomes for both the parents and their children than benefits (Titilayo and Margaret, 2015; Azuka- Obieke, 2013; Olaleye and Oladeji, 2010). However, there is a wide variability among single parent families. Among the single parent families, children from widowed homes do best, compared to those from divorced and never married single parent's homes, (McLanahan and Sandefur, 1994). They are reported to be half as likely to drop out of high school and have teen pregnancy as those from divorced and never married homes (McLanahan and Sandefur, 1994)

The father and the mother play differing but essential and complementing roles in child development. In a traditional African family, the mother is the homemaker and takes care of the emotional needs of the family, comforting and cushioning tension in the house, the father

is the bread winner and institutes discipline, making sure the children work and play within prescribed boundaries (HealthyChildren.org, 2015). When the child is robbed of this right by whatever means, the child may have problem developing pro social skills. Also absence of any one of them may result in work overload and stress on the custodial parent, affecting efficient parenting (Demo and Alan, 1998). The feeling of stress has been associated with increased use of physical /corporal corrective measures (Demo and Alan, 1998). This in turn may lead to negative behaviour in children, increasing the stress the more, and a vicious cycle is established. Children of single parent households have been reported to suffer discrimination (Anthonia and Agapetus, 2012). This may not be unconnected with the way the society views single parent homes. Single parents are stigmatized, deemed as promiscuous and morally bankrupt (Anthonia and Agapetus, 2012). Salami and Agbo (1991,1998) as cited by Azuka-Obieke (2013), reported that adolescents from 'broken homes' are more likely to exhibit anti-social behaviour and poor academic performance than those from two parents' homes. This could be attributed to inadequate supervision and poor monitoring of their children academic progress (Azuka-Obieke, 2013).

In some cases, the children suffer stigmatization from peers and those born out of wedlock are often bullied and called derogatory names. This may lead to isolation, depression and occasionally, aggressive behaviour (David Brender, 1997). Compared to two-parent families, single parent homes are more likely to be poorer (David Brender, 1997; Sanna et al., 2001). The children are more likely to be aggressive, do poorer in school, run away from home, be truant and more likely to drop out of high school (Azuka-Obieke, 2013; Hakan, 2013). They are also more likely to misuse substances and have problem with the law (Bella DePaulo, 2009; Singh and Kiran, 2014).

Children from broken homes are said to be less assertive, probably due to lack or inadequate secure base, the primary attachment figure (Hakan, 2013). Disruption in parental attachment

has a deleterious effect on the children regardless of their age. However, not all single parent's children have negative outcome as a result of living in a single parent home (Demo and Alan, 1998). In short, majority of the single parent's children have positive adjustment to life of single parenthood (Azuka-Obieke, 2012; Amato RP, 2005). There are many benefits children in single parent home may have, at least earlier than those in two parents' households. The children have been reported to develop resilience earlier than those in two parents homes and have been reported to acquire certain strengths, e.g. sense of responsibility as a result of altered family routine (Demo and Acock, 1988). Children from divorced homes may also play an active role in helping their parents cope with divorce even when their parents are not able to cope with their distress (Butler et al, 2002 as cited in Ross). Girls from such home may also learn and master domestic chores earlier and may start caring for their younger ones earlier to give their lone parent enough time to work for the upkeep of the family. They are also reported to be good in time management. Some studies have reported some children feeling happier following their parental divorce; as divorce stopped the intense and repeated fighting between parents (Clandos and Kemp, 2007). Again, Weiss (1979), also reported that children in female headed families are not pressured to conform to traditional gender roles, so they assume a variety of domestic responsibilities.

1.2 Statement of problem

Many studies have linked family structure to children's outcome in life and have reported that two parent homes are better than single parent families. They found that children in two parent families on the average do better in many areas of life; psychological wellbeing, behavioural and in academics (Azoka-Obieke, 2013; Hakan, 2013). Some reported that the differences in family processes like parental conflicts, child-parent relationship, gender of the custodial parent, parental income among other factors are responsible for the observed differences in children outcome (David Brender, 1997; Sanna, 2001). Majority of these findings are in

developed countries. Also only few from developing countries like ours examined the association between children outcome and some of these family processes.

1.3 Justification

Very little is known on the effects of single parent families on children in our environment. Majority of the works on single parent families were done outside the African continent. Among those done locally, only few looked at the effects on the children. With the rising rate of single parent families; the number of children and future adults who may be having academic, emotional and behavioural problems as a result is bound to increase and the society will be worse for it. In addition, if the enormity of the problem is not known, and associated factors with negative adjustment to single parenthood identified, mitigating policies and interventions will be difficult to institute.

1.4 Aim/Objectives

Aims: To determine the association between family structure and the academic and psychological characteristics of adolescent students.

Specific Objectives

1. To determine the prevalence of children from single parent homes.
2. To determine the association between family structure and sociodemographic characteristics of students.
3. To determine the association between family structure and adolescent's school related characteristics.
4. To determine the association between family structure and behavioural/psychological characteristics of adolescent students in the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Family: Definitions

Family is a group of two or more persons related by blood, marriage or adoption and resides together' (Bureau of Census U S A, as cited in Puja, 2016). Taking the more traditional view, Biesanz, (1979 as cited by Puja, 2016) defined family as a woman with a child and a man to look after them. Family is the smallest and the most intimate group of society (Puja, 2016). Puja, (2016), described family as the first school of citizenship, and that one is born in a family, grows in it, works for it and dies in it. According to him, family is the backbone of social structure (Puja, 2016); and members have reciprocal rights and duties towards each other.

2.2 Types/structures of family

Family structures or forms vary from one society to another. According to Puja (2016), family is classified based on diverse perspectives; organisationally-nuclear or extended/ joint family; number of spouses at a given time-monogamous or polygamous; where authority lies-matriarchal or patriarchal; place of residence after wedding- matrilocal or patrilocal; line of decent-patrilineal, matrilineal, bilateral or ambilineal (alternate line of decent from one generation to another); whether spouse is from the same clan or caste -exogamous or endogamous and whether spouses have blood relationship or not- consanguineous or conjugal. Looking at the number of parents and relationship between members of a family and some other characteristics, a family may descriptively have more than one structure at any given time (CCPC, 2015). They, (CCPC, 2015) describe the following family structures:

Adoptive family: Is one in which at least one of the children has been adopted. There may still be biological children in such family. Children in adoptive family may use 'real parents' to

describe the one who is raising them instead of the biological parents (CCPC,2015). **Bi-racial or multi-racial** family is one in which the parents are from different racial groups. **In trans-racial adoptive family**, the adopted child is from a different racial group from that of the adoptive parents (CCPC,2015). **Blended family** consists of members from two or more previous families (CCPC, 2015). It is usually used to describe a complex stepfamily; which is formed when two parents bring into the new family children from their previous relationships. There are stepmother, stepfather and stepchildren in the same family. There may also be children from both parents, that is biological children of the new family.

Divorced family, is one in which the marriage between the parents has been legally dissolved. The children are then living with one of the parents; most of the time with the mother, giving rise to divorced single father or divorced single mother. Such family sometimes are described as ‘broken home’, which is a highly derogatory term (CCPC, 2015).

Co-custody family: This is an offshoot of a divorced family in which both parents have legal custody or responsibility for their children. The children may alternately live with one or the other parent; or live with one and have regular visitation with the other (CCPC, 2015). This is possible where there is little or no conflict between the parents. Children in such homes are reported to fare as well as those living in intact families (Emery, 2009).

Intact families: Is a term used to describe a family formed by marriage and in which the parents have never separated. From this term ‘intact’, a family that the parents are divorced may suggest the term ‘broken’ or ‘disrupted’. Because the society believes the family should have two parents, intact families are often seen as ideal family (Falci, 1997).

Cohabited family occurs when two adults decide to live together and bear children out of wedlock. The parents may or may not have had previous relationships with children. If at least one of them has a child from a previous relationship, the family is a cohabited stepfamily.

Single parent family: when either the father or the mother is singly responsible for the raising of a child/ children. The child or children may be by birth or adoption. It is a common term for single parents who have never married or cohabited; who are divorced and now living alone and solely raising a child or children. It could also be used for a family in which one of the couple is late (Anthonia and Agapetus, 2013).

Transnational family: The family lives in more than one country (CCPC, 2015). They may spend part of the year in one country and the other part in another. Culture clash may be a difficult issue for the children (CCPC, 2015).

Nuclear family: This consists of the father, the mother and their child/children. It is the one most reinforced in the dominant society (CCPC, 2015). According to Puja (2016), the nuclear family is free from elders' control. He also sees the nuclear family as the most dominant and ideal form of family in modern society. In nuclear family the children get maximum care, love and affection of the parents; the family is independent and self-sufficient (Puja,2016).

Migrant family: is a family that moves regularly to places where the parents have employment. Common among farmers who move with the crop seasons. Military families may also lead a migrant life.

Immigrant family: It is used to describe families whose parents immigrate to another country. The children may or may not be immigrants.

Gay or lesbian family: Is a family where one or both parents has homosexual orientation. It may be two-parent, adoptive, or one-parent family (CCPC, 2015). If one or both gay or lesbian parents come into the new family with a child from a previous heterosexual relationship, such family is described by some as three-parent family.

Extended family: A family consisting of members of the nuclear family as well as grandparents, uncles, aunts etc., who play major roles in the children's upbringing. These relatives may or may not live with the children (CCPC, 2015). Puja further stressed that in joint/extended family, the father-son relationship (filial relationship) and the relationship between brothers (fraternal relationship) are more crucial than the conjugal relationship (husband-wife relationship).

Conditionally separated families: A family member especially one of the parents is separated from the rest of the family. The separation may be due to job far away, example military services, incarceration, hospitalization.

Foster family: Is a family in which one or more of the children in the home is legally a temporary member of the household (CCPC, 2015). The duration may be few days or as long as the child's entire childhood. The foster parent may or may not be a blood relative.

2.3 Family Roles/Influences on Children's Outcome

Family is composed by small units, the smallest being the individual (Relvas, 1996, as cited in Claudia and Filomena, 2012). According to Claudia and Filomena (2012), each family is unique and has specific working processes that gives it particular autonomy and individuality. There is a reciprocal influence in the family, parents influencing their children and children, their parents. The family dynamic changes with its members' evolution (Shaffer, 2005). The number and the type of parents (single, step, biological etc.) in the home as well as their relationship with their children has been associated with children's wellbeing (Amato PR, 2005).

The family has a great influence on children's social, emotional, psychological and economic state (Olayemi, 2014). The home is the first area of socialization for children (Olayemi, 2014).

Socialization according to Ryan et al (2013), is a lifelong process involving inheriting, and dissemination of norms, customs and ideologies necessary for the individual to acquire skills and habit necessary for participating within one's own society. Children's adaptation to classroom routine has been suggested to be influenced by their parent's marital status (Trebolo E, 2012 as cited in Olayemi, 2014). The family helps in transmission of culture (Olayemi, 2014). Values and attitudes, as well as social behaviour are also taught to young children in the family (Olayemi, 2014). According to Hickman et al (2000), human dignity starts at home. The transmission of social self has been reported as the most important role of the family (Shim et al, 2000).

Family influences could be through economic, human and social capital (The Gale Group, 2003). Social capital refers to the relationship that develops between family members (The Gale Group, 2003). The reality of family interaction helps the child to prepare for the reality outside the family (Jackson and Leonetti, 2001, as cited in Claudia and Filomena, 2012). Parents help children to develop independence and autonomy; also, through parents, the child achieves a sense of belonging, stability and security (Shim et al, 2000). Children learn language, behaviour and manners from the parents; the virtue of love, cooperation, obedience, sacrifice and discipline are learnt by the child in the family (Puja, 2016). In the family, the children learn about responsibility and cooperation. Children's sense of self-worth, competence, autonomy and self-efficacy equip them to grapple with tasks of learning (Lumsden, 2004, as cited in Ryan et al, 2013). According to Ogburn and Nimkoff (1955 as cited in Puja, 2016), family function can be grouped into affectional function; economic function; recreational functions; protective functions; religious and educational functions. Other functions are: sustenance functions, race perpetuation, provision of home, socialization (Puja, 2016). These are referred to as essential family functions; while economic functions, property transformation, religious functions, educational functions, recreational and wish-fulfilment are

non-essential functions of the family (Puja, 2016). In wish fulfilment, the individual is given moral and emotional support, protection from social isolation and loneliness, personal happiness and love. When the family tasks fall on one parent, the family functioning may become disordered (Shim et al, 2000).

