

**RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED PARENTAL NURTURANCE AND
PROBLEM BEHAVIOURS AMONG SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS IN
SELECTED COUNTIES IN KENYA**

BY

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DECLARATION

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my parents Professor Mutahi and Mrs. Karega as well as Mr. Njeru Kirira and Mrs. Njeru for their love and support and, for encouraging me to pursue doctoral studies alongside teaching me the value of hard work and focus. I also dedicate this to my siblings Mutahi, Wangechi and Thiitu for their encouragement throughout this process. Finally, I dedicate this work to my lovely wife Ninette Wairimu, for believing in me and for her endless support.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
GoK	Government of Kenya
IWM	Internal Working Model
KNA	Kenya National Assembly
MOE	Ministry of Education
MOEST	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
PB	Problem Behaviours
PBS	Problem Behaviour Scale
PNS	Parental Nurturance Scale
PPN	Perceived Parental Nurturance
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
USA	United States of America

ABSTRACT

Despite the heavy investment in education that the Kenyan Government makes each year, problem behaviours amongst adolescent students continue to affect the goals of effective training and skill building among many young Kenyans and thus undermining efforts at poverty alleviation and wealth creation in the country. This is because problem behaviours lead to lost class and study time as students spend much time and energy completing punishments and suspensions as opposed to learning. Behaviour problems sometimes also lead to expulsion from school. Attempts at reducing problem behaviours have included setting up committees and task forces to investigate their causes and make recommendations on the same. Studies on behaviour problems among adolescents especially in Kenya have focused mainly on the influence of parental affection on adolescent behaviour, adolescent-parent relationships, parental controls, and parenting styles. However, there was a general absence of data on the role of parental nurturance in the behaviour of adolescents. To fill this gap in knowledge, the current study sought to investigate the relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours amongst the adolescent students in selected counties in Kenya. A correlational research design was used to test the hypothesis that perceived parental nurturance is significantly related to problem behaviour among adolescent students. Proportionate stratified sampling was used to obtain a sample of 714 students in five counties (in two former provinces) in Kenya. Problem Behaviour was assessed using a self-rating Problem Behaviour Scale. Parental Nurturance was assessed using and the Parental Nurturance Scale developed by Buri, Kirchner and Walsh (1987). The findings revealed high perceived parental nurturance scores for both male and female students as well as low occurrence of problem behaviours. The study also found that widowed fathers were perceived as the most nurturing parents. The study also found that there was a higher occurrence of internalizing problem behaviours compared to externalizing problem behaviours. Spearman Rank Correlation was used to test the relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviour while one way ANOVA and t-test were used to test for differences across demographic variables in parental nurturance and problem behaviour. The findings revealed that there were no significant differences in perceived parental nurturance with regard to sex and provinces. There were significant differences however, across marital status. The findings also revealed no significant differences in problem behaviour between the provinces, parental level of education and parental marital status. The study found a significant negatively correlated relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviour among the adolescent students. Based on the findings, it was suggested that in developing policies for school management, the possible influence of parents on the behaviour of adolescent students be given more serious consideration. It was also suggested that when addressing problem behaviour issues in schools, educators should pay more attention to the relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviour. This is to avoid focusing on correcting problem behaviours without considering the possible influence of parental dynamics.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Problem behaviour is defined as behaviour that is socially defined as a problem, as a source of concern, or as undesirable by the social/legal norms of conventional society and its institutions of authority, and usually elicits some form of control response (Jessor, Graves, Hanson and Jessor, 1968).

Problem behaviours among secondary school going populations, the world over, are of concern to educators, counselors and psychologists. This is because of the potential of problem behaviours at the adolescent stage to undermine the achievement of both personal and national development goals. The danger to achievement of goals stems, largely, from the varying control responses that are often elicited with regard to problem behaviours.

In school settings, problem behaviours lead to wastage of valuable class and study time due to punishments and other corrective measures that are imposed on the students. In some cases, problem behaviours may lead to discontinuation of schooling, when students get expelled from school. Finn, Fish and Scott (2008) observed that misbehaviour in school can be harmful to the individual students as it interferes with learning, decreases the chance of graduating, or reduces the likelihood of entering or completing post-high school education.

Problem behaviours are broadly classified into two categories: externalizing problem behaviours, and internalizing problem behaviours. Externalizing problem behaviours are characterized by emotions, feelings and actions that are aggressively outwardly expressed, usually toward other persons. These include: physical aggression, property damage, violation of the rights of others and of social norms as well as a disregard for authority. Internalizing problem behaviours, on the other hand, are characterized by actions, emotions, and feelings that are inwardly directed at the individual. These include: overwhelming anxiety, depression, and loneliness. Both forms of problem behaviour are recognized as being prevalent among secondary school students the world over.

Problem behaviours have been studied by researchers in different parts of the world with findings showing frequent occurrence of various kinds of problem behaviours. Cotton et al. (1994) studied fighting behaviours among African American adolescents, and found that 37% of the students had been involved in a physical fight. With regard to violence, Mrug, Loosier and Windle (2008) found high levels of violence exposure occurring in schools. Nansel et al. (2001) also found the prevalence of bullying among United States of America (US) youth to be substantial. Plan International (2008) found bullying in all its forms to be a serious challenge in the Organization for Economic Development countries.

In Kenya, problem behaviours have been studied, mostly in the context of indiscipline in secondary schools. The studies conducted in Kenya have sought to examine the causes of indiscipline and common indiscipline problems in secondary schools. The

study authors also made recommendations on how to reduce indiscipline problems in schools.

Wachanga (2003) examined the causes of indiscipline amongst secondary school students in Murang'a District. With regard to family dynamics, students, teachers and managers of the schools all cited the following factors as contributing to indiscipline in the schools: parents who were too busy for the students, unusually high and unrealistic expectations from parents, being treated like little children by their parents, being from single-parented households and low self-esteem as a result of being poor.

Similarly, Wachira K. P. (2002) studied the factors leading to the increase in undesirable behaviour among selected secondary schools in Nairobi. Among the factors cited by respondents as being related to deviant behaviour were: laxity of parents, home background, poor adult role models and lack of parental guidance. Another study by Ziro (2002) found that poor role modelling by parents was cited as one of the main contributory factors to behaviour problems among students. Among the recommendations of his study was that parents should be encouraged to play their parental roles effectively so as to help teachers to mold their children into good well-behaved individuals.

A more recent study by Kagendo (2009) found that among the most commonly cited causative factors of indiscipline in secondary schools, as perceived by teachers and head-teachers, was poor role modelling by parents.

Researchers have also attempted to identify the commonly occurring behaviour problems in Kenyan secondary schools. Kyalo (2010) found that boy/girl relationships, poor response to bells, theft, faking sickness, fighting, noise making, and destruction of school property, refusal to complete assignments as well as riots and demonstrations, were the most frequently cited indiscipline problems. Mutisya (2003) and Ngunzi (2004) found that lateness, absenteeism, truancy, unattended duties and wrong dressing and smoking were commonly occurring behaviour problems.

Mutisya (2003) and Oriya (2005) both found fighting among students to be frequently reported in secondary schools. Njoroge (2005) found that lateness, irresponsible sexual behaviour, general indiscipline, stealing, noisemaking, truancy, negative attitude and arrogance, bullying, drug and alcohol abuse, and sneaking from school were commonly reported behaviour problems. Similarly, Ziro (2002) found that refusal to put on uniform while going out of school, teasing fellow students, striking, disobedience to prefects, refusal to take legitimate punishment from teachers and refusal to do cleaning duties were common behaviour problems that teachers and head-teachers dealt with.

Over and above the scientific studies cited above, there have been efforts made by the Government of Kenya (GoK) to address the challenge of problem behaviours in secondary schools. These efforts have mainly focused on the reduction in acts of violence occurring in secondary schools and have included setting up of committees and task forces to investigate and recommend solutions to unrest and violence in schools. The most notable of these were the Presidential Committee on Student

Unrest and Indiscipline in Kenyan Secondary Schools, set up after the St. Kizito High School tragedy, the Task Force on Student Discipline and Unrests in Secondary Schools set up in 2001 and more recently, the Inquiry into Students Unrests and Strikes in Secondary Schools by the Parliamentary Departmental Committee on Education, Research and Technology, 2008. These committees, task forces and other bodies have published reports that detail the causes of violence in schools. They have also made recommendations on how to reduce violence in schools.

Some of the causes of violence in schools, and problem behaviours cited in these reports include: uncooperative parents who always side with their children regardless of the mistakes done, absentee parents who abdicate their parental responsibilities to housemaids and parents giving excess pocket money to their children. Others are: poor role modelling by parents, parents not imparting the relevant cultural values to their children, moral decay in society, drug and substance abuse, out-of-school peer group influence, and hopelessness amongst students due to the perception of a bleak future.

Among the recommendations made by the task forces and committees are: parents to regulate students' pocket money, parents, at all times, to dedicate time for their children to provide them with proper guidance and mentoring, and parents to rake their responsibilities in guiding and counseling their children (Ministry of Education, 2008; Ministry of Education Science and Technology, 2001).

Findings from the Kenyan studies cited convergence towards the fact that parental/child relationships are believed to have a profound influence on the

psychosocial development of children. Findings from other studies indicate that different aspects of parental-adolescent relationships do indeed influence adolescent behaviour both positively and negatively. Dmitrieva, Chen, Greenberger and Gil-Rivas (2004) found that poorer quality of parent-adolescent relationships was related to higher levels of adolescent depressed mood. Barber, Bolitho and Bertrand (2001), found that, family environment and parent-child synchrony were strongly predictive of emotional adjustment and conduct disorder, while parent child rearing practices during preadolescence and early adolescence were found to be critical in fostering socially competent behaviour among children and preventing involvement in risky behaviour (Saric-Raboteg, Rijavec, & Zganec-Brajsa, 2001). Other findings relating parent-adolescent relationships to negative adolescent conduct were established by Abomah (2005), Ayele (1997), Barber, Bolitho et al. (2001), Becker, Peterson, Hellmer, Shoemaker & Quay (1959), Beuhler (2006), Kinai (2002), Mndeme (2004), Mucher (1999), Ojiambo (2002), Wachira K.P. (2002) and Wangeri (2007).

Parental nurturance, defined as parents' approval, acceptance and affirmation (Buri, 1989) is believed to influence psychosocial disposition of secondary school going children. Studies on parental nurturance indicate a correlation between nurturance, adolescent behaviour and psychosocial adjustment. Hopkins and Kline (1993) conducted a study on multidimensional self-perception and its link to parental nurturance. Their findings showed a positive relationship between parental nurturance and global self-worth. The study findings also showed a positive relationship between nurturance and several dimensions of self-perception. These dimensions included morality, social acceptance, scholastic competence and intellectual ability. Similar findings were reported by (Buri, Kirchner, & Walsh, 1987) and (Buri & Murphy,

1992) who found a relationship between parental nurturance and self-esteem. Wong, deMan and Leung (2002) found that Chinese adolescents who experienced their mothers as less warm and affectionate tended to suffer from greater suicidal ideation, with girls reporting higher levels of ideation than boys.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

A review of studies has established that problem behaviours are occurring frequently in secondary schools globally and in Kenya (Cotten et al. 1994; Kagendo, 2009; Kyalo, 2010; MOE, 2001; MOE, 2008; Mrug et al. 2008; Mutisya, 2003; Nansel et al. 2001; Ngunzi, 2004; Njoroge, 2005; Oriya, 2005; Plan, 2008; Wachanga, 2003; Wachira, K, 2002; & Ziro, 2002). Efforts by the Government of Kenya have comprised setting task forces that gather views from stakeholders and end up making recommendations that do not seem to make much difference in addressing the problem behaviours (MOE, 2001; MOE, 2008 & KNA, 2008). The failure to effectively reduce problem behaviours amongst adolescent students may be explained by the fact that the reports are basically opinions of individuals that are not backed by any empirical data.

A number of studies done on problem behaviours among adolescent students have identified the parent-child relationship as being a strong influencing factor in the behaviour disposition of adolescents (Kinai, 2002; Milkias, 1999; Ojiambo, 2002; Saric-Raboteg, Rijavec & Zganec-Brajsa, 2001; Wangeri, 2007; Zervas & Sherman, 1993). Although studies have been conducted to understand how parent-child relationships influence adolescent behaviour, little has been done to examine the

relationship of perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours amongst secondary school students. This study therefore sought to fill this gap.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to find out whether there is a relationship between parental nurturance and problem behaviours among secondary school students in Kenya.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives that guided this study were the following:

1. To evaluate the perceived levels of parental nurturance among the adolescents.
2. To determine if there were significant differences in perceived parental nurturance by adolescents across the following demographic variables: adolescent sex, province, parents' marital status and parental level of education.
3. To investigate the occurrence of different types problem behaviour among the students.
4. To determine if there were significant differences in the occurrence of problem behaviour among the adolescents with regard to the following demographic variables: adolescent sex, province, parents' marital status and parental level of education.
5. To investigate the relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviour among the adolescents.

