INFLUENCE OF PARENTING STYLES ON IN-SCHOOL ADOLESCENTS' SELF-ESTEEM AND SELF-CONCEPTIN IBADAN-NORTH LOCAL GOVERNMENT AREA OYO STATE NIGERIA

BY

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CERTIFICATION

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my Rock and first love, the creator of heaven and earth, my wonderful husband Aremu Blessing Oluniyi and my unborn baby Oluwagbeminiyi Aremu.

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ABSTRACT

Self-concept and self-esteem are two crucial components of our lives. They can shape development during childhood and affect who we become as adults. It is important for adolescents to develop positive self-concept and high self-esteem in order to have higher chances of a happy and satisfying adulthood. Equally, an unstable self-concept and poor self-esteem can play a critical role in the development of an array of mental disordersand social problems, such as depression, anorexia nervosa, bulimia, anxiety, violence, substance abuse and high-risk behaviors which appears to be rampant among adolescents. These disorders not only result in a high degree of personal suffering, but also impose a considerable burden on society.Parenting styles have been reported to influence adolescent self-esteem and self-concept but few studies have documented this in Nigeria. This study investigated the influence of parenting styles on adolescents' self-esteem and self-concept.

Across-sectional study was carried out among adolescents in secondary schools in Ibadan-North Local Government in Ibadan. Multi stage sampling technique was used to select 504 secondary school students across twelve private and nine public selected secondary schools. A 40 item parental authority questionnaire (PAQ) adjusted to Buri, (1991) scale, a self-esteem questionnaire adjusted to the Rosenberg scale revised by Driscroll (2013) and a self-concept scale adapted from an online self – concept questionnaire and relevant literatures was used for data collection.The 40 items were divided into four subscales for the four parenting styles, ten items in each subscale were summed up and subscale with the highest score indicates the type of parenting adopted.Self-esteem was scored on a scale of (12 - 30)score ≥ 26 indicates high self-esteem, whereas score ≤ 25 indicates low self-esteem, self- concept was scored on a scale of (3 - 54) score ≤ 37 was rated as negative and > 38 was rated as positive self-concept respectively. The data were analysed using descriptive statistics and Chi-square test at p=0.05.

The mean age of participants was 14.9±1.5yrs. Many (58.4%) of the respondents were female; Christians (68.1%) and 59.3% were attending public Schools. Mean self-esteem

score was 24.0±3.3; respondents with low and high self-esteem were 59.0% and 41.0% respectively. Mean self-concept score was 41.9±4.1; respondents with negative and positive self-concept were 11.1% and 88.9% respectively. Overall, about one-third of respondents reported parenting styles as authoritative/Flexible (fathers 36.3%, mothers 38.9%) and authoritarian (fathers 34.9%, mothers32.7%). Positive significant relationship exists between flexible parenting style and adolescent self-esteem and adolescents' self-concept. A negative significant relationship was shown between neglectful parenting style and adolescents' self-esteem and self-concept.
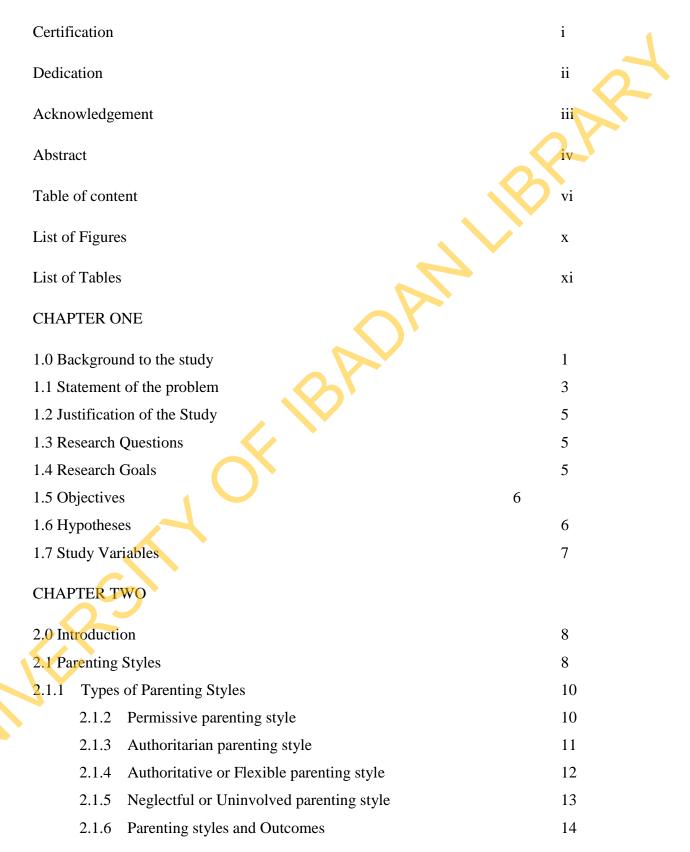
Research finding reveals significant influence of perceived parenting styles on adolescent self-esteem and self-concept. Interventions aimed at educating parents on the best parenting style and the hazards of unfavourable parenting style especially on adolescent self-esteem and self-concept and its consequences could have a significant impact on reduction of health risk behaviours in adolescents.

Key words: adolescents, self-esteem, self-concept, parenting styles.

Word counts:482

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background to the study

There is a growing concern for adolescents worldwide. In 2007, the *World Bank Document: The Promise of Youth*, revealed, "Many youths today are adversely affected by socio-economic and psychosocial variables that exist in society" (p. 9). Some contributing factors are breakdown in family life, poverty and abuse. These variables have negatively affected adolescents' personal and social developments as evident by increases in school absenteeism and dropout, delinquency, aggression, increase in suicidal tendencies and substance and alcohol abuse. These troubling behaviours can hinder adolescents' successful integration into society. Consequently, many adolescents have developmental concerns that can negatively affect their self-conceptions.

Adolescence is a transitional stage of physical and psychological development that generally occurs during the period from puberty to adult hood. The World health Organization (WHO) put the age range of adolescent from 10 to 19 years (WHO, 2014; Chinawa, Obu, Manyike, Obi, Isreal, and Chinawa, 2015), the term adolescence was coined by Stanley Hall in 1904. Adolescence is a critical phase of life where an individual undergoes transition especially ego development. The word 'adolescence' was derived from the Latin verb 'adolescere', which means 'to grow' or 'to grow to maturity'. It is a period of transition when the individual changes physically and psychologically from a child to an adult. Some several factors like family structure, transition in emotionality, transition in socialization, the social status, changes in physical appearance, levels of aspiration, their achievements, religious beliefs that play a significant role in adolescent development. Among the various family factors that might influence child and adolescent development, parenting styles have been recognized as significant (Akanksha and Mamta, 2013).

Parenting style can be described as all behaviours, attitudes and values parents use to interact with their child that influences their physical, emotional, social and intellectual development. Theories concerning parenting style are not simply about the individual

behaviour of parents but refer to a pattern of bi-directional relationships between parents and child (Tunde-Ayinmode and Adegunloye, 2011). According to Baumrind (1971) the pioneer of the concept, parenting style can be classified based on two determinants of demandingness and responsiveness. Based on these two determinants; Baumrind in 1971 introduced three parenting styles: authoritarian, authoritative and permissive, the fourth parenting style which is the neglectful/ uninvolved was introduced by Maccoby and Martin (1983). Building on this typology, Baumrind (1991) explained the 4 parenting styles as follows: Authoritarian parents exhibit a high level of demandingness along with a low level of responsiveness while Authoritative parents have a high level of demandingness along with a high level of responsiveness, however Permissive parents exhibit a low level of demandingness along with a high level of responsiveness, and Neglectful parents exhibit a low level of demandingness along with a low level of responsiveness (as cited in Zeinali, 2014). Parenting has been reported to have influence on adolescent self-esteem and self-concept. Nasir, Zamani, Khairudin and Wan shahrazd (2011)

The word "self" suggests conscious reflection of his/her "being" or identity as an object apart from other or from the environment. Additionally, "self" can be viewed in two dimensions; Self-concept (cognitive) and self-esteem (affective). Self-concept is being referred to as "the totality of a complex, organized, and dynamic system of learned beliefs, attitudes and opinions that each person hold to be true about his or her personal existence" (Purkey, 1988). Whereas, self- esteem generally refers to how we feel and value ourselves or self-worth. Franken (1994) demonstrated that self-concept is related to self-esteem and wrote "*people who have good self-esteem have a clearly differentiated self-concept and when people know themselves they can maximize outcomes because they know what they can and cannot do*". Self-concept has been defined as how an individual perceive himself or herself which was formed as a result of exposure and interaction with the environment, influenced by environmental reinforcements and significant others (Melanio, Merlene and Rogelio, 2012) the idea according to which success, irrespective of the activity field and its form is correlated with the existence of a positive self-esteem is not new. In developing a positive self-esteem, the adolescent's experiences during childhood play an enormous importance alongside the parents' and educators' attitude

towards himself (Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger and Vohs, 2003; Crocker, Brook, Niiya and Villacorta, 2006). Hence, parenting style has been confirmed to have a great influence on development of adolescent self-esteem, despite the influence of peers during adolescence, research has clearly demonstrated that parenting accounts for more variance in externalizing behaviours in adolescence than any other one factor (Crosswhite, 2009). Some parenting style especially the authoritarian has been associated with low self-esteem in adolescents while the authoritative parenting style has been associated with high self-esteem in adolescents (Heaven and Ciarrochi, 2008).

This present study seeks to determine the influence of parenting styles on the adolescent's self-esteem. It seeks to determine the parenting style that supports the adolescent in developing a healthy self-esteem.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Adolescence represents a complex time in the life course of an individual involving emotional, cognitive, and behavioural changes that may increase risk of morbidity and mortality from suicidal behaviour. Many mental health problems first emerged during adolescence and among those who developed a mental health disorder during their lifetimes, 50% of mental health problem cases experience onset by age 14 and 75% by age 24 (Rivara, Park, Irwin, DiClemente, Santelli and Crosby, 2009). Research has shown that adolescent self-esteem is one of the salient underlying factors that influence adolescent outcomes. A review of literature shows that individual's behavioural disorders and deviances mainly originate from their families, and that the majority of adolescents with behavioural disorders come from families suffering from poor parenting style (Sanavi, Baghbanian, Shovey and Ansari-Moghaddam, 2013). Parents with highly disciplined parenting styles and those with uncoordinated relationship with their children or low involvement the children psycho-social activities create an atmosphere vulnerable to perilous or high-risk behaviours amongst adolescents (Okrodudu, 2010). Parenting styles have both medical and psychiatric implications; as they affect children and adolescents, particularly those with conduct disorder (Tunde-Ayinmode and Adegunloye, 2011).

The primary cause of mortality and morbidity among adolescents has shifted from infectious diseases to behavioural aetiologies and social interactions (Wu, Wong, Shek,

and Loke, 2014). Suicidal thinking and behaviour are of grave concern, with the prevalence of suicide attempts taking on alarming proportions in some countries. Several international studies have examined the lifetime prevalence of suicide attempts, the 12-month prevalence of suicide attempts by high-school adolescents between 13 and 18 years old has been reported variously as 1.4% in the USA, 1.7% in Norway, 4.3% in a community sample in Australia and 12% in Nigeria. (Joe, Baser, Neighbors, Caldwell and Jackson, 2009; Sawyer, Guidolin, Schulz, McGinnes and Zubrick, 2010; Omigbodun, Dogra ,Esan and Adedokun, 2008). Poor self- esteem poses a great challenge in both the developed and developing world. For instance, In Nigeria there are about two suicide attempts every month traceable to depression from low self-esteem (Chinawa et al., 2015). Low self-esteem during adolescence predicts poorer mental and physical health, worse economic well-being, and higher levels of criminal activity in young adulthood (Trzesniewski et al. 2006; Erol and Orth, 2011). Also, self-esteem and self-concept predicts antisocial behaviours, anxiety, eating disturbances, depression, and suicidal tendencies (Donnellan, Trzesniewski, Robins, Moffitt, and Caspi, 2005; McGee and Williams, 2000; Orth, Robins, and Roberts, 2008; Erol and Orth, 2011; Santrock, 2006).

Some parenting styles have been associated with low/ poor self-esteem in adolescents. Also, in 2006, Santrock affirmed that family instability and unstable environments contribute to instability in adolescents. Some of these concerns, which can affect self-concept development, are evident among youths worldwide, regionally, hence in the present study. Much of the research to date lacks a clear delineation between the two constructs of self-concept and self-esteem. Frequently, studies will interchange the terms, without fully examining the key differences between the two. While both concepts have a direct relation to our general well-being, the two are very different.

This study therefore aims to investigate the parenting styles that result in high and low self-esteem, positive and negative self-concept in adolescents in Nigeria.

1.2 Justification of the Study

In order to gain greater insight into family experiences of parenting and discipline, studies in the UK and some other countries (Kenya, Japan and Iran) have explored children's perspectives on parental control and discipline (Save the Children Scotland, 2000; Horton

et al, 2001; Horgan, 2002; Mwihaki, 2013; Ogwari, 2011; Nishikawa, Sundbom and Haaggloo, 2010; Shahimi,Heaven and Ciarrochi, 2013). This study aimed to address a gap in the Nigeria research context by exploring adolescents' perspectives of the parenting styles. Most of the available information on the influence of parenting styles on adolescent self-esteem comes from studies carried out internationally; in addition there is a dearth of studies focusing on the influence of parenting styles on adolescent self-concept. This study aimed to add to the body of knowledge on influence of parenting style on adolescent self- esteem and self-concept in the local context. The findings from this study could also form a template for intervention strategies in helping reduce the incidence of high risky behaviour and poor mental health among adolescents, resulting from low self- concept and self-esteem by targeting Health Promotion and Education strategies like Training and public enlightenment at reducing incidence of poor parenting styles.

1.3 Research Questions

1. What are adolescents' perspectives of paternal and maternal parenting styles?

2. What is the level of self- esteem among study participants?

3. What is the level of self-concept among study participants?

4. How does parenting style influence adolescent self-esteem?

5. How does parenting style influence adolescent self- concept?

1.4 Research Goal

➢ The purpose of this study is to determine the influence of parenting styles on adolescent self-esteem in Ibadan North Local Government Area of Oyo State.

1.5 Objectives

To determine the:

1   perception of adolescent on paternal and maternal parenting style

2. level of self-esteem among the study participants

3. level of self-concept among the study participants

4. relationship between perceived parental styles and self-esteem of the participants

5. relationship between perceived parental styles and self-concept of the participants

1.6 Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

There is no significant relationship between adolescents' socio-demographic characteristics and level of self-esteem.

Hypothesis 2

There is no significant relationship between adolescents' socio-demographic characteristics and self-concept.

Hypothesis 3

There is no significant relationship between parents' socio demographic characteristics (occupation and level of education) and perceived parenting styles.

Hypothesis 4

There is no significant relationship between adolescents' self-esteem and perceived parenting style.

Hypothesis 5

There is no significant relationship between adolescents' self-concept and perceived parenting style.

Hypothesis 6

There is no significant relationship between self-esteem and self-concept.

1.7 Study Variables

The independent variable was parenting style and the dependent variables were self-esteem and self-concept.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This review of literature described parenting styles self-concept and self-esteem, influence of parenting styles on self-esteem and self-concept and its correlates. Research that has been conducted among Western and European samples in the area of self-esteem and parenting were examined and explorations of studies that have been conducted in other countries globally including Nigeria were also presented.

2.1 Parenting Styles

Parents' roles in the family environment have primarily been to prepare children for adulthood through rules and discipline. Parenting styles are significant factors in human development studies (Elias and Huey-Yee, 2009), and have been known as important causes of sociability in adolescents (Okrodudu, 2010). In fact, parents play an essential role in the transition phase of teenage years (Okrodudu, 2010). In addition, parenting styles are the fundamental prerequisites of health improvement during adolescence which is a period of transition (Kopko, 2010). Parenting styles include methods that parents apply for treating their children, and have profound impact on adolescents' growth, their character, personality and behavioural traits similarly; parenting styles are largely related to adolescents' health. Parents' inner relationships and behaviour styles, their levels of support and intimacy affect children's health and their attitude toward human relationships in communities. Children who feel accepted by their parents would possess stronger health than those with indifferent, authoritarian and disturbed families or parents (Driscoll, Russelly and Crockettz, 2008). The training style which parents select in turn is affected by a variety of factors, including both the parents' and children's temperaments. Many of these factors arise from surrounding environmental conditions such as socioeconomic circumstances and the dominant cultural values (Moumeni and Amiri, 2008). Akinsola, 2013 studied Cultural Variations in Parenting Styles among Nigerian and Cameroon parents, the study shows that Nigerian parents practice dominantly authoritative parenting style and the hybrid authoritarian/authoritative parenting style while Cameroonian parents dominantly practice permissive parenting style and the permissive/authoritarian parenting style hybrid.

Originally, Baumrind's work on parenting was based on the dimension of parental control to form three different parenting styles, which included authoritative, authoritarian,

and permissive (Baumrind,1996). Parental control is defined as "the claims parents make on children to become integrated into the family as a whole, by their maturity demands, supervision, and disciplinary efforts and willingness to confront the child who disobeys" (Baumrind,1991). High levels of demandingness can be described as structure and control. Parenting behaviours included in this dimension include parental monitoring and parental discipline practices. Building upon Baumrind's parental style framework, Maccoby and Martin added parental responsiveness as another dimension of parenting. Parenting behaviours that measure parental responsiveness include parental warmth, parental support, and parental involvement (Maccoby and Martin, 1983). An expanded parenting typology was developed by Maccoby and Martin categorizing parents as either high or low on each dimension, the new typology included the three styles previously identified by Baumrind as well as an additional style: uninvolved / Neglectful parenting. While Baumrind originally applied her typology to young children, scores of studies have used parenting styles when examining the effect of parenting on adolescents and the findings suggest that the pattern of results is similar when the focus is on adolescents.

Several studies have been carried out on parenting style and adolescent, Akinsola, (2013) studied Cultural Variations in Parenting Styles among Nigerian and Cameroon parents, the study shows that Nigerian parents practice dominantly authoritative parenting style and the hybrid authoritarian/authoritative parenting style while Cameroonian parents dominantly practice permissive parenting style and the permissive/authoritarian parenting style hybrid. Blondal and Adalbjarnardottir, (2009) looked at the way parenting styles and involvement affect school dropout rates by conducting a study on adolescents around the age of 14. The study finds that the perceived parenting style in the eyes of the adolescent has a direct effect on whether the student completes secondary education or not. The adolescent believes the parent has certain expectations and so the adolescent attempts to rise to those expectations. They elaborate by stating that having a parent demonstrate an interest in the life of an adolescent, when the parent has expectation like that of the authoritative parent and not a disinterest like the neglectful parent, an adolescent is less likely to become a school dropout. This involvement is sometimes a simple as the adolescent knowing they have a support system if needed from their parents. By believing

and knowing their parents have expectation and are supportive, an adolescent is more likely to be successful in school and continue their education.

2.1.1 Types of Parenting Styles

(Baumrind,1991 ; Arnett , 2010) identifies two aspects of a parent's behaviour that are critical: (i) parental responsiveness - the degree to which a parent responds to the child's needs in an accepting, supportive manner, and (ii) parental demandingness - the extent to which the parent expects and demands mature, responsible behaviour from the child. These critical aspects have been used as the basis for identifying different parenting styles. Four parenting styles are identified throughout the present research.