2.4 Pathway to single parenthood

The primary means of forming a family is through marriage (Adelani et al., 2015). However, having children out of wedlock, through cohabitation, getting pregnancy from a relationship that fails or a woman/man deciding to have a baby alone making use of sperm bank, adoption, or deciding to get pregnant from a lover without the latter knowing about it are other ways a family may be formed (Anthonia and Agapetus, 2012). Older ladies are more likely to use the sperm bank or the unsuspecting lover pathway (Anthonia and Agapetus, 2012). Small proportion of ladies who were raped and got pregnant in the process and later were not married also live as single parent family (Adelani et al., 2015).

Divorce and wilfully having children out of wedlock was relatively unknown in Nigeria until some decades ago (Adelani et al, 2015); and where it occurred was looked at with disdain. However, with civilisation and globalisation as well as increased liberalization, single parent household is rapidly increasing (Nwachukwu, as cited by Azuka-Obieke, 2013). It occurs in all cultures, religions, social classes and educational backgrounds. Adelani et al (2015), reported that the level of mother's education and socioeconomic status affects the reasons given as causes of single parenthood. The less educated reported husband desertion, inability to care for them or the presence of another woman in their husbands' life as the prevalent causes of their being single; while those with better education and employment status reported need for freedom from men to develop career and detest of men's authority (Adelani et al, 2015).

2.5 Mechanisms for the differences in outcome children from one-and two-parent families

2.5.1 Parent-Child Relationship/Parenting

Warm, authoritative and responsive parenting is important in building resilience (David, 2007). According to David (2007), young children's relationship with their mothers has greater effect on their development than that of their fathers'. However, teenagers' relationship with their fathers, appears to be more important to their development and achievement in school. Quality of parents-child relationship is also associated with development of anxiety, and complaints where physical symptoms are linked to emotional stress and social withdrawal (David, 2007). High risk smoking, illicit drug use, alcohol use, sexual risky behaviour and obesity are also related to poor parent-child relationships (David, 2007). Quality of parent-child relationships is significantly associated with learning skills and educational achievement; also there is consistent association between father-teenager relationships and a young person's adjustment to adult life (David, 2007). Divorce lowers the quality of parent-child relationships especially for the non-resident parents (Falci, 1997); rendering some parents, incapable of parenting adequately (Furstenberg, 1984). Also, because of parental reduced psychological well-being following separation, they are less affectionate and communicate poorly with their children (Hetherington, Cox and Cox, 1982; Wallerstein and Kelly 1980). Hetherington, Cox and Cox, (1982), however, are of the opinion that the poor parenting is temporary and majority of divorced parents maintain proper parenting following divorce. Parent-child emotional ties are more important than the physical presence of the parents in a household (Amato, 1987; Wenk et al 1994).

Parents who provide high amount of affection, acceptance and support have children with lower levels of anxiety and depression (Goodyer, 1990; Mechanic and Hansel, 1989 as cited in

Falci, 1997). Two-parents' homes provide greater opportunity for monitoring, providing encouragement and discipline (Kamau, 2013). Parents who encourage children's autonomy compared to controlling parents have children who are more intrinsically motivated (Ryan and Deci, 2000, cited in Kamau, 2013). The relationship between the child and the attachment figure influences how the child reacts to others and how he/she sees himself/herself in the social world (Laible et al 2004 as in Claudia and Filomena, 2012). The quality of family interaction affects children's and adolescents' academic motivation and achievement as well as their educational and occupational attainments as adults (The Gale Group, 2003). It is through this interaction that children have access to the economic, human and cultural resources of their families (The Gale Group, 2003). Darling and Sternberg (1993 as cited in The Gale Group, 2003), suggested that authoritative parenting is associated with the academic motivation and successful academic achievement. In such parenting style, parents encourage their children's independence and individuality, provide children an opportunity to take part in family decision making, expect high standard for their children and have warm relationships with their children (The Gale Group, 2003). Parents who are stressed are less likely to provide optimal parenting and home circumstances; they are also more likely to use coercive and harsh corrective measures (David, 2007). According to David (2007), fathers' relationship with their children is better when the father has a good relationship with their mothers.

Paternal involvement in parenting is also very crucial. There is reports that children, whose mothers resume work before eighteen months have delayed development when there is a lack of paternal involvement, (David, 2007). Parental work, in order to improve family financial standing may have negative effect as it reduces involvement in child care (David, 2007). Fathers' involvement later in adolescents' life is consistently linked to measures of children development, unlike those of mothers' (David, 2007). The absence of a parent reduces parental involvement with children, this in turn leads to a decline in their socialization (Olayemi, 2014).

Parental involvement in their wards' learning has both emotional and intellectual benefit for children (James S Coleman, 1991 as cited by The Gale Group, 2003). The Gale Group (2003), reported that single parenthood leads to reduction in parental involvement, which results in poor school outcomes. Similarly, from Ghana, Simon et al., (2016), found that living in single parent home is associated with reduced parental monitoring and supervision in their ward's academic progress as well as inadequate provision of learning enhancing materials. This resulted in poor academic performance of affected children in that study (Simon et al, 2016). Father's absence leads to negative socialization influences which affect boys worse than girls (The Gale Group, 2003). Parental supervision is lowest in single father homes and highest in intact families (Cookston, 1999). Parental supervision and involvement have been related to adolescents' behaviours such as school achievements (Coley and Hoffman, 1996), sexual behaviour (Benda et al, 1990 as cited by Cookston, 1999), susceptibility to peer influence (Stacy et al, 1992), illicit drug use (Chilcoat and Anthony, 1996 as cited in Cookston, 1999) and delinquency (Farrington, 1996; as cited in Cookston, 1999). Low supervision and monitoring were associated with low achievements (Coley and Hoffman, 1996), and conduct disorder (Goldstein, 1984 as cited in Cookston, 1999). High supervision has been reported to abolish the high rate of problem behaviour seen in children of single mothers than those of intact families (Goldstein, 1984 as cited in Cookston, 1999). Geographical closeness between the non-custodian parent and the child is important for involvement of the non-residential parent (Falci,1997). Never married parents (more of mothers) have lower levels of parental involvement, inconsistent discipline of children, lower levels of psychological well-being and lower income than divorced mothers. (Acock and Demo,1994; Lempers,1989 as cited in Falci, 1997; McLanahan and Sandefur, 1994). Studies suggest that the fewer there are of involved adults in a household the less time and money to invest in children and this may lead to decreased parent-child interaction and needed materials, with ultimate reduced child outcomes

(Astrid 2003). Two involved adults pull their resources together to improve household production (Astrid, 2003). According to Astrid (2003), the skills of a mother is different from that of a father and since skills beget skills, in the absence of one parent the children may likely lack the skill the absent parent would have imparted to them. Hence, Astrid (2003), suggests that this may affect their future competence and an early family structure change may have a more deleterious effect than one experienced in late adolescent (Astrid, 2003)

2.5.2 Parent conflict/ parent-child conflict

Parental conflict is another mechanism leading to poor children adjustment. The level and duration of the conflict appear to be essential in impacting on children's adjustment. Amato et al (1995), opined that children who were living in high level parental conflict benefit following separation, while those in low level conflict setting do worse following parental divorce. The more involved the children are in the conflict the more they are affected (Ross, 2005). Hanson (1999 as cited in Ross, 2005), reported that about 50% of all couples who divorced had high level of conflict before the separation. However, about 75% of high-conflict couple chose not to divorce (Hanson, 1999, as cited in Ross, 2005). High level, persistent conflict in intact homes has been reported to be as harmful as separation (Peterson and Zill, 1986 as cited in Ross, 2005). They reported higher over-controlled and under-controlled behaviour of children among those living in intact homes characterized by high level conflict than in those with one biological parent (Peterson and Zill, 1986 as cited in Ross, 2005). High levels of conflict, stress from separation, and poverty may affect parents' mental health negatively (Ann Mooney et al. 2009). Poor mental health affects parenting whether in two-parents' family or single parent family; as Ann Mooney et al (2009), observed that parental conflicts leads to problem in children of whatever family structure. This report is supported by the finding that children in intact families with persistent high levels of conflict fare worse than children in single parents' homes (Booth and Edwards 1990). This shows that family processes are more important than

family structure in determining children outcome (Ann Mooney et al, 2009). Again, parental conflict affects parenting with resultant impaired parent-child relationships (Grych and Fincham,1990 as cited in Ann Mooney et al, 2009).

2.5.3 Family income

Parenting capacity is not determined by wealth, (David, 2007). But, economic hardship in single parent families may mean adolescents working longer hours, either to support family financially, or by taking care of younger ones (Olayemi, 2014). This may impact on their academic performance. Again poor family income may affect parenting and improvement in the financial status of families may positively affects children's outcome. Children from poorer background whether from intact or single parent household do below average on numbers of measures (Ann Mooney et al, 2009). However, David (2007), is of the opinion that whether the observed improvement in children's outcome following improvement in their families' financial standing is as a result of improved parenting or greater access to resources is not clear. While there appears to be no direct relationship between poverty and parenting (David, 2007); poverty may lead to parental stress, irritability and depression, leading to poor parenting and poor children's outcomes.

2.6 Two-Parent Family and Children Outcome

The number of parents in a family is very crucial in determining parental involvement and investment on the children, (Astrid, 2003). Two parents' families could be parents who are married, or cohabiting; and the parents may be biological, adoptive, or step parents (Child Trend, 2015). They may or may not live in the same house, but are well involved in the care and upbringing of the child/ children (Child Trend, 2015). Marriage confers greater stability in

relationship than cohabiting. Two-parent, never divorced families on the average are richer than cohabiting parent families, who in turn are richer than stepparents' families (Child Trend 2015). Children from two-parents' homes are three times less likely to have problem with attention (Olayemi, 2014). They are also more involved in literacy activities (Baumirind,2005 as cited in Olayemi, 2014). Children, not growing up with their two biological parents may affect their cognitive and social development (Olayemi, 2014). Children from two biological parents' homes are reported to have better health, greater access to health care and fewer emotional or behavioural problem than children from other two-parent families (Blackwell, 2010). Intact family is a positive influence on their children's academic attainment (Claudia and Filomena, 2012). Elementary school children from intact homes scored significantly higher in reading and maths than children from divorced, cohabiting and never married single parents (David, 2003). Similarly, Youngmin and Yuanzhang, (2008), found adolescents from intact families scoring significantly higher than those from disrupted families in maths, science, history and reading test. Also adolescents in intact families (never divorced) and those in married stepfamilies scored significantly higher in vocabulary test than those from single parents and cohabiting stepfathers (Wendy and Kathleen, 2003). First grade students from intact families are less likely to disobey teachers or be aggressive to other children than those from single parents and cohabiting families (Shannon and Cavanagh, 2006).

Adolescents from intact married families are less likely to be suspended or expelled from school; be involved in delinquent behaviours; less likely to have problems getting along with teachers, doing home works and paying attention in school than those from single parents, cohabiting and stepfamilies (Wendy and Kathleen, 2003). Susan (2004), reported that children and adolescents from intact married families are more likely to do school work without being forced, do their homework than those from other family structures. Eighty-five percent of children from intact biological parents graduate from high school compared to 67.2% of single

parents; 65.4% stepfamilies and 51.9% of those living with no parents (Falci, 1997). School reports on children's behaviour showed that children from two biological or adoptive parents are less likely to have behaviour problems than those from single parents and cohabiting families (NSCH, 2003). In another study, Rashmi et al, (2007), reported that about 40% of sons and 44.7% of daughters from intact biological families aim for postgraduate certificate compared to 30.7% of son and 35.3% of daughters from single parent families. In her own study, Azuka-Obieke (2013), found that being in two parents home is advantageous; also that majority of single parent's children adjusted well to their parental separation. However, many of them were feared to be underachievers (Azuka-Obieke, 2013). This better academic performance by children from two-parent homes is not reported by all researchers. For instance, Olayemi (2014) did not find significant differences between the academic performance of students in two-parents homes and those in single-parent families.