1.5 Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

1. What are the perceived levels of parental nurturance among the students?
2. To what extent are there significant differences in perceived parental nurturance by the adolescents across the following demographic variables: adolescent sex, province, parents' marital status and parental level of education?
3. What is the occurrence of different types of problem behaviours among the students?
4. To what extent are there significant differences in occurrence of different types of problem behaviour among the students with regard to the following demographic variables: adolescent sex, province, parents' marital status and parental level of education?
5. What is the relationship between parental nurturance and problem behaviour among the students?

1.6 Rationale and Assumptions

The rationale for the study lay in the assumption that since behaviour is influenced by parent-child relationship dynamics, perceptions of parental nurturance by secondary school students would impact their behaviour. As observed earlier, studies on secondary school student behaviour in Kenya, while acknowledging the influence of parents in the behaviour disposition of their children, have not focused on perceptions of parental nurturance. There was therefore a serious need for studies to investigate the role of perceived parental nurturance in the problem behaviour dynamics of secondary school students in Kenya.

Several assumptions were made when carrying out the study, as follows:

1. Parents have a strong influence on children's problem behaviour dispositions.
2. Secondary school students are capable of evaluating their parents' nurturance.
3. Secondary school students are capable of evaluating their own behaviours.
4. Participants will be honest in their responses.
5. Participants will not feel pressured into taking part in the study.
6. Participants have the reading skills required to understand the questions in the instruments.

1.7 Significance of the Study

The importance of studying perceived parental nurturance and its relationship to problem behaviours amongst adolescent students was informed by the need to understand how parent-child relational dynamics influenced adolescent behaviour. While student behaviour in Kenya was perceived to be influenced, to a large extent by parents, a broader understanding of the development of problem behaviour with relation to perceptions of nurturance may have practical and theoretical implications on social, developmental, school and counseling psychology.

The findings of this study may benefit school teachers and administrators by highlighting the relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours. As opposed to conducting interventions solely with students who present with problem behaviours, educational practitioners may find the study findings useful in designing intervention strategies that are more holistic and inclusive of family members, especially parents. These intervention strategies may help educators detect

problem behaviours at their onset before they become hard to manage. The educators may use this information to educate parents on the importance of nurturance in the psychological development of children.

The findings of this study may be of particular interest to practitioners in the mental health field. This is because continued manifestation of problem behaviours can have negative consequences on healthy functioning of secondary school children. This may undermine the attainment of life goals such as completing high school and transitioning to high levels of education, as well as becoming a productive member of society.

The findings of the study will also add new and rich scholarly literature to the already existing knowledge on parental influences on student behaviour and will form the foundation for further research in the areas of parent-child relational dynamics, adolescent behaviour and family therapy interventions, especially when dealing with adolescents that have significant problem behaviours.

1.8 Scope and Limitations

The study was limited to selected schools in five counties in Kenya (that were previously districts in two provinces). The study was limited to students in their third year of secondary school. In this study, participation was voluntary. This means that those who chose not to participate in the study may have held different perceptions from the participants.

Perceived parental nurturance was based on the perceptions of the participants. It was therefore subjective to their viewpoint. This means that their viewpoint may have been influenced by different factors outside of the study's control.

The measures used in the study (to measure perceived parental nurturance as well as problem behaviours) were self-report. This means that the responses may have been subject to social desirability: the tendency of respondents to answer questions in a manner that will be viewed as more socially acceptable or desirable.

1.9 Operational Definition of Terms

<u>Term</u>	<u>Definition</u>
Externalizing Problem Behaviours	This refers to a subjective report, by respondents, in regard to behaviours that are characterized by emotions, feelings and actions that are aggressively outwardly expressed.
Internalizing Problem Behaviours	This refers to a subjective report, by the respondents, in regard to behaviours that are characterized by actions, emotions and feelings that are inwardly directed at the individual.
Indiscipline	This refers to behaviour of a learner which threatens teaching and learning activities in school (Kagendo, 2009).
Nurturance	This refers to parents' approval, acceptance and affirmation.
Parent/Guardian	This was used, in this research, to refer to both the biological or adoptive parent. Father and mother, paternal and maternal are used interchangeably.
Perceived Parental Nurturance	This is the subjective report of respondents with regard to their perception of their parents' approval, acceptance and affirmation.
Problem Behaviours	This refers to a subjective report, by the respondents, of social undesirable behaviours.
Secondary School	This refers to a learning institution that comes after

primary school but before university.

Social Desirability

This refers to the tendency for an individual to answer questions or give information in ways that are socially acceptable, rather than in ways that are true (Crown and Marlowe, 1960).

Student

This refers to an individual enrolled in a secondary school.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, a theory that helps explain adolescent behaviour as well as parental nurturance is discussed. This chapter also covers a review of past studies on problem behaviours amongst adolescent students and a review of studies on parental-child relationships as well as parental nurturance and its relationship to adolescent behaviour.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

In this section, Attachment Theory is discussed. This theory outlines the importance and influence of different aspects of family dynamics on adolescent behaviour.

2.2.1 Problem Behaviour Theory

Problem Behaviour Theory was developed by Jessor (1987) as a social-psychological framework to predict and explain problem behaviour. The theory consists of three major systems containing explanatory variables that serve either as instigations for engaging in or controls against the involvement in problem behaviour. The three major systems of psychosocial variables according to this theory are: the personality system, the behaviour systems and the perceived environment system.

The personality system comprises concepts that include a patterned and interrelated set of relatively enduring, socio-cognitive variables-values, expectations, beliefs, attitudes, and orientations toward self and society that reflect social learning and

developmental experience. The behaviour system comprises two main concepts: problem behaviours and conventional behaviours. Problem behaviour theory holds that involvement in one type of problem behaviour increases the likelihood of involvement in other problem behaviours due to their linkages in the social ecology of youth.

The perceived environments system, the focus of this study, comprises social controls, models and support. The influence of these variables depends on the directness or conceptual closeness of their relations to problem behaviour. The theory posits that problem behaviour proneness in the perceived environment system includes low parental disapproval of problem behaviour, high peer approval of problem behaviour, high peer models for problem behaviour, low parental controls and support, low peer controls, low compatibility between parent and peer expectations and low parent (relative to peer) influence.

The perception of parental nurturance, by a secondary school student, will influence whether or not they will be prone to engaging in problem behaviour. Students who perceive their parents to have a little or no influence on their lives will probably experience high peer influence, which would mean a higher likelihood to engage in problem behaviours. Poor or low levels of perceived parental nurturance may be an indicator of low parental controls and support. At the adolescent stage of development, in which secondary school students fall, parental controls and support are crucial in ensuring that a child engages in pro-social behaviour and therefore, low levels of perceived parental nurturance may mean a higher likelihood of engaging in problem behaviours.

2.2.2 Attachment Theory

Attachment Theory was developed by Bowlby and Ainsworth (1991). Bowlby (1973) held the idea that in their first years of life, infants develop an attachment style which plays a role in their survival and also influences personality development. According to the Attachment Theory, the early attachment relationships largely influence the way children begin to see themselves in relation to others. These attachment relationships influence how children expect others to behave. These perceptions of self and other are called Internal Working Models (IWMs) that are useful in the appraisal of situations. Internal Working models establish boundaries, and rules by which individuals view themselves and others, including behaviours, feelings and thoughts (Hooper, 2007).

Mary Ainsworth, through laboratory research, observed three different patterns of attachment behaviour in children: secure, insecure-avoidant and insecure-ambivalent (Voss, 1999). Securely attached infants cried little and seemed content to explore in the presence of their mothers; insecurely attached infants cried frequently when held by their mothers, and explored little; and not yet touched infants manifested no differential behaviour to their mothers (Bretherton, 1992).

According to the Attachment Theory, primary attachment styles develop as a result of the nature of relationship that exists between a child and their early attachment figure. When attachment figures are warm and responsive to the child, these children raised develop a secure attachment style.

When children are raised by insensitive attachment figures that reject them, they develop an insecure-avoidant attachment styles. These attachment styles lead children to develop Internal Working Models (IWMs) of others as unavailable and uncaring. They also develop models of themselves as unworthy. Ambivalent children on the other hand, develop positive IWMs of others and negative IWMs of themselves. Like avoidant children, ambivalent children do not learn to effectively cope with their emotions (Voss, 1999).

Bowlby (1973) proposed that attachment style continues to influence behaviour, emotion and personality throughout the life of an individual. Therefore, an individual at secondary school level, who is not securely attached to their parent or parental figure, is more likely to struggle with emotion regulation, as has been outlined in the Attachment Theory. Hooper (2007), states that by the time the person reaches adolescence, early patterns or interaction with attachment figures become organized into generalized interactional styles that are driven by the person's internal working model. These interactional styles, in secondary school children, may vary widely.

Mikulincer, Shaver and Pereg (2003) state that interactions with significant other who are available in times of need, sensitive to one's attachment needs, and responsive to one's bids for proximity facilitate the optimal functioning of the system and promote the formation of a sense of attachment security. As a result, positive expectations about others' availability and positive views of the self as competent and valued are formed, and major affect-regulation strategies are organized around these positive beliefs.

They also state that when significant others are unavailable or unresponsive to one's needs, proximity seeking fails to relieve distress, and a sense of attachment security is not attained. As a result, negative representations of self and others are formed, and strategies to affect regulation other than proximity seeking are developed. Therefore, a secondary school student who perceives their parent to be uncaring, unsupportive and not accommodative, would probably be insecurely attached and would probably exhibit ineffective coping strategies with regard to behavioural and emotional challenges.

2.3 Review of Literature Related to the Study

In this section, a review of studies relating to problem behaviour among adolescent students and the relationships between parental nurturance and adolescent behaviour is discussed. In order to understand the importance of studying problem behaviour among adolescents, this study will review literature on two broad types of problem behaviour: externalizing and internalizing.

2.3.1 Externalizing Problem Behaviours

Externalizing problem behaviours are characterized by emotions, feelings and actions that are aggressively outwardly expressed, usually toward other persons. Different kinds of externalizing problem behaviours have been observed among secondary school student populations across the globe. Among the most common is bullying. The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2006) defines bullying as the act of using strength or power to make somebody do something. Bullying is one of the most common problem behaviours experienced by students not only in Kenyan secondary schools, but also in schools across Africa and the world.

Different studies conducted on the prevalence, causes and effects of bullying in secondary schools show that bullying is considered one of the most prominent problem behaviours by education practitioners the world over. Plan International (2008) commissioned a study on bullying and the findings showed that bullying in all its forms was increasingly considered a serious problem by practitioners, policymakers and academics in Organization for Economic Development (OECD) countries.

In North America, Nansel et al. (2001) studied bullying behaviours among US youth and found that 29.9% of the sample reported moderate or frequent involvement in bullying, as a bully (13%), as one who was bullied (10.6%), or both (6.3%). They sampled (15,586) fifteen thousand five hundred and eighty-six students across the United States of America. The authors of the study concluded that prevalence of bullying among US youth was substantial and given the concurrent behavioural and emotional difficulties associated with bullying, as well as the potential long-term negative outcomes, the issue of bullying merited serious attention both for future research and preventive attention.

More recently, Townsend, Flisher, Chikobvu, Lombard, and King (2008) studied the relationship between bullying behaviours and high school dropouts in Cape Town, South Africa. Their findings showed that among both high school learners and dropouts, 52% of the boys and 36% of the girls had been involved in bullying behaviours. The findings also showed that girls who were bullies and victims were at a greater risk of dropping out of school.

In Kenya, studies on deviant behaviour and on indiscipline have cited bullying as one of the key problem behaviours being manifested in secondary schools. Ziro (2002), studied causes of student unrest in Kilifi District and found that bullying of other colleagues was one of the most common indiscipline problems reported in secondary schools in the area. Oriya (2005), Njoroge (2005) and Mkula (2005) all found that bullying of new students was widely reported in schools.

Additionally, Ndetei, et al. (2007) sought to investigate the prevalence and frequency of bullying in public secondary schools in Nairobi. They sampled one thousand and twelve adolescent students using a self-report socio-demographic questionnaire and the Olewus Bullying Questionnaire. The results showed that between 63.2% and 81.8% of students reported various types of bullying, both direct and indirect. The results also showed that being a bully was significantly associated with becoming a bully, in turn. Their findings show that bullying is indeed prevalent in public secondary schools in Nairobi.

It is clear from the studies cited above that bullying is a major problem in secondary schools. Bullying also presents serious long-term effects such as increased chances of dropping out, lower social competence and other serious behavioural and emotional difficulties, and therefore warrants serious preventive attention from academics, parents and other practitioners such as psychological counselors.

Physical violence among students is a common behaviour problem in secondary schools. Fighting, a common type of physical violence occurs in various forms between individual students and also amongst groups of students. Cotton et al. (1994)

conducted a study on aggression and fighting behaviour among African American adolescents. The study employed the use of self-administered questionnaires that gathered information concerning student characteristics such as aggressiveness, fighting behaviour, attitudes towards violence and weapon-carrying behaviour. Using a sample of seven hundred and forty-four students, they found that 37% (168) of the students had been involved in a physical fight and school records showed that 18% (77) had been suspended from school for fighting.