2.1.2 Permissive parenting style

In the permissive parenting, parents implement little rules and allow the children to make their own decisions, these parents tend to be lenient or mild in their behaviour and avoid confronting their children. They believe that children's needs, demands or wishes is the way to show their affection and love to them It is also known as the "democratic" parenting style. Families are child centred and the children are in touch with their centre - of-growth, and are more creative and spontaneous in their characteristics Permissive parenting has also been found to be related to low self-esteem, less persistence on learning tasks, low patience for frustration, and intrinsic/extrinsic motivational orientation. According to Boon (2007) permissive parenting, high self-handicapping, low mastery goals and self-efficacy are notably associated to low achievement whereas higher achievement is linked to authoritative parenting style. Permissive parenting is characterized by high levels of responsiveness and low levels of demandingness. Permissive parents behave in an affirmative manner toward the adolescent's impulses, desires, and actions while consulting with the adolescent about family decisions. Further, permissive parents do not set rules, avoid engaging in behavioural control, and set few behavioural expectations for adolescents (Baumrind et al, 2010). Interestingly, permissive parents showed steep decreases in monitoring once their children reached adolescence and these children increased their levels of externalizing behaviour (Luyckx et al, 2011). Adolescents from permissive families report a higher frequency of substance use, school

misconduct, and are less engaged and less positively oriented to school compared to individuals from authoritative or authoritarian families (Querido, Warner and Eyberg, 2002). Permissive parenting is also associated with low self-esteem and extrinsic motivational orientation among adolescents (Hoeve, Dubas, Eichelsheim, Van der Laan, Smeenk, and Gerris, 2009). However, previous studies in Spain haveshown, within a large sample of age that adolescents from indulgent parents reach equal or higher scores in self-esteem than adolescents from authoritative parents (Musitu and García, 2004: Martinez and Gracia, 2007).

2.1.3 Authoritarian parenting style

The authoritarian parenting style is characterized by strict and demanding parent, they make most of the decisions for their children and expect them to be followed without any questions, this is the most basic and traditional parenting technique where the families are adult centred. Disciplinary techniques by force (use of physical punishment, having no privileges or threat) and deprivation of affection (ignoring him or the threat of abandonment) will lead to an extreme addiction, it does not teach alternative ways of behaviour: Authoritarian parents are low in responsiveness yet highly demanding. The authoritarian parenting style is associated with parents who emphasize obedience and conformity and expect that rules be obeyed without explanation in a less warm environment (Baumrind, Larzelere, Owens, 2010). Additionally, authoritarian parents exhibit low levels of trust and engagement toward their child, discourage open communication, and engage in strict control. Baumrind et al. (2010) found that adolescents whose parents used authoritarian parenting style during preschool years were incompetent and maladjusted in class. Adolescents from most Caucasian authoritarian families have been found to exhibit poor social skills, low levels of self-esteem, and high levels of depression (Milevsky, Schlechter, Netter, and Keehn, 2007). However, the effects of this parenting style vary based on the communities in which the adolescent lives. Ogwari (2011) found that authoritarian parenting style associated with poor academic performance of secondary school girls in Mount Elgon District, Kenya

2.1.4 Authoritative or Flexible parenting style

For Kiuru, Aunola, Torppa, Lerkkanen, Poikkeus, Niemi and Nurmi, (2012) Authoritative parents are assertive and set obvious principles of behaving for their children. They are too supportive, cheerful and positive and know the characteristics of their children very well. There can be an open dialogue between parents and children and the children will not be punished for voicing out their views or opinions. Authoritative style emphasizes on positive encouragement for constructive behaviour and punishment for negative behaviour (Simons, 2007).Authoritative parents are high in responsiveness and demandingness and exhibit more supportive than harsh behaviours. Authoritative parents encourage verbal give and take, convey the reasoning behind rules, and use reason, power, and shaping to reinforce objectives. This parenting style is most often associated with positive adolescent outcomes and has been found to be the most effective and beneficial style of parenting among most families, Hae-Seong and Bauer (2002) found that European Americans are more authoritative than other ethnic groups. It is well established that authoritative parenting fosters adolescents' positive well-being,adolescents with authoritative parents are less prone to externalizing behaviours, and specifically are less likely to engage in drug use than individuals with uninvolved parents (Gonzalez, Holbein, Quilter, 2002; Steinberg and Silk, 2002; Fletcher, and Jefferies, 1999). Authoritative parenting has also been associated with children's physical health and wellbeing, for instance, adequate nutrition (Rhee, 2008), active lifestyles (Bradley et al., 2011) and how they cope with chronic health problems such as asthma, diabetes or obesity (West et al., 2010). Recent findings show that positive effects of authoritative parenting are amplified when both parents engage in an authoritative parenting style. Findings from study suggest that the authoritative parenting style is associated with the lowest levels of depression and the highest levels of school commitment among adolescents. Study by Seth and Ghormode, (2013) indicated that having at least one authoritative parent fosters better outcomes than family parenting styles that do not include an authoritative parent. In another study, adolescents whose parents are both authoritative or whose mother alone is authoritative report higher well-being, such as higher self-esteem and life-satisfaction, than participants with no authoritative parent (Milevsky, 2008). Similarly, researchers controlled for several mother-related variables and found that having an authoritative father was associated with positive outcomes among adolescents. These research findings suggest that regardless of

gender of the parent, the presence of even one authoritative parent is beneficial for adolescent outcomes (Bronte-Tinkew, Moore, Carrano, 2006)interestingly, researchers found that monitoring varies among parenting styles. Researchers found that authoritative parents exhibit higher levels of parental monitoring during their child's childhood and slight decreases across adolescence (Luyckx, Tildeley, Soenens, Andrews, Hampson, Peterson, Duriez, 2011). Durkin (1995) cites three reasons why authoritative parenting style is positively associated with children's academic performance in school. First, he suggests that authoritative parents provide a high level of emotional security that provides their children with a sense of comfort and independence and helps them succeed in school. Second, he suggests that authoritative parents provide their children with explanations for their actions which provide children with a sense of awareness and understanding of their parents' values, morals, and goals. The transmission of these goals and values equips these children with the tools needed to perform well in school. Third, he suggests that authoritative parents engage in give-and-take communication with their children which nurtures skills in interpersonal relations that consequently help them to excel in school, both socially and academically.

2.1.5 Neglectful or Uninvolved parenting style

The neglectful parenting style is described as low in responsiveness and low in demandingness. In general, these parents often show disengagement from the responsibilities of child rearing and are often seen as being uninvolved regarding the needs of their offspring (Baumrind et al, 2010). Uninvolved parents do not engage in structure or control with their adolescents and often there is a lack of closeness in the parent-child dyad; therefore, adolescents of neglectful / uninvolved parents often engage in more externalizing behaviours. Finally, uninvolved parenting style has been found to have the most negative effect on adolescent outcomes when compared to the other three parenting styles. Uninvolved parents often fail to monitor or supervise their child's behaviour and do not support or encourage their child's self-regulation, For example, researchers found an association between an uninvolved parenting style and delinquent acts ranging from vandalism and petty theft to assault and rape (Hoskins, 2014). Further, researchers found that by grade 12, adolescents with uninvolved parents drank alcohol almost twice as much

and smoked twice as much as their peers that lived in authoritative households (Hoskins, 2014). In another study, adolescents who perceived their parents as uninvolved used more drugs compared to adolescents who perceived their parents as authoritative (Hoskins, 2014). In addition to increased externalizing behaviours among adolescents who have uninvolved parents, findings show that participants with either an uninvolved parent or two uninvolved parents scored lower on self-esteem than participants without a uninvolved parent . Similarly, in another study, the effects of uninvolved parenting were associated with higher levels of child-reported depressive symptoms during adolescence (Simons, Gordon,Brody,Murry,Conger, 2002). However, researchers found that having an uninvolved mother was associated with significantly worse outcomes than families with an uninvolved father. Findings from study suggest that the gender of the parent may influence the effects of uninvolved parents on adolescent outcomes. In sum, research consistently indicates that individuals whose parents are uninvolved perform most poorly in all emotional and behavioural outcomes. Neglectful parents have low demandingness, low responsiveness and warmth (Chamorro-Premuzic, Harlaar, Greven, and Plomin, 2010).

2.1.6 Parenting styles and Outcomes

Pittman and Chase-Lansdale (2001) studied the associations betweenseveral negative adolescent outcomes and parenting in a sample of African Americangirls. Questionnaires, self-report instruments and interviews were used to explore theinfluence of parenting style on several adolescent negative outcomes such asdelinquency, depression, cognitive distress and incidence of sexual intercourse.In terms of sexual results, adolescents with authoritative mothers were lesslikely to have had sexual intercourse than adolescents with mothers who displayed anyother parenting style, and adolescents with permissive mothers were lesslikely to have had sexual intercourse than adolescents with neglectful mothers. Additionally, among those adolescents who had practiced sex, those withneglectful mothers experienced sexual intercourse at a younger age thanthose with authoritative mothers and adolescents with authoritative mothers were lesslikely to have ever been pregnant, compared with adolescents with either authoritarian orpermissive mothers.

In terms of delinquency, results indicated that adolescents with neglectful mothers exhibited more minor delinquent behaviours than adolescent with authoritative, authoritarian and permissive mothers and more major delinquent behaviours than adolescent with authoritative mothers. Adolescent girls with authoritative mothers exhibited less minor delinquent behaviour than those with permissive mothers, as well as less major delinquent behaviour than those with authoritarian mothers. In regard to depression, adolescents with neglectful mothers were more likely to be depressed than those whose mothers who displayed any other parenting style.

Cohen and Rice in 1997 used the survey method to examine the relevance of parenting style and negative behaviours associated with substance abuse. Results confirmed students who smoke and drink perceive their parents as less authoritative and more permissive than students who did not smoke or drink.

2.2 Self – concept

Self-concept refers to self-evaluation or self-perception which represents the sum of an individual's beliefs in his/her own attributes (Hadley, Hair, and Moore, 2008). Self-concept is a person's self-perception gained through one's experience and interaction with the environment. It is subject to mediation by social and self-attributions. Self-concept can help in explaining and predicting behaviour. For example, a positive self-concept is often valued as a desirable outcome in many disciplines such as educational development, sports and exercise, health, social, personality psychology and academic achievement (Marsh and Martin, 2011).

Self-concept is not simply what adolescents think, feel or know about themselves; it involves the associations between what they experience during their social interactions and how social systems regard them as well, a positive self-concept can lead to a fulfilling adulthood. Many different conditions can affect how adolescents develop their self-concept. Marsh (2005) found that a student's self-concept is partially dependent on his or her surroundings. Inadequacy on self-concept can have a direct influence on the development of a child's self-esteem. It is crucial to understand these differences between self-concept and self-esteem, but it is also important to realize that self-esteem is manufactured through self-concept. When a child has a positive self-concept, high self-

esteem falls into place much more easily (Trautwein, Ludtke, Koller, and Baumert, 2006). Frances, Martin and Dray, (2000) came into the results in this study that there is a significant relationship between self-concept and success in the personal and social areas.

2.2.1 Development of self-concept

Self-concept is developed or learned in the course of individual interaction with the environment and reflecting on the interaction. (Kaur, Rona and Kaur, 2009). It is acclaimed that the females have more negative self-concept rather than males so they would be stressed more. Self-concept formation, central during adolescence tends to have profound effects on adolescents' education (Harter, 1999).Social relationships can influence the way persons view themselves in learning and other situations. The root of self-concept lies in family experiences. (Kaur et al., 2009). A favourable home environment comprised good parent-child relationships. Despite the amount of research that has been conducted with the hopes of better understanding the development of an individual's self-concept, the vast number of factors affecting a self-concept results in the inability to definitively label the greatest factor among shaping a self-concept. Although scholars agree that communication is a main factor of self-concept, the debate centres on what medium of communication affects the self-concept to the highest extent. (Lanza-Kaduce and Webb, 1992) claims that the messages received from the family have the greatest bearing on self-concept, besides the family, other factors such as school, peers may also influence self- concept (Harter, 1999)

2.2.2 Effects of self –concept

Self-concept as a personality variable plays an important role in encountering difficulties in human life. (Tamanaei, Arfaei and Salami, 2010). The evaluative side of self-concept is self-esteem, one of the important measures of a healthy personality (Ikiz and Cakar, 2010). Tudor, (1996) in his monograph on mental health promotion, presented self-concept and self-esteem as two of the core elements of mental health, and therefore as an important focus of mental health promotion. When students have negative self-concept and a low self-esteem, their emotional welfare suffers. (Frances, Martin and Dray, 2000)

came into the results in his study that there is a significant relationship between self-concept and success in the personal and social areas.

A qualitative study by Gordon (1995) identified self-concept as one of the causes of under-achievement by girls in Zimbabwe secondary schools. Furthermore, a study by Urhahne, Chao, Florineth, Luttenberger and Paechter, (2011) demonstrated that underestimation of the learners' performance had detrimental effects on the learners' self-concept of ability, learning motivation and test anxiety. This has led many researchers to conclude that self-concept, a personality variable, was a mediator, correlate and predictor of academic achievement. (Pinxten, De Fraine, Van Damme and D'Haenens, 2010; Marsh and O'Mara, 2008). In view of the above, academic achievement may not be simply a reflection of the learners' abilities but their self-concept of ability. Research on 365 Australian adolescents confirmed that more serious delinquent behaviours were associated with their self-concepts (Levy, 1997)

2.3 Parenting styles and adolescents' self-concept

Positive family communication is important in helpingadolescents maintain a positive self-concept and high self-esteem (Lau and kwok, 2000), perceived dysfunctional parental rearing (particularly rejection and overprotection) and insecure attachments were associated with a negative self-concept and more mental health problems, in support of previous Western studies where perceived parenting as psychologically controlling and restrictive were associated with more emotional/behavioral problems, negative self-concept. (Nishikawa, Sundbom and Haaggloo, 2010). A study conducted by Tayebe, Karim and Keyvan, (2014) showed a positive significant relationship between self-concept and authoritative parenting style and indulgent parenting style exists, where a negative relationship between self-concept and authoritarian parenting style exists.

Research with children in America and other places found that children with high self-concepts came from families where parents themselves had similar self-concepts, and treated children as responsible individuals. Such parents were more accepting, more affectionate and positive towards their children. They were interested in their children and showed it. Parents set and applied firm limits to their children's behaviour consistently.

This applied to the schoolsetting as well. Academic achievement was found to have a significant relationship with self-concept (Trautwein et al., 2006; Tracy, 2007 in Ahmed et al., 2010) and that the home environment influenced self-concept in one way or another. (Kaur et al., 2009). Ochoa, Lopez, and Emler (2007) found a link between open communication between parents and adolescents' positive family self-concept, which in turnrelated to a positive academic self-concept. Ho and Jennifer, 2008 according to their findings a better self-concept is correlated with enhanced family functioning. A study by Brown, Mangelsdorf, Neff, Schopper-Sullivan and Frosch, (2009) on 50 European American children together with their parents from middle class families confirmed both direct and interactive influences of family dynamics on adolescents' self –concept development. Nasir, Zamani, Khairudin and Wan shahrazd (2011) conducted a research among some juvenile deliquents in Malaysia with result indicating a positive correlation between family functioning and self -concept.

2.4 Self - Esteem

Self-esteem has long been considered an essential component of good health. The self-esteem is a notion in relation with the self-image and self-conscience concepts. There are various efforts to define self-esteem, most of them conceding that it represents the way in which each person assesses oneself in relation to the group the individual belong to, the value ascribed to oneself, the positive or negative attitude towards oneself as well as the level of satisfaction that a person has with oneself (Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger and Vohs, 2003; Mogonea, 2010). The concept of self-esteem was constructed by William James (1890), a western psychologist and sociologist. The term self-esteem comes from a Greek word meaning "reverence for self." The "self" part of self-esteem pertains to the values, beliefs and attitudes that we hold about ourselves. The "esteem" part of self-esteem describes the value and worth that one gives oneself. Simplistically self-esteem is the acceptance of us for whom and what we are at any given time in our lives (Akanksha and Mamta, 2013). Some authors separate between trait self-esteem – this being a value stable in time, as it is a part of the personality and the state self-esteem, which is much more labile – being affected and influenced by events, situations, emotions (Gilovich, Keltner and Nisbett, 2006; Lightfoot, Cole and Cole, 2009; Driscoll, 2013).

Self-esteem can be broadly explained as an overall appraisal, or an attitude of a person towards himself or herself (Pyszczynski, Greenberg, Solomon, Arndt and Schimel, 2004), it is important because of its role in healthy human development, it is critical determinant of a personality and positive correlations exists between self-esteem and many other attributes that bear directly on person's capacity for satisfaction and for achievements (Branden, 2010 ; Driscoll, 2013). The types of self-esteem include: high and low / inflated self-esteem (Easy, 2011). High self-esteem refers to a highly favourable global evaluation of self, while low self-esteem refers to unfavourable definition of the self. Portia, noted that adolescent with low self-esteem are often depressed, and paranoid. They are more likely to experience social anxiety and low levels of interpersonal confidence (Portia, 2010). Individuals operating within the high / normal range are thought to be more socially dominant within relationships (Chinawa et al., 2015). This social dominancy simply means that adolescents on middle level on the self-esteem scale are comprised of mixed personality characteristics, some of which can be more positive than others (McLeod, 2012).

2.4.1 Development of self-esteem

Self-esteem is formed by social comparison (reporting permanent and unconscious to significant person in our life) and feed-back received from the others regarding positive or negative appreciations to our qualities and performance (Dobrescu, 2013). The formation of self-esteem implies a long process, being correlated with the formation of one's self-image and self-conscience, the environment in which the child develops has deeply associated with the child's development of self-esteem (Hosogi, Okada, Fuji, Noguchi and Watanabe, 2012) and supportive parenting style can improve the individual's self-esteem (Yang and Liang, 2008). The individual's perception of supportiveness predicted higher level of implicit self-esteem (Antonopoulou, Alexopoulos, and Maridaki- Kassotaki, 2012). There is a growing body of longitudinal studies that have tracked the self-esteem trajectory during critical developmental periods such as adolescence (Birkeland, Melkevik, Holsen, and Wold, 2012; Erol and Orth, 2011; Kuzucu, Bontempo, Hofer, Stallings, and Piccinin, 2013; Morin, Maiano, Marsh, Nagengast, and Janosz, 2013; Steiger, Allemand, Robins, and Fend, 2014), young adulthood (Chung et al, 2014;

Wagner, Lang, Neyer, and Wagner, 2014; Wagner, Lüdtke, Jonkmann, and Trautwein, 2013; Zeiders, Umaña-Taylor, and Derlan, 2013) and old age (Wagner, Gerstorf, Hoppmann, and Luszcz, 2013; Wagner et al., 2014). Reese (1997) argues that self-esteem is relatively high in childhood, drops during adolescence due to the psycho-somatic changes (particularly for girls), rises gradually throughout adulthood, and then declines sharply in old age, as a consequence of the change in status, retirement and the change in tasks and responsibilities (Orth, Trzesniewski and Robins, 2010). Overall, the results of these studies have been consistent they show increases from adolescence to midlife and then decreases into old age (Orth, Robins and Widaman, 2012). Self-esteem becomes progressively less contingent, exhibiting fewer short-term fluctuations, as people go through their adolescent and adult years (Meier, Orth, Denissen, and Kühnel, 2011).