Intact family setting has a facilitating effect on parental involvement in their children's education (Sabry, 2006). Parents from intact families are more likely to participate more in school, discuss more about school and know more of their children friends' parents than those in a single parents and stepfamilies (Suet-Ling, 1997). Children living in two biological or adoptive families are 3 times less likely to repeat a grade than children from any other family structure (NSCH, 2003). Children from intact married families are likely to worship regularly, showed less anxiety, loneliness, low self-esteem and sadness (John et al, 2007). Regular weekly worship has been reported to ameliorate the impact of poverty on children's education (Kevin, 1999). Such regular worshippers tend to complete more years of school (Linda, 2004). The children are also more likely to have self-control while under parental supervision at home (John, 2007).

Intact families are economically stronger (Patrick et al, 2006) and children from higher income homes are more likely to master age-appropriate cognitive and language skills than those from

lower income families (Tamara et al, 2009). Income level affects choice of residential area (McLanahan and Sandefur, 1994); and thereby the quality and resources of the schools their children will attend. Intact biological families save earlier and more for, and expect to spend more to support their children's first year in college (Kevin, 1999). Two parents at home create a check and balance for parents to act in appropriate ways (McLanahan and Sandefur, 1994); each putting pressure on the other to spend quality time and relate cordially with the children. Parental educational expectation for their children, monitoring of their school work and supervision of social activities as reported by adolescents themselves are lower in single parents' and stepparents than in two biological parents. Sixty percent of mothers in intact married families expect their children to graduate from college, against 40% of mothers in cohabiting stepfamilies and 36% in always single parent mothers (Kelly et al, 2005).

Two-parents' homes are not uniform. Children in step-parents' families do worse than those in both biological parents in a low conflict marriage in many outcome measures (Child Trend, 2015). Outcomes in many stepfamilies' children are similar to those in single parents' homes (Moore et al, 2003 as cited in Child Trend, 2015; David and Wilbert, 2010). In complex stepfamilies or blended families where both parents brought their children into the new family, children are said to have more adjustment problems (Ann Mooney et al, 2009). Thirteen-seventeen percent of children in stepfamilies compared to 10% in intact families reported emotional problems (Pryor and Rodgers, 2001).

Students from stepfamilies and single parents are 3x more likely to drop out of school than those living with their two biological parents (Herbert and Valerie, 1991). Remarriage affects the parent-child relationship (Falci, 1997). The effect of remarriage also may be influenced by which parent is remarried; the custodial or the non-residential parent (Falci, 1997). Children sometimes report feeling as outsiders in their home following the custodial parent's remarriage (Hetherington, 1989). The time spent by children in stepfamilies with their biological and

stepparents is less and not as enjoyable as that seen in intact families (Acock and Demo, 1994). Also, remarriage of the residential parent (mother, most of the time), may necessitate move. This relocation will reduce geographical proximity between the child and the non-custodial parent, which has been associated with reduced involvement of the non-residential parent (Falci, 1997). It will also dislocate the child's previous and important networks. Remarriage of non-residential parent may reduce commitment in their children's life; and spending more time with stepchildren may increase the emotional care for them than for biological children (Furstenberg, 1984; Seltzer and Bianchi, 1988 as cited in Falci, 1997). If the children are below five years, the likelihood of assuming a parent role is higher than when they are older (Parkes and Hinde, 1982 as cited in Falci, 1997). The less frequent the children have contact with their non-residential parents, the more the stepparent will take on a parent-like role (Marciglio, 1992). The expectation and attitude of stepparents and stepchildren also determine their relationships (Falci, 1997). Stepfamilies have higher household income, psychological well-being and give more supervision and guidance than single parents and divorced parents (Acock and Demo, 1994). Although, entering into a stepfamily may improve both economic status and the parenting tasks, it may also have a deleterious effect on children's behaviour (Elliot and Richards, 1991 as cited in Falci, 1997). In support of this, Fergusson et al, (1986), reported that children whose parents remarried or entered into stepfamilies fared worse than those whose parents remained single. Similarly, Baydar (1988), reported that mothers did not report that their children adjusted negatively to their divorce, but that they did to their remarriage. Aquiline (1996), reported that children who were not born into intact family and who suffered multiple transition have low educational attainment and greatly increased likelihood of living home and entering their independent household as well as entering labour market earlier. The multiple transition reduces the level of attachment to any caregiver, which makes early autonomy more

attractive (Ross, 2005). However, there are great differences among stepfamilies (Ann Mooney et al, 2009).

Living with grandparents can provide social and financial support for some families (Child Trend, 2015). Olayemi (2014), reported that children raised by grandparents performed significantly better than those from single parents' homes. However, no mention was made whether the grandparents were two-parents homes or not. The presence of grandparents in a single parent household mitigates the adverse effects of single parents on children academic performance to the point their performance was similar to that of those from intact families (Kuan and Yang,). Kuan and Yang, attributed this to additional social capital and resources. Similar finding was also reported in a USA study (Deleire and Kalil, 2002). The presence of other adults in the family is expected to yield positive results, especially grandmothers who may step in to fill the gap if the mother for one reason or the other is not measuring up to expectations. In some cases, the children will live with grandparents, aunts or uncles. However, the extended family system is rapidly disappearing, giving way to nuclear families (Ahiaoma, 2013). Hence the support system is also going with it and the benefits children usually receive when their parents are absent either by death or divorce / separation may also not be available again.

2.7 Single parent families and children's outcome

Social capital is lower in disrupted families (Falci, 1997); and children in such homes have lower social capital; emotional, economic and educational support that parents provide for children. Loss of social capital has been associated with lower levels of well-being (Coleman, 1988; McLanahan and Sandefur, 1994). Single parents are the poorest of all the family structure and have the lowest level of psychological well-being (Falci, 1997). Female headed families with children are five times more likely to be poor than married couple families with children; 44.8% vs 8.7% (Baugher and Lamison-White, 1996, as cited in Carlson and Corcoran, 2001). Carlson and Corcoran (2001)

further reported that single mothers' average income approximately one-third of their married-couple counterparts. Single parents report higher rates of depression and lower levels of psychological functioning than do other mothers (Kalil et al, 1998; McLoyd, 1990, as cited in Carlson and Corcoran, 2001).

Fifty percent of African female headed families live below the poverty line, making them the most impoverished group in Africa (Taylor et al 2000, as cited in Kamau, 2013). Parents who suffered income loss following divorce are more rejecting of their children which leads to development of inadequacy (McLoyd et al, 2004 as cited in Carlson and Corcoran, 2001). Divorced families are reported to suffer economic decline (Carlson and Corcoran, 2001). Amato (1993), suggested that this may negatively impart children through their nutrition and health, reduced investment in books, educational toys, computers, private lessons; choice of residence, forcing the family to live in an environment with programmes poorly financed, services are inadequate, high crime rates; high likelihood of associating with delinquent peers. Indirectly, poor finance may increase residential parent's stress, imparting on his/her mental health, which affects child-parent interaction and parenting capacity (Ross, 2005). This view is supported by the fact that when economic status is controlled in many studies, the effects of parental dissolution significantly reduced (Carlson and Corcoran 2001), or disappeared completely (Blum et al, 1988). This economic basis for negative outcome following divorce is not universally accepted. For instance, Hetherington et al (1998) reported that even when income was controlled that children from divorced homes fared worse than those from intact homes. Wu (1996) had similar finding, as premarital childbirth was largely unaffected when control for income measures was applied. Hetherington et al, (1998), supported their finding by reporting that even though the financial standing of stepfamilies is slightly lower than that of intact families, children from stepfamilies show similar problem behaviour as those from divorced mother- custody families.

Since majority of custodial parents are mothers, most children suffer absence of their fathers following divorce. One parent absence leads to reduction in parent's available time for parenting.

The children will also suffer lack of male role model and essential skills like communication, negotiation, compromise and expression of intimacy (Ross, 2005). However, parental absence is not the whole story as Biblarz and Gottainer (2000) reported that children of widowed mothers had significantly higher levels of education, occupational status and happiness in adulthood than those from divorced homes. Because they did not find significant difference between both groups of mothers in their parenting skill, they attributed their findings to the fact that widowed mothers occupy an advantageous position in the social structure, in term of employment, financial position and occupational status than divorced mothers (Biblarz and Gottainer, 2000).

The mental health of divorced mothers is affected in the form of anxiety, depression, anger, low self-esteem and self-doubt (Hetherington et al, 1998, as cited in Ross, 2005). These affect their parenting in the form of less affectionate, less communicative, more punitive and more inconsistent discipline. This in turn leads to negative outcome in children (Ross, 2005). Conversely, when the residential parent is psychologically well adjusted, the children rarely will show developmental problem consequent upon the separation (Kalter et al 1989). Ross (2005), is of the opinion that parental separation affects parenting practices, and that quality of mothers' parenting has been shown to account for much of the observed problem in children following divorce. The researcher (Ross, 2005), however, said that the degree of paternal parenting before divorce is also important. When there is high paternal involvement, separation will result in greater impact than when the involvement is low (Simon et al 1999, as cited in Ross, 2005). Single parents have more difficulty maintaining authority and control over their daughters' dating, thereby increasing the risk of early family formation behaviour (McLanahan and Bumpass, 1994). Non-residential fathers are less likely to provide help for their children, discuss standard of conduct or enforce discipline (Ross, 2005). Competent parenting post-divorce has also been reported to significantly reduce delinquent behaviour in children to levels seen in intact families (Simon et al, 1999, as cited in Ross, 2005).

Divorced parents have more accidents, depression, alcoholism, drug abuse and psychological and physical dysfunction (Hetherington, 1989; Weitzman, 1989 as cited in Falci, 1997). Having a single

mother itself is stigmatizing to children (Kamau LM, 2013); and fathers' absence may harm children's ability to form healthy relationships (Fleming and Gottfried, 2004 as cited in Kamau LM, 2013). Cookston (1999) also cited Turner et al, (1991), as saying that experimentation with illicit drugs is higher in single mothers' household among adolescents, than in two-parent homes. Similarly, Simon (1987) found that adolescents from single parents' homes are more likely to repeatedly use alcohol, tobacco and illicit drugs. Girls' involvement in problem behaviour in a community has been reported to be related to the proportion of single parent homes in that community (Simons et al, 1996). Adolescents from disrupted homes are reported to be less positively engaged in school (Sarah and Laura, 2008). Coming from divorced and cohabiting families is associated with increased skipping of lessons and many more unexcused absences in adolescents (Barry, 2003).

The destabilizing effect of divorce can cause confusion, anger, aggressive behaviour, demanding and uncooperative behaviour in the child (Hetherington and Stanley Hagan, 1995, as cited in Shim et al, 2000). According to them, a good social network, having siblings and close grandparents may moderate the impact of divorce (Shim et al, 2000). Again, they reported that living in a single parent household may make children feel less confident and safe to develop independence (Shim et al, 2000). Girls from divorced homes are reported to have more difficulties in adult heterosexual relationships (Wallerstein, 1985, as cited in King, 2001), more negative attitudes and conflict with their parents (Hetherington, 1972, as cited in King, 2001); marry younger and have negative view about fathers, husbands and men in general (Hetherington, 1972, as cited in king 2001). Shim et al, (2000), found that teachers reported more thought problems and delinquency in children from divorced homes than those from intact homes. They also reported that divorced parents are more likely to report their children as having more social problem, more withdrawn, obsessive behaviours, having more schizoid and depressive symptoms (Shim et al, (2000). In addition, not having siblings worsens the problems (Shim et al, (2000). Olayemi (2014), suggested that some social vices like telling lies, cheating during exam, stealing, sexual abuse and truancy could be

traced to parental divorce. Bernard et al., (2012), who studied the psychological, social and cognitive development of children in single parent family structure reported that being in single parent's home affects the emotional and intellectual development of the children. They also reported that it affects the sexual roles of the respondents (Bernard et al, 2012).