Mrug, Loosier, and Windle, (2008), examined the relationship between violence exposure in three different contexts and internalizing and externalizing outcomes in early adolescents. The respondents were asked to report whether they witnessed violence in different contexts. The findings of the study showed that adolescents reported high levels of violence exposure occurring in school and the lowest at home. In the school setting, 78.2% of adolescents reported witnessing threats or violence and 22.3% reported being a victim of threats or violence.

Violence in school, specifically fights among students, has been a commonly occurring problem in Kenyan secondary schools. Over the years, there have been numerous reports of fights among different groups of secondary school students in Kenya with some ending up with students getting seriously injured. On May 31st 1999, chaos erupted in Mutige Secondary School in Kirinyaga District when rival groups of students fought on a Sunday night (Daily Nation, 1st June, 1999).

In February 2008, eleven students were seriously injured when Tala High School students raided Makenzie Academy in Kangundo District. During the attack, the

students smashed windows and destroyed curtains. The Tala High School students stated they were revenging the alleged assault of their colleague by students from the Makenzie Academy (The Standard, 27th February, 2008). Later that year, in June, six students of Kithayoni Secondary School were seriously injured when irate boys from Machakos Boys' High School attacked them. The boys invaded the school, beat up students and pelted windows with stones (The Standard, 24th June, 2008).

The findings of studies conducted locally show that physical violence towards fellow students is a commonly reported problem in secondary schools. Wachira K.P. (2002) studied the factors leading to the increase in undesirable social behaviour among students in selected secondary schools in Nairobi and found that, there was an increase in physical violence among secondary school students. Mutisya (2003) and Oriya (2005) both found fighting to be frequently reported in secondary schools.

Indiscipline and deviance, where students simply go against school rules and regulations, have been studied locally. Study findings showed that indiscipline is a major behaviour problem in schools, with different schools reporting the same nature of students' indiscipline. Mutisya (2003) studied the problems of indiscipline affecting selected secondary schools in Central Division of Kitui District. The study found that different schools within the district reported the same nature of students' indiscipline. Theft, lateness, absenteeism, truancy, unattended duties and wrong dressing were all cited as common problems in schools within the region. The study also showed that these and other indiscipline problems had an influence on the performance of schools in the national examinations.

These findings were similar to an earlier study by Ziro (2002), which found that refusal to put on uniform while going out of school, teasing fellow students, striking, disobedience to prefects, refusal to take legitimate punishment from teachers, defiance and refusal to do cleaning duties were some of the most common behaviours that got students into trouble in secondary schools in Kilifi District. More recently, Njoroge (2005) found that the most common incidents of deviance reported were: lateness, irresponsible sexual behaviour, general indiscipline, stealing, noisemaking, truancy, negative attitude and arrogance, bullying, use of drugs and alcohol as well as sneaking out of school.

Property damage is one of the most commonly reported problem behaviours in local secondary schools. Property damage in Kenyan secondary schools is a problem that has plagued the country for decades. While incidents of property damage in secondary schools have been reported since the 1960s, there has been a significant increase in the occurrence of widespread property damage by students in the last two decades. Much of the property damage in Kenyan secondary schools occurs during strikes and riots by the students who take the opportunity to either vandalize or completely destroy property.

Some of the most notable reports of serious property damage in secondary schools include: the torching of a prefects' cubicle in Nyeri High School 1999 where four students were severely burned and later died in hospital (Daily Nation, 25th May, 1999), the fire at Kyanguli High School in March 2001 in Machakos whereby sixty-seven students died (Daily Nation, 27th March, 2001), and the July 2008 incident in which a Form Three student burnt to death while asleep as a fire broke out in the

dormitory at around 2 a.m. The fire is suspected to have been started by fellow students (The Standard, 20th July, 2008). In the year 2008, students in an estimated 290 secondary schools either went on strike or rioted during a wave of student unrest in which many school buildings were torched or destroyed using other means, (Education, Internal report on school strikes and riots, 2008).

It emerges from the above literature that externalizing problem behaviours commonly occur in secondary schools. Considering the possible consequences of these behaviours on educational outcomes and socio-economic development of the individual adolescents, it is crucial to have an understanding of the specific occurrence of these behaviours among students in public secondary schools.

2.3.2 Internalizing Problem Behaviours

Internalizing problem behaviours are characterized by actions, emotions and feelings that are inwardly directed at the individual. They are considered much harder to detect and deal with because the focus of the behaviour tends to be directed toward the individual as opposed to other people.

It is noted that where problem behaviour among secondary school students is concerned, most studies, especially those done in Kenya, have focused primarily on investigating externalizing behaviours, perhaps as a result of their overt nature. There is a dearth of scientifically researched findings in Kenya on different types of internalizing problem behaviours. Still, some forms of internalizing problem behaviours have been studied, with findings showing strong correlations with family dynamics, and specifically, parental factors.

Khasakhala, Ndeti, Mutiso, Mbwayo, and Mathai (2012), sought to determine the prevalence of depressive symptoms among adolescents in Nairobi (Kenya) public secondary schools; make a comparison between day and boarding students; and identify associated factors in that population. They randomly sampled school-going adolescents from a stratified sample of 17 secondary schools out of the 49 public secondary schools in Nairobi Province. The sample was stratified to take into account geographical distribution, day and boarding schools, boys only, girls only and mixed (co-education) schools. Self-administered instruments were used to measure perceived parental behaviour and levels of depression in 1,276 students.

The results showed that the prevalence of clinically significant depressive symptoms was 26.4% and that students in boarding schools had more clinically significant depressive symptoms compared to day students. The results also showed positive correlations between scores for depression and perceived rejecting parenting behaviour ($p < 0.001$), perceived no emotional attachment paternal behaviour ($p < 0.001$), perceived no emotional attachment maternal behaviour ($p < 0.001$) and perceived under-protective paternal behaviour ($p < 0.005$). The researchers concluded that perceived maladaptive parental behaviours are substantially associated with the development of depressive symptoms and suicidal behaviour in children.

A study on depression in adolescents and its relations to parental-child relationships was conducted by Schwartz et al. (2012). They investigated the prospective, longitudinal relations between parental behaviours observed during parent-adolescent interactions, and the development of depression and anxiety symptoms in a

community-based sample of 194 adolescents. They examined both positive and negative parental behaviours. The results of their study showed that higher levels of parental aggression prospectively predicted higher levels of both depression and anxiety symptoms in adolescents over two-and-a-half years, whereas higher levels of positive parental behaviours prospectively predicted lower levels of depression symptoms only.

A previous study by Ritakallio, Luukkaalu, Marttunen, Pelkonen, and Kattiala-Hieno (2010) investigated the interrelations between depression, antisocial behaviour and perceived social support from family, friends and significant others. The researchers sampled 3,278 students aged 15-16 years. They used self-report instruments to measure depression, antisocial behaviour and perceptions of social support. The study found that both depressed boys and girls reported significantly less social support than non-depressed boys and girls. The difference in perceived social support was most evident in both sexes in the decreased social support from family. Their findings also showed that antisocial behaviour was associated with depression in both sexes. Depression was far more common among antisocial boys (25.3%) and antisocial girls (35.1%) than among social boys (4.5%) and social girls (11.1%). Antisocial boys were seven times more likely to be depressive than social boys. Antisocial girls were four times more likely to be depressive than social girls.

Depression among adolescents, and how it is mediated by social support, was also studied by Seeds, Harkness, and Quilty (2010). The researchers sought to apply and test the support deterioration model as a mechanism mediating the relation of childhood maltreatment and bullying with symptoms of depression in adolescence.

The study authors hypothesized that deficits in actual and/or perceived social support may in part account for the depressogenic effects of childhood maltreatment and bullying on depression. They sampled 64 girls and 37 boys between the ages of 13 and 18 using self-report instruments and semi-structured interviews to collect data. Data analysis showed that for adolescents with a clinical diagnosis of depression, all reports of victimization had their onset prior to onset of the index episode. Their findings also showed that mother- and father-perpetrated maltreatment had positive direct effects on depression severity. Maltreatment was associated with higher depression severity.

The literature reviewed shows the influence and effect of parent-child relationships in the course of depression in secondary school children. Studies also show that depression is one of several internalizing behaviours that adolescents struggle with and that internalizing problem behaviours tend to coexist. This means that the manifestation of one type of internalizing problem behaviour may indicate co-occurrence of another type, which may also precipitate other kinds of antisocial behaviour.

Loneliness and anxiety, internalizing problem behaviours that tend to coexist, have been widely studied. Johnson, La Voie, and Mahoney (2001), studied whether inter-parental conflict and family cohesion were predictors of loneliness, social anxiety and social avoidance in late adolescence. Analyses of responses from 124 late adolescents revealed that feelings of loneliness were related to perceived levels of inter-parental conflict for males and females, and decreased family cohesion for females. They also

found that late adolescents' feelings of social anxiety and social avoidance were related to their feelings of loneliness.

A previous study by Brage and Meredith (1993) on the correlates of loneliness among Midwestern adolescents also found correlations between loneliness and parental dynamics. Their study had several objectives: to investigate the extent to which loneliness was experienced by adolescents attending public schools in four Midwestern communities, and to investigate whether there was a difference in loneliness scores for the sample under investigation and those in previous studies with various populations. They also sought to determine whether there was a difference in loneliness scores between male and female subjects, and to systematically examine loneliness in relation to depression, self-esteem, family strengths, parent-adolescent communication, and age of the adolescents.

After sampling 156 adolescents between the ages of 11 and 18, the researchers found no significant difference between female loneliness ($M=2.65$, $SD= .57$) and male loneliness ($M=2.64$, $SD= .57$). They also found that, of the independent variables examined, depression was most highly correlated with loneliness ($r = .646$, $p<0.001$) and that a statistically significant relationship was found between loneliness and self-esteem ($r = -.482$, $p<0.001$). In addition, they found that loneliness was negatively related to family strengths ($r = -.276$, $p<0.001$) and mother-adolescent communication ($r = -.252$, $p<0.001$) was not significantly correlated to father-adolescent communication. They also found that older adolescents were lonelier ($r = .227$, $p < .01$) than younger adolescents.

Le Roux (2009) investigated the relationship between loneliness and adolescent attitudes towards their fathers. The study sampled 1,068 adolescents aged between 11 and 19 from seven randomly selected schools in Mangaung area, South Africa. The study found correlations between loneliness and the independent variables tested. Loneliness was significantly inversely correlated with attitudes towards fathers ($r = -.372$, $p < 0.001$), socio-economic class ($r = -.217$, $p < 0.001$), and race ($r = -.135$, $p < 0.001$). The findings are notable due to the fact that the correlation between attitudes towards fathers and loneliness was found to be the strongest of all the variables tested.

Loneliness and anxiety have also been studied in other contexts. Corsano, Majorano, and Champretavy (2006), investigated the influence of loneliness and relationships with parents and friends on the psychological well-being or adolescent malaise. They sampled 330 Italian adolescents aged between 11 and 19 years using two self-report instruments: Loneliness Scale for Children and Adolescents and an Assessment of Interpersonal Relations. The findings showed that feelings of loneliness with reference to parents were correlated with low quality scores in mother ($r = -.59$, $p < 0.001$) and father ($r = -.54$, $p < 0.001$) relations. Their findings showed that a positive relationship with friends and parents promotes psychological well-being in adolescents and reduces malaise.

The role of peers and families in predicting the loneliness level of adolescents was studied by Uruk and Demir (2003). They investigated the relative contribution of peer relations, family structure and demographic variables in predicting loneliness in adolescents among 756 Turkish high school students aged between 14 and 17 years.

The study findings indicated that peer relations accounted for 35% of the variance in loneliness; family structure accounted for 15%; and demographic variables accounted for 4%.

The relationship of peer victimization to social anxiety and loneliness in adolescence was studied by Storch, Masia-Warner, and Barrassard (2003). They examined the relations among overt and relational victimization, social anxiety, loneliness and pro-social behaviours from peers. The findings showed that overt and relational victimization were positively associated with fear of negative evaluation, physiological symptoms, social avoidance and loneliness. The findings also showed that pro-social behaviours from peers moderated the effects of overt and relational victimization on peers.

Parental behaviour and family dynamics have also been found to play a role in adolescent anxiety. Van Oort, Verhulst, Ormel, and Huizint (2010) explored whether family or parenting variables were specific to anxiety. The researchers studied 1,875 early adolescents over two waves, at ages 10-12 and 2-3 years later. Their findings showed that family dysfunction and high parenting stress were associated with anxiety. Family dysfunction was not associated with future anxiety, whereas high parenting stress was. They also found that family dysfunction was more strongly associated with anxiety than with depression, whereas parenting stress was more strongly associated with depression.

With regards to the influence of one type of internalized problem behaviour on other kinds of problem behaviours, Yu et al. (2006) conducted a study on youth and

parental perceptions of parental monitoring. They found that compared to non-depressed youth, depressed youth were more likely to anticipate involvement in risk behaviours in the future. Vieno, Pastore & Santinello (2008) also found that depressive symptoms predict increases in antisocial behaviour.