2.4.2 Adolescents' Self-esteem

The period of adolescence is important for the process of self-esteem formation. The formation of self-esteem can be stimulated, encourages both by parents and teachers. The level of self-esteem is mirrored in the adolescent's attitude and behaviour, both at home and at school. Hence, according to Lavoie (2012) adolescents with a high level of self-esteem have the following characteristics ; they are capable of influencing positively the opinion and behaviour of others; they tackle new situations positively and confidently; they have a high level of tolerance towards frustration; they accept easily responsibilities; they assess correctly situations; they communicate positive feelings about themselves; they succeed in having a good self-control and the belief that the things they are undergoing are the result of their own behaviour and actions. Self-esteem was noted to decline during adolescence especially in females. This could be attributed to decline in body image and other problems associated with puberty. Although males and females report similar levels of self-esteem during childhood, a gender gap emerges by adolescence, in that adolescent males have higher self-esteem than their female counterpart. Self-esteem tends to improve as adolescents gets older, it tends to gradually increase and becomes more positive as freedom, personal authority, and role-taking ability increase and more opportunities to behave in socially appropriate ways are available,

when looking simply at the adolescent stage, results mostly show a general increase in self-esteem throughout adolescence (Orth, Robins and Widaman, 2012).

Huurre (2000) found that self-esteem tend to be higher in adolescents who have higher levels of social support from family and peers. Budd, Buschman and Esch (2009); Teoh and Nur (2010) also found a strong relationship between self- esteem and social support. Moreover, Tam, Lee, Har and Pook (2011) discovered a positive correlation between perceived social support and self-esteem with perceived peer support as highest form of perceived social support in adolescents. Family is considered important because relationship with family is considered to have an important source of influence on self-esteem and life satisfaction of both males and females (Helsen, Vollebergh, Meeus, 2000). During adolescence, family especially the parents make up an important source of support and helps in development of important aspects of personality (Wall, Covell and Macintyre, 1999). According to Erikson (1965), the adolescent years are crucial for identity formation. It is during these years that individuals experiment in life in order to gain autonomy and form their identity. This period is especially important for the development of self-esteem which may have significant consequences for life outcomes throughout the life span of the adolescents (Impett, Sorsoli, Schooler and Henson, 2008; Neff, 2009). Tajbakhsh and Rousta (2012) found family support to be strongly affecting self-esteem closely followed by peer support and support from significant others. Farzaee (2012) also in her research found a strong relation between self-esteem and three type of social support namely family support, peer support and support from significant others.

2.4.3 Effects of Self - Esteem

Self-esteem has well-known consequences not only on current physical and mental health and health-related behaviour, but also on future health and health-related behaviour during adulthood.(Mann, Hosman and Schaalma, 2004) Self-esteem also plays an important role in what are currently the most frequently used cognitive models of health behaviour, such as the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), (Ajzen, 1991) the Attitude-Social influence-self-Efficacy (ASE) model,(De Vries and Mudde, 1998) the Theory of Triadic Influence (TTI) (Flay and Petraitis, 1994) and the Precede-Proceed model (Green and Kreuter, 1999). Mental health has been reported to be associated with self-esteem in the past. Self-

esteem has been also reported to be related to eating disorders (Stice, Presnell and Spangler, 2002). Also, Chang and Mackenzie, (1998) found that the level of self-esteem was a consistent factor in the prediction of the functional outcome of a patient after a stroke.

Research of self-esteem in adolescence and adults has shown the importance of unstable self-esteem in terms of social-emotional functioning. Unstable self-esteem is negatively viewed and Oosterwegel et al. (2001) in their research, argued that an unstable self-esteem is an important predictor for internalizing and externalizing problems. Furthermore, they also found that self-esteem variability interacts with self-esteem in the prediction of depression. Self-esteem was most predictive of depression for persons high in self-esteem variability. According to them it seems reasonable to conclude from these and earlier findings that individuals may be vulnerable to depressive tendencies as a result of high variability in and low levels of, self-esteem, Low self-esteem predicted substance use in adolescence (Wu, Wong, Shek, and Loke, 2014). Adolescents with low self-esteem engaged in substance use as a way to cope with negative feelings and escape from stressors. Some studies contradicted these findings and noted an insignificant association between low self-esteem and the specified risk behaviours (Tiggemann, 2005).The inconsistencies across various studies maybe due to variations in demographic groups, culture, and definitions of self-esteem.

There were aspects of self-esteem that people were unwilling or unable to report (Buhrmester, Blanton and Swann, 2011). The perspectives towards the concept of self-esteem and substance use might be varied in adolescents of differing cultural backgrounds and gender (Wu et al., 2014). In this connection, they proposed that levels of self-esteem among adolescents should be measured using a multidimensional approach with the intent to examine relationships between specific factors of self-esteem and particular risk behaviours among adolescents. Currently, the concept of multidimensional self- esteem has been widely applied on different risk behaviours such as bullying (Houbre, Tarquinio and Lanfranchi, 2010 ; Brighi, Guarini, Melotti, Galli, Genta, 2012), suicide etc. (Gothe, Mullen, Wójcicki, Mailey, White, Olson, Szabo, Kramer and McAuley, 2011). Wild, Flisher, Bhana and Lombard in 2004 using the multidimensional Self-Esteem Questionnaire (SEQ) for identifying the association of different risk behaviours (including

substance use) showed that most of the self-esteem subscale scores were associated with substance use. Particularly, peer, school, and family self- esteem were related to smoking of both genders, while sports and body self-esteem were associated with male and female smoking respectively. For the case of alcohol use, peer, school, and family self-esteem were related to female alcohol use, whereas only family self-esteem was related to male alcohol use. The result of drug use was least promising, as school and body self-esteem were related to female drug use, whereas no self-esteem sub-score was associated with male drug use. Alternatively, Barlow and Woods in 2009 also mentioned that the inconclusive results of the association between self-esteem and smoking could be the result of researchers using different definitions of self-esteem to identify the relationships between one-dimensional self-esteem and smoking, but smoking may only associated with specific type of self-esteem. Hence, they investigated the relationships between multi-dimensional self-esteem and smoking among young people by using a multi-dimensional self- esteem scale with six dimensions (i.e. scholastic competence, social acceptance, athletic competence, physical appearance, behavioural conduct, and global self-worth). Their results showed that smoking was generally associated with low self-esteem.

2.5 Parenting Styles and Adolescents' Self-Esteem

Various researches show that there is a link between self-esteem and parenting styles of the parents. A study by Shahimi, Heaven and Ciarrochi, 2013 found authoritativeness perception to have a significant positive effect on self-esteem, a significant negative correlation between authoritarian style and self-esteem is congruent with previous research, which reported low self-confidence, self-worth and self-esteem in children from authoritarian families (Heaven and Ciarrochi, 2008). Permissive perception of parental style showed no significant effect on self – esteem, these results are corresponded with previous research, which reported no significant relationship with the permissive parental style and low self-esteem in children. Another study by Mwihaki, (2013) revealed a significant positive relationship between Authoritative mother and father and self-esteem. Authoritarian Mothers had a significant negative relationship with adolescents' self-esteem; however, there was no significant relationship with the father. Significant positive relationship was also found between uninvolved father and the adolescents self-esteem

however no significant relationship for the uninvolved mother and self-esteem. There was a negative impact on adolescents with uninvolved fathers however no significance with uninvolved mothers. There was no significant relationship found between permissive mother and father and adolescents levels of self-esteem. Result of study conducted by Akinsola (2013) showed that adolescents brought up under authoritative parenting style reported the highest level of self-esteem when compared to other parenting styles.

Studies have revealed that parenting styles are correlated with adolescents' self-esteem, drug and alcohol use, delinquency and academic performance (Tam, Chong, Kadirvelu, and Khoo, 2012). There is also a correlation between self- esteem and the type of family where the child grows: single parent or divorced parents, families with different socio- economic status. Rosenberg and Adams (2009) argues that adolescents living in single parent families have better adaptation skills which make possible to keep a high self-esteem. Coopersmith and Adams (2009) noticed that boys with high self-esteem perceived their parents as warm, helpful, loving and forgiving. Atmosphere from home assumed tolerance, understanding, clear rules and fair punishments, respect between teens and parents, less hostility. Boys with low self-esteem were raised by permissive parents, careless or authoritarian ones. Heaven and Ciarrochi (2008) probed about the relationship of parenting styles and self-esteem with academic performance. The finding suggests that Authoritarian parenting style was related to low self-esteem whereas authoritative parenting style was related with high hope. Children and adolescents with authoritative parents are more social and instrumentally competent as contrast the children with non-authoritative parents (Chamorro-Premuzic et al., 2010; Richardson, Abraham, and Bond, 2012).

Booth and Gerard (2011) probed the relationship of self-esteem and academic achievement of adolescent in England. The studies concluded low levels of self-esteem among the children such as that effective parent develop Academic Home Climates. The proximal processes Chinese adolescent-parent relationships revealed that of the parenting model mediate significantly the adolescents and their parents differ in their perceptions of relationships between family social status and children's parenting style. There appears to be a correlation between certain parenting styles and higher or lower levels of global self-esteem in children (Hosogi et al., 2012). Moreover, previous research has concluded

specific qualities of a parent can lead to higher levels of self-esteem. The quality of supportiveness as perceived by the child predicted higher levels of implicit self-esteem in a study conducted by Antonopoulou, Alexopoulos and Maridaki- Kassotaki (2012).

Chen and colleagues conducted a research to examine the association between parenting styles and students' adjustment. They discovered authoritarian parenting had positive relationship with students' aggressive behaviours and negative relationships with students' social competency and academic achievement. Years later, Ang in 2006 conducted a study and found authoritative father encourage adolescents' self-reliance in coping, problem-solving and perseverance in academic challenges. Studies demonstrated authoritarianism was not universally correlated with negative outcomes in children and adolescents.

Martinez and Garcia (2007) explored the relationship between parenting styles and self-esteem among 13 to 16-yr.-old Spanishadolescents, Teenagers' parents were classified into 1 of 4 groups (Authoritative, Authoritarian, Indulgent, or Neglectful) based on adolescents' answers to the ESPA29 Parental Socialization Scale. Adolescents from Indulgent families scored higher than adolescents from Authoritarian and Neglectful families in four Self-esteem dimensions, Academic, Social, Family, and Physical. Adolescents from Authoritative families scored higher than adolescents from Authoritarian and Neglectful families in three Self-esteem dimensions, Academic, Social, and Family. These results with some previous studies suggested that Authoritative parenting is not associated with optimum self-esteem in Spain. Oliver and Paull in 1995 examined associations among self-esteem and self-efficacy; perceived unfavourable Parental Rearing Style (perceived PRS) and unfavourable family climate in the family of origin; and depression in undergraduates still in frequent contact with their families Unfavourable perceived PRS and family climate were construed as "affectionless control," in which parents and family provide little affection, but excessive control. Constructs were measured by the Self-Esteem Inventory, the Self-Efficacy Scale, the Child Report of Parental Behaviour Inventory, the Family Environment Scale, and the Beck Inventory. Perceived "affectionless control" in both PRS and family climate accounted for about 13% of the variance in self-esteem, self-efficacy, and depression. Neither introversion nor depression mediated the relation between family socialization and self-esteem.Research

conducted by Yamawaki, Nelson and Omori, 2010 using Japanese college students suggested that warm and caring parenting practices in a child's youth may be a universally crucial factor for individuals' psychological well-being later in life. The study results suggested that poor parenting, such as low parental care and warmth, was significantly associated with low self-esteem and life-satisfaction, which may lead to poor psychological well-being. A study by Lue, Wu and Yen, (2010) also showed that perceived criticism from parents, which is rather contradictory to warm and caring parenting, directly contributed to high levels of young adults' depression and was related indirectly to their antisocial behaviour. These two studies demonstrated the effect of poor parenting style on young adults' psychological well-being and more severe forms of psychological problems, such as depression and antisocial behaviour.

2.6 Factors Influencing Adolescent Self – Esteem and Self - concept

It is essential to look at possible confounding variables affecting self-esteem and self - concept during adolescence, these two variables though different are affected by similar factors. Factors of mass mediated messages, messages from peers, and messages from family members all are having some influence on self-esteem and self-concept of adolescents.

2.6.1 Family Influence

Family and peers play a major role in the development of an adolescent's self-esteem. The family in particular, as the primary environment at this period of life, provides an important background for developing and creating the initial sense of oneself. Previous studies have found a positive relationship between supporting family relationships and self-esteem (Smetana, Crean and Daddis, 2002). On the other hand, a lack of support or a dysfunctional family environment has been described as a contributor to maladjustment, behavioural problems and drug abuse,In addition, support from peer groups and significant others, like teachers, could positively or negatively influence the development of one's self-esteem.

Although families can provide more stability for an adolescent, the uniqueness of each individual and the uniqueness of each family cannot be discounted as a factor of temporary damage to self-concept and the temporary diminishing of self-esteem

(Shimkowski and Schrodt, 2012). Throughout the continuous changes that occur regarding self-concept, the influences that family members have may be so prevalent to a child because family relationships are less likely to be dissolved like peer relationships (Dailey, 2009). Just as with relationships among peers, adolescents are affected by confirmation and challenges from family members. Once again, these messages of confirmation and challenges are verbal and nonverbal, although the significance of whether the messages are communicated verbally or non-verbally is relatively unknown. In regards to the messages communicated by parents, the messages from mothers affect different factors of a child's self-concept than the messages communicated by fathers (Dailey, 2009).

Dailey (2009) study suggests that challenges from the mother have significant effects on the self-esteem of a late adolescent, with confirmations from the father having a greater influence on the personality of an adolescent. Still, the confirmation of the father does have a significant influence on the self-esteem of the child, but the father's confirmation holds greater weight during the earlier stages of adolescents. This then offers an explanation for this change in importance from father in earlier adolescence to the growing importance of challenges offered by the mother during the latter part of adolescence. This suggestion made by Dailey (2009) as to why the father's confirmation is more influential during the earlier stage of adolescence is the idea that fathers are not expected to be the primary nurturer of children, and therefore, the messages of confirmation communicated by the father are held with more weight because they are less expected. In another study conducted by Dailey (2010), he suggested that fathers who are perceived as warm, attentive, and affectionate may be the primary factor in developing a child's autonomy and individuality. Mothers on the other hand, seem to have a significant factor on self-esteem through challenging their children. The challenges act as a way of pushing adolescents as a way of achieving a greater sense of self. This role of challenger is also generally unexpected by the children. In another study conducted by Schrodt, Ledbetter, and Ohrt (2007), it is suggested that mothers who seem unconditionally affectionate towards their children cause a reduction of stress and increase of self-esteem within their children. This claim is difficult to support with empirical data, however, because the mother is typically the parent who supplies the children with the higher level of affection.

2.6.2 Peer Influence

The primary factor of peer communication seems to have the greatest influence on temporary fluctuations of the self-esteem of an adolescent (Krcmar, Giles and Helme, 2008). This indicates that the perceived level of acceptance by peers has a significant level of importance to a child. During the reconstruction of the self-concept during the adolescent time period, children are prone to experiment with activities to achieve not only attention, but also acceptance by peer groups (Greene and Banerjee, 2008). The social acceptance of a child is crucial during the adolescent time period. When a child believes social acceptance has occurred, a number of positive effects transpire.

Rill, Baioccchi, Hopper, Denker, and Olson (2009) suggested that perceived commitment from romantic partners or within interpersonal relationships results in the experience of greater level of self-esteem and also an increased level of commitment towards the other individual or individuals. As perceived commitment and acceptance was increased, so was self-esteem. This increase in self-esteem lead the adolescents to create temporarily-stable self-concepts based on romantic partners or interpersonal relationships. All adolescents desire to fulfill the criteria peer groups have constructed to achieve social acceptance (Krcmar, Giles and Helme, 2008). These constructed social norms are reinforced over time by the behaviours of those who are within the peer group. Even if the child is not violating aspects of the social norms, many adolescents have self-esteem levels that are so fragile that they may think they are outside the acceptable boundaries of behaviour when a member of the peer group simply mentions some criteria of the social norm.

Example to illustrate this concept is the self-images adolescent girls have regarding their weights and physical body images (Krcmar, Giles and Helme, 2008). Even though a girl has a socially accepted physical appearance, her self-esteem may be so miniscule that the mentioning of body images could cause her to feel insecure, targeted, or unaccepted by the peer group. Just as acceptance by peers can dramatically increase self-esteem and stabilize self-concept, rejection by peers can be devastating to self-esteem and cause the self-concept to be shattered (Matsunaga, 2011).

2.6.3 Mass Media

The adolescent period is a difficult period when the self-esteem and self-concept of an individual is particularly susceptible to being damaged, or at least challenged. The effects of mass mediated social influences are linked to a lowering of self-esteem. Due to the lowered sense of self-esteem, adolescents look to the external world, including people and possessions, for an increase of self-esteem and the reconstruction of their self-images (Chaplin and John, 2007). A study conducted among 553 participants in Europe and North America revealed that intense personal celebrity worship have positive and negative effects regarding adolescent self – esteem and self-concept.

2.6.4   Education

One variable that was found to have an important effect is educational level. It was found that as educational level increases so do level of self-esteem (Hallsten, Rudman, and Gustavsson, 2012). Also, another study though in Uganda had observed also that education increased girls' knowledge, self-confidence and self-esteem (Fawe, 2000).

2.6.5   Gender

Previous research on gender differences in self-esteem and self-concept suggests that male adolescents have higher self-esteem and positive self-concept than female adolescents do (Moksnes, Moljord, Espnes, and Byrne, 2010; Frances and Martin, 2000), several studies reported higher self-esteem for men in young adulthood although in some studies the gender difference was small (Orth et al., 2010). Also, Joshi and Srivastava (2009) investigated the self-esteem and academic achievement of 200 urban and 200 rural adolescents, and the gender differences in self-esteem and academic achievement in Varnasi district. Boys scored significantly higher on self-esteem as compared to girls and there were also significant gender differences in academic achievement.Kalyani and Anita, (2004) reported no significant gender difference in self-concept of boys and girls but the mean scores indicated that girls had high self-concept than boys.

2.6.6   Socio-economic status

Previous studies also show socio-economic status to be significantly related to self-esteem. In general, those with higher socio-economic status report higher self-esteem than

those with lower socio-economic status (Rhodes, Roffman and Reddy, 2004). According to Birndorf, Ryan and Auinger, (2005) among socio-economic factors, family income seems to be mostrelated to self-esteem among adolescents and this is reflected in adolescent's school type, Zhai Hongchang and other researchers (2000) found that type of school would exert significant influence to adolescents' self-worth. Wang (2000) suggests that although the self-worth of middle and high school students does not differ in gender, there was a remarkable difference in terms of the type of their school. Kalyani and Anita, (2004) investigated the self-concept of adolescents in urban and rural areas. The findings indicated that there was no significant difference with regard to the self-concept of urban and rural adolescents. However, It was noticed that self-concept of urban students was greater than the rural adolescents.