Long term consequences of parental separation have been reported to include among others increased use of mental health services, reduced quality of life, reduced educational attainment and problem with conduct (Amato and Keith ,1991). The children are also reported to have twofold increased risk of having their own marriages end in divorce (Amato and DeBoer, 2001). Because of less social and emotional maturity, coupled with greater economic hardship and reduced support from society, family and kin, such relationships are expected to have increased risk of dissolution (Mueller and Pope,1977). Children living with no biological parents or single parents' household have been reported to be less likely to have behavioural self-control than those in intact families (Child Trend, 2015).

Single parent home is not necessarily bad, as children in them have been reported to acquire certain strengths, e.g. sense of responsibility as a result of altered family routine (Demo and Acock,1988). Children from divorced homes may also play an active role in helping their parents cope with divorce even when their parents are not able to contain their outcome (Butler et al, 2002 as cited in Ross). Also single parents' children have been reported to do well when their parental marital dissolution removed them from a highly aversive family situation, especially when the children are drawn into the conflict (Booth and Amato 2001) or where the child's relationship with a parent is of poor quality (Videon, 2002 as cited in Ross). They are also reported to do even better than children in intact homes that are riddled with persistent high level conflict (Ross, 2005). For instance, adolescents' delinquency has been reported to improve following separation from same-sex parent with whom he/she has unsatisfying relationship (Ross, 2005). Also separation from antisocial parent leads to benefit in adolescents (Jaffee et al,2003). Conversely, the more a child

lives with a parent with a high antisocial behaviour, the more the child exhibits conduct problems (Ross, 2005).

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CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Study location

The study was carried out in Calabar, the capital of Cross River State, in South-South geopolitical zone of Nigeria. Calabar has an area of 406 km² and a population of 371,022 according to the 2006 census (Ewona and Udo, 2008). The indigenes are predominantly Efiks, Efuts and Quas (Osuchukwu et al, 2015). Because of her hospitality, Calabar is home to several other ethnic groups including Yakkurs, Ibibios, Igbos, Yorubas, Hausas among others. Administratively, Calabar is divided into two councils; the Calabar Municipality and Calabar South Local Government Areas. Calabar Municipality has an estimated population of 148,871, while Calabar South has a population of about 221,151 (Ewona and Udo, 2008). As obtained from the Ministry of Education Cross River State, there are ninety-five secondary schools in Calabar metropolis. Out of this, twenty-five are public schools, sixty are private schools while ten are missionary schools. However, from a visit to the schools, it is possible that the public schools though fewer in number have greater number of students than the private schools when put together. Calabar South is more populated than Calabar municipality, yet has fewer schools; thirty-nine compared to fifty-six in municipality. Schools in Calabar South are overpopulated with regards to those in Municipality Council. Ten of these schools, five from each Local Government were used. The schools were two private schools and three public schools from each Local Government.

3.2 Study design

A cross sectional descriptive study involving secondary school adolescent students.

3.3 Study population

Adolescents between the ages of 10 and 19 years from secondary schools in Calabar.

3.4 Inclusion criteria

1. Adolescents aged 10 to 19 years, currently in secondary schools.
2. Adolescents whose parents/ guardians consented and who assented to participate.

3.5 Exclusion criteria:

1. Adolescents whose parents/ guardians declined to consent and / or who failed to assent.

3.6 Sample size

Sample size was calculated using the proportion of children with negative adjustment to living in single parents' homes. Since no local proportion of such children with negative psychological or academic adjustment in Nigeria was seen from previous studies, a proportion of 0.5 was used making the maximum sample size.

$$\begin{aligned}n &= Z\alpha^2pq/e^2 \\n &= z\alpha^2p(1-p)/e^2 \\n &= \text{sample size} \\z\alpha &= 1.96, \text{ standard normal deviation.} \\p &= \text{proportion of children from single parents' home.} \\e &= \text{absolute precision (required size of standard error) = 5\%} \\n &= 1.96^2 \times 0.5 \times 0.5 / e^2 = 384.16. \text{ For possible incomplete responses or attrition} \\ \text{Final } n &= 384 + 10\% \text{ of } n = 384 + 38 = 422, \text{ rounding it up to } 430.\end{aligned}$$

3.7 Sampling technique and sample selection

A multistage random sampling was adopted for the study. Equal number of schools and students from each council, were selected. Schools were grouped into four;

- (a) Public schools in Calabar South LGA.,
- (b) Private schools in Calabar South LGA.,
- (c) Public schools in Calabar Municipality and
- (d) Private schools in Calabar Municipality.

Stage 1: three public and two private secondary schools from Calabar South Local Government Area; three public and two private secondary schools from Calabar Municipality were randomly selected by balloting.

Stage 2: two classes from each selected schools were also randomly selected by balloting; one junior secondary class and one senior secondary class.

Stage 3: the participants were randomly selected from these classes by simple 'yes' or 'no' balloting; forty-three students from each school; either 21 or 22 from junior or senior classes.

3.8 Instruments

3.8.1 Socio demographic/ family questionnaire

Modified School Health Questionnaire (SHQ-M), (Omigbodun and Omigbodun, 2004) was used to collect the social and demographic characteristics of participants. The questionnaire contained information on their age, sex, educational attainment, family structure (single or two parents' families), duration of being in a single parent home. It also contained information on academic performance; here defined as their last term examination scores in English language and Mathematics, their average class position and whether they have repeated a class or not.

3.8.2 Strength and Difficulty Questionnaire (SDQ)

SDQ is a brief emotional and behavioural screening questionnaire for adolescents. It was produced by Robert Goodman (1997). It consists of 25 items, in 5 equal items domains: conduct problems, emotional symptoms, hyperactivity-inattention, peer problems and prosocial behaviour. It has parents', teachers, and adolescent (self) versions. There is another version for parents and day care teachers of 3-4 years old children. It can be used as a screening instrument for epidemiological research, for clinical assessment and for tracking response to interventions. It can be completed in 5 minutes. It has internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of .71; and

inter-rater reliability of between .38-.44 between the different forms (Merja, 2008). It has concurrent validity of .75 with Children Behaviour Checklist (CBCL) total score; and .71 with Youth Self Report (YSR) total score (Merja, 2008). Each item is scored, 0 for not true, 1 for somewhat true and 2 for certainly true. The total SDQ score is obtained by adding the scores in 4, out of the 5 subscales, excluding prosocial subscale. The total SDQ score ranges from 0-40. The higher the score, the worse the behavioural or psychological problem. Each subscale score ranges from 0-10. Except in prosocial subscale where higher score shows better outcome, the higher the score the worse the outcome in the other subscales, Robert Goodman (1997)

3.9 Pilot study

Pilot study was carried out using 10% (43) of the sample size. The children were from one of the schools not selected for the main study. The pilot study helped to modify the means of getting information on their academic performance. Instead of getting it from class report card, the information was built into the SHQ-M for the students to report themselves. Summary result of the pilot study is shown in Appendix V.

3.10 Procedure

After obtaining informed consent from the parents/guardians and assent from the participant, the nature and purpose of the study was explained to the participants. Those who met the inclusion criteria were administered the modified school health questionnaire and the SDQ. The instruments were self-administered.

3.11 Data Analysis:

Outcome variables: psychological/ behavioural score from SDQ, grade retention, percentage scores in English language and Mathematics in the last term examination, from SHQ-M. Data were analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), 20th version. Frequency

counts, and Chi square tests were used for categorical variables like relationship between family structure, adolescent's gender, while continuous variables (Mathematics, English language scores) were analysed using t-test and ANOVA to compare the mean scores of students by family structure. All analysis was done at 5% level of significance.

3.12 Ethical considerations

Ethical approval was sought and gotten from the Ethical Committee of the Federal Neuropsychiatric Hospital Calabar and permission from the Ministry of Education Cross River State. The nature and purpose of the study was explained to the participants and an informed consent obtained from their parents / legal guardian. Assent was also obtained from the participants. The individual schools were approached for permission. All information gotten from the respondents were treated with maximum confidentiality. They were also informed that their participation was voluntary and that they could opt out of the study at any time without any punitive measure taken against them. They were also informed that findings from the study may be published in a journal. Participants found to be having significant adjustment problem were referred to the Child and Adolescent Unit of Federal Neuropsychiatric Hospital, Calabar, for further assessment and possible interventions.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.1 Socio-demographic characteristics of students

A total of 430 adolescent students took part in the study; out of this, 126 (29.3%) were from single parent's households. Majority of the students, 249(57.9%) were females; 256(59.5%) of the students were in public schools and an equal proportion of them, 215(50%) were in junior and senior secondary school classes respectively. Four hundred (92.91%) of the students were Christians, while 3(0.79%) were Muslims; 6(1.4%) were traditional worshippers and the rest 21(4.9%) indicated others. Mean age of students in the study was 14.53years, (SD=2.03). The mean age of students in single parent's homes was 14.90(S.D=1.90) years, while that of those in two parents' families was 14.37,(S.D=2.03) years, ($t=2.455$, $df=428$, $p=0.014$). The mean class population of the classes in the study was 64.21(SD=35.16). The mean days of school absence for the students was 1.21(S.D=1.87). The mean days of school absence in a term was 1.73 (S.D=2.30) for those in single parents homes, while that of those in two parents' families was 0.98 (S.D=1.61), ($t=3.69$; $df=398$, $p<0.0001$).

4.2. Association between students' sociodemographic characteristics and family structure

A greater proportion of students in two parent homes were in public schools than those in single parent's homes, (57.9% vs 63.5%), ($p=0.282$). Females in the two parents' homes were 173(40.2%), while 50(11.6%) of them were in single parent's homes, ($p=0.515$). Greater proportion (50.7%) of the students from two parent homes were between the ages of 10-14 years, than those in single parent homes, (42.9%), ($p=.141$). These are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Socio-demographic characteristics of students by family structure

Sociodemographic	Two parent N=304 n (%)	Single parent N=126 n (%)	X²	df	p
Gender					
Male	131(43.1)	50(39.7)			
Female	173(56.9)	76(60.3)	0.425	1	0.515
Age(years)					
10-14	154(50.7)	54(42.9)			
15-19	150(49.3)	72(57.1)	2.171	1	0.141
School types					
Public	176(57.9)	80(63.5)			
Private	128(42.1)	46(36.5)	1.158	1	0.282
Class					
JSS	159(52.3)	56(44.4)			
SSS	145(47.7)	70(55.6)	2.200	1	0.138
Religion					
Christianity	282(93.8)	115(91.3)			
Islam	1(.23)	2(1.6)			
Traditional	5(1.6)	1(0.8)			
Others	13(4.3)	8(6.3)	3.327	3	0.351

4.2.1 Socio-demographic characteristics of students by sub-category of single parent homes

Among the single parent homes; 21(16.7%) of them were males in divorced homes; while 15(11.9%) and 14(11.1%) were in widowed parent's homes and never married homes, respectively. Twenty-eight (22.2%), 21(16.7%) and 11(8.7%) of those aged 15-19 years were living in divorced, widowed and never married homes respectively. Other socio-demographic characteristics of students in single parent's homes are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Socio-demographic characteristics of students by sub-category of single parent homes

Sociodemographic characteristics	Divorced family n (%)	Widowed family n(%)	Never married family n(%)
Gender:			
Male (n=50)	21(16.7)	15(11.9)	14(11.1)
Female(n=76)	29(23.0)	32(25.4)	15(11.9)
Age (years)			
10-14(n=66)	22(17.5)	26(20.6)	18(14.3)
15-19(n=60)	28(22.2)	21(16.7)	11(8.7)
School types			
Public(n=80)	32(25.4)	30(23.8)	18(14.3)
Private(n=46)	18(14.3)	17(13.5)	11(8.7)
Class			
JSS(n=56)	24(19.1)	22(17.5)	10(7.9)
SSS(n=70)	26(20.7)	25(19.9)	19(15.1)
Religion			
Christianity(n=112)	42(35.71)	44(34.92)	26(20.63)
Islam(n=1)	0(0.00)	1(.79)	0(0.00)
Others(n=9)	5(3.97)	2(1.59)	2(1.59)

4.3 Association between students' school related characteristics and their family structure

Majority of the students in two parents' homes reported that they like schooling, 272(89.8%), against 111(88.1%) students in single parent homes, ($p=0.715$). Again, 71 (23.9%) of the students in two parents' households reported having some difficulties with their teachers; while 30(23.3%) of those in single parent homes reported the same, ($p=1.000$).