Stevens, Vollebergh, Pels and Crijnen (2005) conducted a study on predicting internalizing problems in Moroccan immigrant adolescents in the Netherlands. They conducted 376 adolescent interviews, 415 parent interviews and administered 238 teacher questionnaires. Their sample consisted of adolescents between the ages of 11 and 18 randomly selected from two major cities in the Netherlands. They found a high level of comorbidity between internalizing and externalizing problems. They also found an association between parental conflicts in the upbringing of the children and internalizing problems in adolescents.

It emerges from the literature reviewed that internalizing problem behaviours do indeed afflict secondary school children. It is also clear that internalized problems among adolescents have significant correlations to other types of problem behaviour and to various parent-child relationship dynamics such as: parental maltreatment, parenting stress and parent-adolescent communication. Due to the potential effects of these problems, it is crucial for education practitioners as well as counselors and psychologists to understand the occurrence of internalizing problem behaviours in local secondary schools.

2.3.3 Parent-child Relationships and Problem Behaviour

There is much empirical evidence that different parental factors are strongly linked to the psychological and social development of secondary school children. Because secondary school students spend the greater part of their calendar years in school, the need to understand the influence of parent-child relationships on their conduct in schools has become much more important. Different studies provide evidence of significant relationships between varied parental-child relationships and behaviour problems among secondary school going children.

Evidence of the influence and correlation of parental affection on the behaviour of children has been documented by different researchers. Becker, Peterson, Hellmer, Shoemaker, and Quay (1959) studied factors in parental behaviour and personality as related to problem behaviour in children in Illinois, USA. They found that in families with children with conduct problems, both parents were maladjusted, gave vent to unbridled emotions and tended to be arbitrary with the child. In addition, the mother tended to be active, dictatorial, thwarting and suggesting whereas the father tended not to enforce regulations.

In Kenya, Kinai (2002) found that adolescents whose parents were harsh and cruel were likely to be more aggressive than those whose parents were warm and loving and adolescents whose parents neglected and rejected them were likely to be more aggressive than those whose parents were supervising and monitoring their activities, movements and social contact. Adolescents whose parents used physical punishment and threats frequently were likely to be more aggressive than those whose parents

used inductive reasoning and reinforcement frequently. The findings of the study also showed that adolescents whose parents enforced discipline inconsistently were likely to be more aggressive than those whose parents enforced discipline consistently, and that adolescents who experienced tensions and discord among family members were likely to be more aggressive than those who experienced peace and harmony.

The relational dynamics within families, especially parent-adolescent relationships have been studied and found to have significant influence on adolescent psychological adjustment. Dmitrieva et al. (2004) investigated the role of parent-adolescent relationships in mediating the association between family-related life events and adolescent depressive symptoms and problem behaviours. They sampled 1,696 eleventh graders from major cities in the United States, China, Korea and the Czech Republic. The respondents completed an anonymous self-report questionnaire that consisted of different scales measuring perceived parental involvement, parent-adolescent conflict, perceived parental sanctions, depressed mood, problem behaviour and family-related negative life events.

The study found that the path from family-related life events to adolescent problem behaviours was mediated by perceived parental involvement, parent-adolescent conflict, and perceived parental sanctions of adolescent misconduct. The study findings also showed that with the exception of minor cross-cultural differences in the magnitude of associations among variables, there was considerable similarity in the association of family factors with adolescent internalizing and externalizing symptomatology. Knafo and Plomin (2006) studied parental discipline and affection and found that, parents who had positive feelings toward their children and provided

positive, non-coercive discipline had children who were relatively more pro-social and that the opposite was true of parents high in negativity toward their children.

Previously, Milkias (1999) examined the influence of parenting style, economic status and academic achievement on self-esteem among two hundred and sixty (260) students and found that rejectful parenting style related negatively to students' self-esteem while authoritative parenting style and socio-economic status related positively to students' self-esteem.

Different studies have been conducted to examine the specific influence father-child and mother-child relational dynamics have on the psychosocial development of children. The findings of these studies, while mixed, tend to converge on the fact that parental behaviour influences the psychosocial adjustment of children.

Day and Padilla-Walker (2009) examined how mothers and father's connectedness and involvement individually and collectively influenced the lives of their children. They specifically sought to find out how fathers' and mothers' parent-child connectedness and behavioural involvement influenced both problem behaviours (externalizing and internalizing behaviours) and positive outcomes (pro-social behaviours and hope) during early adolescence. They found that mothers' and fathers' contributions differed, primarily as a function of child outcome. Namely, father (but not mother) connectedness and involvement were negatively related to adolescents' internalizing and externalizing behaviours, whereas mother (but not father) connectedness and involvement were positively related to adolescents' pro-social behaviours and hope. They also found that when one parent's involvement was low

(for whatever reason), the other parent's involvement made a significant and important contribution to the child's well-being, particularly in the area of internalizing behaviours.

More evidence of the influence of parent-adolescent relationships on adolescent psychosocial outcomes is found in Bulanda and Majumdar (2009). They studied perceived parent-child relations and adolescent self-esteem among a sample of 10,331 adolescents with an average age of 16 years. Adolescent's reports of mothers and father's physical availability, involvement, and quality of relations were each independently and positively associated with adolescent self-esteem. They also found that positive interactions with one parent's involvement and high quality relations with self-esteem grew stronger in the presence of high involvement and relationship quality of the second parent.

The influence of family relational dynamics and emotional socialization on adolescent psychosocial well-being, have also been studied. The findings of these studies also show correlations between parental emotional and behavioural dynamics, and both positive and negative behaviour in adolescents. Stocker, Richmond, Rhoades and Kiang (2007) studied family emotional processes and adolescents' adjustment among 131 families. They sampled 76 adolescent boys and 55 adolescent girls. The study examined the associations between parents' emotional coaching and emotional expressiveness, and adolescents' internalizing and externalizing symptoms. Emotional coaching scales, in the study, assessed how parents responded to adolescents' expressions of anger and sadness.

The study found that mothers were more accommodative and supportive of adolescents' emotional experiences than fathers were. They also found that mothers' and fathers' expression of negative emotions was positively associated with adolescents' internalizing and externalizing symptoms, and that parents' emotional coaching was negatively linked to adolescents' internalizing symptoms but unrelated to their externalizing symptoms.

The influence of family relational dynamics on the health behaviours of adolescents was studied by de Bourdeaudhuij and van Oost (1998). They examined the relationship between general family characteristics, represented by family cohesion and adaptability, and health behaviours. The health behaviours examined in the study were: smoking, alcohol use, sleeping, food choice and physical activity. The study sampled 429 young adolescents between the ages of 12 and 22, in Belgium. Their study found that adolescents in the more healthy clusters reported more cohesion and less adaptability in their families, while those in more unhealthy subgroups reported less cohesion and more adaptability. Findings from their two studies also showed that respondents in more healthy clusters lived in connected families, while those in unhealthy clusters lived more frequently in separated families. The researchers concluded that the level of family bonding, such as the extent to which families emotionally join together, combined with the way in which family members interact with each other affects the risk-taking behaviour of adolescents.

Similar support for consideration of family and parenting factors in adolescent behaviour are found in Saric-Raboteg et al. (2001) who studied the relation of parental practices and self-conceptions to young adolescent problem behaviours and substance

use. The findings of their study showed that high parental monitoring was the only aspect of parental behaviour that was consistently negatively related to children's behaviour problems and substance use.

Similarly, Wood, Read, Mitchell, and Brand (2004) studied parent and peer influences on alcohol involvement among recent high school graduates in a public university in the Northeastern United States. The results of their study showed that parental influences moderated peer influence-drinking in behaviour, such that higher levels of perceived parental involvement were associated with weaker relations between peer influences and alcohol use and problems.

Additionally, Mndeme (2004) in a study on parental factors associated with drug use among youth found that some parental characteristics were associated with youth drug use. These parental characteristics were: a lack of parental understanding, lack of parental confiding relationships, lack of parental awareness of youth's behaviour and lack of or inconsistent parental rules.

More recently, Boyle and Boekeloo (2006) studied perceived parental approval of drinking and its impact on drinking problem behaviours among 265 first-year college students in the USA. The results of their study showed that students perceiving more parental approval for their drinking were more likely to report at least one drinking problem.

Studies on parental approval and adolescent sexual behaviour have also been conducted with results showing a correlation between the two. Jaccard and Dittus

(2000) conducted a study on the adolescent perception of maternal approval of birth control and risky sexual behaviour among a sample of 20,000 adolescents in the USA. Results of the study showed that perceived approval of birth control may increase the probability of sexual activity in some adolescents.

Other parental dynamics that have been studied and found to be significant in the course of adolescent behaviour include parental controls. Goldstein, Davis-Kean, and Eccles (2005), conducted a longitudinal investigation of the impact of relationship perceptions and characteristics on the development of adolescent problem behaviour among 1,357 adolescents in Maryland, USA. Their study findings showed that when adolescents perceived themselves to have high levels of freedom over their day-to-day activities in 7th Grade; they were likely to engage in relatively high amounts of unsupervised socializing in 8th Grade, which in turn placed them at risk of problem behaviour in 11th Grade. The study authors concluded that the importance of parental influence and controls on the psychosocial development of adolescents, as revealed by the study, cannot be understated.

Over and above adolescent emotional and psychological adjustment and risk-taking behaviour, other parental factors have also been found to influence the academic performance of adolescent students. (Ayele A., 1997; Ayele B., 1996 & Tadesse, 1996) all found that, parenting styles and parenting practices had a significant impact on scholastic performance of high school students and that the contribution of parenting styles to differences in achievement was evident even after the contribution of socio-economic status to academic achievement was controlled for.

The literature reviewed seems to converge around the importance of parent-child relationships, on the psychosocial adjustment of children. The current study is therefore timely in that it seeks to investigate the relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviour amongst secondary school students in Kenya. Data from this study will help deepen the understanding of the occurrence of problem behaviour in Kenyan secondary schools as well as shed light on the possible influence of parental factors on the same.

2.3.4 Parental Nurturance and Adolescent Problem Behaviour

Parental nurturance as defined in this study is the approval, acceptance and affirmation of children by their parents. Literature suggests that parental nurturance may be strongly correlated with problem behaviours in children. While studies done in Kenya on parental nurturance are hard to come by, research findings from other parts of the world show that, different aspects of parental nurturance may be correlated with psychological adjustment and problem behaviours in children.

Reuter and Biller (1973) studied perceived paternal nurturance availability and personality adjustment among college males. The results of their study showed that high paternal nurturance combined with at least moderate paternal availability and high maternal availability combined with at least moderate paternal nurturance was related to high scores on the personality adjustment measures.

Moreover, a study by Buri et al. (1987) on family correlates and self-esteem among young American adults found that of the different family factors under study, only the relationship between parental nurturance and self-esteem was significant. These

findings were supported by the results of another study by Buri and Murphy (1992) on stability of parental nurturance as a salient predictor of self-esteem which showed that strong nurturing relationships with one's mother and one's father provide stable bases for global self-esteem throughout the early adolescent to early adulthood years.

Furthermore, Hopkins and Kline (1993) studied multidimensional self-perception and its link to parental nurturance among a sample of 207 students in a metropolitan university in Ohio, USA. Their findings showed a positive relationship between parental nurturance and global self-worth. The study findings also showed a positive relationship between nurturance and several dimensions of self-perception. These dimensions included morality, social acceptance, scholastic competence and intellectual ability.

Specific aspects of parental nurturance have also been studied and most of the findings have been consistent with those of literature reviewed. The link between parental acceptance and psychological adjustment and consequently behaviour outcomes has been explored. Turner, Saranson, and Saranson (2001) conducted a study on the link between parental acceptance and young adult adjustment among 292 undergraduate students in a university in Washington, USA. Their study found that children of parents who described them more positively also reported higher levels of positive and lower levels of negative psychological adjustment. These findings support those of Kinai (2002) who found that adolescents whose parents were harsh and cruel were likely to be more aggressive than those whose parents were warm and loving.

Psychological adjustment in relation to parental nurturance has recently been studied. Arim, Dahinten, Marshall, and Shapka (2011) examined the reciprocal relationships between adolescents' aggressive behaviours and their perceptions of parental nurturance. The study examined two types of adolescent aggressive behaviours (indirect and direct aggression) using a transactional model. The study sampled 1,416 (735 female and 681 male) adolescents who were 10- and 11-year-olds at Time 1 and became 14- and 15-year olds at Time 3. While the findings failed to support reciprocal effects, they confirmed parental effects at different ages for girls and boys. For girls, perceptions of parental nurturance at age 10 were negatively associated with both indirect and direct aggression at age 12. For boys, perceptions of parental nurturance at age 12 were negatively associated with both aggressive behaviours at age 14.