2.6.7 Ethnicity

Available evidence suggests that Africans have higher self-esteem than Caucasians do during adolescence and young adulthood (Bachman, O'Malley, Freedman-Doan, Trzesniewski, and Donnellan, 2010). However, there are conflicting findings regarding the self-esteem of Hispanics. Some studies reported that Caucasians have higher self-esteem than Hispanics during adolescence and young adulthood (Bachman, O'Malley, Freedman-Doan, Trzesniewski, and Donnellan, 2010). Also, the trajectory of African Americans (compared with Americans of European descent) increased more sharply during adolescence and young adulthood (Erol and Orth, 2011). Yanping and Thomas (2007) examined the effects of culture on the children's self-esteem among Chinese and Western children. The results of their study indicated that the self-esteem diagram is different for Chinese and Western children. It can be concluded from their results that the approaches used for improving and promoting child's self-esteem are different based on different cultures.

2.7 Theoretical Framework

The framework that was used for this study is Bandura's social learning theory which lays emphasis on the importance of observing and modelling the behaviours, attitudes and

emotional reactions of others. Bandura (1977) noted that most human behaviour is learned observational through modelling. By observing others one forms an idea of how new behaviours are performed and on later occasions, this coded information serves as a guide for action. Social learning theory, according to Bandura (1977) human behaviour comes in terms of continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioural and environmental influences. Bandura's social theory highlighted that children can model the behaviour of parents or the behaviour of a delinquent who is able to motivate them one way or the other. He also explains that self-efficacy plays an important role in determining one's capacities to organize and execute courses of action required to produce given attainments. It influences the choices people make, courses of action they pursue, amount of stress and anxiety that one experiences as he or she is involved in the activity. A strong sense of efficacy encourages people to do well in many ways.

Concepts of the Social Cognitive Theory as described by Glanz and Rimer, 2005.

Reciprocal determinism: The dynamic interaction of the person, behaviour and the environment in which the behaviour is performed.

Behavioural capability: the knowledge and skill needed to perform a given behaviour, promoting mastery learning through skills acquisition.

Expectations: anticipated outcomes of a behaviour especially positive outcomes of healthy behaviour

Self –efficacy: the individual's confidence or ability to take action. The step by step approach to behavioural change to ensure success.

Observational learning: behavioural acquisition which occurs as a result of observing and interacting with others.

Reinforcements: responses to a behaviour that increase or decrease the likelihood of occurrence, promote self-initiated rewards and incentive

2.8 Application of the SLT to the current study

In regards to this study, the model can be applied as follow:

Observational learning: these are things adolescent learn from or as a result of interaction with the parents or significant others who play a major role and serve as role model for the adolescents.

Environment: The type of parenting style used by parent at home, type of school, media and peer influence and type of school is also significant in determining the level of self-esteemof the adolescents, an adolescent is in need of his family's support to acquire confidence and develop identity.

Self-efficacy: the age of the adolescent, the class and the level of personal confidence of the adolescent (values and value clarification) include some of the factors which would influence the level of self-esteem of the adolescent.

Value Expectation: Adolescents are sensitive; they want to be accepted by both parents, peers and communities at large,

Behaviour: Adolescents begin to exhibit attributes/ behaviours of adolescent with low or high self esteem, positive or negative self-concept (See figure 2.1).

Fig 2.1.Diagram illustrating social learning theory concept

> **Environment**Parenting style, type of family, peer influence, education, type of school etc

Observational learning		**Value expectations**
From parents, friends, teachers, role models, siblings, neighbours		Acceptance and recognition by peers, parents and society

PersonAge, level of education / class, sex, culture, socio economic status etc ←→ **Behaviour**Exhibition of attributes of low or high self – esteem, positive or negative self-concept

Self-efficacy Adolescent may see themselves as very capable in some areas but not in others.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter outlines the methodology and procedures that was used to obtain the research data. The study setting, study design, study population, sample and sampling procedure, data collection procedure, data analysis and ethical consideration are all described in the chapter.

3.1 Research design

A cross sectional descriptive quantitative design was used in this study. The variables in the study were self-esteem, self-concept (dependent) and the independent variable was perceived parental styles (memories of the adolescent's upbringing which includes parenting style and discipline as they were growing up until their current age).

3.2 Study area

Ibadan-north local government is one of the 33 Local Government Areas (LGA) we have in Oyo state, Ibadan, Oyo State, Nigeria. The total population of Ibadan-north is 308,119 with population of adolescent (12 – 19 years) being 60, 570 (National population Census, 2006). Ibadan – north local government consist of 12 wards with its headquarters located at Agodi, Gate Ibadan. The inhabitants of Ibadan- north local government consist of multi-ethnic nationalities predominantly dominated by Yoruba. The LGA houses several educational institutions such as the premiere University of Ibadan, University College hospital (UCH), the Polytechnic Ibadan. There are a total number of 83 secondary schools, 36 public/ government schools and 47 registered private schools, this educational characteristics places Ibadan-North Local Government at advantage over every other local government areas in Ibadan in the aspect of educational facilities. Also, within the local government are several health centres, Adeoyo Hospital and several other Primary Health Care and Health Posts located in different wards.

3.3 Study population

The study was conducted among senior secondary school students in private and public secondary schools in Ibadan-north local Government area Oyo state.

3.4 Inclusion/exclusion criteria

Adolescents who are currently residing with their biological parents were included in the study while adolescents residing with a single parent or are not residing with their biological parents were excluded.

3.5 Sample size determination

The study sample for this research was calculated using the model used by (Araoye, 2004) which is;

$$N= \frac{z^2pq}{d^2}$$

N- Sample size collected

d- Degree of accuracy, 5%

z- with critical value of 1.96 at 5 % (95% confident interval)

p- The proportion of the target population estimated to have a particular phenomenon of interest in the study, the significant value for p will be assumed to be 50%.

P+q =1

q = 1- P

1-0.05

d = precision limit (limit of error) for the purpose of this study, considering that the students' population is above 10,000; the Cochran's formula is appropriate to be applied here. With a desire of 95% confidence interval for p that is expected to be about 50% (0.50) with a margin of error (d) no more than 0.05

$$N= \frac{z^2pq}{d^2}$$

$$\frac{(1.96)^2 \text{ x } 0.5 \text{ x } (1-0.5)}{(0.05)^2} = 384$$

Sample size is 384.

The sample size was increased to **504** in order to address any possible case of incomplete response.

3.6 Sampling technique

The participants were selected based on a multistage sampling method. The stages are as described below:

Stage 1- The list of all secondary schools in Ibadan-north Local government (IBNLG) was obtained from the Local Education Authority. Simple Stratified sampling was used to divide the 83(eighty –three) registered secondary schools in IBNLG into strata; private and public schools.

Stage 2- Proportionate sampling was used to determine the number of schools to be selected from each stratum: 9 (nine) out of the 36 (Thirty –six) registered public schools and 12 (twelve) out of 47 (forty- seven) registered private schools. A total of twenty – one registered secondary schools (9 private and 12 public schools), which equals 25% of the total registered Secondary schools in IBN LGA, were randomly selected (Table of random numbers) for the study.

Stage 3- One class each was randomly selected from the Senior Secondary School (SS1-SS3) arms within each of the 21 selected schools.

Stage 4- In each of the 21 schools, twenty four pupils, who gave verbal consent and who were currently living with their biological parents, were selected across the SS1-SS3 class groups, making a total of 504 students.

Table 3.1   **List of secondary schools selected for the study**

School category	Name of schools
Private schools	Maverick College, Sango
	Subola Secondary School, Agodi G.R.A

	Royal Gem High School, Ashi- Bodija
	Kingsgate College, Bashorun
	Reliance Int'l High school, Arometa Eleyele
	As.sabbaq College, Bodija
	All soul High School, Old Bodija (Housing)
	Walbrook College, Samonda
	Confex High School, Oke itunu
	Imam Zubair Model High school, Barika Agbowo
	Francis M.College
	Soaring heights, Aare Bodija
Public schools	Abadina Grammar School, U.I
	Anglican Commercial Grammar School, Total Garden
	Bashorun/ojoo High School, Ashi
	Methodist Grammar School, Bodija
	Islamic High School, Basorun
	Immanuel Grammar School, U.I
	Humani Alaga High School, Samonda
	Bishop Onabanjo High School, Bodija
	Oba Akinyele Memorial High School, Idi- ape

3.7 Instrument for data collection

Quantitative data was collected using a semi structured, self-administered questionnaire. The questionnaires used were 'Perceived Parental Authority Questionnaire' (PPAQ) which was adapted from Buri (1991), a self-esteem questionnaire adjusted to the Rosenberg scale (Rosenberg, 1965) and an adapted online self-concept survey questionnaire.

1) Perceived Parental Authority Questionnaire: A 40-item instrument designed to measure perceived parenting styles in terms of authority and disciplinary practices from child's perspective. All items are rated on a 4-points scale 1 (No never) 2(Yes occasionally) 3(Yes often) 4 (Yes always). The 40 items are divided into four subscales: Permissive; Authoritarian; Authoritative; Neglectful. Permissive (P: items 1-10), authoritarian (A: items 11-20), authoritative/flexible (F: items 21-30) and neglectful (N: items 31-40) Ten items in each subscale were summed up and subscale with the highest score indicates the type of parenting adopted. PPAQ was completed by respondents in respect to parenting style of the Father and Mother.

2) Self-Esteem Scale: A scale adjusted to the Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (RSES) as adapted by (Driscoll, 2013), RSES was developed in 1965 and is the most widely-used scale for the measurement of self-esteem and has undergone extensive reliability and validity tests (Robins, Hendin, and Trzesniewski, 2001).This is one of the best-known self-esteem questionnaires that measures the general view of participants about themselves.

3) Self – concept Scale: A scale adapted from an online self – concept questionnaire and relevant literatures was used.

3.8 Validity

Validity of the instrument was ensured through the development of a draft instrument by consulting relevant literature, adopting questions from relevant questionnaires of researches related to the study with the help of the supervisor and subjecting the draft to independent, peer and expert reviews, particularly experts in public health. Observations from the pre-test were used to make necessary corrections for the main study to ensure relevance, appropriateness and adequacy of the items in the instrument.

3.9 Reliability

The questionnaires were pretested among 44 students in Bashorun High School (which represented the public school category) and Best Brain Secondary School (represented the private school category), within Ibadan North- East LGA. Equal numbers of the instrument were pretested in the two categories of schools. The local government has similar characteristics with Ibadan North LGA. The Cronbach's Alpha correlation coefficient of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse the pre-test data and to determine the reliability. A reliability coefficient of 0.82 was obtained. This was interpreted as reliable because the correlation coefficient was greater than the average correlation coefficient of 0.5. Ambiguities or deficiencies observed after the pre-test were corrected prior to the survey.

3.10 Data collection procedure

Data collection took place between July and August, 2015 after the one week training of research assistances. A semi-structured self-administered questionnaire constructed in English and in Yoruba for some students who could not converse properly in English language (Appendix I and II) was used since the respondents were able to read and write but was supervised by the principal investigator and trained research assistants, the questionnaires were completed during class time in the classrooms at school authorities' discretion. Students were informed about the nature of the study and assured of confidentiality and anonymity by the researcher, prior to distribution of the questionnaires. During the process of data collection, the students were asked to communicate any questions or problems they encounter. All administered questionnaires were thoroughly examined for completeness by principal investigator and research assistances after collection. A total of 650 questionnaires were administered to eligible respondents but only 504 questionnaires were correctly filled.

3.11   Data management and analysis

The questionnaire was serially numbered for control and recall purpose. Unique identification code was assigned to each respondent's questionnaire for correct data entry and analysis. The processing of the data included sorting, editing, collection and scoring of questionnaires. A template and coding guide was designed on Statistical Package for

the Social Sciences (SPSS version 20) for computer data entry. The quantitative data was analysed using descriptive statistics and inferential statistics (chi-square and Pearson Correlation coefficient). Information obtained was summarized and presented in Tables and Figures. Self-esteem was scored on a scale of (12 - 30) score ≥ 26 indicates high self-esteem, whereas score ≤ 25 indicates low self-esteem, the scores were categorized this way because most the data gotten from the self-esteem score in this study was skewed to the right. Self-concept was scored on a scale of (3 - 54) score ≤ 37 was rated as negative and > 38 was rated as positive self-concept respectively, based on the standard deviation.

3.12 Ethical issues

Ethical approval for this study was obtained from the Oyo State Ethical Review Committee (Appendix III). Verbal consent was obtained from respondents, teachers and principals. The respondents were informed of their voluntariness to participate also; Students were assured of confidentiality as no form of identifiers was included in the questionnaire. Data collected was used for the purpose of this research and were kept confidential on a password protected computer to avoid unauthorized access; questionnaires serially numbered to avoid missing were stored in a safe place. This study increased the respondents' critical consciousness to their self-esteem as a result of the process of answering the questions.

3.13 Study limitation

The study was carried out among only in-school adolescents' hence caution has to be employed when generalizing to adolescents. The questions of the parental authority questionnaire, though captured the variables that were needed to be studied were a bit lengthy and laborious for the students, a shorter version of questionnaire will be advised for future studies. Also, this research was only based on adolescents' self-report of the perception of their parental styles and not their parents' perception of parenting. Hence, the current result established on adolescents' recalled memory is that it might be influenced by memory biases. Finally, the study was carried out in secondary schools in

one local government, a wider community study including other local governments and a larger sample size will be representative.

<div align="center">

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

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4.0   Respondents' socio- demographics characteristics

A total of 504 students of public and private secondary schools in Ibadan which equals 77.54% response rate were interviewed and the socio-demographic profile of the respondents is presented in Tables 4.1a, 4.1b. Out of the total respondents, slightly more than half, 294 (59.3%) were from public schools and girls (58.4%) were a little more than boys (41.6%). Overall mean age was (14.9±1.5yrs).

More of the respondents 44.4% reported that their father is a professional and mother (65.1%) is self-employed. More than half of respondents' fathers (58.5%) and mothers' (56.4%) were reported to have a tertiary education as the highest level of education ,only 1.4% (7) of fathers were reported not to have any formal education compared to mothers 2.2% (11). Majority of the respondents reported their fathers (84.3%) and mothers (83.3%) were Yoruba (Table 4.1b).

Majority of respondents 285 (60.6%) were from small sized families, 33.0% from medium sized families and 6.4% from large families with the highest number of siblings reported being 16 (Table 4.1a). More than half of the respondents reported tertiary level of education as the highest level of education attained by both father 288 (58.5%) and mother 277 (56.4%). (Table 4.1b)

Table 4.1aSocio- demographics characteristics of respondents   (N = 504)

Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)

		Frequency	Percentage
School category	Public	294	59.3
	Private	202	40.7
Gender	Male	209	41.6
	Female	293	58.4
Class	SS1	164	32.6
	SS2	259	51.5
	SS3	80	15.9
Age	Early Adolescence (12-14 yrs)	170	35.4
	Mid Adolescence (15-17 yrs)	294	61.3
	Late Adolescence (18-19 yrs)	16	3.3
No of siblings	Small Sized Family (1-3 siblings)	285	60.6
	Medium Sized Family (4-6 siblings)	155	33.0
	Large Sized Family ($\geq$ 7 siblings)	30	6.4
Father's occupation	Artisans(*mechanic,bricklayer, hairdresser, glasscutter*)	76	15.9
	Professionals(*stockbroker,accountant, medical-practitioner,pharamicist, lecturer,lawyer,architect,civil servant, banker, engineer*)	212	44.4
	Self-employed(*trader,car-dealer, carterer, event planner, enterpreneur*)	185	38.7
	Unemployed *(full time housewife, unemployed)*	5	1.0
Father's level of education	Primary	11	2.2
	Secondary	186	37.8
	Tertiary	288	58.5
	None	7	1.4

Table 4.1b: Socio- demographics characteristics of respondents N = (504)

Variables		**Frequency**	**Percentage (%)**
Mother's occupation	Artisans(*mechanic,bricklayer, hairdresser, glasscutter*)	8	1.7

	Professionals*(stockbroker,accountant, medical-practitioner,pharamicist, lecturer,lawyer,architect,civil servant, banker, engineer)*	146	31.3
	Self-employed*(trader,car-dealer, carterer, event planner, enterpreneur)*	304	65.1
	Unemployed *(full time housewife, unemployed)*	9	1.9
Mother's level of education	Primary	18	3.7
	Secondary	185	37.7
	Tertiary	277	56.4
	None	11	2.2
Father's tribe	Yoruba	425	84.3
	Hausa	11	2.2
	Igbo	34	6.7
	Others *	34	6.7
Mother's tribe	Yoruba	420	83.3
	Hausa	12	2.4
	Igbo	40	7.9
	Others*	32	6.3
Religion	Christianity	342	68.1
	Islam	157	31.3
	Traditional	3	0.6

Others* - Edo, Urhobo, Ibibio, Idoma, French, Gambia, Portuguese, Akwa ibom, Ghanian, Fulani and Efik).

4.1 Perceived parenting styles

Fathers and Mothers in this study were reported to display similar level of parenting style. Very few 29(5.8%), 28(5.6%) of respondents reported parenting style as permissive for both father and mother respectively. Overall, about one-third of respondents reported parenting styles asauthoritative / flexible fathers 183 (36.3%), mothers 196 (38.9%) this

was closely followed by the authoritarian parenting style where 176 (34.9%) was reported for fathers and 165 (32.7%) formothers. However, few of respondents reported parenting styles as neglectful with fathers as 72 (14.3%) and mothers 71 (14.1%). Very few 44 (8.7%) respondents reported that their parents had more than one parenting style for both fathers and mothers.(Figure 4.1a and b) Results showing perceived parenting styles for fathers and mothers, showed that the adolescents rated their parents alike or with very little differences.

About half (49.5%) of respondents perceived their fathers as flexible in the private school catergory, while more (72.9%)of respondents perceived their fathers as neglectful in the public school catergory. Also, about half (49.0%) of respondents in the private school catergory perceived their mothers as flexible, while more (82.1%) of respondents in the public school catergory perceieved their mothers as permissive (Table 4.2).