Students in single parent homes have had more suspension from school than those in two parents' families, (5.6% vs 1.3%), ($p = 0.018$). Majority, 207(69.5%) of the students from two parent homes reported being involved in extracurricular activities, while only 61(49.2%) of students in single parent homes reported same, ($p < 0.0001$). The association between family structure and non-academic school related characteristics of students are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Association between family structure and non-academic school related characteristics of students

School related characteristics	Two parents n(%)	Single parents n(%)	X ²	df	p
Like school					
Yes (n=383)	272(90.7)	111(89.5)			
No (n=41)	28(9.3)	13(10.5)	0.133	1	0.715
Perform well academically					
Yes(n=400)	286(95.7)	114(91.2)			
No (n=24)	13(4.3)	11(8.8)	3.27	1	0.104
Difficulty with teacher					
Yes (n=101)	71(23.9)	30(75.8)			
No (n=320)	226(76.1)	94(24.2)	0.004	1	1.000
Consult school counsellor					
Yes (n=133)	93(31.6)	40(33.1)			
No (n=282)	201(68.4)	81(66.9)	0.08	1	0.817
Suspended from school					
Yes (n=11)	4(1.3)	7(5.6)			
No (n=417)	298(98.7)	119(94.4)	6.356	1	0.018
Extracurricular activities					
Yes (n=268)	207(69.5)	61(49.2)			
No (n=154)	91(30.5)	63(50.8)	15.523	1	<0.0001
Club in school					
Yes (n=235)	183(60.4)	52(41.6)			
No (n=193)	120(39.6)	73(58.4)	12.627	1	<0.0001
Difficult paying school fees					
Yes (n=166)	100(33.2)	66(53.2)			
No (n=261)	201(66.8)	60(46.8)	13.719	1	<0.0001

Bold p = significant.

4.3.1 Academic characteristics of the participants

While greater proportion of students in two parent homes, (68.8% vs 54.8%), reported taking average of 1st-10th positions in their classes, larger proportion of students in single parents' homes than in two parent homes were above ten in class position, (45.2% vs 31.2%), ($p=0.006$). While 18(6.0%) of adolescents in two parent homes reported having repeated a grade before, 19(15.2%) of those in single parent's homes reported so; ($p<0.0001$). This is shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Association between family structure and academic related school characteristics

Academic characteristics	Two parents n(%)	Single parents n(%)	X ²	df	P
Average position in class					
1-10 (n=278)	209(69.1)	69(54.8)			
>10 (n=152)	95(30.9)	57(45.2)	7.627	1	0.006
Ever repeated a class					
Yes (n=37)	18(6.0)	19(15.2)			
No (n=390)	284(94.0)	106(84.8)	9.537	1	<0.0001

Bold p = significant.

4.3.2 Association between participants' home circumstances and their performance in English and Mathematics

The mean percentage mathematics score of adolescents in two parent homes, 60.20(S D=14.32) was higher than that of students from single parent's homes, 55.50(SD=15.13), ($p=0.003$). Students in two parent homes had a higher mean percentage score in English language, 64.9(SD=13.17); against 62.91(SD=15.13) obtained by students from single parent homes, ($p=0.185$).

4.4 Psychological characteristics of students

4.4.1 Substance use by Respondents

There were 39(12.9%) students in two parent homes who reported use of alcohol in the preceding one month before the interview, against 24(19.0%) of those in single parent homes, ($p=0.134$). Students from single parent homes were more likely to report smoking cigarette or cannabis than those from two parents' homes, (8% vs 1.3%). This difference was statistically significant, ($p<0.0001$). These results are shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Association between substance use and family structure

Substances use	Two parents n(%)	Single parents n(%)	X ²	df	p
Alcohol use in preceding month					
Yes (n=63)	39(12.9)	24(19.0)	2.665	1	.134
No (n=365)	263(87.1)	102(81.0)			
Weekly use of alcohol					
Yes (n=15)	11(3.6)	4(3.3)	.039	1	.843
No (n=410)	291(96.4)	119(96.7)			
Smoking					
Yes (n=14)	4(1.3)	10(8.0)	12.480	1	<0.0001
No (n=414)	299(98.7)	115(92.0)			

Bold p = significant.

4.4.2 Abuse/neglect related characteristics of students

A greater proportion, 16(12.9%) of students in single parent homes reported having been sexually abused; against 10(3.3%) of adolescents in two parent homes, ($p < 0.0001$). Also, more of the students in single parent's homes, 39 (29.4%), against 53 (17.5%) reported occasionally suffering hunger for a full day, ($p = 0.009$). These are shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Association between abuse/neglect and family structure

Abuse/neglect	Two parents n(%)	Single parents n(%)	X ²	df	p
Sexual abuse					
Yes (n=26)	10(3.3)	16(12.9)			
No (n=398)	290(96.7)	108(87.1)	13.959	1	<0.0001
Physical abuse					
Yes (n=109)	77(25.7)	32(26.7)			
No (n=311)	223(74.3)	88(73.3)	0.045	1	0.902
Go hungry all day					
Yes (n=90)	53(17.5)	37(29.4)			
No (n=339)	250(82.5)	89(70.6)	7.568	1	0.009

Bold p = significant.

4.4.3 Family processes in adolescent's homes

A greater proportion of students in two parents' homes reported that both of their parents care for them than those from single parent's homes, (94.6% vs 69.4%), ($p < 0.0001$). While 271(94.1%) of students in two parent homes reported having close relationships with their fathers, while, 88(75.2%) of the students in single parent homes reported so, ($p < 0.0001$).

A larger proportion of students in two parents' homes reported receiving adequate parental attention than those in single parent's households, (94.9% vs 80.6%), ($p < 0.0001$). A greater proportion of the students in two parents' families, 232 (79.5%), reported that their parents provide enough learning materials for them, against 82(66.7%) of students in single parent homes, ($p = 0.008$). Students in two parent homes; 189(64.7%) against 64(51.3%) of those in single parent homes reported that their parent assists them in doing their homework, ($p = 0.012$). On the other hand, more of the students in single parent homes; 36(28.6%) against 42(13.8%) in two parents' households reported doing something to earn money, ($p = 0.001$). The results of the family related characteristics in the different family types are shown in Table 7.

Table 7: Association between family related characteristics and family structure

Family related characteristics	Two parents n(%)	Single parents n(%)	X²	df	p
Both parents care					
Yes (n=317)	281(94.6)	36(69.4)	49.911	1	<0.0001
No (n=54)	16(5.4)	38(30.6)			
Close to mother					
Yes (n=385)	278(96.9)	107(93.3)	2.698	1	0.109
No (n=17)	9(3.1)	8(6.7)			
Close to father					
Yes (n=359)	271(94.1)	88(75.2)	29.468	1	<0.0001
No (n=46)	17(5.9)	29(24.8)			
People lived with other than parents					
None (n=265)	201(67.68)	64(52.46)	14.31	2	0.003
1-2 (n=116)	78(26.26)	38(31.15)			
>2 (n=38)	18(6.06)	20(16.39)			
Parents' adequate attention					
Yes (n=377)	277(94.9)	100(80.6)	20.709	1	<0.0001
No (n=39)	15(5.1)	24(19.4)			
Enough learning material					
Yes (n=314)	232(79.5)	82(66.7)	7.683	1	0.008
No (n=101)	60(20.5)	41(33.3)			
Parents Attend PTA Meetings					
Yes (n=195)	145(50.3)	50(40.3)	3.494	1	0.068
No (n=217)	143(49.7)	74(59.7)			
Parents assist homework					
Yes (n=253)	189(64.7)	64(51.2)	6.711	1	0.012
No (n=164)	103(35.3)	61(48.8)			
Enough parental supervision					
Yes (n=353)	254(92.4)	99(86.8)	2.926	1	0.122
No (n=36)	21(7.6)	15(13.2)			
Like family					
Yes (n=420)	301(99.0)	119(94.4)	8.186	1	0.008
No (n=10)	3(1.0)	7(5.6)			
Enough parental support					
Yes (n=364)	264(90.3)	100(81.3)	7.226	1	0.012
No (n=50)	27(9.3)	23(18.7)			
Earning money					
Yes (n=78)	42(13.8)	36(28.6)	13.061	1	0.001
No (n=352)	262(86.2)	90(71.4)			

Bold p = significant.

4.4.4 Authority related characteristics of students

Students in single parent homes reported having had problem with the police or other authority figures more than those in two parents' homes, (4.0% vs 3.3%), ($p=0.775$). While 24(19.5%) of students in single parent homes reported frequent argument with elders, only 49 (16.3%) of those in two parents' homes reported so, ($p=0.479$). Seven (5.6%) of adolescents in single parent homes reported having run away from home before; only 9(3.0%) of students in two parent homes had same report, ($p=0.261$). Students in single parent homes reported having been asked by their parents to leave home more than those in two parents' homes, (12% vs 2.6%), ($p<0.0001$). The results are shown in Table 8.

Table 8: Authority related characteristics of students by family structure

Authority related characteristics	Two parents n(%)	Single parents n(%)	X ²	df	P
Problem with police/authority					
Yes (n=15)	10(3.3)	5(4.00)			
No (n=312)	291(96.7)	121(96.0)	0.109	1	0.775
Frequent problem with parents					
Yes (n=72)	43(14.3)	29(16.7)			
No (n=363)	258(85.7)	105(83.3)	0.382	1	0.513
Frequent argument with elders					
Yes (n=73)	49(16.3)	24(19.5)			
No (n=350)	251(83.7)	99(80.5)	0.617	1	0.479
Fought with weapon					
Yes (n=26)	17(5.6)	9(7.2)			
No (n=401)	285(94.4)	116(92.8)	0.382	1	0.513
Run away from home					
Yes (n=16)	9(3.0)	7(5.6)			
No (n=412)	293(97.0)	119(94.4)	1.639	1	0.261
Asked to leave home					
Yes (n=23)	8(2.6)	15(12.0)			
No (n=405)	295(97.4)	110(88.0)	15.245	1	<0.0001
Have friend parents dislike					
Yes (n=135)	94(31.2)	41(32.5)			
No (n=292)	207(68.8)	85(67.5)	0.71	1	0.820

Bold p = significant.

4.4.5 Comparison of scores on psychological wellbeing of students on the SDQ.

The students from two parent homes had a mean score of 3.04(SD=2.47) in emotional problem sub-scale of Strength and Difficulty Questionnaire (SDQ), while those from single parent's household had 3.78(SD=2.94), ($p=0.010$). Also adolescents living in a single parent's home scored higher in a conduct problem sub-scale of the same instrument; getting 3.03(SD=2.09) against 2.43(SD=1.92) obtained by students in two parent homes, ($p=0.005$). Though the mean score 7.45(SD=2.8) obtained by students in single parent homes was lower than 7.56(SD=2.95) that by students in two parent home on a prosocial behaviour sub-scale of SDQ, ($p=.747$). The other psychological characteristics of the students are shown in Table 9.

Table 9: Comparison of scores on psychological wellbeing of students on the SDQ.

Psychological Well Being	Two parents	Single parents	t	df	P
Mean emotional problem score (SD)	3.04(2.47)	3.78(2.94)	2.603	406	0.010
Mean conduct problem score (SD)	2.43(1.92)	3.03(2.09)	2.823	405	0.005
Mean hyperactivity score (SD)	2.78(3.27)	2.91(2.25)	0.376	403	0.707
Mean peer problem score (SD)	3.20(2.0)	3.8(2.09)	2.675	401	0.008
Mean prosocial behaviour score (SD)	7.56(2.95)	7.45(2.8)	0.323	403	0.747
Mean SDQ Total score (S.D)	11.13(5.80)	13.24(7.15)	3.123	405	0.002

Bold p = significant.

4.4.6 Association between family structure and psychological characteristics of students

A lesser proportion, 3(1.0%) of adolescents in two parents' homes reported the future as bleak, compared to 6(4.8%) of those in single parent homes, ($p=0.015$). Also, a third (32.5%) of the adolescents in single parent homes reported thoughts of self-harm; only a fifth (20%) of the students in two parent homes had same report, ($p=0.008$). The results are shown in Table 10.