The relative influence of parenting behaviours on behaviour problems in early adolescence was examined by Galambos, Barker, and Almeida (2003). Analyses of data showed that initial levels of internalizing problems were higher among adolescents with parents who reported lower levels of behavioural control and among adolescents with deviant peers. They also found that parents' firm behavioural control seemed to halt the upward trajectory in externalizing problems among adolescents with deviant peers. While the current study did not analyze the influence of peers, the findings on the influence of parental nurturance, support those of the studies mentioned above that show the influence of parental factors in the behavioural course of adolescent children.

These findings are consistent with results of an earlier study by Lisa, Garcia, and Garcia (2007). They studied perceived paternal and maternal acceptance and children's outcomes in Colombia and found that, perceived paternal and maternal acceptance was both related to self-reported children's psychological adjustment. Their findings also showed that perceived acceptance from mothers, but not fathers, was directly related to children's behavioural problems as reported by parents.

Parental affirmation and its relationship to adolescent behaviour and psychological adjustment have been studied in different parts of the world. Zervas and Sherman (1993) conducted a study on the relationship between perceived parental favouritism and self-esteem in a liberal arts college in the USA. The study findings showed that the favoured and non-favoured subjects had higher home-parent self-esteem than did the non-favoured subjects. It was the review of the researchers that it was possible that subjects who perceived themselves to be non-favoured find the parent-child relationship to be less rewarding than either the favoured or non-favoured subjects did because they had experienced feelings of inferiority with respect to their siblings. Wong, deMan, and Leung (2002), studied perceived parent child rearing and suicidal ideation in Chinese adolescents, in Hong Kong, and found that Chinese adolescents who perceived their mothers as less warm and affectionate tended to suffer from greater suicidal ideation, with girls reporting higher levels of ideation than boys.

The influence of parental nurturance on the psychosocial well-being of adolescents cannot be understated. The findings from the different studies reviewed above all point to the importance, for children, of feeling accepted, loved and cared for, by

one's parents; that mattering to one's parents is critical to the psychosocial adjustment of adolescents.

A review of literature related to adolescent problem behaviour in secondary schools in Kenya reveals that majority of the studies have sought to examine the factors that influence behaviour problems occurring in schools and the extent or severity of the same (Kiambuthi, 2005; Kombo, 1998; Mkula, 2005; Mutisya, 2003; Njoroge, 2005; Wachira, K.P., 2002; Wachira, M.W., 2002; Ziro, 2002). Other studies conducted locally and regionally have examined certain aspects of parenting in relation to academic performance of students (Ayele A., 1997, Ayele B., 1996, Ciaraka, 2003, Kinai, 2002, Milkias, 1999, Mucher, 1999, Tadesse, 1996, Wangeri, 2007).

While researchers in Kenya have attempted to understand the causes of problem behaviours among secondary school students, studies conducted in Kenya have not adequately examined parental nurturance as a variable and the implication here is that mental health practitioners as well as service providers in the field of education may not be well equipped to effectively deal with the challenges that the adolescents are facing.

As such, the need to investigate the relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviour among secondary school students is crucial in order to increase understanding of how to intervene with adolescent students that may present with problem behaviours. Studying this relationship will also generate knowledge that will be crucial in helping to prevent the onset and development of problem behaviours among secondary school students.

2.4 Summary of Literature Review

Review of literature indicated that there was a significant manifestation of different problem behaviours among adolescent students. Studies also showed that there exists a wide occurrence of different types of problem behaviours in Kenyan secondary schools (Mkula, 2005, Mutisya, 2003, Ndetei et al., 2007, Njoroge, 2005, Oriya, 2005, Wachira, K.P., 2002, Wachira, M.W., 2002, Ziro, 2002).

The problem behaviours documented by the researchers included bullying, fighting and other forms of physical aggression, deviance and general indiscipline. The literature review also indicated that problem behaviours are a challenge in different parts of the world and that some behaviour types such as bullying are common globally (Nansel et al. 2001) and (Townsend et al. 2008). Physical violence and aggression were also noted to occur frequently in other parts of the world (Cotten et al. 1994) and (Mrug et al. 2008).

It was observed that majority of the studies mentioned above sought to investigate the prevalence of indiscipline and deviance in different public secondary schools in Kenya. These studies also sought to assess the factors influencing the occurrence of different cases of indiscipline. It is important to note that most of the studies reported wide occurrence of different kinds of problem behaviour without providing details of their occurrence. Another key aspect that emerged from the literature review was that there was a general lack of empirical data on internalized behaviour. Other than Khaskhala et al. (2012), hardly any work has been done in understanding internalizing problem behaviour, yet as implied in the literature review above, it is one area that is thought to have a significant bearing on the psychosocial development of adolescents.

This suggested that there was a need to study adolescent problem behaviour, in order to establish baseline data that could be used to design interventions aimed at ensuring that these problem behaviours are dealt with professionally and in a manner that considers the influence of the family system on adolescent psychosocial development.

Review of literature also indicated that there was a relationship between various parent-child dynamics and resultant conduct of the child. These parental factors vary from parenting styles, discipline, warmth, love and rejection, to neglect and affection. These factors have been studied by: Milkias (1999), Saric-Raboteg et al. (2001), Kinai (2002), Dmitrieva et al. (2004), Mndeme (2004), Knafo and Plomin (2006). All these studies have shown that there are strong correlations between the different parental factors listed above and various behavioural tendencies among children. Studies also showed a strong relationship between adolescent perceptions of parental approval and resultant behaviour (Boyle and Boekeloo; 2006 & Jaccard and Dittus; 2000). The influence of family characteristics on the adaptability and health behaviours has also been studied (de Bourdeaudhuij & van Oost, 1998).

Furthermore, review of literature showed that different parental factors influenced adolescent behaviour. Parental and family factors were shown to have an influence on the adolescent behaviour beginning in the early adolescent stage and continue to manifest in mid and late adolescence. This implied that there was need to assess the relationship between perceptions of how nurturing parents were and problem behaviours.

Review of literature also showed that most studies on the relationship between parental nurturance and adolescent problem behaviour and psychological adjustment had been conducted outside Kenya. Hardly any literature existed on the relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviour among secondary school students in Kenya. The current study was therefore designed to provide data on the relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviour among secondary school students in selected counties in Kenya as well as to test whether there were differences in both perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours across various demographic variables.

2.5 Research Hypotheses

In view of the literature reviewed, the following hypotheses were generated:

H_{a1} There is a significant difference in the perception of parental nurturance by adolescent students across the following demographic variables: adolescent sex, province, parents' marital status and parental level of education.

H_{a2} There is a significant difference in the occurrence of problem behaviour among adolescents with regard to the following demographic variables: adolescent sex, province, parents' marital status and parental level of education.

H_{a3} There is a relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours among the adolescents.

H_{a4} There is a relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours among the adolescents while controlling for the following demographic variables: adolescent sex, province, parent's marital status and parental level of education.

2.6 Conceptual Framework

As indicated in Figure 2.1, it was hypothesized that perceived parental nurturance is a predictor of problem behaviour among adolescent students. Perceived parental nurturance was considered a part of the perceived environment system, one of the three explanatory components of the problem behaviour theory. Variables such as level of education, marital status and sex were hypothesized to influence the nurturance patterns of parents.

It was also hypothesized that student demographic variables; sex and geographical location, were correlated to perceived parental nurturance. These variables, sex and geographical location, were also hypothesized to be predictors of patterns of problem behaviour and were also influenced by the perceived environment system of the student.

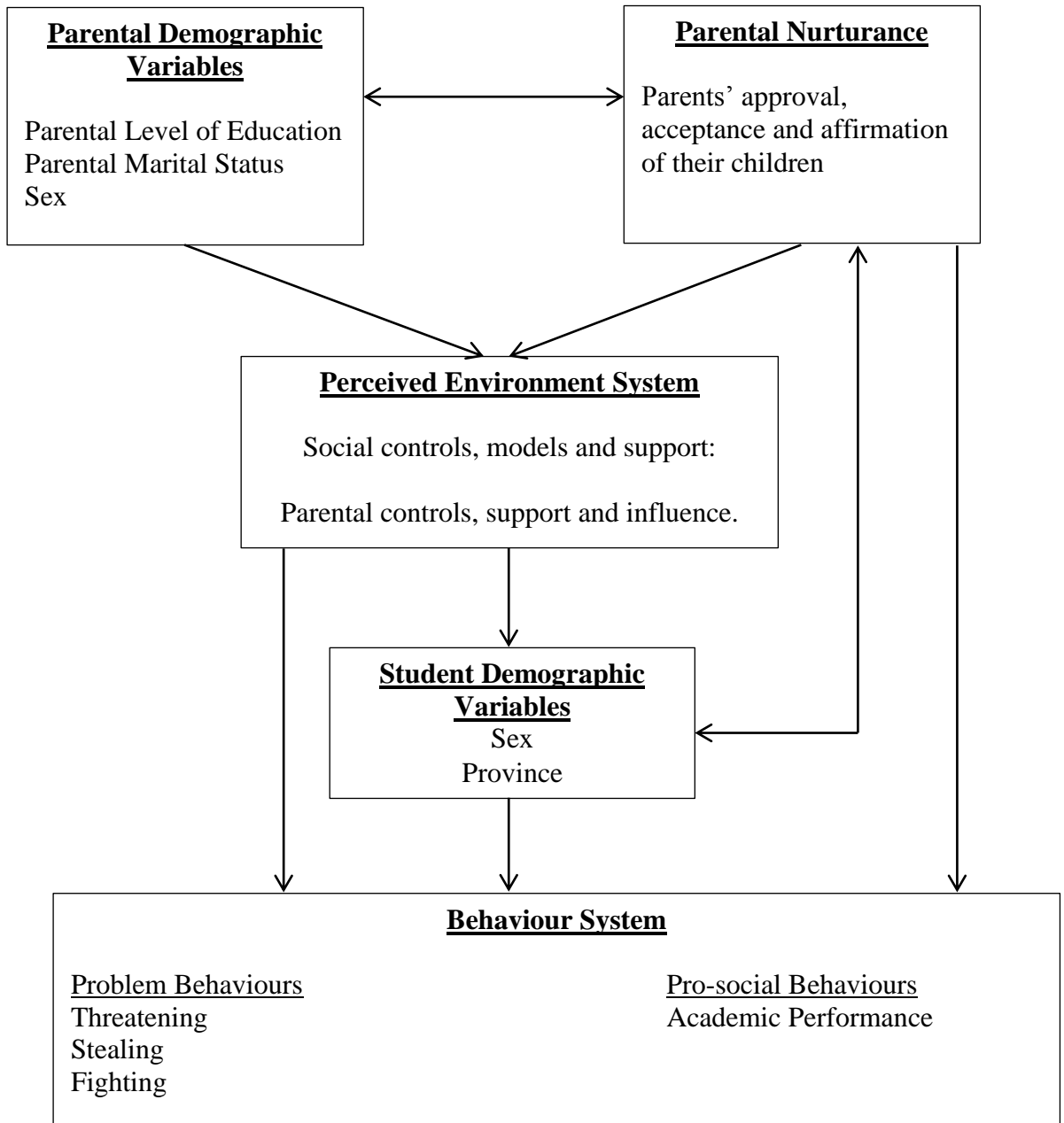


Figure 2.1: Relationship between Perceived Parental Nurturance and Problem Behaviours

Source: Author

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter details the methodological steps utilized in the study. A description of the research design, variables under study, target population, sampling procedures as well as data collection, and analysis procedures is presented.

The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours among secondary school students in selected counties in Kenya.

3.2 Research Design

The study used both exploratory survey research design as well as a correlational research design. According to Mugenda (2008), correlational research assesses the relationships among variables with the researcher being interested in using information obtained from one variable to estimate the variation in a related variable. In the study, data was collected on perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviour among the adolescent students in order to test the nature and extent of the relationship between the two variables.

3.3 Variables under study

The main variables in this study were perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours. Perceived parental nurturance was treated as the independent variable while problem behaviours were treated as the dependent variable. Perceived parental nurturance was measured in terms of the subjective report of research participants with regard to their perception of their parents' approval, support and acceptance.

Problem behaviour was measured in terms of the frequency with which the research participants engaged in or experienced behaviours that depart from the norms of society. These behaviours included: disrupting classes, bullying other students, fighting and damaging property, fighting family members and insulting family members. Other independent variables considered in the study were student sex, parental marital status, and parental level of education.

3.4 Study Location

The study was conducted in the regions previously known as Nairobi Province and Central Province of Kenya. The counties included in the study were: Nairobi, Kiambu, Murang'a, Nyeri and Nyandarua. At the time of the study, the stated counties did not exist in their current form and were all part of two provinces: Nairobi and Central, hence the discussion of results by way of comparison of the two provinces. Nairobi City, the capital city of Kenya, is in Nairobi County. It is the most cosmopolitan city in the country as the residents of Nairobi encompass the different ethnic groups and races found within the country. It was thus expected that the parental demographics would vary considerably because of the varied social, economic and cultural demographics of residents in Nairobi.