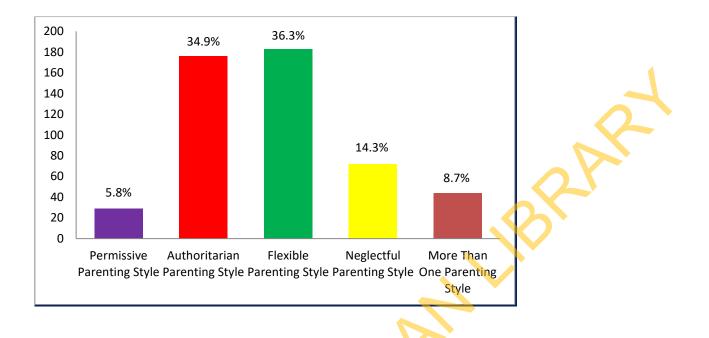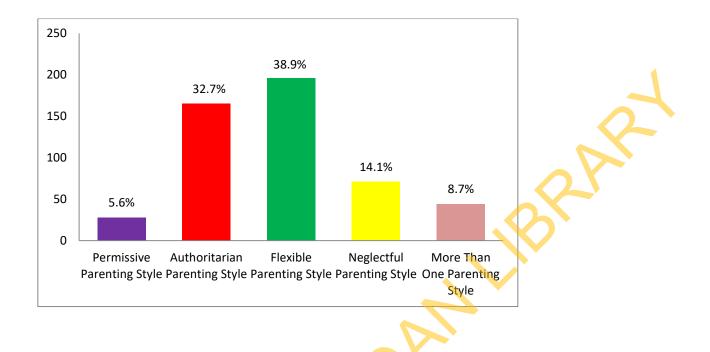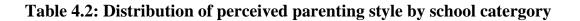**Figure 4.1: Perceived fathers' parenting style**

Figure 4.2: Perceived mothers' parenting style

Table 4.2: Distribution of perceived parenting style by school catergory

(N =496)

Perceived parenting style	Public (%)	Private (%)	Total (%)
Father Permissive	21 (75.0)	7 (25.0)	28 (100.0)
Authoritarian	99 (57.2)	74 (42.8)	173 (100.0)
Flexible	92 (50.5)	90 (49.5)	182 (100.0)
Neglectful	51 (72.9)	19 (27.1)	70 (100.0)
More than one	31 (72.1)	12 (27.9)	43 (100.0)
Mother Permissive	23 (82.1)	5 (17.9)	28 (100.0)
Authoritarian	95 (57.9)	69 (42.1)	104 (100.0)
Flexible	98 (51.0)	94 (49.0)	192 (100.0)
Neglectful	50 (72.5)	19 (27.5)	69 (100.0)
More than one	28 (65.1)	15 (34.9)	43 (100.0)

Table 4.3a: Perceived fathers' parenting style

As I was growing up, my father	No Never (%)	Yes Occasionally	Yes Often (%)	Yes Always

	(%)		(%)
Felt that in a well-run home the children should have their way in the family as often as the parents do	158 (31.5)	175 (34.9)	94 (18.8)	74 (14.8)
Felt that what their children need is to be free to make up their own minds and to do what they want to do, even if this does not agree with what their parents might want	224 (44.4)	141 (28.0)	62 (12.3)	77 (15.3)
Did not feel that I needed to obey rules and regulations of behaviour simply because someone in authority had established them	339 (67.3)	49 (9.7)	48 (9.5)	68 (13.5)
Seldom gave me expectations and guidelines for my behaviour	77 (15.4)	83 (16.6)	96 (19.2)	245 (48.9)
Did what the children in the family wanted when making family decisions most of the time	76 (15.2)	154 (30.8)	122 (24.4)	148 (29.6)
Felt that most problems in society would be solved if parents would not restrict their children's activities, decisions, and desires while growing up	182 (36.2)	125 (24.9)	105 (20.9)	91 (18.1)
Allowed me to decide most things for myself without a lot of direction from them	208 (41.4)	145 (28.8)	76 (15.1)	74 (14.7)
Did not view himself as responsible for directing and guiding my behaviour as I was growing up	354 (70.8)	59 (11.8)	38 (7.6)	49 (9.8)
Allowed me to form my own point of view on family matters and they generally allowed me to decide for myself what I was going to do	149 (29.6)	144 (28.6)	109 (21.7)	101 (20.1)
Did not direct the behaviours, activities, and desires of the children in the family	303 (60.4)	75 (14.9)	71 (14.1)	53 (10.6)

Table 4.3b: Perceived fathers' parenting style

As I was growing up, my father	No Never (%)	Yes Occasionally (%)	Yes Often (%)	Yes Always (%)
Even if they children didn't agree with him, he felt that it was for our own good if we were forced to conform to what they thought was right	97 (19.3)	104 (20.7)	110 (21.9)	192 (38.2)
Told me to do something and he expected me to do it immediately without asking any questions	64 (12.7)	110 (21.8)	104 (20.6)	226 (44.8)
Did not allow me to question any decision he had made	175 (34.7)	134 (26.6)	83 (16.5)	112 (22.2)
Felt that more force should be used by parents in order to get their children to behave the way they are supposed to	140 (27.8)	123 (24.5)	86 (17.1)	154 (30.6)
Felt that wise parents should teach their children early just who is boss in the family	121 (24.2)	95 (19.0)	94 (18.8)	191 (38.1)
Would get very upset if I tried to disagree with him	97 (19.3)	126 (25.1)	123 (24.5)	156 (31.1)
Let me know what behaviour he expected of me, and punished me if I didn't meet those expectations	69 (13.7)	130 (25.8)	123 (24.4)	182 (36.1)
Have always felt that most problems in society would be solved if we could get parents to strictly and forcibly deal with their children when they don't do what they are supposed to while growing up	111 (22.1)	121 (24.1)	114 (22.7)	157 (31.2)
Told me exactly what he wanted me to do and how he expected me to do it	69 (13.7)	105 (20.9)	100 (19.9)	229 (45.5)
I knew what he expected of me in the family and they insisted that I conform to those expectations simply out of respect for his authority	67 (13.3)	121 (24.1)	112 (22.3)	202 (40.2)

Table 4.3c: Perceived fathers' parenting style

As I was growing up, my father	No Never (%)	Yes Occasionally (%)	Yes Often (%)	Yes Always (%)
Discussed the reasoning behind the policy with the children in the family Once family policy had been established	105 (20.9)	121 (24.1)	104 (20.7)	173 (34.4)
Encouraged verbal give-and-take whenever I feel that family rules and restrictions were unreasonable	158 (31.6)	131 (26.2)	117 (23.4)	94 (18.8)
Directed the activities and decisions of the children in the family through discipline	65 (12.9)	103 (20.5)	120 (23.9)	214 (42.6)
I knew what he expected of me in my family, but I also felt free to discuss those expectations with my parents when I felt that they were unreasonable	120 (23.9)	124 (24.7)	115 (22.9)	144 (28.6)
Consistently gave us direction and guidance in rational and objective ways	58 (11.5)	83 (16.5)	129 (25.6)	234 (46.4)
Took the children's opinions into consideration when making family decisions, but he would not decide for something simply because the children wanted it	79 (15.7)	139 (27.7)	138 (27.5)	146 (29.1)
Had clear standards of behaviour for the children in our home, but he was willing to adjust those standards to the needs of each of the individual children in the family	84 (16.7)	119 (23.7)	137 (27.2)	163 (32.4)
Gave me direction for my behaviour and activities as I was growing up and he expected me to follow his direction, but always willing to listen to my concerns and to discuss that direction with me	72 (14.3)	97 (19.3)	99 (19.7)	235 (46.7)
Gave me clear direction for my behaviours and activities, but he was also understanding when I disagreed with him	114 (22.6)	131 (26.0)	121 (24.0)	138 (27.4)
Made a decision in the family that hurt me, he was willing to discuss that decision with me and to admit it if he had made a mistake	116 (23.0)	116 (23.0)	135 (26.8)	137 (27.2)
Gave rules to guide the children's' behaviour in and out of the house	54 (10.8)	88 (17.6)	104 (20.8)	255 (50.9)

Table 4.3d: Perceived fathers' parenting style

As I was growing up, my father	No Never (%)	Yes Occasionally (%)	Yes Often (%)	Yes Always (%)
Visited the school to know what I did in school and my school academic performance	112 (22.4)	113 (22.6)	111 (22.2)	165 (32.9)
Seek to monitor or know about the each child's personality and their welfare	77 (15.3)	90 (17.9)	103 (20.5)	232 (46.2)
Left the children with the maid or neighbours even when they were not at work and less busy	314 (62.5)	69 (13.7)	65 (12.9)	54 (10.8)
Allowed the children to go to bed without food	352 (70.1)	55 (11.0)	45 (9.0)	50 (10.0)
Sit to chat and play with the children	158 (31.5)	123 (24.5)	142 (28.3)	79 (15.7)
Seek to know and care about how I feel or what is bothering me	62 (12.4)	107 (21.3)	118 (23.5)	215 (42.8)
Ignored it when the children behaved carelessly or in a bad/wrong way	250 (49.7)	70 (13.9)	70 (13.9)	113 (22.5)
Engaged himself in my interest and hobbies as i was growing up	90 (18.0)	117 (23.4)	122 (24.4)	172 (34.3)
Comforted and encouraged me if things went badly for me	86 (17.1)	88 (17.5)	70 (13.9)	260 (51.6)

Table 4.4a: Perceived mothers' parenting style

As I was growing up, my mother	No Never (%)	Yes Occasionally (%)	Yes Often (%)	Yes Always (%)
Felt that in a well-run home the children should have their way in the family as often as the parents do	147 (29.3)	153 (30.5)	124 (24.7)	78 (15.5)
Felt that what their children need is to be free to make up their own minds and to do what they want to do, even if this does not agree with what their parents want	210 (41.7)	138 (27.4)	92 (18.3)	64 (12.7)
Did not feel that I needed to obey rules and regulations of behaviour simply because someone in authority had established them	328 (65.1)	56 (11.1)	50 (9.9)	70 (13.9)
Seldom gave me expectations and guidelines for my behaviour	75 (15.1)	84 (16.9)	76 (15.3)	263 (52.8)
Did what the children in the family wanted when making family decisions most of the time	82 (16.3)	142 (28.3)	130 (25.9)	148 (29.5)
Felt that most problems in society would be solved if parents would not restrict their children's activities, decisions, and desires while growing up	176 (35.0)	128 (25.4)	101 (20.1)	98 (19.5)
Allowed me to decide most things for myself without a lot of direction from her	211 (42.0)	131 (26.1)	95 (18.9)	65 (12.9)
Did not view herself as responsible for directing and guiding my behaviour as I was growing up	350 (70.0)	64 (12.8)	44 (8.8)	42 (8.4)
Allowed me to form my own point of view on family matters and generally allowed me to decide for myself what I was going to do	138 (27.4)	149 (29.6)	119 (23.7)	97 (19.3)
Did not direct the behaviours, activities, and desires of the children in the family	289 (57.5)	84 (16.7)	70 (13.9)	60 (11.9)
Even if they children didn't agree with her,she felt that it was for our own good if we were forced to conform to what she thought was right	101 (20.1)	101 (20.1)	119 (23.7)	182 (36.2)

Table 4.4b: Perceived mothers' parenting style

As I was growing up, my mother	No Never (%)	Yes Occasionally (%)	Yes Often (%)	Yes Always (%)
Told me to do something and expected me to do it immediately without asking any questions	60 (11.9)	108 (21.4)	108 (21.4)	228 (45.2)
Did not allow me to question any decision she had made	160 (31.9)	127 (25.3)	113 (22.5)	102 (20.3)
Felt that more force should be used by parents in order to get their children to behave the way they are supposed to	130 (25.9)	117 (23.4)	118 (23.6)	136 (27.1)
Felt that wise parents should teach their children early just who is boss in the family	137 (27.5)	106 (21.2)	84(16.8)	172 (34.5)
Would get very upset if I tried to disagree with her	82 (16.4)	139 (27.6)	132 (26.3)	148 (29.5)
Let me know what behaviour they expected of mepunished me if I didn't meet those expectations	59 (11.7)	128 (25.4)	123 (24.5)	193 (38.4)
Felt that most problems in society would be solved if we could get parents to strictly and forcibly deal with their children when they don't do what they are supposed to while growing up	119 (23.7)	110 (21.9)	112 (22.3)	162 (32.2)
Told me exactly what she wanted me to do and how they expected me to do it	58 (11.6)	99 (19.7)	101 (20.1)	244 (48.6)
I knew what she expected of me in the family and she insisted that I conform to those expectations simply out of respect for her authority	78 (15.5)	115 (22.9)	115 (22.9)	194 (38.6)
Discussed the reasoning behind the policy with the children in the family, once family policy had been established	94 (18.7)	111 (22.0)	120 (23.8)	179 (35.5)
Encouraged verbal give-and-take whenever I feel that family rules and restrictions were unreasonable	173 (34.6)	123 (24.6)	108 (21.6)	96 (19.2)
Directed the activities and decisions of the children in the family through discipline	75 (14.9)	96 (19.1)	112 (22.3)	219 (43.6)

Table 4.4c: Perceived mothers' parenting style

As I was growing up, my mother	No Never (%)	Yes Occasionally (%)	Yes Often (%)	Yes Always (%)
I knew what he expected of me in my family, but I also felt free to discuss those expectations with my parents when I felt that they were unreasonable	46 (9.1)	82 (16.3)	113 (22.4)	263 (52.2)
Consistently gave us direction and guidance in rational and objective ways	83 (16.5)	131 (26.0)	137 (27.2)	152 (30.2)
Took the children's opinions into consideration when making family decisions, but they would not decide for something simply because the children wanted it	83 (16.5)	115 (22.9)	140 (27.8)	165 (32.8)
Had clear standards of behaviour for the children in our home as I was growing up, but he was willing to adjust those standards to the needs of each of the individual children in the family	67 (13.3)	99 (19.7)	115 (22.9)	222 (44.1)
Gave me direction for my behaviour and activities as I was growing up and they expected me to follow their direction, but they are always willing to listen to my concerns and to discuss that direction with me	100 (19.9)	125 (24.9)	130 (25.8)	148 (29.4)
Gave me clear direction for my behaviours and activities, but he was also understanding when I disagreed with him	101 (20.1)	126 (25.0)	116 (23.1)	160 (31.8)
Made a decision in the family that hurt me, he was willing to discuss that decision with me and to admit it if he had made a mistake	50 (10.0)	104 (20.7)	104 (20.7)	244 (48.6)
Gave rules to guide the children's' behaviour in and out of the house	74 (14.7)	105 (20.9)	109 (21.7)	215 (42.7)
Visited the school to know what I did in school and my school academic performance	63 (12.5)	97 (19.2)	102 (20.3)	240 (47.8)

Table 4.4d: Perceived mothers' parenting style

As I was growing up, my mother	No Never (%)	Yes Occasionally (%)	Yes Often (%)	Yes Always (%)
Seek to monitor or know about the each child's personality and their welfare	63 (12.5)	97 (19.2)	102 (20.3)	240 (47.8)
Left the children with the maid or neighbours even when she were not at work and less busy	318 (63.3)	67 (13.3)	68 (13.5)	49 (9.8)
Allowed the children to go to bed without food	345 (68.9)	61 (12.2)	44 (8.8)	51 (10.2)
Sit to chat and play with the children	71 (14.2)	110 (22.0)	131 (26.1)	189 (37.7)
Seek to know and care about how I feel or what is bothering me	60 (11.9)	85 (16.9)	99 (19.7)	259 (51.5)
Ignore it when the children behaved carelessly or in a bad/wrong way	243 (48.4)	81 (16.1)	74 (14.7)	104 (20.7)
Engaged herself in my interest and hobbies as i was growing up	76 (15.2)	119 (23.8)	116 (23.2)	190 (37.9)
Comforted and encouraged me if things went badly for me	82 (16.3)	85 (16.9)	76 (15.1)	261 (51.8)

4.2 Self-esteem of respondents

Most (90.0%) of the respondents agree that they feel they have a number of good qualities, majority (88.7%) feel that they are persons of worth, at least as valuable as others. 83.4% reported that they are able to do things as well as most other people and majority (81.4%) reported that they take positive attitude towards themselves. However, 78.9% wish they could have more respect for themselves and 48.6% feel they do not have much to be proud of (Table 4.4a).

Of all the respondents, few (41.2%) had high self-esteem and above average 58.8% had low self-esteem (Figure 4.3). The percentage of male and female who had high self-esteem was 17.5% and 23.7% respectively while percentage of low self-esteem reported among male and female were 24.1% and 34.7% respectively (Table 4.7a). More females 174 (34.7%) had low self-esteem when compared to male 121 (24.1%) but the relationship was not found to be statistically significant (Table 4.7a).

Table 4.5: Responses of participants to questions on self- esteem

Statements	Disagree(%)	Undecided(%)	Agree(%)
I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	31 (6.2)	19 (3.8)	451 (90.0)
I feel that I am a person of worth, at least as valuable as the others.	42 (8.3)	15 (3.0)	446 (88.7)
I am able to do things as well as most other people.	44 (8.8)	39 (7.8)	417 (83.4)
I take a positive attitude toward myself.	57 (11.6)	34 (6.9)	399 (81.4)
I wish I could have more respect for myself	66 (13.3)	40 (8.0)	391 (78.7)
On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	73 (14.5)	41 (8.2)	389 (77.3)
I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	214 (42.6)	44 (8.8)	244 (48.6)
I surely feel useless at times.	319 (63.5)	59 (11.8)	124 (24.7)
I generally tend to think of myself as being a failure.	366 (73.5)	54 (10.8)	78 (15.7)
At times I think I am not good at all.	283 (56.4)	69 (13.7)	150 (29.9)

Figure 4.3: Self-esteem among respondents

4.3 Self – concept of respondents

Almost all (92.0%) of respondents report they have goal or dreams to accomplish, 88.0% reported they liked themselves, 86.7% thought they were talented while 64.9% stated that they take full responsibilities for their actions. However, 64.0% reported that they focused on failures instead of success, 37.9% were concerned about what others say about them also, 37.0% of respondents wants to look different (physically) (Table 4.6).

Majority of the respondents (89.0%) had positive self-concept, out of which 52.2% were females and 36.9% were males. Very few (11.0%) respondents had negative self-concept with 6.2% being females and 4.8% males (Table 4.8a).

Table 4.6: Responses of participants to questions on self- concept

Variables	Yes (%)	Sometimes (%)	No (%)
Like self	425 (88.0)	46 (9.5)	11 (2.3)
Feel lonely most of the time	129 (25.7)	184 (36.7)	188 (37.5)
Want to look different (physically)	185 (37.0)	89 (17.8)	226 (45.2)
Take full responsibility for your actions	323 (64.9)	119 (23.9)	56 (11.2)
Compare yourself to others	185 (36.9)	123 (24.6)	193 (38.5)
Concerned about what others say about yourself	188 (37.9)	162 (32.7)	146 (29.4)
Feel comfortable among group of people	278 (55.6)	161 (32.2)	61 (12.2)
Focus on your failures instead of your successes	318 (64.0)	77 (15.5)	102 (20.5)
Worthy to be loved	401 (80.8)	53 (10.7)	42 (8.5)
Blame others often	199 (40.0)	197 (39.6)	102 (20.5)
Blame yourself often	124 (25.0)	186 (37.5)	186 (37.5)
Confident all the time	244 (49.4)	144 (29.1)	106 (21.5)
Stand up for yourself	391 (78.7)	74 (14.9)	32 (6.4)
You are talented	432 (86.7)	37 (7.4)	29 (5.8)
Goals or dreams to accomplish	457 (92.0)	21 (4.2)	19 (3.8)
Tell the truths to yourself	397 (79.6)	81 (16.2)	21 (4.2)
Capable of handling any situation	204 (40.9)	213 (42.7)	82 (16.4)
Always achieve your goals	349 (70.1)	127 (25.5)	22 (4.4)

4.4 Test of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: There is no relationship between adolescents' socio–demographics characteristics and self -esteem

Chi-square was used to ascertain the statistical relationship among data. The results indicated no significant relationship between respondents' sex, class, age, fathers' and mothers' occupation, mothers' level of education and level of self – esteem. (See Tables 4.7a and b).However, there was a statistical significant relationship between school category (P = 0.002), family size (P = 0.005), fathers' level of education (P = 0.003), mothers' level of education (P = 0.038), fathers' tribe (P = 0.003), mothers' tribe (P = 0.002) and level of self-esteem. (Table 4.7b) Low self-esteem was observed to be more in public school category 189 (38.1%) while almost equal level of high self-esteem was observed in both private 100 (20.2%) and public 105 (21.2%) schools. However, the results were not statistically significant (Table 4.7a).