Table 10: Association between family structure and psychological characteristics of students

Psychological characteristics	Two parents n(%)	Single parents n(%)	χ^2	df	p
View of the future					
Bright (n=411)	291(99.0)	120(95.2)	5.888	1	0.015
Bleak (n=9)	3(1.0)	6(4.8)			
Thought of self-harm					
Yes (n=98)	58(20.0)	40(32.5)	7.481	1	0.008
No (n=315)	232(80.0)	83(67.5)			
Intentional property destruction					
Yes (n=109)	81(27.7)	28(22.8)	1.106	1	0.329
No (n=306)	211(72.3)	95(77.2)			

Bold p = significant.

4.5. Comparing students in the sub-single parents' homes

Seventeen, (36.2%) of students from widowed homes reported taking average class position of 1-10; against 5(17.2%) from never married homes and 8(16%) from divorced home. Thirteen, (26%) of adolescents in divorced parent's homes reported taking class position of above 10; against 9(19.1%) and 11(37.9%) in widowed and never married homes respectively, ($p=0.045$). While 43(86.0%) of students from divorced homes have not repeated class, 40(85.1%) of those from widowed homes and 23(82.1%) from never married homes had same report, ($p=0.901$). Two (4.0%) of students from divorced homes, 7(15.6%) from widowed homes and 7(24.1%) from never married homes reported having been sexually abused, ($p=0.028$). The results of other school and psychological characteristics of the students are shown in Table 11.

Table 11: Association between some school and psychological characteristics and sub-groups of single parent family

	Divorced	Widowed	Never married	X ²	df	P
Average class position						
1-10 (n=69)	22(44.0%)	33(70.2%)	14(48.3%)	7.359	2	0.025
>10 (n=57)	28(56%)	14(29.8%)	15(51.7%)			
Repeat class						
Yes (n=19)	7(14.0%)	7(14.9%)	5(17.9%)	0.213	2	0.901
No (n=100)	43(86.0%)	40(85.1%)	23(82.1%)			
School suspension						
Yes (n=7)	4(8.0%)	1(2.1%)	2(6.9%)	1.721	2	0.476
No (n=119)	46(92.0%)	46(97.9%)	27(93.1%)			
Alcohol past month						
Yes (n=24)	7(14%)	9(19.1%)	8(27.6%)	2.198	2	0.323
No (n=102)	43(86%)	38(80.9%)	21(72.4%)			
Smoke						
Yes (n=5)	2(4.0%)	1(2.1%)	2(10.7%)	2.948	2	0.223
No (n=119)	48(96.0%)	46(97.9%)	25(89.3%)			
Sexually abused						
Yes (n=16)	2(4.0%)	7(15.6%)	7(24.1%)	7.065	2	0.028
No (n=108)	48(96.0%)	38(84.4%)	22(75.9%)			
Physically abused						
Yes (n=32)	13(27.7%)	11(24.4%)	8(28.6%)	0.189	2	0.898
No (n=88)	34(72.3%)	34(75.6%)	20(71.4%)			
Go hunger all day						
Yes (n=37)	16(32.0%)	10(21.3%)	11(37.9%)	2.676	2	0.282
No (n=89)	34(68.0%)	37(78.7%)	18(62.1%)			

Bold p = significant.

4.5.1 Comparison of academic and psychological scores of students in sub-single parents' homes

The mean score of students from divorced homes on a prosocial behaviour sub-scale of SDQ, was 7.11(SD=2.58) compared to 7.76(SD=2.55) obtained by those from widowed homes, and 6.67(SD=3.43) that by those in never married homes. The mean difference in scores was not statistically significant ($F_{2,118}=1.427$, $p=.244$). The respective mean percentage score in mathematics obtained by the students were 58.06(SD=16.62), 55.04(SD=13.90) and 51.85(SD=14.13), ($F_{2, 120}=1.494$, $p=.229$). The other results on the psychological and academic performance of the students in sub-single parent homes are shown in Table 12.

Table 12: Comparison of academic and psychological scores of students in sub-single parents' homes

Psychological and academic scores	Divorced n(%)	Widowed n(%)	Never married n(%)	F	df	p
Mean emotional problem score (SD)	3.96(3.18)	3.67(2.85)	2.63(2.75)	.148	119	0.862
Mean conduct problem score (SD)	2.96(1.94)	2.80(2.26)	3.58(2.02)	1.189	118	0.308
Mean hyperactivity score (SD)	2.59(2.31)	3.13(2.27)	3.08(2.12)	0.764	117	0.468
Mean peer problem score (SD)	3.65(2.40)	3.91(1.81)	3.85(2.03)	0.186	117	0.831
Mean prosocial behaviour score (SD)	7.71(2.58)	7.76(2.55)	6.67(3.45)	1.427	118	0.244
Mean SDQ Total score(S.D)	12.54(7.54)	13.54(6.89)	14.23(6.69)	0.514	119	0.600
Mean Mathematics	55.04(13.90)	58.06(16.62)	51.85(14.13)	1.494	120	0.229
Mean English language	62.38(13.51)	64.83(15.03)	60.48(12.07)	0.903	120	0.408

4.6. Comparing children living with their biological single mothers and single fathers

When students living with their biological single mothers were compared to those living with their biological fathers, the results revealed that, 6 (12.2%) of the students living with their single mothers had repeated a class while 1(5.9%) of those in single father homes had same report, ($p=0.667$). Higher proportion of students in single father's homes were sexually abused, compared to those living with their single mothers (18.8% vs12%), $p=0.676$. The school psychological characteristics of the students in single mother and father homes are shown in Table 13.

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Table 13: School and psychological characteristics of students in single mother's and father's families

Academic/psychological status	Single mother	Single father	p
Repeat class			
Yes (n=7)	6(12.29)	1(5.99)	0.667
No (n=59)	43(87.8)	16(94.1)	
School suspension			
Yes (n=5)	5(10.0%)	0(0.0%)	0.319
No (n=62)	45(90.0%)	17(100%)	
Alcohol past month			
Yes (n=12)	9(18.0%)	3(17.6%)	1.000
No (n=55)	41(82.0%)	14(82.4%)	
Smoke			
Yes (n=5)	4(8%)	1(5.9%)	1.000
No (n=62)	46(92%)	16(94.1%)	
Sexually abused			
Yes (n=9)	6(12%)	3(18.8%)	0.676
No (n=57)	44(88%)	13(81.2%)	
Physically abused			
Yes (n=16)	11(22.4)	5(33.3%)	0.499
No (n=48)	38(76.6)	10(66.7%)	
Go hunger all day			
Yes (n=16)	11(22.0%)	5(29.4%)	0.528
No (n=51)	39(78.0%)	12(70.6%)	
Fishers Exact test			

4.6.1 Comparison of academic and psychological scores of students in single mother's and father's families

The mean prosocial behaviour score of students in single mother households was 7.17(SD=2.62), while those in single father homes had 7.38(SD=2.50), ($p=0.786$). On the peer problem sub-scale of SDQ, students in single mother homes had a mean score of 3.3(SD=1.86) while those from single father homes had 4.69(SD=2.39), ($p=0.02$). The results are shown in table 14.

Table 14: Comparison of academic and psychological scores of students in single mother's and father's families

Psychological and academic scores	Single Mother	Single Father	t-test	df	p
Mean emotional problem score (SD)	3.72(2.53)	2.81(2.88)	1.200	61	0.235
Mean conduct problem score (SD)	3.10(2.08)	3.06(2.43)	0.067	62	0.947
Mean hyperactivity score (SD)	2.53(1.93)	3.56(2.56)	1.694	61	0.095
Mean peer problem score (SD)	3.3(1.86)	4.69(2.39)	2.394	61	0.02
Mean prosocial behaviour score (SD)	7.17(2.62)	7.38(2.50)	0.273	61	0.786
Mean SDQ Total score (S.D)	12.46(6.48)	13.94(8.46)	0.731	62	0.468
Mean Mathematics (S.D)	53.20(16.99)	52.94(15.25)	0.056	64	0.965
Mean English language(S.D)	62.57(14.68)	60.35(12.45)	0.557	64	0.580

Bold p = significant.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Discussion

This study looked at the relationship between family structure and the psychological and academic performance of adolescent students. In this study, a total of 29.3% of the students were from single parent homes; 18.37% of the children were from divorced or never married families, while 10.93% of the students were from widowed families. This 29.3% is lower than the 40% reported in South Africa (Olaniyi and Orok, 2009), close to 26% in a USA study (US Census Bureau, 2009a), and 25% reported by Anthonia and Agapetus (2009) in Nigeria; but higher than 13% by World Family Map (2014) in Nigeria, and 10.2% found in Ghana (GSS, 2012, as cited in Simon et al., 2016). The proportion of single parent homes, as well as the prevalence of children in them varies widely from country to country and sometimes even within a country. The differences in percentage of children living in single parent's homes in Nigeria between this study and the World Family Map (2014) could possibly be due to the population examined. While this study investigated adolescents in secondary, the World Family Map (2014) looked at general population of children and adolescents eighteen years and below. Because USA has a higher proportion of single parent families than Nigeria, 27% against 24% (World Family Map, 2014) it is expected to also have higher proportion of children in such a home. However, the USA study only looked at children in divorced and never married homes, excluding those in widowed families. In South Africa, the high proportion of children in single parent's homes was partly due to HIV/AIDS scourge (World Family Map, 2014). However, in the Ghana report, single parents were limited to separated (1.9%); divorced (3.4%) and widowed (4.9%). It did not include never married single parents (GSS, 2012 as cited in Simon et al 2016).

Furthermore, about two-third (57.9%) of the adolescents in this study were females. This is similar to the findings of Musa and Dosunmu (2015), who looked at the effects of parental separation on the behaviour of junior secondary students and reported that about 60% of their subjects were females.

The mean age of the students from single parent's families was significantly higher than that of students from married homes. A possible explanation could be that either the students from single parent's homes started school later than their peers, or they repeated classes or missed school sessions due to family disruption, hence, currently being in school with students younger than they are. The study found that adolescents from single parent's homes were significantly more likely to be suspended from school. This corroborates with Wendy and Kathleen (2003) report, that adolescents from intact married families are less likely to be suspended or expelled from school than those from single parent homes. This could be seen as a result of higher problem behaviour found in children from single parent homes (NSCH, 2003), which was also found in this study. The mean days of absence from school among the students from single parent's households was significantly higher than that of students from two parents' homes. This is similar to the finding by Savage (1980, as cited in Hakan, 2013), that children from single parent's homes have on the average 8 more days of absence from school in each school year than those from two parents' homes. Barry (2003), further reported that coming from a divorced and never married homes is associated with an increased skipping of lessons and many more unexcused absences in adolescents.

The students from single parent's families in this study were significantly more likely to have problem paying school fees. This may not be surprising as many studies have reported that on the average, single parent homes are poorer than intact married families (Falci, 1997; Taylor et al., 2000, as cited in Kamau LM, 2013) and divorce reduces parental involvement and care especially of the non-custodial parent (David, 2007; Gale Group, 2003; Ross, 2005). Moreover,

the fewer involved adults there are in a home the less time and money to invest in children (Astrid, 2003). The adolescents from two parents' families in this study performed significantly better in mathematics than those from single parent household. This is in keeping with a USA study by David, (2003) who found that elementary school children from divorced, cohabiting and never married single parents scored significantly lower in reading and mathematics. Similarly, adolescents from intact families scored significantly higher in mathematics, science, history and reading than those from single parent's homes in another study by Youngmin and Yaunzhang (2008). Adolescents from sole parent's households were significantly more likely to repeat a class. This is in keeping with the report by Hughes and Waite (2002) in USA, who found that single parent's children are more likely to repeat grade. Similarly, Azuka-Obieke (2013), who studied the psychological well-being and academic performance of adolescents in single parent's homes, reported that though majority of children from single parent homes do well, many of them are underachievers. Savage (1980, as cited in Hakan, 2013), likewise reported that 40% of children from single parent's homes are underachievers.