Kiambu, Murang'a, Nyeri and Nyandarua counties which were all part of the former Central Province are primarily agricultural regions as opposed to Nairobi where most working adults derive their livelihood from the service sector. These counties are considerably rural in nature, and it was therefore, expected that there would be less cultural and economic diversity among the adolescents there as compared to Nairobi. It was also expected that parental demographic variables would not be as diverse as

those of Nairobi residents because of the rural nature of the counties as well as the fact that the primary source of livelihood in these counties is agriculture unlike Nairobi that has a primarily service-driven economy.

3.5 Study Population

The population targeted by the study was all Form Three students enrolled in public secondary schools in the former Nairobi and Central provinces. Secondary school students were sampled because most students at this level of education are in the adolescent stage of development. Adolescents were more likely than children in other stages of development, to display different problem behaviour tendencies. A considerably high proportion of problem behaviours reported in the Kenyan school system occur at secondary school level, hence the choice of secondary school students as the study population (Kiambuthi, 2005; Kombo, 1998; Mkula, 2005; Njoroge, 2005; Ziro, 2002).

The study purposively sampled students in Form Three of secondary school because, they had been in school for a substantial amount of time and were more likely to have acculturated into the institutional culture. They were unlikely to be under significant pressure as a result of preparations to complete the high school exit examinations (Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education). Form Three students were also expected to have considerably clear perceptions of the nurturance dynamics in their families than younger students.

3.6 Sampling Techniques and Sample Size

In this study, both probability and non-probability sampling were used to select the study sample. Form Three students enrolled in public secondary schools were purposively sampled. Stratified random sampling was used to select the schools. This was done to ensure representativeness with regard to sex and the type of school. Schools were stratified as: national, provincial and district schools except for Nairobi County.

At the time of the study, public secondary schools in Nairobi were categorized as either national or provincial. This was due to the fact that students who completed primary school in Nairobi were admitted to schools in any part of the province, unlike in other provinces in the country where admissions to secondary school were based on the district quotas for both girls and boys. This meant that a candidate's admission into any school depended on the number of places or slots allocated to his/her district.

Schools were also stratified according to sex: boys' and girls' schools. Other strata that were used to select the sample included: boarding schools, day schools, and mixed day schools. The schools were grouped according to provinces: Nairobi and Central. Table 3.1 shows the different strata used in the sampling.

Table 3.1: Sample Strata

<u>Boys' Schools</u>	<u>Girls' Schools</u>
National Schools	National Schools
Provincial Schools	Provincial Schools
District Schools	District Schools
Boarding Schools	Boarding Schools
Day Schools	Day Schools
Mixed Schools	
Day and Boarding Schools	

In the former Nairobi Province, the sample comprised students from: one national girls' school, one national boys' school, one provincial boys' boarding school, one provincial girls' boarding school, one provincial boys' day school, one provincial girls' day school, one provincial mixed day school and one provincial mixed day and boarding school, to give a total of eight schools.

In the former Central Province, the sample comprised students from; one national girls' school, one national boys' school, one provincial boys' school, one provincial girls' school, three district mixed day schools and one district mixed boarding school, to give a total of eight schools. The three mixed day schools were selected proportionately due to the fact that majority of the secondary schools in the former Central Province are in this category. Purposive sampling was used to select Form Three students, random sampling was used to select one stream in each school, and all students in the selected stream were sampled. In total, the sample comprised seven hundred and fourteen students (714). Table 3.2 presents the data on the school

categories as well as the number of students sampled in each category, across the two provinces.

Table 3.2: Sample Frame for Students

<u>Secondary School Categories</u>	<u>Sample size by Province</u>		<u>Sample Size</u>
	<u>Nairobi</u>	<u>Central</u>	
National Boys'	48	50	98
National Girls'	51	47	98
Provincial Boys' Boarding	43	71	114
Provincial Girls' Boarding	41	28	69
Provincial Boys' Day	43	0	43
Provincial Girls' Day	30	0	30
Provincial Mixed Day	67	0	67
District Mixed Day	0	147	147
District Mixed Boarding	0	47	47
Total	323	390	713
			1 ^a

Note: The values indicate the total number of respondents sampled in each school category and in each province. ^aOne student did not indicate the school category on the questionnaire.

3.7 Research Instruments

Two research instruments were used in this study, namely the Parental Nurturance Scale (PNS) to measure perceived parental nurturance and a Problem Behaviour Scale (PBS) to assess frequency of student's involvement in problem behaviours as rated by them. Descriptions of each instrument are as follows:

3.7.1 Parental Nurturance Scale (PNS)

The Parental Nurturance Scale (PNS) used in this study was developed by Buri, Misukanis & Mueller (1987) in the United States of America. It is a 24-item instrument designed to measure parental nurturance from the point of view of a child of any age. Identical forms of the PNS were administered; one that assesses paternal

nurturance and another that assesses maternal nurturance, as perceived by the adolescents.

The PNS consists of Likert statements in which respondents were expected to respond from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree. The statements in the PNS were scored from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) for positive statements. Negative statements were reversed before scoring. Items 1, 3, 7, 8, 11, 13, 14, 16, 18, 19, 21 and 24 were reverse scored with a score of 5 assigned to Strongly Disagree and a score of 1 to Strongly Agree.

The lowest possible score for any respondent on an individual item was 1 and the highest possible score 5, and there was a total of 24 items. The PNS is scored by summing up scores on each item. The lowest score on the PNS is 24 while the highest is 120. A higher score reflects higher levels of perceived parental nurturance.

For purposes of this study, the PNS was scored by using the average of mean scores for every student on the items of the PNS. This was done by adding up the scores for every student on each item and then dividing that by the number of items on the scale. Scores on the PNS were grouped into two categories: Low and High. The mean ranges for the two categories were: Low: 1-3, and High: 3-5.

3.7.2 Problem Behaviour Scale (PBS)

The Problem Behaviour Scale (PBS) is a 34-item scale, developed by the researcher, designed to measure the frequency of problem behaviour amongst adolescents. It consists of two sections with Section capturing demographic information. Section B

consists of 25 Likert statements on different types of problem behaviour, both internalized and externalized, in which respondents are expected to respond from Never to Most of the time.

To score the PBS, numerical scores of 1 to 5 were assigned to each possible response for each item as follows: a score of 5 for Never, 4 for Hardly Ever, 3 for Sometimes, 2 for Often and 1 for Most of the time. There were some positive statements included in the scale to help improve reliability by reducing a response set tendency. Items 6, 8, 11, 17 and 21 were positive statements and were subsequently reversely scored with a score of 5 being assigned to Most of the time and a score of 1 assigned to Never. For each item, therefore, an individual was assigned the score corresponding to his or her specific response. The lowest possible score on an individual item was 1 and the highest was 5.

The PBS was scored by summing up the individual scores on each item and then dividing this score by the number of items on the scale to derive a mean score. The lowest possible summed score on the PBS was 25 and the highest was 125. Three categories were developed to assess for occurrence of problem behaviour among the adolescents. These categories were: low, moderate and high. The mean scores for the three categories were: Low: 1-2.5, Moderate: 2.5-3.5 and High: 3.5-5.0.

3.8 Pilot Study

To check the appropriateness of the instruments, a pilot study was conducted among a sample of one hundred and sixty nine (169) adolescents in four secondary schools in the aforementioned five counties. The schools were randomly selected and comprised

one boys' and one girls' school in each province. Subsequently, the pilot sample was excluded from the final sample. The pilot study was used to pre-test the PNS and the PBS and to determine statistical indices, especially reliability and validity. The PNS was adapted for local use after the pilot study.

3.9 Validity and Reliability

In developing the Problem Behaviour Scale, the researcher worked with the supervisors to develop relevant indicators for problem behaviour among adolescents. Efforts were made to enhance the validity and reliability of the instrument by generating sufficient numbers of items that cover various kinds of problem behaviour. This was done without making the instrument too long as to cause respondent fatigue when completing it.

The validity of the Parental Nurturance Scale was also enhanced by adapting some of the items to make them relevant to the Kenyan context. Items that described certain feelings and perceptions using terminologies common to Americans were substituted for easily recognizable ones for the Kenyan context. For example, a statement that read 'I receive a lot of affirmation from my father/mother' was altered to read 'I receive a lot of support from my father/mother'.

Reliability was established by pre-testing the instruments prior to conducting the study and defective items on the instruments corrected. Cronbach's alpha: a measure of internal consistency based on inter-item correlation was calculated for both instruments that were used. The PBS was found to have internal consistency alphas of

.781 while the PNS had the following internal consistency alphas: .916 for the mother scale and .939 for the father scale.

3.10 Data Collection

Data was collected in the 16 schools over a period of three months by the researcher, without help from research assistants. The questionnaires were administered in groups in classrooms with the assistance of class teachers. Only those students with biological parents or with guardians they considered as parents completed the questionnaires. The students were advised to complete the questionnaires even if they only had one parent: either mother or father.

The participants were informed, by the researcher, that their involvement in the study was strictly voluntary. They were notified that they were under no obligation for involvement in the study and that participation was completely anonymous. The participants were encouraged to read and sign the informed consent form that was provided with the questionnaire (See Appendix IV).

3.11 Data Analysis

Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used in data analysis. Descriptive statistics such as measures of central tendency and percentages were used to describe data collected. Inferential statistics, including the t-test, Spearman Rank and ANOVA were used to test hypotheses. All hypotheses testing was done at $\alpha=.05$. All these analyses were aided by use of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

Spearman Rank correlation coefficient was used to establish relationships between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours. Spearman Rank correlation coefficient was also used to establish relationships between parents' marital status and problem behaviours, and parents' education level and problem behaviours. T-test and analysis of variance were used to establish differences in occurrence of problem behaviours across sexes. Partial correlation was used to establish correlations between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviour while controlling for demographic variables: adolescent sex, province, parent's marital status and parent's level of education. The hypotheses used in the study are discussed in the next section.

The hypotheses tested in the study are as follows:

- H₀₁ There are no significant differences in perceived parental nurturance across the following demographic variables: sex, parents' marital status and parental levels of education.
- H₀₂ There is no significant difference in occurrence of problem behaviours among adolescent students with regard to the following demographic variables: sex, parents' marital status and parental level of education.
- H₀₃ There is no relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours among the adolescents.
- H₀₄ There is no relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours among the adolescents while controlling for: sex, parents' marital status and parental level of education.

3.12 Data Management and Ethical Considerations

Prior to carrying out the study, relevant authority to conduct research was obtained from the National Council for Science and Technology, Ministry of Education, Provincial Administration as well as the respective school managers.

The participants were informed of the nature of research and signed the informed consent form prior to them completing the questionnaires. The meaning of informed consent was also verbally explained to the participants prior to their completing the questionnaires. Research participants were also informed that they were free to withdraw from the research at any stage if they felt that they no longer wanted to participate. The data collected was treated with utmost confidentiality during and after the research and used only for the intended research purpose.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS & RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter contains the findings of the study on the relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours among adolescent students in selected counties in Kenya. The chapter is divided into five sections. The first section comprises of demographic characteristics of the sample used in the study. The second and third sections comprise of descriptions of the data on the independent variable (parental nurturance) and the dependent variable (problem behaviour) respectively. The fourth section reports the findings on the relationship between the two variables (parental nurturance and problem behaviour) while the final section gives a summary of the results.

4.2 Demographic Data of the Sample

Data on the sample was analyzed in terms of demographic variables and thus looked at: age, sex, school categories, province, perceived socio-economic status, parental marital status, and parental levels of education. These were considered significant to child rearing in modern Kenya.

4.2.1 Respondents by School Category and Province

Table 4.1 shows the school categories by province and the number of students in each school category who took part in the study. The sample comprised 16 schools that were randomly sampled from different strata which included boys' and girls' schools. The school categories were: national boys' boarding, national girls' boarding, provincial boys' boarding, provincial girls' boarding, and provincial boys' day,

provincial girls' day, provincial mixed day, district mixed day and district mixed day and boarding schools.

Table 4.1: Respondents by School Category

<u>Secondary School</u> <u>Categories</u>	<u>Sample size by Province</u>				<u>Sample</u> <u>Size</u>	<u>%</u>
	<u>Nairobi</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Central</u>	<u>%</u>		
National Boys'	48	6.7	50	7.0	98	13.7
National Girls'	51	7.2	47	6.6	98	13.7
Provincial Boys'	43	6.0	71	10.0	114	16.0
Boarding						
Provincial Girls'	41	5.8	28	3.9	69	9.7
Boarding						
Provincial Boys' Day	43	5.9	0	.1	43	6.0
Provincial Girls' Day	30	4.2	0	.0	30	4.2
Provincial Mixed Day	67	9.4	67	.0	67	9.4
District Mixed Day	0	.0	147	20.6	147	20.6
District Mixed	0	.0	47	6.6	47	6.6
Boarding						
Total	322	45.2	391	54.8	713	100.0

The largest single school category was that of District Mixed Day Schools in which 21% of the total sample fell. This category comprised schools in Central Province only. The findings indicate that all public secondary schools in the former Nairobi Province at the time of the study were categorized as either national schools or provincial schools, hence the categories: Provincial Boys' Day schools and Provincial Girls' Day schools in table 4.1.