More respondents from small sized family reported low level of self-esteem 160 (34.0%), Medium 89 (18.9%), Large 26 (5.5%), results show a statistically significant relationship. (Table 4.7a)

Table 4.7a: Relationship between adolescents' socio demographic characteristics and self - esteem

Socio- demographics		Low (%)	High (%)	Total frequency	Chi-square test	Null hypothesis
School category	Public	189 (38.1%)	105 (21.2)	294 (59.3)	$X^2 = 9.391$	
(N=496)	Private	102 (20.6%)	100 (20.1)	202 (40.7)	df = 1	Rejected
					Pvalue = 0.002**	
Gender	Male	121 (24.1)	88 (17.5)	209 (41.6)	$X^2 = 0.112$	
(N=502)	Female	174 (34.7)	119 (23.7)	293 (58.4)	df= 1	Fail
					P value=0..738	to reject
Class	SS1	92 (18.3)	72 (14.3)	164 (32.6)	$X^2 = 1.222$	
(N=503)	SS2	158 (31.4)	101 (20.1)	259 (51.5)	df = 2	Fail
	SS3	45 (8.9)	35 (7.0)	80 (15.9)	P value = 0.543	to reject
Age	12-14 yrs.	94 (19.6)	76 (15.8)	170 (35.4)	$X^2 = 1.354$	
(N=480)	15-17 yrs.	173 (36.1)	121 (25.2)	294 (61.3)	df = 2	Fail
	18-19 yrs.	11 (2.3%)	5 (1.0%)	16 (3.3)	P value = 0.508	to reject
Family size	Small	160 (34.0)	125 (26.6)	285 (60.6)	$X^2 = 10.533^a$	
(N=470)	Medium	89 (18.9)	66 (14.0)	155 (33.0)	df = 2	Rejected
	Large	26 (5.5)	4 (0.9)	30 (6.4)	Pvalue =0.005**	
Parents Occupation						
Father	Unemployed	4 (0.8)	1 (0.2)	5 (1.0)	$X^2 = 8.560$	
(N=478)	Artisans	55 (11.5)	21 (4.4)	76 (15.9)	df = 3	Rejected
	Professionals	122 (25.6)	90 (18.8)	212 (44.4)	Pvalue= 0.036**	
	Self- employed	100 (20.9)	85 (17.8)	185 (38.7)		
Mother	Unemployed	4(0.9)	5 (1.0)	9 (1.9)	$X^2 = 4.879$	
(N=467)	Artisans	5 (1.1)	3 (0.6)	8 (1.7)	df = 3	Fail
	Professionals	74 (15.9)	72 (15.4)	146 (31.3)	P value = 0.181	to reject
	Self- employed	185 (39.6)	119 (25.5)	304 (65.1)		

**Statistically Significant

Table 4.7b: Relationship between adolescents' socio demographics characteristics and self - esteem

Socio- demographics		Low (%)	High (%)	Total frequency	Chi-square test	Null hypothesis
Parents education						
Father	Primary or less	15 (3.0)	3 (0.6)	18 (3.7)	$X^2 = 11.850$	
(N=492)	Secondary	122 (24.8)	64 (13.0)	186 (37.8)	df = 2	Rejected
	Tertiary	153 (31.1)	135 (27.4)	288 (58.5)	Pvalue= 0.003**	
Mother	Primary or less	17 (3.5)	12 (2.4)	29 (5.9)	$X^2 = 6.543$	
(N=491)	Secondary	121 (24.6)	64 (13.0)	185 (37.7)	df = 2	Rejected
	Tertiary	148 (30.1)	129 (26.3)	277 (56.4)	Pvalue= 0.038**	
Parents tribe						
Father	Yoruba	243 (48.2)	182 (36.1)	425 (84.3)	$X^2 = 14.002$	
(N=504)	Hausa	2 (0.4)	9 (1.8)	11 (2.2)	df = 3	Rejected
	Igbo	25 (5.0)	9 (1.8)	34 (6.8)	Pvalue= 0.003**	
	Others*	24 (4.7)	10 (2.0)	34 (6.7)		
Mother	Yoruba	235 (46.6)	185 (36.7)	420 (83.3)	$X^2 = 15.281$	
(N=504)	Hausa	4 (0.8)	8 (1.6)	12 (2.4)	df = 3	Rejected
	Igbo	31 (6.1)	9 (1.8)	40 (7.9)	Pvalue= 0.002**	
	Others*	25 (4.9)	7 (1.4)	32 (6.3)		

Others* - Edo, Urhobo, Ibibio, Idoma, French, Gambia, Portuguese, Akwa ibom, Ghanian, Fulani and Efik)

**Statistically Significant

Hypothesis 2: There is no relationship between adolescents' socio – demographics characteristics and self – concept

Chi square was used to ascertain the statistical relationship among data. The results indicated no statistical relationship between respondents' gender, class, age, fathers' level of education, parents occupation and self-concept (See tables 4.8 a and b). However, there was a statistically significant relationship between family size (P = 0.040), school category (P = 0.000), mothers' tribe (P = 0.000), fathers' tribe (P = 0.000), mothers' level of education (P = 0.000) and self – concept. (Tables 4.8 a and b)

Table 4.8a: Relationship between adolescents' socio–demographics characteristics and self -concept

Socio- demographics		Negative (%)	Positive (%)	Total frequency	Chi-square test	Null hypothesis
School category (**N=496**)	Public	39 (7.9)	255 (51.4)	294 (59.3)	$X^2 = 4.208$	
	Private	15 (3.0)	187 (37.7)	202 (40.7)	df = 1	Rejected
					Pvalue = 0.040**	
Gender (**N=502**)	Male	24 (4.8)	185 (36.9)	209 (41.6)	X^2=0.102	Fail
	Female	31 (6.2)	262 (52.2)	293 (58.4)	df= 1	to reject
					P value=0.749	
Class (**N=503**)	SS1	17 (3.4)	147 (14.3)	164 (32.6)	$X^2 = 0.152$	Fail
	SS2	30 (6.0)	229 (45.5)	259 (51.5)	df = 2	to reject
	SS3	9 (1.8)	71 (14.1)	80 (15.9)	P value = 0.927	
Age (**N=480**)	12-14 yrs.	20 (4.2)	150 (31.2)	170 (35.4)	$X^2 = 1.093$	Fail
	15-17 yrs.	31 (6.5)	263 (54.8)	294 (61.3)	df = 2	to reject
	18-19 yrs.	3 (0.6)	13 (2.7)	16 (3.3)	P value = 0.579	
Family size (**N=470**)	Small	32 (6.8)	253 (53.8)	285 (60.6)	$X^2 = 6.423$	
	Medium	12 (2.6)	143 (30.4)	155 (33.0)	df = 2	Rejected
	Large	7 (1.5)	23 (4.9)	30 (6.4)	Pvalue =0.040**	
Parents Occupation						
Father (**N=478**)	Unemployed	1 (0.2)	4 (0.8)	5 (1.0)	$X^2 = 0.761$	Fail
	Artisans	7 (1.5)	69 (14.4)	76 (15.9)	df = 3	to reject
	Professionals	25 (5.2)	187 (39.1)	212 (44.4)	Pvalue= 0.859	
	Self- employed	21 (4.4)	164 (34.3)	185 (38.7)		
Mother (**N=467**)	Unemployed	2 (0.4)	7 (1.5)	9 (1.9)	$X^2 = 2.247$	Fail
	Artisans	0	8 (1.7)	8 (1.7)	df = 3	to reject
	Professionals	15 (3.2)	131 (28.1)	146 (31.3)	P value = 0.523	
	Self- employed	34 (7.3)	270 (57.8)	304 (65.1)		

Table 4.8b: Relationship between adolescents' socio–demographics characteristics and self -concept

Socio- demographics		Negative (%)	Positive (%)	Total frequency	Chi-square test	Null hypothesis
Parents education						
Father	Primary or less	2 (0.4)	16 (3.3)	18 (3.7)	$X^2 = 2.963$	Fail
(N=492)	Secondary	27 (5.5)	159 (32.3)	186 (37.8)	df = 2	to reject
	Tertiary	27 (5.5)	261 (53.0)	288 (58.5)	Pvalue=0.227	
Mother	Primary or less	2 (0.4)	27 (5.5)	29 (5.9)	$X^2 = 16.543$	
(N=491)	Secondary	34 (6.9)	151 (30.8)	185 (37.7)	df = 2	Rejected
	Tertiary	18 (3.7)	259 (52.7)	277 (56.4)	Pvalue=0.000**	
Parents tribe						
Father	Yoruba	21 (4.2)	404 (80.2)	425 (84.3)	$X^2 = 104.508$	
(N=504)	Others*	35 (6.9)	44 (8.7)	34 (6.7)	df = 1	Rejected
					Pvalue=0.000**	
Mother	Yoruba	0	420 (83.3)	420 (83.3)	$X^2 = 15.281$	
(N=504)	Others*	56 (11.1)	28 (5.6)	84 (16.7)	df = 3	Rejected
					Pvalue=0.000**	

Others* - Edo, Urhobo, Ibibio, Idoma, French, Gambia, Portuguese, Akwa ibom, Ghanian, Fulani and Efik)

**Statistically Significant

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant relationship between parents' socio-demographic characteristics (occupation, level of education) and perceived parenting style

The test for significance between the relationship of the perceived parenting style and parents' level of education was done using chi – square. There is no statistically significant relationship between perceived parenting style and parents level of education. Above average (63.1%) of respondents who reported their fathers' highest level of education as tertiary perceived their father as flexible while 39.8% who reported their fathers' highest level of education as secondary perceived their fathers as authoritarian. However, slightly above average 61.1% of respondents who reported their mothers' highest level of education as tertiary reported their mothers as Flexible and half 50.0% of respondents who reported their mothers' highest level of education as secondary perceived their mothers used more than one parenting style (Table 4.9a).

A non-statistically significant relationship exists between perceived parenting styles and mothers' occupation, while a statistical significant relationship exist in the relationship between perceived parenting styles and fathers' occupation (P = 0.029) (Table 4.9b).

Half (50.0%) of respondents who reported their fathers as professional perceived their fathers as flexible, while more than half (60.5%) of respondents who reported their fathers as self-employed perceived their fathers used more than one parenting style (Table 4.9b).However, more than average (76.0%) ofrespondents who reported their mothers as self-employed perceived their mothers as permissive while (37.2%) and of respondents who reported their mothers as professionals perceived their mothers as flexible (Table 4.9b).

Table 4.9a: Relationship between perceived parenting style and parents level of education

Parenting styles	None (%)	Primary (%)	Secondary (%)	Tertiary (%)	Total frequency	Chi-square test
Father						
Permissive	1 (3.4)	1 (3.4)	13 (44.8)	14 (48.3)	29 (100.0)	
Authoritarian	6 (3.5)	4 (2.3)	68 (39.8)	93 (54.4)	171 (100.0)	X^2 = 13.402
Flexible	0	3 (1.7)	63 (35.2)	113 (63.1)	179 (100.0)	df = 12
Neglectful	0	2 (2.9)	26 (37.1)	42 (60.0)	70 (100.0)	Pvalue=
More than one	0	1 (2.3)	16 (37.2)	26 (60.5)	43 (100.0)	0.340
Total	7(1.4)	11(2.2)	186(37.8)	288 (58.5)	492 (100.0)	
Mother						
Permissive	2 (7.4)	0	12 (44.4)	13 (48.1)	27 (100.0)	X^2 = 12.931
Authoritarian	3 (1.9)	5 (3.2)	61 (38.9)	88 (56.1)	157 (100.0)	df = 12
Flexible	3 (1.6)	6 (3.1)	66 (34.2)	118 (61.1)	193 (100.0)	P value =
Neglectful	2 (2.9)	5 (7.1)	24 (34.3)	39 (55.7)	70 (100.0)	0.374
More than one	1 (2.3)	2 (4.5)	22 (50.0)	19 (43.2)	44 (100.0)	
Total	11(2.2)	18(3.7)	185 (37.7)	277(56.4)	491 (100.0)	

P-value = 0.340, 0.374 There was no significant relationship between perceived parenting style and level of education. Fail to reject null hypothesis

Table 4.9b: Relationship between perceived parenting style and parents occupation

Parenting style		Artisans	Un-employed	Self-employed	Professional	Total frequency	Chi-square test
Father	Permissive	6 (23.1)	1 (3.8)	12 (46.2)	7 (26.9)	26 (100.0)	$X^2 = 22.833$
	Authoritarian	30 (18.1)	3 (1.8)	57 (34.3)	76 (45.8)	166 (100.0)	df = 12
	Flexible	20 (11.4)	1 (0.6)	67 (38.1)	88 (50.0)	176 (100.0)	P value =
	Neglectful	13 (19.4)	0	23 (34.3)	31 (46.3)	67 (100.0)	0.029**
	More than one	7 (16.3)	0	26 (60.5)	10 (23.3)	43 (100.0)	
	Total	76 (15.9)	5 (1.0)	185 (38.7)	212 (44.4)	478 (100.0)	
Mother	Permissive	0	0	19 (76.0)	6 (24.0)	25 (100.0)	$X^2 = 12.086$
	Authoritarian	2 (1.3)	4 (2.7)	100 (66.7)	44 (29.3)	150 (100.0)	df = 12
	Flexible	3 (1.6)	2 (1.1)	113 (60.1)	70 (37.2)	188 (100.0)	P value =
	Neglectful	2 (3.1)	3 (4.7)	44 (68.8)	15 (23.4)	64 (100.0)	0.439
	More than one	1 (2.5)	0	28 (70.0)	11 (27.5)	40 (100.0)	
	Total	8 (1.7)	9 (1.9)	304 (65.1)	146 (31.3)	467 (100.0)	

**Statistically Significant

P-value = 0.029 (P< 0.05), there is a significant relationship between perceived parenting style and Fathers' occupation. Hence, null hypothesis is rejected

P value = 0.439, there is no significant relationship between perceived parenting style and Mothers' occupation. Fail to reject null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant relationship between perceived parenting styles and adolescents' self - esteem

The test for significance between the relationship of the parenting style and level of adolescents' self-esteem was done using chi–square (Table 4.10a) and Pearson's correlation coefficient. (Tables 4.10b and c) Results revealed that there is a statistically significant relationship between perceived fathers' parenting style and self-esteem (P = 0.001). The relationship between perceived mothers' parenting style and self - esteem was also found to be statistically significant (P = 0.004). About half (53.6%) ofadolescents who had high self-esteem perceived their fathers as flexible while 69.4% of adolescents who had low self-esteem perceived their fathers as neglectful (Table 4.10a). Also, about half 51.0% of adolescents who had high self-esteem perceived their mothers as flexible while 71.8% of adolescents who had low self-esteem perceived their mothers as neglectful (Table 4.10a).

The results from Pearson correlation coefficient test for perceived fathers' parenting style showed that a positive significant relationship between flexible parenting style and adolescent self-esteem (r = 0.141, P = 0.001). A negative relationship exists between authoritarian, permissive and neglectful parenting style and adolescent self-esteem However, the relationships were not found to be statistically significant when compared with adolescent self – esteem (Table 4.10b). Results for Perceived mothers' parenting style revealed a positive significant relationship between flexible parenting style and self –esteem (r = 0.137, P = 0.001). However, there was no statistical significant relationship between authoritarian, permissive and neglectful parenting styles, the three parenting style show a negative relationship with self – esteem. (Table 4.10c)

Table 4.10a: Relationship between parenting styles and adolescents' self - esteem

Parenting style	Low (%)	High (%)	Total frequency (%)	Chi–square test	Null hypothesis
Father Permissive	19 (65.5)	10 (34.5)	29 (100.0)		
Authoritarian	111 (63.1)	65 (36.9)	176 (100.0)	$X^2 = 18.305$	
Flexible	85 (46.4)	98 (53.6)	183 (100.0)	df = 4	Rejected
Neglectful	50 (69.4)	22 (30.6)	72 (100.0)	Pvalue=0.001**	
More than one	30 (68.2)	14 (31.8)	44 (100.0)		
Mother Permissive	19 (67.9)	9 (32.1)	28 (100.0)		
Authoritarian	99 (60.0)	66 (40.0)	165 (100.0)	$X^2 = 15.380$	
Flexible	96 (49.0)	100 (51.0)	196 (100.0)	df = 4	Rejected
Neglectful	51 (71.8)	20 (28.2)	71 (100.0)	Pvalue=0.004**	
More than one	30 (68.2)	14 (31.8)	44 (100.0)		

**Statistically Significant

**Table 4.10b: Relationship between self –esteem score and perceived fathers'
parenting score**   **(N = 504)**

Variable	Mean	Std.Deviation	Pearson correlation	Sig (1-tailed)
Self-esteem	24.03	3.299	1.00	-------
Permissive	21.34	4.799	-0.055	0.111
Authoritarian	27.18	5.714	-0.077	0.042
Flexible	27.10	5.430	0.141	0.001**
Neglectful	23.38	3.343	-0.051	0.125

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

**Table 4.10c: Relationship between self –esteem score and perceived mothers'
parenting score**   **(N = 504)**

Variable	Mean	Std.Deviation	Pearson correlation	Sig (1-tailed)
Self-esteem	24.03	3.299	1.000	---------
Permissive	21.64	4.805	-0.042	0.175
Authoritarian	27.19	5.731	-0.053	0.119
Flexible	27.48	5.414	0.137	0.001**
Neglectful	23.20	3.234	-0.044	0.164

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant relationship between perceived parenting styles and adolescents' self - concept

Chi-square and Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to test for statistical significant between perceived parenting style and self- concept. Results show that there is no statistically significant relationship between perceived parenting style for both father' and mothers' and self-concept (Table 4.11a).

Majority (92.3%) of respondents who had positive self-concept perceived their fathers as flexible, while 16.7% of respondents who had negative self-concept perceived their fathers as neglectful (Table 4.11a). Majority 91.8% of respondents who had positive self-concept also reported their mothers as flexible, while 18.2% of respondents who had negative self-concept perceived their mothers used more than one parenting style (Table 4.11a).

The result from Pearson correlation coefficient test for perceived fathers' parenting style showed a positive significant relationship between flexible parenting style and adolescent self-concept (r = 0.074, P = 0.048). A negative significant relationship exists between neglectful parenting style and adolescent self- concept (r = -0.095, P = 0.017). However, there was no statistically significant relationship between permissive and authoritarian parenting style when compared with adolescent self- concept. Although, the authoritarian parenting style exhibited a negative relationship with adolescent self-concept (Table 4.11b).Results for perceived mothers' parenting style revealed a positive statistically significant relationship between flexible parenting style and adolescent self-concept (r = 0.074, P = 0.049). However, there was no statistical significant relationship between authoritarian, permissive and neglectful parenting styles; neglectful parenting style shows a negative relationship with adolescent self-concept (Table 4.11c).