Also Kemp (1994) found that males and females in mother headed homes did not do as well as children in intact families. Adegoke (2003) and Uwaifo (2008, as cited in Amadu, 2013), had similar findings; but Adegoke (2003), further reported that males were worse affected than females in mother headed homes. This almost consistent finding has been attributed to family processes such as poor parental involvements in children's academic, lesser supervision and monitoring, as well as reduced provision of learning enhancing materials, which are more common in single parent's homes than in two parents' homes, (Simon et al., 2016: Coley and Hoffman, 1996; Goldstein 1984 as cited in Cookston 1999). Also intact family has been reported in a USA study to have a positive influence on children academic attainment (Claudia and Filomena, 2012). It also facilitates involvement in children's education (Sabry, 2006). Though many researchers have reported this superior performance by adolescents in two-

parents' homes, the finding is not universal, for example, Olayemi (2014) and Ushie et al., (2012 as cited in Amadu, 2013) found no difference in academic performance between students from two-parents' homes and those from single parent's homes. The study also reported that children from intact two parents' families are more likely to receive parental assistance in solving their homework. This is in keeping with Chowa et al., (2012, as cited by Amadu, 2013) report, that 44.8% of parents in married two parents' homes, versus 38.7% of single parents are involved in their children's homework. Ross (2005), in USA, similarly opined that non-residential fathers are less likely to provide help for their children. Adolescent students from one parent's families were significantly more likely to rate themselves as having higher conduct problem than those from two parents' homes. This is in keeping with findings by Sokan (1992), who reported that boys developing without a father have problem with self-control and are more aggressive than those from intact families. Similarly, low supervision as seen more in single parent's homes, has been associated with low achievement and conduct disorder (Coley and Hoffman, 1996; Goldstein, 1984 as cited in Cookston, 1999). The conduct problems seen more in adolescents from single parent's homes are attributable to poor parenting. For instance, Goldstein (1984 as cited in Cookston, 1999), opined that higher supervision abolishes the rate of problem behaviour seen in children of single mothers. Simon et al., (1999 as cited in Ross, 2005) similarly reported that competent parenting post-divorce reduce delinquent behaviour in children to levels seen in intact families.

There was no significant difference among the adolescents from the different family structure in reporting the use of alcohol either in the one month preceding the interview or in regular use. However, those from single parent homes were significantly more likely to be smoking cigarette or cannabis. This is similar to the report by Chilcoat and Anthony, 1996 as cited in Cookston 1999). Use of illicit drugs has been found more among adolescents from mother headed homes (Turner et al., 1991 as cited in Cookston, 1999); or single parent homes (Simon,

1987) than those from two-parents' homes. The more use of illicit drugs by adolescents in single parent's homes has been linked to reduced parental involvement (Chilcoat and Anthony, 1996 as cited in Cookston 1999). The possible reason for not finding significant difference in the use of alcohol among the students, but found in smoking may be due to the use of alcohol as social drug; for instance, it is used during naming ceremonies and traditional weddings in this environment. Whereas smoking in adolescent, is seen as abnormal and is unlikely to be approved for use in adolescents by any adult caregiver. So alcohol is used more freely and widely than cigarette or cannabis.

Being in a single parent's homes was found in the study to be significantly associated with an increased risk of being sexually abused or staying hungry for a full day. This is similar to the findings of Haster and Ratford, (1997) and Wilson, (2002) that sexual abuse is two times higher in children in divorced homes than in two parents' homes. The less attention and supervision as well as less time the parents in single parent's homes have for their children may contribute to these findings. Since single parents are on the average poorer than two-parents' homes and their children more likely to work to support the family income. In this environment hawking goods is one of the commonly used methods families use to supplement income, thus the adolescents may not eat until they have made some sales and are back home. The hawking and other jobs done to help the family may also expose them to various forms of abuse. They (adolescents in single parent's homes) are also significantly more likely to be living with other relatives and non-relatives other than their parents than adolescents in two-parents' homes as shown in the study. This may also lend to the above findings of being more sexually abused and staying hungry for a full day.

The study also found that adolescents from single parent's homes are significantly more likely not to have close relationship with their fathers, but this was not the same with their mothers. This finding is similar to what Falci, (1997) reported; that divorce lowers the quality of parent-

child relationship, especially for the non-resident parent, and that geographical closeness is needed for involvement of non-resident parent. This finding may not be surprising, as studies in Turkey and USA, have found that majority of custodial parents are mothers (Hakan, 2013; US Census Bureau, 2009a). Hence, whether in intact or separated homes, mothers usually have closer relationship with the children. Conversely, only few of the fathers are in custody of the children after divorce, thereby increasing geographical distance which reduces involvement (Falci, 1997). Again divorced fathers are more likely to enter into a new relationship (stepfamily), than mothers, and earlier too. Remarriage of a non-custodial parent has been linked to reduction in parent's involvement (Falci, 1997). This is further supported by the report that remarriage of non-residential parent may reduce commitment in their children's life; and spending more time with stepchildren may increase the emotional care for them than for biological children (Furstenberg, 1984; Seltzer and Bianchi, 1988 as cited in Falci, 1997). David (2007) further suggested that father's relationship with their children is greater when the father has good relationship with their mothers; which is not so post-divorce in many of the cases. Students from single parent's homes were significantly more likely to be involved in money generating venture like hawking, hair dressing, serving in building constructions and laundry services etc., to help in family finances. Some said to fund their schooling. This is similar to another Nigerian study by Olayemi (2014), who attributed it to economic hardship in single parent's homes, and opined that it may mean adolescent working longer hours, either to support family financially, or by taking care of younger ones. This may also reduce their time for school activities and negatively affects academic performance.

Adolescents in single parent's homes were significantly less likely to be involved in school clubs and extracurricular activities like excursions and sports. Involvement in school associations and extracurricular activities may demand extra spending by parents, since the children are already having more problem paying their basic school fees, extra spending may

be out of the reach of the parents, hence preventing the students from joining such associations. Also their more likelihood in undertaking a money generating venture to support the family may be another reason for the adolescents in single parent's homes taking part in school clubs and extracurricular activities less than those in two-parents' homes.

Adolescents from single parent's homes were significantly less likely to report enough parental support and adequate attention. This is similarly to Cookston (1999) findings in USA that parental supervision is lowest in single father families, followed by single mother's families and highest in two parents' homes. Also Simon et al (2010) reported that single parenthood is associated with reduction in parental supervision in their children as well as provision of inadequate learning enhancing material. Adolescents from single parent's homes in this study were more likely to have peer problem than those from two parents' homes. This is in keeping with Amato and Keith (1991) report, that single parent's children have more peer related and academic problem than children from two parents' families.

Adolescents from single parent's homes significantly rated themselves higher on emotional problem scale than those from two -parents' homes. This is in agreement with the reports of Hakan (2013) that adolescents in single parent's homes report frequently feeling of anger, sadness, shame, helplessness and a sense of betrayal. Divorce has also been linked to anger, aggression and uncooperative behaviour in the child (Hetherington and Stanley-Hagan, 1995 as cited Shim et al., 2000). Furthermore, since adolescents from single parent's homes are more likely to have problem in school and poor academic performance as well as difficulties with peers; these may drive them into having more emotional problems. The study also found that single parenthood occurs similarly among the educated as well as the less educated. This differs from the report by Tony et al., (2012) who found that the better educated are more likely to marry and less likely to divorce. However, the effect of education on the rate of divorce or never married is inconsistent, as a study in Islamabad, Pakistan, by Fauzia et al., (2012)

reported that the highly educated, independent women are more likely to divorce or have children without marriage.

There were no appreciable differences among the adolescents in single parent's homes, whether from divorced, widowed or never married homes, except that students from widowed parent's homes were significantly more likely to have better class positions than those from divorced or never married homes. Again adolescents from never married homes were significantly more likely to suffer sexual abuse than those from the other single parent homes. This is similar to Biblarz and Gottainer (2000) study which found that children from never married homes fare worse than children from other single parent's families. In this study, apart from peer problem where students from mother headed homes were significantly less likely to have than those in single father households, the adolescents in single mother and father homes were basically similar in academic performance and psychological well-being. This may be due to the small numbers of students from single parent's homes in this study who were living with their biological parents.

5.2 Conclusions

From this study, the proportion of adolescent students living in single parent's homes in Nigeria is 29.3%. Students from single parents' homes are at higher risk of suffering abuses/neglect, smoking, performing poorer in school and higher risk of having emotional conduct and peer problems. Parental involvement and supervision of their children also appear to be lower in single parent's families than in two parents' homes.

5.2.1 Limitations

The study was a cross sectional study, as such cannot establish cause and effect relationship. A longitudinal study is needed, which will help to establish cause and effect relationship.

The study defined academic performance as scores in previous term English language and mathematics as well as repetition of a class. A student may not do well in these subjects, yet performs exceptionally well in others.

5.2.2. Strength

The study is among the few Nigerian studies that looked at the proportion of students in single parent's homes.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. A regular family counselling and conflicts resolution seminars by religious groups may help check the rising rate of single parenthood resulting from divorce.
2. Mental health programmes need to be developed in schools to provide academic and psychological support for adolescents from single home parents.

3. All teachers need to be trained to be able to pick up some of the problems children from single parent's homes may be going through.

4. Social welfare schemes should be put in place by Government to support indigent single families.

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APPENDIX I

MODIFIED SCHOOL HEALTH QUESTIONNAIRE

Serial Number: _____

Today's Date: ___/___/___

SCHOOL HEALTH QUESTIONNAIRE IN ENGLISH

Please write the answers to the questions or draw a circle where it applies to you. This is not an examination it is only to find out about you and your health.

SECTION I

Personal Information

1. Name of School:

2. Class:

3. Where do you live? (Address of Present Abode):

.....

4. What is your date of birth? Date of Birth: _____

Day Month Year

5. How old are you? _____

6. Are you a boy or a girl? (a) boy (b) girl

7. Do you practise any religion? No Yes

8. Please write down the exact place you attend for worship

(a) Islam (b) Orthodox Christian (c) Pentecostal Christian (d) Traditional religion
(e) Other

9. How much does the teaching of your religion guide your behaviour?

(a) Very much (b) much (c) Just a little (d) Not at all

10. How much does the teaching of your religion guide your family life?

(a) Very much (b) much (c) Just a little (d) Not at all

Family Information

11. Family Type:

(a) Monogamous (b) Polygamous

12. Number of Mother’s Children:

13. Number of Father’s Children

14. What is your position among your father’s children?

15. What is your position among your mother’s children?

16. Marital Status of Parent:

(a) Married (b) Separated/Divorced (c) Father is dead (d) Mother is dead (e) Mother & Father are dead (f) mother or father never married.

17. How many husbands has your mother had?

18. Who do you live with presently?

(a) Parents (b) Mother (c) Father (d) Grandparents (e) Grandmother
(f) Grandfather (g) Other [please specify] _____

19. Who brought you up from your childhood?

(a) Parents (b) Mother (c) Father (d) Grandparents (e) Grandmother
(f) Grandfather (g) Other [please specify] _____

20. How many different people have you left your parents to live with from your childhood?

.....

21. If more than one person, list the people, time spent and whether experience was good or bad?

Person lived with	From which age to which age	Experience (good or bad)
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

22. Do you do any kind of work to earn money before or after school? Yes No

23. If yes, please describe what you do _____

24. Level of Father's Education

(a) No Formal Education (b) Koranic School (c) Primary School (d) Secondary School

(e) Post-Secondary (Non-University) (f) University Degree and above (g) I do not know

25. Occupation of Father: [Write the exact occupation] _____ / I do not know

26. Level of Mother's Education

(a) No Formal Education (b) Koranic School (c) Primary School (d) Secondary School

(e) Post-Secondary (Non-University) (f) University Degree and above (g) I do not know

27. Occupation of Mother: [Write in the exact occupation] _____ / I do not know

28. Do you like your family? Yes No

29a. If Yes, Why? _____

29b. If No, Why? _____

School-Related Questions

30. Do you like your school? Yes/ No

31. How many children are there in your class?

32. Do you do well academically? Yes No

33a. If Yes, explain _____

33b. If No, explain _____

34. Are you having difficulties with your teachers? Yes No

35. If yes, what sort of difficulties? _____
36. Do you have guidance counsellors in your school? Yes No
37. Have you ever gone to see them? Yes No
38. If yes, what did you go to see them for? _____
39. If you have a problem at school would you go to the guidance counsellor for help? Yes
No
- 40a. If yes, why would you go?
- 40b. If no, why not
41. Average position in class: 1st-5th []; 6th-10th []; 11th-15th []; above 15th [].
42. Have you repeated a class: yes [], no [].
43. Ever suspended from school: yes [], no [].
44. Belong to any club or association in school: yes [], no [].
45. Do you take part in extracurricular activities: yes [], no [].
46. Have you taking alcohol in the past 1 month: yes [], no [].
47. Do you take alcohol regularly, (weekly): yes [], no []. If yes, how frequent: once a week [], more than once a week [].
48. Do you smoke? Yes [], no []. If yes, what do you smoke.....
49. Have you ever had problem with police or any other authority: yes [], no [].
50. Have you ever been sexually abused? Yes [], no [].
51. History of physical abuse/ beaten: yes [], no []. If yes, how often.....
52. History of staying hungry for a full day: yes [], no [].
53. History of having problem paying school fees or other money in school yes [], no [].
54. Ever fought with weapon: yes [], no [].