4.2.2 Age by Sex of Respondents

The total sample size for the study was seven hundred and fourteen (714) with a total seven hundred and three (703) respondents indicating their sex. Of these 314 (45%) were male students, while 389 (55%) were female students. Eleven (11) of the students chose not to indicate their sex.

Table 4.2 shows the frequency and percentages of either sex in the sample. The age of respondents ranged from 14 years to 26 years as shown in Table 4.2. The mean age was 16.72 years. A majority of the students were in the age range of 16-17 years, which is not surprising given the official school entrance age of 6 years. This age bracket comprised 72% of the total sample. The students aged 18 were 14% while those aged 19 were 4%. There were also a small number of students (9) that were aged between 20 and 26. A cross-tabulation of age by sex shows that in the 17-19 age bracket, there were considerably more female students (239) than there were male students (118).

Table 4.2: Sex by Age of Respondents

<u>Age</u>	<u>Sample size by Sex</u>		<u>Total Sample</u> <u>Size</u>	<u>Percentage of</u> <u>Sample</u>
	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>		
14	2	1	3	4
15	42	21	63	9.3
16	135	108	243	36.0
17	96	143	239	35.4
18	19	70	89	13.2
19	3	26	29	4.3
20	3	3	6	.9
22	0	1	1	.1
25	0	1	1	.1
26	1	0	1	.1
Total	301	374	675	100.0
			39 ^a	

Note: Total number of respondents that indicated their age =675.^aNumber of respondents who did not indicate their age.

4.2.3 Living Arrangements

The respondents were asked to indicate which parents or guardians they lived with at home. Table 4.3 presents the living arrangements of the students in the two former provinces.

Table 4.3: Living Arrangements

<u>Parent/Guardian respondent</u> <u>lives with</u>	<u>Sample size by Province</u>				<u>Total</u> <u>Sample</u>	<u>%</u>
	<u>Nairobi</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Central</u>	<u>%</u>		
Mother and Father	193	27.5	273	38.9	466	66.4
Mother only	80	11.4	74	10.5	154	21.9
Father only	20	2.8	15	2.1	35	5.0
Grandmother	9	1.3	5	.7	14	2.0
Aunt	7	1.0	5	.7	12	1.7
Brother	2	.3	3	.4	5	.7
Grandmother and Grandfather	3	.4	2	.3	5	.7
Grandfather	1	.1	3	.4	4	.6
Mother and Stepfather	2	.3	0	.0	2	.3
Father and Stepmother	1	.1	1	.1	2	.3
Father and Grandmother	0	.0	1	.1	1	.1
Uncle	1	.1	0	.0	1	.1
Total	319	45.4	383	54.6	702	100.0
					12 ^a	

Note: A total of 702 respondents indicated which parent/guardian they lived with. ^aNumber of respondents who did not indicate who they lived with.

From Table 4.3, majority of respondents (66%) indicated that they lived with both parents while 22% of respondents indicated that they lived with their mothers only. In addition, 5% of respondents indicated that they lived with their fathers only while 2% lived with their grandmothers.

While majority of the students indicated that they lived with both parents at home, an analysis of the living arrangements by province indicates that relatively more of the

Nairobi students were living with a single parent than were respondents from Central Province.

4.2.4 Parental Marital Status

The respondents were asked to indicate the marital status of their parents and/or guardians. Majority of respondents (74%) indicated that their parents were married, 9% indicated that their parents were single, 8% indicated that their parents were widowed, 5% indicated their parents were separated while the remaining 3% indicated that their parents were divorced. This information is presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Parental Marital Status

<u>Category</u>	<u>Marital Status</u>				<u>Total</u>	<u>%</u>
	<u>Sample size by Province</u>					
	<u>Nairobi</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Central</u>	<u>%</u>		
Married	224	32.0	298	42.5	522	74.5
Single	32	4.6	31	4.4	63	9.0
Separated	17	2.4	18	2.6	35	5.0
Divorced	13	1.9	11	1.6	24	3.4
Widowed	34	4.9	23	3.3	57	8.1
Total	320	45.8	381	54.4	701	100.0
					13 ^a	

Note: ^aNumber of respondents that did not indicate the marital status of their parents.

4.2.5 Parental Levels of Education

The respondents were asked to indicate the level of education their parents had attained. Levels of education were categorized as: primary school, high school, middle-level college and university. The results are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Parental Levels of Education

Father/Guardian's education level	Sample size by Province				Total Sample	%
	Nairobi	%	Central	%		
Primary school	35	5.6	58	9.2	93	14.8
High school	50	8.0	116	18.5	166	26.4
Middle-level college	94	15.0	91	14.5	185	29.5
University	96	15.3	88	14.0	184	29.3
Total	275	43.8	353	56.2	628	100.0
					86 ^a	

Mother/Guardian's education level	Sample size by Province				Total Sample	%
	Nairobi	%	Central	%		
Primary school	58	8.7	89	13.3	147	21.9
High School	67	10.0	125	18.7	192	28.7
Middle-level college	110	16.4	106	15.8	216	32.2
University	62	9.3	53	7.9	115	17.2
Total	297	44.3	373	55.7	670	100.0
					44 ^b	

Note: ^aNumber of respondents that did not indicate father's level of education. ^bNumber of respondents that did not indicate mother's level of education.

The findings in Table 4.5 show that 29% of the fathers had attained a university education compared to 17% of mothers while slightly more mothers (32%) had attained a middle-level college education compared to fathers (30%). The findings also indicate that more students were aware of the education levels of their mothers than of their fathers, that is; 670 against 628.

4.2.6 Perceived Socio-economic Status

In the section on demographic information, the respondents were asked to indicate their perceived family socio-economic status. Three categories were provided on the same: Low socio-economic status, average socio-economic status and high socio-economic status.

Table 4.6 shows results of the perceived family socio-economic status of the respondents. From Table 4.6, majority of respondents (78%) perceived their families to be of average socio-economic status, 11% perceived their families to be of low socio-economic status while 7% had a perception that their families were of high socio-economic status.

Table 4.6: Perceived Socio-economic Status

<u>Categories</u>	<u>Perceived Socio-economic Status</u>			
	<u>Sample size by Province</u>		<u>Total</u>	<u>% of</u>
	<u>Nairobi</u>	<u>Central</u>	<u>Sample</u>	<u>total</u>
High	15	24	39	7
Average	265	292	557	78
Low	33	46	79	11
Total	313	372	685	96
			29 ^a	4

Note: ^aNumber of students that did not indicate their perceived socio-economic status.

4.2.7 Religious Affiliation by Commitment to Religion

Respondents were asked to indicate their religious affiliations. A majority of the respondents (96%) indicated that they were Christians: 36% were of the Catholic faith while 60% indicated they were protestant but did not specify the denominations. The rest of the respondents indicated that they were Muslim (4%), Hindu (1%) and Rastafarian (.1%). Table 4.7 shows the religious affiliations of the respondents.

The respondents were also asked to indicate the extent to which they were committed to their religion. Four categories were provided: Very committed, Committed, Somewhat committed and Not committed. As shown in Table 4.7, one hundred and seventy-nine (179) respondents indicated that they were very committed to religion, while three hundred and fifty-two (352) were committed to religion. In addition, one hundred and thirty-two (132) respondents indicated they were somewhat committed to religion while the remaining twenty-five (25) were not committed to their religion.

Table 4.7: Religious Affiliation by Commitment to Religion

<u>Religious affiliation</u>	<u>Sample size by Commitment to Religion</u>				<u>Total Sample</u>
	<u>Very Committed</u>	<u>Committed</u>	<u>Somewhat Committed</u>	<u>Not Committed</u>	
Catholic	56	133	50	8	247
Protestant	109	204	76	14	403
Muslim	10	11	5	2	28
Hindu	0	1	0	0	1
Seventh Day Adventist	3	3	1	1	8
Rastafarian	1	0	0	0	1
Total	179	352	132	25	688
					26 ^a

Note: ^aNumber of respondents who did not indicate their commitment to religion.

4.3 Perceived Parental Nurturance among the Respondents

In this section, findings of the study will be presented according to the objectives. The first objective was to establish the perceived parental nurturance of the respondents.

4.3.1 General Perceived Parental Nurturance Scores

Descriptive data analysis was carried out on the perceived parental nurturance scores. Perceived parental nurturance was measured using a 24-item Likert scale in which respondents were expected to respond from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree. The statements in the PNS were scored from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). The lowest possible score on any individual item was 1 and the highest possible score was 5. Table 4.8 gives the obtained information.

From Table 4.8, the lowest perceived parental nurturance score was 1.38 while the highest was 5. The mean perceived parental nurturance score was 3.84 while the median was 3.87 indicating that the students perceived their parents to be highly nurturing.

Table 4.8: Descriptive statistics of perceived parental nurturance

<u>Statistics</u>	<u>Values</u>	
N	Valid	709
	Missing	5
Mean		3.8403
Median		3.8750
Mode		3.88 ^a
Range		3.63
Std. Deviation		.62536
Variance		.391
Skewness		-.498
Standard Error of Skewness		.092
Kurtosis		.260
Standard Error of Kurtosis		.183
Minimum		1.38
Maximum		5.00

Note. ^aMultiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown.

To measure the different levels of perceived parental nurturance, the scores on the PNS were grouped into two categories: Low, and High. These categories were created

using the average mean scores for every student on the items of the PNS. This was done by adding up the scores for every student on each item and then dividing that score by the number of items on the scale. The levels of perceived parental nurturance were based on the following mean ranges: Low: 1-3 and High: 3-5. The following table presents a visual impression of the categories of perceived parental nurturance.

Table 4.9: Levels of Perceived Parental Nurturance

<u>Perceived Parental Nurturance</u>		
<u>Categories</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Low	68	9.5
High	641	89.8
Total	709	99.3
	5 ^a	.7 ^b

Note. ^aNumber missing from total frequency count. ^bMissing percentage.

From Table 4.9, majority of the respondents (89.8%) perceived their parents to be highly nurturing while 9.5% of the respondents indicated to having a low perception of parental nurturance.

4.3.2 Perceived Parental Nurturance by Demographic Variables

This section presents findings of perceived parental nurturance according to various demographic variables: sex, province, parents' marital status and parental levels of education.

4.3.2.1 Perceived Parental Nurturance by Sex of Respondents

The study sought to establish if there was a difference in perceived parental nurturance between the male and the female students. Table 4.10 shows the scores of perceived parental nurturance by sex.

Table 4.10: Perceived Parental Nurturance by Sex of Respondents

Sex	Statistic	Maternal Nurturance	Paternal Nurturance	Parental Nurturance
Female	Frequency	307	269	314
	Mean	3.9006	3.7579	3.8381
	Std. Deviation	.68651	.81258	.64156
Male	Frequency	381	331	386
	Mean	4.0076	3.6680	3.8474
	Std. Deviation	.63547	.78661	.61538
Total	Frequency	688	600	700
	Mean	3.9599	3.7083	3.8433
	Std. Deviation	.66039	.79894	.62683

To compare the perceived parental nurturance of male and female students, means were calculated. There were slightly higher mean scores for perceived maternal nurturance than for perceived paternal nurturance among both female and male students. There was also a higher variation in perceived paternal nurturance scores compared to perceived maternal nurturance scores as evidenced by the higher standard deviations for paternal nurturance than maternal nurturance.

Female students had perceived maternal nurturance mean scores of 3.90. Male students had a slightly higher perceived maternal nurturance mean score of 4.00. With regard to perceived paternal nurturance, female students had slightly higher perceived paternal nurturance mean scores at 3.76 while male students had perceived paternal nurturance mean scores of 3.67.

To test the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in perceived parental nurturance between male and female students, an Independent Samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean scores of the two groups. The analysis showed that the two means were not significantly different ($t=1.196$, $df=698$, $p\text{-value}=.84$), hence, the null hypothesis stated was accepted.

4.3.2.2 Perceived Parental Nurturance by Province

The study sought to determine the levels of perceived parental nurturance among the respondents by province. As shown in Table 4.11, students in both provinces, Nairobi and Central, had similar patterns in perception of parental nurturance. The table shows the findings of levels of perceived parental nurturance in the two provinces.

From Table 4.11, most students in both provinces (90.4%), perceived their parents to be highly nurturing. Only 39 (5.5%) students in Nairobi Province and 29 (4.1%) students in Central Province perceived their parents to be low in nurturance.

Table 4.11: Levels of Perceived Parental Nurturance by Province

<u>Category</u>	<u>Sample Size by Province</u>				<u>Total</u>	<u>%</u>
	<u>Nairobi</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Central</u>	<u>%</u>		
Low	39	5.5	29	4.1	68	9.6
High	282	39.8	359	50.6	641	90.4
Total	321	45.3	388	54.7	709	100
–	–	–	–	–	5 ^a	–

Note: ^aNumber missing from frequency count.

The mean scores for perceived parental nurturance were also calculated. As shown in Table 4.12, students in both provinces perceived their parents to be highly nurturing as indicated by the mean scores of 3.98 for Nairobi and 4.06 for Central Province.