Table 4.11a: Relationship between perceived parenting styles and adolescents' self –concept (N=504)

Parenting style	Negative (%)	Positive (%)	Total frequency (%)	Chi–square test	Null hypothesis
Father					
Permissive	3 (10.3)	26 (89.7)	29 (100.0)	$X^2 = 5.351$	
Authoritarian	23 (13.1)	153 (86.9)	176 (100.0)	df= 4	Fail
Flexible	14 (7.7)	169 (92.3)	183 (100.0)	Pvalue=	to reject
Neglectful	12 (16.7)	60 (83.3)	72 (100.0)	0.253	
More than one	4 (9.1)	40 (90.9)	44 (100.0)		
Mother					
Permissive	3 (10.7)	25 (89.3)	28 (100.0)	$X^2 = 5.343$	
Authoritarian	18 (10.9)	147 (89.1)	165 (100.0)	df = 4	Fail
Flexible	16 (8.2)	180 (91.8)	196 (100.0)	Pvalue=	to reject
Neglectful	11 (15.5)	60 (84.5)	71 (100.0)	0.254	
More than one	8 (18.2)	36 (81.8)	44 (100.0)		

Table 4.11b: Relationship between self-concept score and perceived fathers' parenting score (N=504)

Variable	Mean	Std.Deviation	Pearson correlation	Sig (1-tailed)
Self-concept	41.94	4.995	1.00	-------
Permissive	21.34	4.799	0.042	0.174
Authoritarian	27.18	5.714	-0.044	0.164
Flexible	27.10	5.430	0.074	0.048**
Neglectful	23.38	3.343	-0.095	0.017**

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Table 4.11c: Relationship between self-concept score and perceived mothers' parenting score (N=504)

Variable	Mean	Std.Deviation	Pearson correlation	Sig (1-tailed)
Self-concept	41.94	4.995	1.000	---------
Permissive	21.64	4.805	0.044	0.160
Authoritarian	27.19	5.731	0.012	0.391
Flexible	27.48	5.414	0.074	0.049**
Neglectful	23.20	3.234	-0.046	0.152

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant relationship between adolescents' self-esteem and self-concept

The test for significance for relationship between adolescents'self-concept and level of self - esteem was done using Pearson's correlation coefficient. According to the results from the findings, a positive significant relationship exists between self-esteem and self – concept of respondents (r = 0.151, P = 0.000) (Table 4.12).

Table 4.12: Relationship between adolescents' self-esteem and self – concept

Variable	Mean	Std. deviation	Pearson correlation	P value	Null hypothesis
Self-esteem Score	24.03	3.299	1.000		
Self–concept Score	41.94	4.995	0.151	0.000**	Rejected

** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

CHAPTER FIVE
DISCUSSION

5.0 Introduction

This chapter is discusses socio- demo graphic characteristics of the respondents, perceived parenting style by adolescent, level of self-esteem among adolescent, relationship between parents socio demographic characteristics and self-esteem, relationship between parenting style and level of self-esteem among adolescents and implications of the findings for health education. The chapter ends with the conclusion and recommendations including suggestions for further studies.

5.1 Socio demographic characteristics of the respondents

From this study, more respondents were females. This further established the report of UNICEF, 2007 that recent primary and secondary school enrolment revealed improvement in female education. The age range of the respondents was between 12-19 years of age with a mean age of 14.9 ± 1.5; more than half (61.3%)of the respondents fell between the ranges of 15-17 years of age which shows that most of the respondents are mid adolescents. Most of the respondents were females and this finding was similar to a study conducted among secondary schools from two cities; (Enugu and Abakiliki located in south eastern part of Nigeria) where more than half (59.8%) of the respondents were female (Chinawa et al, 2015).

Almost all the respondents reported that their father had a formal education (58.8%; tertiary education, 37.8%; secondary education, and 3.7%; primary education or less) which is partially a reflection of the claim of the respondents about their mother (56.4%; tertiary education, 37.7%; secondary education, and 5.9%; primary education or less). This is can be supported by the report of the national literacy survey by National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) in 2010 which reported that the literacy level of adult male and female is 79.3% and 63.7% respectively.

5.2 Self-esteem and Self-concept of Adolescents

The results of this study have shown that low self-esteem in adolescents does exist in our environment, though there is no cultural and social recognition of this health risk. This study was supported some previous studies that reported increased low self - esteem in female when compared with the male respondents, according to a study conducted by Chinawa et al, (2015)among secondary school students in Enugu and Abakaliki reported low self-esteem to be more among the females. Also, a conducted by Mwihaki, 2013 among adolescents in secondary schools in Nairobi was in correspondence findings also complement what had been found in Europe where gender differences in self-esteem suggested that male adolescents had higher self-esteem than female adolescents (McMullin and Cairney, 2004; Moksnes et al., 2010; Robins et al., 2002). However, in some studies, the gender difference was small (Quatman et al., 2001) or not significant. This disparity in level of self- esteem in female adolescent could be attributed to decline in body image and other problems associated with puberty. A large body of evidence indicates that physical appearance is viewed as much more important for girls than for boys (Harter, 1990) with girls being more likely to be dissatisfied with their appearance than boys (Coleman, 2011).

The result of this study shows that there is gender difference in self-concept among male and female respondents which is contrary to study by Sangeeta and Sumitra, (2012) among adolescents from different colleages in india whose investigation indicated that there is no gender difference in overall self-concept among male and female respondents. Low or negative self- concept was observed to be more in female than male this is in accordance with Frances, Martin and Dray, 2000, they claimed that the females have more negative self-concept rather than males so they would be stressed more. However, in this study positive self-concept was on the increase among female when compared to male contrary to studies by Twenge and campell, (2001); GUI Report 4, (2012) which reported that 13 year old boys were more likely to have above average scores on self- concept than their female peer group.

5.3Relationship between socio demographic characteristics and adolescents' self-esteem and self-concept

Some demographic factors have been associated with self-esteem such as socioeconomic status (Twenge and Campbell, 2002). This study was seen to be line with these findings as some characteristics such as; school category, family size, parents' tribe, parents' education and fathers' occupation were seen to have statistically significant relationship with self – esteem, but contrary to study by Soltani, MirshahJaafari,Shirani and Arbabisarjou (*2013*) among children in Khomeinishahr cityreported no relationship between self-esteem and education level of parents. Respondents in private secondary school were observed to have high self -esteem; while low self-esteem was observed to be on the increase in the public school category. Father's occupation was found to be significant to level of self-esteem as fathers' the bread winner and the head in most Nigerian families and this in turn influences the family's standard of living. Socioeconomic status might influence self-esteem because social status and wealth influence the individual's perception of his or her relational value especially adolescents.

Findings from this research show a statistically significant relationship between school category, family size, mothers' level of education, parents' tribe and self-concept in adolescents. There is a dearth of studies to support this part of the study hence; this research has bridged a gap by adding to body of knowledge in this area. Since self-concept is said to be greatly influenced by significant others, siblings are important determinant of self-concept as they are the immediate and closest in the interaction cycle. Also, mothers' level of education can be suggested to influence self-concept because the adolescents are said to spend more time with their mothers' and fathers' occupation could influence the families' social status as he is the bread winner in most Nigerian families, hence the social or wealth status of the family in turn influences the adolescents' self-concept.

5.4 Adolescents perception of parenting style

According to the findings of this study adolescents' perceived their parents more as flexible and authoritarian which is supported by various previous studies. Though culturally in Nigerian mothers are supposed to be more warming and accommodating but

this study indicates a high authoritarian nature of mothers which can be attributed to the increase in responsibilities of mothers, not just domestically as it used to be but also financially as in some cases the mothers are the bread winner of the homes. Hence, it is suggested that increase in stress level accounts for more authoritarian nature in Nigerian women.

Elias and Huey-Yee in 2009 conducted a research among high school adolescent s in Malaysia results showed majority of fathers and mothers had authoritative style. Another research conducted by Moumeni and Amiri in (2008) among adolescent 14 to 17 years of age in Isfahan showed that the highest fraction belonged to authoritative parenting styles. Results of another study conducted in Tehran among 13 – 15 years adolescents indicated majority of fathers and mothers had authoritative parenting styles (Karimy, Taghavy-larijani and Mehran, 2005-6). Study conducted among Iran adolescents also showed 86.6% of parents had authoritative parenting style. The findings of the current study are in line with those previously found. Also, Habibah and Tan (2009) also performed a study on youths in Malaysia and found that both fathers and mothers were perceived as authoritative, they speculated parents' higher education level might have contributed to their findings and this possibly explains the current finding too. Nigerian parents demand for obedience to parental authority, and compliance with parental instructions from their children, this inference has been supported by research findings that indicated that authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles as well as their hybrids are significantly practiced by Nigerian parents. (Akinsola, 2010; 2011). Nigeria being predominantly a hierarchical and patriarchal nation, the traditional society values respect for elders and authority figures and in particular parental authority in a family where the man is the head of the family. As a result many Nigerian parents demand for obedience to parental authority, and compliance with parental instructions from their children. However many of the parents at the same time demonstrate parental responsiveness and warmth by using behavioural and monitoring controls over their children by monitoring where they are, what they are doing and with whom they are because they are more family oriented and they value family integrity and dignity. Although they do not allow parent-child dialogue, they explain and give reasons for their disciplinary measures and actions. In this

respect their children may perceive their parenting style as either authoritarian, or authoritative, or a mixture of both.

5.5 Relationship between perceived parenting style and parents' level of education, occupation

The result of this study shows no statistical significant relationship between perceived parenting style and parents' level of education, mothers' occupation. These results agree with part of previous research by Mwihaki, (2013) among adolescents in Nairobi that parents' level of education and mothers' occupation had no significant relationship with perceived parenting styles. However, contrary to findings by Mwihaki, (2013) fathers' occupation had a statistical significant relationship with perceived parenting styles. This may be due to cultural variation in addition; Fathers' occupation affects their socio-economic status which in turn affects parenting style, more adolescents who reported their fathers as professional also perceived them as flexible.

5.6 Relationship between perceived parenting styles and adolescents' self - esteem

The result of this study confirms that there is a significant relationship between parenting style and self-esteem which is in line with some previous studies by Yamawaki, Nelson and Omori, (2010) among Japanese college students which suggested that parenting style was significantly associated with self- esteem. The results of this study confirmed a positive significant relationship between flexible parenting style and self-esteem in both father and mother, a negative significant in authoritarian parenting style and a non-significant relationship between permissive parenting style and adolescent self-esteem, this is in accordance with results from study conducted by Heaven and Ciarrochi, (2013): Mwihaki, (2013) and part of study by Martinez and Gracia, 2007 which reported that spanish adolescents with authoritarian parents had the worst score in self- esteem. However, the findings were contrary to study by Steinberg (1994), which reported authoritarian parenting style is associated with higher self-esteem and Martinez and Gracia, 2007 in their study conducted among Spanish adolescents reported that Spanish adolescents from permissive parents had highest scores in self-esteem. These findings from this study indicated that the adolescents who have high self-esteem have parents who

used the rational authoritative / flexible parenting style. The best parenting style by parents according to adolescents' perception is the authoritative parenting style, Darkin in 1995 suggested three reasons for the positive outcomes in adolescent with authoritative / flexible parents. First, he suggests that authoritative parents provide a high level of emotional security that provides their children with a sense of comfort and independence and helps them succeed. Second, he suggests that authoritative parents provide their children with explanations for their actions which provide children with a sense of awareness and understanding of their parents' values, morals, and goals. The transmission of these goals and values equips these children / adolescents with the tools needed for better and healthy life performance. Third, he suggests that authoritative parents engage in give-and-take communication with their children which nurtures skills in interpersonal relations that consequently help them in interaction with peers and others leading to high self –esteem also, this helps the adolescent to adapt themselves with social norms and find their ability to undertake personal, social and family responsibilities as a result of healthy or high self – esteem. While the adolescent suffering from anxiety, depression and other similar health challenge as a result of low self-esteem have authoritarian parents so they would not have decision making power.

5.7 Relationship between perceived parenting style and adolescent self - concept

The results showed that a positive significant relationship exists between adolescent's self-concept and authoritative parenting style, negative relationship between adolescents' self-concept and authoritarian parenting style which is supported by study conducted byTayebe, Karim and Keyvan, (2014)among high school students and mothers in Kermanshah. Hence, one can say that adolescent in families that practice authoritative of Flexible parenting style would have higher self-concept. The negative relationship between adolescent's self-concept and authoritarian parenting style shows the more harsh parenting style is, the lower self-concept would be realized in such students. Further, there was no significant relationship between adolescents' self-concept and permissive parenting style contrary to the results of study byTayebe, Karim and Keyvan, (2014). This study also indicated a negative relationship between adolescents' self-concept and the neglectful parenting style, the difference in results may be due to cultural variation. It has

to be noted that the students with positive self-concept have parents who have use the rational authoritative parenting style. According to the results of the present study, the best parenting style used by parents to achieve adolescent's positive self-concept is the authoritative parenting style.

5.8 Relationship between self-esteem and self-concept

According to this present study there is a positive significant relationship between self-esteem and self- concept The present result is confirmed by the past researches related to self-esteem that both self-concept and self-esteem is correlated, research by Nasir, Zamani, Khairudin and Wan shahrazd, (2011) among some juvenile delinquents between 12-18 years old in Malaysia showed that when self-esteem was high, self-concept was also high and vice versa.

5.9 Implication of the findings for Health Promotion and Education

Positive childhood experiences is associated with better health and developmental trajectories, use of positive youth development interventions for preventing adolescent health risk behaviours. Youth development interventions can be briefly defined as the intentional process of providing all youth with the support, relationships, experiences, resources, and opportunities needed to become successful and competent adults. There is growing empirical evidence that well-designed youth development interventions can lead to positive outcomes.

The result of this study highlights some implications for planning, development, implementation and evaluation of adolescent mental health education in the school setting in the study area and Nigeria at large. Through health education and information, all affected parties will be able to understand self-esteem and self-concept, the importance of healthy self-esteem and positive self-concept and the dangers of low self-esteem and negative self-concept and the importance of good parenting. Targeted populations for health education should include the Students, Parents, School staffs, Community and religious leaders and the State or Local government educational board. Appropriate Strategies to enable mental health education include Training, public enlightenment and Resource linking.

Public enlightenment using behavioural change materials such as; posters, banners, periodic SMS and well-constructed Social Media Messages via Facebook, 2go and Watsapp can be used to enlighten Adolescents.

"Prior to treatment is prevention", so informing parents and teachers about parenting styles is fundamental in the educational system. Some parenting classes or programs during the Parent-teachers Association (PTA) forum can be developed to help parents raise healthy and confident children. Training of Parents and School staffs can be done through educative seminars, lectures and workshop delivered by experts or NGOs in Adolescents Health and Parenting skills. Upbringing of a child is a community effort therefore there is need to include Community leaders and members, Religious Leaders in the training process, policy makers at the Ministry of Education could also provide comprehensive guidelines on community capacity building through training and sensitization on parenting styles. They should device programmes that should target local community leaders such as chiefs, community leaders, local religious leaders who would in turn sensitize parents and community members on optimal parenting styles and related practices. This can be done by use forums such as public meetings, religious congregations and so forth. Also, this can be done by use of seminars, workshops and focus group discussions at grass root levels. This can also be done by developing a handbook or manual on effective parenting styles for parents.

Also, step down peer educators training can be conducted by various NGOs involved in Adolescents' Health. The selected peer educators will in turn educate other Adolescents through mediums such as after school clubs, debates and one on one interaction. The findings of this study could be used by the State/Local Government educational board as a training needs assessment for the design and development of a training curriculum for upgrading the knowledge and skills of teachers, school counsellors, parents on influence of parenting styles on adolescent self-esteem and self-concept. Also, there is need to develop a curriculum and a training manual aimed at educating the adolescents on self-esteem and self-concept and their implications on decisions and future of the adolescents. The curriculum should aim at facilitating training of teachers and students on parenting styles and various factors that influences self-esteem and self-concept and how they can be handled to reduce negative outcomes.

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

5.10 Conclusion

Parenting practices have profound effects on adolescent self- esteem. This study on the influence of parenting style on adolescent self-esteem highlights certain issues. Parenting style has a statistical significant relationship with adolescents' level of self-esteem with the authoritative or Flexible parenting style being the only parenting style with a positive relationship with adolescent self – esteem. Intervention aimed at educating parents on the best parenting style and the hazard of unfavourable parenting style may provide an avenue towards preventing health risk behaviours in adolescent as a result of low self – esteem. In addition, because of the benefit of Flexible parenting style, there is need for parents to cultivate it.

5.11 Recommendation

Based on the findings of this study,the following recommendations are made to help improve adolescents' self-esteem and self-concept as a result of better parenting style:

1) Parents who are the major stakeholders in the upbringing and development of their children must know and utilize the parenting style that leads to healthy self-esteem and self-concept in their children, especially adolescents.

2) Guidance counselors and teachers should understand the implication of the findings of this study to be able to give and execute proper guidance programs that help build adolescents self-esteem and positive self-concept.

3) Policy makers at the Ministry of Education should develop policies that would encourage parents to adopt appropriate parenting styles.

5.12 Suggestion for further studies

- For future studies, use of the shorter version of PAQ after being locally adopted and validated could be considered as the previous version was a bit lengthy and laborious for respondents.

- Future researches should include out of school Adolescents to account for the general perspective of all adolescent, not just in-school Adolescents.

- A longitudinal study will be advised to determine and understand better, patterns and development of self-concept

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QUESTIONNAIRE ON INFLUENCE OF PARENTAL STYLES ON IN-SCHOOL ADOLESCENT SELF-ESTEEM

Dear Respondent,

My name is Adeleke Tolulope. I am a post graduate student of Health Promotion and Education of Faculty of Public Health, College of Medicine, University of Ibadan. Presently, I am undertaking a study to investigate the influence of parental styles on in-school adolescent self-esteem.Your sincere response is encouraged as participation in this study is voluntary, absolute anonymity and confidentiality shall be maintained as there is no right or wrong answers and the information provided will only be used for the research purpose. By completing and returning this questionnaire packet, you are indicating your consent to participate. Your participation will provide you with experience in the research process and increase our collective knowledge about the relationship of parental styles and adolescent self-esteem. The process should take approximately 30 minutes. Thank you

SECTION A: SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC DATA

NOTE: Please tick as appropriate { √ } in the appropriate boxes.

1. School category: Public { }   Private { }
2. Gender: Male { }   Female { }
3. Class: SSS 1{ }   SSS 2 { }   SSS 3 { }
4. Age as at last birthday in years: ………………………………..
5. No of Siblings: Brother …………………….   Sister ……………………….
6. Father's occupation: …………………………
7. Mother's occupation: ……………………………
8. Highest level of education attained by your father
   Primary { }   Secondary { }   Tertiary { }   None { }
9. Highest level of education attained by your mother
   Primary { }   Secondary { }   Tertiary { }   None { }
10. **Mother's tribe:** Yoruba { } Hausa { } Igbo { }   Others (specify)………………….

11. **Father's tribe:** Yoruba {   } Hausa {   } Igbo {   }   Others
(specify)……………………

12. **Religion:** Christianity {   } Islam {   } Traditional {   } Others
(specify)……………………

SECTION B: Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ)

It can sometimes be difficult to remember in what ways one's parents were alike and in what was they differed. Do therefore try, for each question; first to consider how your father behaved and then how your mother behaved towards you.