55. Frequent argument with elders: yes [], no [].
56. Frequent problem with parents: yes [], no [].
57. Ever ran away from home yes [], no [].
58. Ever been asked by parents to leave the house: yes [], no [].
59. How many days in a term do you fail to go to school?
60. Do you have friends your parents do not like? Yes [], no []. If yes, why.....
61. How many schools have you attended?
62. Are two of your parents taking care of you? Yes []. No [].
63. If parents are separated/divorced, how old were you when they separated/divorced?.....
- 64b. If separated/divorced, do you visit the other parent? Yes []. No []. If yes, how often.....
- 63c. If parents are separated/divorced, have they re-married? Yes [], no [].
- 63d. If yes, how is your relationship with your step-parent? Very good []. Good []. Bad [].
- 63e. How is your relationship with your stepsiblings? Very good []. Good []. Bad [].
- 63f. How is the current relationship between your parent and step-parent? Very good []. Good []. Bad [].
- 63g. Before your parents separated, how was their relationship? Very good []. Good []. Bad [].
64. How close are you to your mother? Very close [], close [], not close [].
65. How close are you to your father? Very close [], close [], not close [].
66. Are your grandparents alive? Yes [], no []. If alive, do you visit them? Yes [], no [].
67. How do you see the future? Bright [], bleak []

68. Have you ever thought of harming yourself? Yes [], no [].
69. Have you ever intentionally destroyed useful properties at home? Yes [] No [].
70. Do you think you receive enough support from your parents? Yes []. No [].
71. Do you think your parents give you adequate attention? Yes []. No [].
72. Are you provided with enough learning materials at home to help your studies? Yes [],
no [].
73. Do(es) your parent(s) get time to attend your school meetings such as PTA. Yes [].
No [].
74. Do(es) your parent(s) assist you in doing your homework? Yes [], No [].
75. Do(es) your parent(s) monitor and supervise the progress of your academics.
76. Do you receive financial assistance from relatives outside your parents? Yes []. No [].
77. Your last term score in:
- a). English language _____
- b). Mathematics _____

APPENDIX II

STRENGTH AND DIFFICULTY QUESTIONNAIRE (SDQ)

Scoring the Strengths and Difficulties Questionnaire for age 4-17 or 18+

For each item you are to mark in one of three boxes to indicate whether the item is not true, somewhat true or certainly true.

Table 1: Scoring symptom scores on the SDQ for 4-17 or 18+ years olds

	Not True	Somewhat True	Certainly True
<u>Emotional problems scale</u>			
ITEM 3: Often complains of headaches ... (<i>I get a lot of headaches...</i>)	0	1	2
ITEM 8: Many worries ... (<i>I worry a lot</i>)	0	1	2
ITEM 13: Often unhappy, downhearted... (<i>I am often unhappy...</i>)	0	1	2
ITEM 16: Nervous or clingy in new situations... (<i>I am nervous in new situations...</i>)	0	1	2
ITEM 24: Many fears, easily scared (<i>I have many fears...</i>)	0	1	2
<u>Conduct problem scale</u>			
ITEM 5: Often has temper tantrums or hot tempers (<i>I get very angry</i>)	2	1	0
ITEM 7: Generally obedient... (<i>I usually do as I am told</i>)	0	1	2
ITEM 12: Often fights with other children... (<i>I fight a lot</i>)	0	1	2
ITEM 18: Often lies or cheats (<i>I am often accused of lying or cheating</i>)	0	1	2
ITEM 22: Steals from home, school or elsewhere (<i>I take things that are not mine</i>)	0	1	2
<u>hyperactivity scale</u>			
ITEM 2: Restless, overactive... (<i>I am restless...</i>)	0	1	2
ITEM 10: Constantly fidgeting or squirming (<i>I am constantly fidgeting...</i>)	0	1	2
ITEM 15: Easily distracted, concentration wanders (<i>I am easily distracted</i>)	0	1	2
ITEM 21: Thinks things out before acting (<i>I think before I do things</i>)	2	1	0
ITEM 25: Sees tasks through to the end... (<i>I finish the work I am doing</i>)	2	1	0
<u>Peer problems scale</u>			
ITEM 6: Rather solitary, tends to play alone (<i>I am usually on my own</i>)	2	1	0

ITEM 11: Has at least one good friend (<i>I have one good friend or more</i>)			
ITEM 14: Generally liked by other children (<i>Other people my age generally like me</i>)			
ITEM 19: Picked on or bullied by other children... (<i>Other children or young people pick on me</i>)	0	1	2
	0	1	2
ITEM 23: Gets on better with adults than with other children (<i>I get on better with adults than with people my age</i>)			
	0	1	2
<u>Prosocial scale</u>			
ITEM 1: Considerate of other people's feelings (<i>I try to be nice to other people</i>)	0	1	2
	0	1	2
ITEM 4: Shares readily with other children... (<i>I usually share with others</i>)			
ITEM 9: Helpful if someone is hurt... (<i>I am helpful if someone is hurt...</i>)			
ITEM 17: Kind to younger children (<i>I am kind to younger children</i>)	0	1	2
	0	1	2
ITEM 20: Often volunteers to help others... (<i>I often volunteer to help others</i>)			

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APPENDIX III

ASSENT FORM FOR RESEARCH STUDY

Title of Project: ASSOCIATION BETWEEN FAMILY STRUCTURE, PSYCHOLOGICAL AND ACADEMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF ADOLESCENT STUDENTS IN CALABAR.

Name of Researcher: Dr. Uma A. Uma

Address: Federal Neuropsychiatric Hospital Calabar.

Tel. phone: 08060512202

**Please tick
to confirm**

1. I confirm that I have been adequately educated and understood the information given by the researcher on the above study.
2. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.
3. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason, and without any punitive measure taken against me.
4. I understand that my relevant data collected during the study, may be published. I give permission for this.
5. I agree to take part in the above research study.

Name of student

Date

Signature

Researcher

Date

Signature

APPENDIX IV

CONSENT FORM FOR RESEARCH STUDY

Title of Project: ASSOCIATION BETWEEN FAMILY STRUCTURE, PSYCHOLOGICAL AND ACADEMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF ADOLESCENT STUDENTS IN CALABAR.

Name of Researcher: Dr. Uma A. Uma

Address : Federal Neuropsychiatric Hospital Calabar.

Tel. phone: 08060512202

**Please tick
to confirm**

1. I confirm that I have been adequately informed and understood the scope of the above study.
2. I have had the opportunity to consider the information and any concern adequately addressed.
3. I understand that my child's/ ward's participation is voluntary and that he or she is free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason, without any punitive measure taken against him or her.
4. I understand that relevant data collected during the study, may be published. I give permission for this.
5. I permit my child/ward to take part in the above research study.

Name of Parent/guardian

Date

Signature

Researcher

Date

Signature

APPENDIX V

PILOT STUDY RESULT

Table 1: Frequency table of students socio-demographic characteristics

Gender		
Female	24	(55.8%)
Male	19	(44.2%)
Class		
JSS	18	(41.9%)
SSS	25	(58.1%)
Religion		
Christianity	39	(90.7%)
Islam	1	(2.3%)
Others	3	(7.0%)

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Table 2: Association between family structure psychological and school related characteristics of students

Variables	Two parents	Single parents	p*
Average class position			
1-10	24(77.4)	7(57.4)	0.284
>10	7(22.6)	5(39.6)	
Repeat class			
No	28(93.3%)	10(83.3%)	0.565
Yes	2(6.7%)	2(16.7%)	
School suspension			
No	29(96.7%)	11(91.7%)	0.495
Yes	1(3.3%)	1(8.3%)	
Club in school			
No	14(45.2%)	5(41.7%)	1.000
Yes	17(54.8%)	7(58.3%)	
Smoke			
No	31(100%)	10(83.3%)	0.073
Yes	0(0%)	2(16.7%)	
Hunger full day			
No	26(83.9%)	9(75.0%)	0.665
Yes	5(16.1%)	3(25.0%)	
Sexually abused			
No	29(96.7%)	9(81.8%)	0.170
Yes	1(3.3%)	2(18.2%)	
Problem paying school fees			
No	19(61.3%)	5(41.7%)	0.314
Yes	12(38.7%)	7(58.3%)	
Close to mother			
No	27(93.1%)	9(90%)	1.000
Yes	2(6.9%)	1(10%)	
Close to father			
No	24(82.8%)	9(90%)	1.000
Yes	5(17.2%)	1(10%)	
Enough parental supervision			
No	3(10.7%)	1(9.1%)	1.000
Yes	25(89.3%)	10(90.9%)	
Parent assist homework			
No	10(33.3%)	6(50%)	0.483
Yes	20(66.7%)	6(50%)	
Parent attend PTA			
No	18(66.7%)	8(66.7%)	1.000
Yes	9(33.3%)	4(33.3%)	
Enough learning material			
No	9(31.0%)	4(33.3%)	1.000
Yes	20(69.0%)	8(66.7%)	
Adequate parental attention			
No	4(13.3%)	3(25.0%)	0.387
Yes	26(86.7%)	9(75.0%)	
Enough parental support			
No	4(13.8%)	2(16.7%)	1.000
Yes	25(86.2%)	10(83.3%)	

* Fishers Exact test

Table 3: Comparison of academic and psychological scores of students

Variable	Two parents	Single parents	t-test	Df	p
Mean Prosocial (SD)	7.45(2.59)	8.71(1.80)	1.220	34	0.231
Mean peer problem (SD)	3.93(2.24)	3.43(1.81)	.545	33	0.589
Mean hyperactivity (SD)	2.96(2.69)	2.43(2.15)	.488	33	0.629
Mean conduct problem (SD)	2.66(1.84)	2.57(1.90)	.108	34	0.915
Mean emotional problem (SD)	2.97(2.74)	2.71(1.980)	.231	36	0.819
Mean mathematics (SD)	61.96(10.73)	49.71(18.40)	2.323	33	0.026
Mean English language (SD)	62.86(10.35)	64.29(16.10)	.291	33	0.773

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ETHICAL APPROVAL

FEDERAL NEURO-PSYCHIATRIC HOSPITAL

PMB 1052, Calabar, Cross River State.

DR. JOSEPH OKEGBE,
MB;B.Ch, JP
Medical Director
08025388388, 08037049476



Tel: +234087, 232125, 232266
Fax: 087-236208

Email: jokegbe@icloud.com

Our Ref:.....

27th February, 2017.
Date:.....

Your Ref:.....

Dr. Uma A. Uma
Clinical Department
Federal Neuropsychiatric Hospital
Calabar.

Sir,

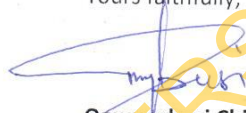
ETHICAL APPROVAL TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH WORK

I am pleased to inform you that approval has been granted by the Health Research Ethics Committee (HREC) of Federal Neuropsychiatric Hospital, Calabar, to carry out your research work on the topic **"ASSOCIATION BETWEEN FAMILY STRUCTURE AND THE CHILDREN'S PSYCHOLOGICAL, BEHAVIOURAL AND ACADEMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF CHILDREN IN CALABAR"**.

You are obliged to ensure that information obtained shall be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,


Onwuegbusi Chijioke
Secretary, HREC