Here is an example to illustrate how you should fill out the questionnaire

1= No Never   2= Yes Occasionally   3=Yes Often   4= Yes Always

F=Father M=Mother

S/N		F	M
1	Did your parents use to beat you?	2	3
2	Did your parents use to be kind to you?	4	1

Please fill as appropriate 1= No Never   2= Yes Occasionally   3=Yes Often 4=Yes Always   F=Father   M=Mother

S/N	STATEMENTS	F	M
1	While I was growing up my parents felt that in a well-run home the children should have their way in the family as often as the parents do		
2	My parents have always felt that what their children need is to be free to make up their own minds and to do what they want to do, even if this does not agree with what their parents might want		
Please fill as appropriate 1= No Never 2= Yes Occasionally 3=Yes Often 4=Yes Always F=Father M=Mother			
S/N	STATEMENTS	F	M

3	As I was growing up my parents did not feel that I needed to obey rules and regulations of behaviour simply because someone in authority had established them		
4	As I was growing up, my parents seldom gave me expectations and guidelines for my behaviour		
5	Most of the time as I was growing up my parents did what the children in the family wanted when making family decisions		
6	My parents feel that most problems in society would be solved if parents would not restrict their children's activities, decisions, and desires as they are growing up		
7	As I was growing up my parents allowed me to decide most things for myself without a lot of direction from them		
8	My parents did not view themselves as responsible for directing and guiding my behaviour as I was growing up		
9	As I was growing up my parents allowed me to form my own point of view on family matters and they generally allowed me to decide for myself what I was going to do		
10	As I was growing up my parents did not direct the behaviours, activities, and desires of the children in the family		
11	Even if they children didn't agree with them, my parents felt that it was for our own good if we were forced to conform to what they thought was right		
12	Whenever my parents told me to do something as I was growing up, they expected me to do it immediately without asking any questions		
13	As I was growing up my parents did not allow me to question any decision they had made		

Please fill as appropriate 1= No Never   2= Yes Occasionally   3=Yes Often   4=Yes Always
F=Father   M=Mother

S/N	STATEMENTS	F	M
14	As I was growing up my parents felt that more force should be used by parents in order to get their children to behave the way they are supposed to		

		F	M
15	My parents felt that wise parents should teach their children early just who is boss in the family		
16	As I was growing up my parents would get very upset if I tried to disagree with them		
17	As I was growing up my parents let me know what behaviour they expected of me, and if I didn't meet those expectations, they punished me		
18	My parents have always felt that most problems in society would be solved if we could get parents to strictly and forcibly deal with their children when they don't do what they are supposed to as they are growing up		
19	As I was growing up my parents told me exactly what they wanted me to do and how they expected me to do it		
20	As I was growing up I knew what my parents expected of me in the family and they insisted that I conform to those expectations simply out of respect for they authority		
21	As I was growing up, once family policy had been established, my parents discussed the reasoning behind the policy with the children in the family		
22	My parents encouraged verbal give-and-take whenever I feel that family rules and restrictions were unreasonable		
23	As I was growing up my parents directed the activities and decisions of the children in the family through discipline		

Please fill as appropriate 1= No Never   2= Yes Occasionally   3=Yes Often   4=Yes Always
F=Father   M=Mother

S/N	STATEMENTS	F	M
24	As I was growing up I knew what my parents expected of me in my family, but I also felt free to discuss those expectations with my parents when I felt that they were unreasonable		
25	As the children in my family were growing up, my parents consistently gave us direction and guidance in rational and objective ways		
26	As I was growing up my parents took the children's opinions into consideration when making family decisions, but they would not decide for something simply because the children wanted it		

S/N	STATEMENTS		
27	My parents had clear standards of behaviour for the children in our home as I was growing up, but they was willing to adjust those standards to the needs of each of the individual children in the family		
28	My parents gave me direction for my behaviour and activities as I was growing up and they expected me to follow their direction, but they are always willing to listen to my concerns and to discuss that direction with me		
29	As I was growing up my parents gave me clear direction for my behaviours and activities, but they were also understanding when I disagreed with them		
30	As I was growing up, if my parents made a decision in the family that hurt me, they were willing to discuss that decision with me and to admit it if they had made a mistake		
31	As I was growing up my parents gave rules to guide the children's' behaviour in and out of the house		

Please fill as appropriate 1= No Never   2= Yes Occasionally   3=Yes Often   4=Yes Always
F=Father   M=Mother

S/N	STATEMENTS	F	M
32	My parents visited the school to know what I did in school and my school academic performance		
33	My parents seek to monitor or know about the each child's personality and their welfare		
34	As we were growing up my parents left the children with the maid or neighbours even when they were not at work and less busy		
35	When I was growing up my parents allowed the children to go to bed without food		
36	As I was growing up my parents sit to chat and play with the children		
37	My parents seek to know and care about how I feel or what is bothering me		
38	My parents ignore it when the children behaved carelessly or in a bad/wrong way		

39	My parents engage themselves in my interest and hobbies as i was growing up		
40	My parents comforted and encouraged me if things went badly for me		

SECTION C- SELF- ESTEEM

Please answer the following questions about **YOURSELF. PLS** TICK { √ } the appropriate response as it pertains to you

S/N	STATEMENTS	Agree	Disagree	Undecided
1	I feel that I am a person of worth, at least as valuable as the others.			
S/N	STATEMENTS	Agree	Disagree	Undecided
2	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.			
3	I generally tend to think of myself as being a failure.			
4	I am able to do things as well as most other people.			
5	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.			
6	I take a positive attitude toward myself.			
7	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.			
8	I wish I could have more respect for myself			
9	I surely feel useless at times.			
10	At times I think I am not good at all.			

SECTION D – SELF-CONCEPT

PLEASE TICK { √ } THE ONE THAT APPLIES TO YOU

11. Do you like yourself? **YES { }   NO { }   SOMETIMES { }**

12. Do you feel lonely most of the time? **YES { } NO { }   SOMETIMES { }**

13. Do you want to look different (physically)? **YES { }   NO { }**

SOMETIMES { }

14. Do you take full responsibility for your actions? **YES { }   NO { }**
SOMETIMES { }

15. Do you compare yourself to others? **YES { }   NO { }   SOMETIMES { }**

PLEASE TICK { √ } THE ONE THAT APPLIES TO YOU

16. Are you concerned about what others say about yourself?

   YES { }   NO { }   SOMETIMES { }

17. Do you feel comfortable among group of people?

   YES { }   NO { }   SOMETIMES { }

18. Do you focus on your failures instead of your successes?

   YES { }   NO { }   SOMETIMES { }

19. Do you think that you are worthy to be loved?

   YES { }   NO { }   SOMETIMES { }

20. Do you blame others often?   **YES { }   NO { }   SOMETIMES { }**

21. Do you blame yourself often?   **YES { }   NO { }   SOMETIMES { }**

22. Are you confident all the time?   **YES { }   NO { }   SOMETIMES { }**

23. Do you stand up for yourself? **YES { }   NO { }   SOMETIMES { }**

24. Do you think that you are talented? **YES { }   NO { } SOMETIMES { }**

25. Do you have goals or dreams to accomplish? **YES { }   NO { } SOMETIMES { }**

26. Do you tell the truths to yourself? **YES { }   NO { }   SOMETIMES { }**

27. Do you think you can handle any situation? **YES { }   NO { } SOMETIMES { }**

28. Do you always achieve your goals? **YES { }   NO { }   SOMETIMES { }**

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME

IBEERE

Oruko mi ni Adeleke Tolulope. Mo je akeko onipokeji agba ti health promotion and education ti faculty public health ti college of medicine ti ile iwe giga Ibadan. Lowolowo bayi mon se idani leko lo ri iwadi ipo ti awon obi n ko lori iwa iriraenisi awon odo, iwadi yi si da le lori ipa kan lati se aseyori ikeko gbo ye agba lori ilera gbogbo eniyan ati igbelarugbe re ni abala eko ti ile iwe gigba fasiti Ibadan.

Aaa n be yin lati nipa ninu iwadi yi ki e si fi tayo tayo dahun lati okan wa, aa o fi gbogbo ibeere yin se ti ara e ni nikan ati asiri ,ko si idahun kan to lodi tabi ti o to ju niwon igba ti o je pe aa o lo alaye won yi fun iwadi nikan. Nipa didahun, pipari ati dida iwe ibeere yi pada e ti fi imi edun lati nipa han ninipa ninu re yio je ki e yin naa le ni iriri iwadi yio si fi kun imo wa lapapo nipa ibasepo awon obi ati iriraenisi awon odo. Ibese ye yio gba wan ni ogbon iseju .E seun.

ABALA KINNI: ABUDA

NOTE: jowo fi ami yi si iwaju eyi ti o ba ye { √ } ninu akamo.

Iru ile iwe: Gbogbo gbo { } Aladani { }

Gender: Okunrin { } Obinrin { }

Kilasi: SSS 1{ } SSS 2 { } SSS 3 { }

Omo odun melo ni e: ……………………………………

Egbon ati aburo melo ni o ni: ………………………………….

Ise woo ni awon obi re n se: Baba……………………………
Iya……………………………

Iwe melo ni baba re ka

Alakobere { } Sekondiri { } Ile eko giga { } Rara{ }

Iwe melo in iya re ka

Alakobere { } Sekondiri { } Ile eko giga { } Rara { }

Eya ti iya:Yoruba { } Hausa { } Igbo { } Omiran (daruko)………………………..

Eya ti baba:Yoruba { } Hausa { } Igbo { } Omiran (daruko)………………………

Esin: Kiriyo { } Musulumi { } Esin ibile { } Eyi ti o ku……………………………..

ABALA KEJI: IBEERE NIPA AWON OBI

Ole soro lati ranti ni ekoo kan ona ti awon obi wa gba jo ara won ati ona ti won gba yato. Gbiyanju lati gbe bi baba re se wuwa si o yewo ati bi iya re se wuwa si o. jowo fi ooto inu dahun awn ibeere wonyi. O wipe a o ni te oruko re ade pelu awon idahun re.Jowo toka si gbegede ti o robi o ba fun didari aye re bi o ti lodi si bi awon obi re se n dari aye re pelu gbedeke 0-100%. (fun apeere ti o bar o wipe awon obi re ni o n dari aye re, o fi 0% fun bi iwo ti n dari aye re ati 100% fun bi awon obi re se n dari aye re. Bi o ba se abala die ninu aye re ni awon obi re n dari o le lo 20% fun gbedeke idari tiwon ati 80% fun gbedeke idari tire.

Eyi ni apere lati to o sona bi o se ye ki o dahun awon ibeere naa

1= Lailai   2= Ni ekookan   3=Ni gbogbo igba

B=Baba   I=Iya

S/N	Ibeere	B	I
1	Se awon obi re ma n naa e?	**2**	**3**
2	Se awon obi re wuwa dara dara si o?	**3**	**1**

Jowo fi eyi ti o ye si inu akamo

1 =Lailai   2 =Ni ekookan   3 =Ni gbogbo igba   B =Baba   I =Iya

S/N	Ibeere	B	I
1	Ni igba ti mon dagba, awon obi mi gbagbo wipe ninu ile ti o pe oju osuwon awon omo ni lati le soro gege bi obi ti le soro.		
2	Bi o tile se wipe awon omo ko fe, awon obi mi a ma fi tipa mu omo lati se ohun ko hun ti won ba fe.		
3	Nigba ki gba ti awon obi mi ba ti ni ki n se nkan mi igba ti mo n dagba, won ma n fe ki n se ni kia kia lai beere ibeere kan kan.		
4	Ni igba ti mo n dagba ti awon obi mi ba pinnu lori nkan won ma n pe awa omo lati so idi ti won se se pinnu naa.		
5	Awon obi mi ma n fe ki a fi ehonu wa han ti inu wa ko ba dun si ipinnu kan kan ti won ba se ni ile.		
6	Awon obi mi gbagbo wipe ohun ti awon omo nilo ni wipe ki won le pinnu lati se ohun ko hun bi o tile se wipe o ba liana ti awon obi mi mu.		
7	Ni igba ti mo n dagba awon obi mi ko je ki n yipada tabi bere ibeere lori ase ti won ba fi lele.		
8	Ni igba ti mo n dagba awon obi mi to wa pelu ero ati ikoraeni ni ijanu.		
9	Awon obi mi gbagbo wipe tipa tipa ni a fi n mu omo se ohun ti obi fe.		
10	Ni igba ti mo n dagba awon obi mi gbagbo wipe ko se koko ki n tele ilan ati ipinnu nitoriwipe eni ti o wa ni ipo agba ni o se awon liana naa.		

11	Bi mo se n dagba mo mo ohun ti awon obi ro pe ki n ma se, mo si ma n ba won so ti mo bar o wipe awon liana ati ohun ti won fe yi ko ba mi lara mu.		
12	Awon obi mi gbagbo wipe o ye ki obi ti o ba gbon tete fi eni ti o je olori ninu ile han awon omo lati kekere.		

Jowo fi eyi ti o ye si inu akamo

1 =Lailai   2 =Ni ekookan   3 =Ni gbogbo igba   B =Baba I =Iya

S/N	Ibeere	B	I
13	Bi mo ti n dagba awon obi mi kii saba fi tipa mu mi lati wuwa bi won ti fe.		
14	Ni opo igba ni awon obi mi ma n se ohun ti awon omo fe ti won ba ti n se ipinu.		
15	Bi awon omo ti n dagba ni inu ebi mi ni awon obi mi ma n to wa si ona ti o to.		
16	Ni igba ti mo n dagba awon obi a maa binu ti mo ba ba won jiyan.		
17	Awon obi mi gbagbo wipe wahala ilu yii a dekun ti awon obi ba fi awon omo sile ki won se ipinnu ti won ba fe.		
18	Ni igba ti mo n dagba awon obi mi je ki n mo iwa ti won fe ki n ma wu, ti mi o ba si ti tele awon ilana yii won ma n je mi niya.		
19	Ni igba ti mo n dagba awon obi mi ma n je ki n se awon ipinnu fun ara mi lai to mi sona.		
20	Ni igba ti mo n dagba awon obi mi ma n gbe ero awon omo wo ti won ba n se ilana ati ipinnu sugbon won kii se ipinnu kan kan nitori wipe ohun ti awon omo fe ni.		
21	Awon obi mi o ro wipe o ye ki awon ma dari ihuwasi mi ni igba ti mo n dagba.		
22	Awon obi mi ni ilama ihuwasi fun omo sugbon won ma n woo mo kookan bi o ti yato ni ona tire won si ma n se omo kookan bi oti ri		
23	Awon obi mi ni ilana ihuwasi fun omo sugbon won ma n fun mi ni aye lati so efun okan mi nipa awon ilana wonyi.		
24	Awon obi mi ma n je ki n ni ironu ati ipinnu nipa oro ebi won si ma n je ki se ipinnu ohun ti maa se fun ara mi.		
25	Awon obi mi gbagbo wipe ilu yio dara ti awon obi ba le ma fi omo jofin ti o ba ti se aigboran.		

owo fi eyi ti o ye si inu akamo		
1 =Lailai 2 =Ni ekookan 3 =Ni gbogbo igba B =Baba I =Iya		

S/N	Ibeere	B	I
26	Bi mo ti n dagba awon obi mi ma n so ohun ti won fe ki n se ati bi won ti fe ki n se.		
27	Bi mo ti n dagba awon obi mi fi ilana ihuwasi ti won fe han mi sugbon won ma n gba ti mo ba ni wipe ko ba mi lara mu.		
28	Bi mo ti n dagba, awon obi mi ko fi ilana ihuwasi han ninu ebi rar.		
29	Bi mo ti n dagba mo mo ohunti awon obi mi fe ati ilana ihuwasi ninu ebi won si kan ni dan dan pe ki n tele ilana naa nitori wipe won je olori.		
30	Awon obi mi ma n gba lati ba mi soro ti won ba ti se ipinnu ti o ba pa mi lara won si ma n bebe ti won ba se asise.		
31	Awon obi mi ko bikita nipa ohun ti awon omo n se won ko si ni ilana ihuwasi fun wo.		
32	Awon obi mi ma n wa si ile iwe lati wa wo bi mo ti n se ni ile iwe.		
33	Awon obi mi ko bikita nipa omo rara.		
34	As we were growing up the children were left with the maid or neighbours		
35	Ni opo igba ni awon obi mi ki gbero ohun ni awon omo fe.		
36	Bi mo ti n dagba awon obi mi ma n ba omo sere won si ma n ba won soro.		
37	Awon obi mi ma n fe mo ero inu mi.		
38	Awon obi mi ma n ba omo wi bi o ti ye ti omo ba se aigboran		
39	Awon obi mi ma n ba omode sere won si ma n ba won soro		
40	Awon obi mi ma n na mi laito		

ABALA KETA- IRIRAENISI

Jowo dahun awon ibeere won yi nipa ara e

S/N	Akole	Mofaramo	Mio	Nkomo

			faramo	
1	Mo ro wipe eni iyi ni mi , mo sin i aponle bi awon eniyan yo ku			
2	Mo ni awon iwa ti o dara..			
3	Mo ro wipe mi o le ni aseyori.			
4	Mo le se ohun ko hun daa daa bi enikeni ti le se.			
5	Mi o ni ohun ti eniyan mu yangan rara			
6	Mo gbagbo ninu ara mi wipe mo le se ohun ko hun.			
7	Ni gbogbo ona o te mi lorun iru eniyan ti mo je.			
8	O ma n wu mi ki n le ni apomle fun ara mi			
9	Mo ma n ro wipe mi o ni iwulo fun nkan kan lekookan.			
10	Ni ekookan mo ma n ro wipe mi o dara rara.			

APA KERIN- IWOYE ARA ENI

Jowo fi ami yi si iwaju eyi ti o ba ye { √ } ninu akamo

Se o feran ara re? **Beeni {   }   Beeko {   }   Ni ekookan {}**

Se o ma n se se o bi wipe o da wa ni ile aye? **Beeni {   }   Beeko {   } Ni ekookan {   }**

Se o fe yato nipa ara ati irisi? **Beeni {   }   Beeko {   }   Ni ekookan {}**

Se o ma n gba ohun ko hun ti ipinnu re ba muwa? **Beeni {   } Beeko {   } Ni ekookan {   }**

Jowo fi ami yi si iwaju eyi ti o ba ye { √ } ninu akamo

Se o ma n fi ara re we elomiran?   **Beeni {   }   Beeko {   }   Ni ekookan {}**

Se ohun ti awon eniyan ba so nipa re ma n ro o ninu?**Beeni {   }   Beeko{} Ni ekookan { }**

Se ara re a ma bale lati se ayeye? **Beeni {   } Beeko {   }   Ni ekookan {}**

Se o ma n gbe okan le ijakule kaka ki o gbe okan le aseyori? **Beeni {   }   Beeko   {   }**

Ni ekookan {}

Se o ro wipe o dara to lati nife? **Beeni {   }   Beeko {   }   Ni ekookan {   }**

Se o ma n da elomiran ni ebi? **Beeni {   }   Beeko {   }   Ni ekookan {   }**

Se o ma n da ara re lebi? **Beeni {   }   Beeko {   }   Ni ekookan {   }**

Se o ni igboya ni gbogbo igba? **Beeni {   }   Beeko {   }   Ni ekookan {   }**

Se o ma n gbeja ara re? **Beeni {   }   Beeko {   }   Ni ekookan {   }**

Se o ro wipe o ni talenti? **Beeni {   }   Beeko {   }   Ni ekookan {   }**

Se o ni ifojusun? **Beeni {   }   Beeko {   }   Ni ekookan {   }**

Se o ma n so ooto fun ara re? **Beeni {   }   Beeko {   }   Ni ekookan {   }**

Se o ro wipe o le doju ko ohun ko hun ti o ba ko o lona? **Beeni {   }Beeko {   }**

Ni ekookan {   }

Se o ma n ba ati paa paa se ifojusun re?**Beeni {   }   Beeko {   }   Ni ekookan {   }**

E SEUN FUN AKOKO YIN