Table 4.12: Means for Perceived Parental Nurturance by Province

<u>Province</u>	<u>Perceived Parental Nurturance</u>			
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Std. Deviation</u>	<u>Std. Error Mean</u>
Nairobi	321	3.9844	.87128	.04863
Central	388	4.0567	.75868	.03852

To test the null hypothesis of no significant difference in perceived parental nurturance of adolescents between the two provinces (Nairobi Province and Central Province), an Independent Samples t-test was conducted to compare the means of the two groups. The analysis showed that the two means were not significantly different ($t=1.18$, $df=707$, $p\text{-value}=.24$), hence the null hypothesis stated was accepted.

4.3.2.3 Perceived Parental Nurturance by Parental Level of Education

The study sought to determine if there were differences in perceived parental nurturance across the different parental levels of education.

Table 4.13: Perceived Parental Nurturance and Parental Level of Education

<u>Parental Levels of Education</u>	<u>Perceived Parental Nurturance</u>		
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Std. Deviation</u>
Primary school	92	3.6944	.50217
High school	164	3.7839	.57590
Middle-level college	185	3.8913	.62358
University	183	3.9264	.64458
Total	624	3.8443	.60560
	90 ^a		

Note: ^aNumber of respondents that did not indicate their parent's/guardian's level of education.

From Table 4.13, the means and standard deviations of parental nurturance differed slightly across the different education categories. The perceived parental nurturance means reflect an ascending pattern with each education category. Results from the table show that parents who had attained university level education were perceived by their children to be the most nurturing with a mean nurturance score of 3.926. The parents who had attained primary school level education were perceived to be the least nurturing with a mean nurturance score of 3.694.

Table 4.14 presents a cross-tabulation of the levels of perceived parental nurturance and parental level of education.

Table 4.14: Perceived Parental Nurturance by Parent's Level of Education

<u>Father's Education Level</u>	<u>Categories of Perceived Parental Nurturance</u>				<u>Total</u>	<u>%</u>
	<u>Low</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>%</u>		
Primary school	9	1.4	83	13.3	92	14.7
High school	13	2.1	151	24.2	164	26.3
Middle-level college	17	2.7	168	26.9	185	29.6
University	19	3.0	164	26.3	183	29.3
Total	58	9.2	566	90.7	624	100.0

<u>Mother's Education Level</u>	<u>Categories of Perceived Parental Nurturance</u>				<u>Total</u>	<u>%</u>
	<u>Low</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>%</u>		
Primary school	12	1.8	134	20.1	146	21.9
High school	20	3.0	171	25.6	191	28.6
Middle-level college	21	3.1	195	29.2	216	32.4
University	12	1.8	102	15.3	114	17.1
Total	65	9.7	602	90.2	667	100.0

From Table 4.14, the majority of fathers (90.7%) were rated highly in nurturance. Only 9.2% of fathers were perceived as being low in nurturance. College-educated and university-educated fathers were rated highest in nurturance: 26.9% and 26.3% of the total sample respectively. To test the null hypothesis of no significant difference in perceived parental nurturance across fathers' education levels, one way ANOVA was computed. No significant difference was found ($F(3, 620) = 3.971, p = .08$).

In addition, 90.2% of mothers were rated highly in nurturance. The category of mothers with the highest nurturance rating was that of mothers with a middle-level

college education, at 29.2% of the total sample of mothers. To test the null hypothesis of no significant difference in perceived parental nurturance across mothers' education levels, one way ANOVA was computed. A significant difference was found among the education levels of mothers ($F(3, 663) = 4.703, p = .003$). Bonferroni post-hoc procedure was used to determine the nature of the differences between the education levels. The analysis revealed that only mothers with university level of education differed significantly with those that had a primary school level education ($p\text{-value} = .002$). The null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the perception of parental nurturance across parents' education categories was therefore rejected.

4.3.2.4 Perceived Parental Nurturance by Marital Status

The study sought to establish if there were any differences in the mean perceived parental nurturance mean scores across the different marital categories. Table 4.15 shows the means and standard deviations of maternal nurturance, paternal nurturance and combined parental nurturance for the different marital categories.

A cross-tabulation of parental nurturance by parental marital status indicates generally higher mean scores for perceived maternal nurturance compared to perceived paternal nurturance. The scores for perceived maternal nurturance ranged between 3.70 for single mothers and 3.99 for separated and widowed mothers.

Perceived paternal nurturance mean scores ranged between 3.24 for divorced fathers and 4.02 for widowed fathers. The lowest perceived paternal nurturance scores, 3.24 and 3.28 were among the divorced and separated fathers respectively.

Table 4.15: Cross-tabulation of Perceived Parental Nurturance by Marital Status

<u>Parental Nurturance by Marital Status</u>				
<u>Variable</u>	<u>Marital Status</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
<u>Maternal Nurturance</u>	Married	518	3.9878	.63752
	Divorced	24	3.9380	.71292
	Single	59	3.7014	.83159
	Separated	35	3.9996	.47357
	Widowed	52	3.9938	.68714
	Total	688	3.9626	.65872
<u>Paternal Nurturance</u>	Married	506	3.7517	.76273
	Divorced	19	3.2434	1.03770
	Single	22	3.3136	.92045
	Separated	29	3.2853	.90577
	Widowed	21	4.0227	.69502
	Total	597	3.7063	.79780
<u>Combined Nurturance</u>	Married	519	3.8714	.59067
	Divorced	24	3.7233	.67886
	Single	63	3.6272	.80833
	Separated	35	3.6685	.53654
	Widowed	57	3.9766	.67534
	Total	698	3.8427	.62577

From Table 4.15, the highest perceived paternal nurturance score was among the fathers whose spouses had died, 4.02. Married men had a perceived nurturance score of 3.75 while married mothers had a perceived nurturance score of 3.98. The combined perceived parental nurturance mean scores ranged from 3.62 for single parents to 3.97 for widowed parents. The perceived parental nurturance mean scores for single, separated and divorced parents were slightly lower than those for married and widowed parents. One notable finding from the analyses was that in all the three categories of nurturance: maternal, paternal and combined, students rated the widowed parents as very high in nurturance (3.99, 4.02 and 3.97 respectively).

To test the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in perceived parental nurturance across the different marital categories, one way ANOVA was computed. A significant difference was found among the marital categories ($F(4, 693) = 3.47, p = .008$). Bonferroni post-hoc procedure was used to determine the nature of the differences between the marital categories. The analysis revealed that only single mothers differed significantly with married ones ($p\text{-value} < .05$). The null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in perceived parental nurturance across the different marital categories was therefore rejected.

4.3.3 Problem Behaviour among the Respondents

This section presents the findings of the analyses of data on problem behaviour. The first section presents the general scores for problem behaviour while the subsequent sections present problem behaviour scores according to different demographic variables: sex, province, parents' marital status and parental levels of education.

4.3.3.1 General Problem Behaviour Scores

Data on problem behaviour were analyzed descriptively to give an overall image of the occurrence of the same among the respondents that were sampled. Problem behaviour was measured using a 25-item Likert scale that had statements on both internalizing and externalizing problem behaviours. Numerical scores of 1 to 5 were assigned to each possible response for each item as follows: A score of 5 for Never, 4 for Hardly Ever, 3 for Sometimes, 2 for Often and 1 for Most of the Time.

Individual scores were summed up on each item and then divided by the number of items for a mean score. Three categories were developed to assess for occurrence for problem behaviours. The categories and their mean ranges are as follows: Low: 1-2.5, Moderate: 2.5-3.5 and High: 3.5-5.0.

Table 4.16 shows the obtained descriptive statistics for the problem behaviour scores. From Table 4.16, the lowest problem behaviour score was 1 while the highest was 5. The mean problem behaviour score was 1.69 while the median was 1.64. The scores were also positively skewed (1.596) indicating that the students generally rated themselves low on problem behaviours.

Table 4.16: Descriptive Statistics of Self-reported Problem Behaviours

<u>Statistics</u>		<u>Values</u>
N	Valid	710
	Missing	4
Mean		1.6933
Median		1.6400
Mode		1.52
Range		4.00
Std. Deviation		.40222
Variance		.162
Skewness		1.596
Std. Error of Skewness		.092
Kurtosis		7.087
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.183
Minimum		1.00
Maximum		5.00

4.3.3.2 Problem Behaviour Categories

The study sought to establish the categories of frequency of occurrence of problem behaviours among the sample of students. Three categories were used to assess frequency of occurrence of problem behaviours: Low, Moderate and High. Table 4.17 presents the frequencies and percentages of the different categories of problem behaviours.

Table 4.17: Categories of Self-reported Problem Behaviours

<u>Problem Behaviour</u>		
<u>Categories</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Percentage</u>
Low	681	95.2
Moderate	28	3.9
High	1	.1
Total	710	99.3
-	4 ^a	.7

Note: ^aMissing values

From Table 4.17, majority of the respondents (95%) had a low frequency of engagement in problem behaviours. Another 29 (4%) of the respondents had moderate engagement in problem behaviours while only one student was categorized as frequently engaging in problem behaviours.

4.3.3.3 Specific Problem Behaviours

The study sought to establish the occurrence of different types of problem behaviours among the students. The students were asked to indicate how frequently they engaged in both internalizing and externalizing problem behaviours. Table 4.18 presents descriptive statistics of different self-reported problem behaviours that were reported by the students in the study.

Table 4.18: Specific Problem Behaviours

<u>Occurrence of Problem Behaviours</u>					
<u>Specific Behaviours</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Min.</u>	<u>Max.</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
Bullying fellow students	688	1	5	1.61	.954
Fighting fellow students	695	1	5	1.39	.708
Teasing fellow students	670	1	5	2.04	1.140
Threatening fellow students	678	1	5	1.61	.955
Stealing from fellow students	693	1	5	1.58	.981
Maintaining silence in class	703	1	5	2.33	1.174
Insulting fellow students	684	1	5	2.13	1.174
Observing school rules	695	1	5	2.06	1.173
Sneaking from school	695	1	5	1.26	.713
Deliberately missing classes	683	1	5	1.59	.967
Obedying your parents / guardian(s)	696	1	5	1.84	1.150
Running away from home	699	1	5	1.26	.711
Fighting family members	699	1	5	1.40	.804
Insulting family members	686	1	5	1.44	.855
Threatening family members	690	1	5	1.22	.604
Stealing from family members	699	1	5	1.27	.673
Consuming alcohol	700	1	5	1.47	.890
Smoking cigarettes	700	1	5	1.14	.533
Smoking bhang	697	1	5	1.13	.538
Chewing miraa	700	1	5	1.24	.706
Using other drugs	691	1	5	1.18	.582
Feeling very depressed	685	1	5	2.47	1.091
Feeling overwhelmed by loneliness	689	1	5	2.46	1.166
Feeling hyperactive	660	1	5	2.39	1.227
Feeling extremely anxious	679	1	5	2.71	1.130

From Table 4.18, the mean scores for externalized problem behaviours were generally low. Externalizing problem behaviours examined in the study were: bullying, fighting

fellow students and family members, teasing, threatening fellow students and family members, stealing from fellow students and family members, insulting fellow students and family members, sneaking from school, deliberately missing classes, running away from home, consuming alcohol, smoking cigarettes, smoking bhang, chewing miraa and using other drugs. Except for teasing fellow students (2.04) and insulting fellow students (2.13), the other externalized problem behaviours had means below 2.00.

The findings indicate generally higher scores for internalizing problem behaviours than for externalized types of problem behaviours. The internalizing problem behaviours measured in the study were: feeling very depressed, feeling overwhelmed by loneliness, feeling hyperactive and feeling extremely anxious. The mean scores for internalized problem behaviours were: feeling very depressed (2.47), feel overwhelmed by loneliness (2.46), feel hyperactive (2.39) and feel extremely anxious (2.71).

4.3.4 Problem Behaviours by Demographic Variables

This section presents findings of the problem behaviour scores according to different demographic variables, i.e. respondent's sex, province, parent's marital status and parental level of education.

4.3.4.1 Problem Behaviours by Sex

In order to compare problem behaviours between the sex groups, descriptive statistics were obtained. The results are shown in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19: Problem Behaviours by Sex

<u>Sex</u>	<u>Problem Behaviours</u>		
	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
Female	312	1.6244	.38287
Male	388	1.7475	.40731

From Table 4.19, the means and standard deviations for self-reported problem behaviours were slightly different for male and female students. The findings show that male students reported to engaging in more problem behaviours than female students. The male students also had relatively higher variations in problem behaviour scores when compared to the female students.

To test the null hypothesis of no significant difference in occurrence of problem behaviour by sex groups, an Independent Samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean scores of the two groups (male and female students). The analysis showed that the two means were significantly different ($t=4.083$, $df =698$, $p\text{-value}<0.05$), hence the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in occurrence of problem behaviours between male and female adolescents was rejected.

4.3.4.2 Problem Behaviours by Province

To compare the occurrence of problem behaviours between the provinces, descriptive statistics were obtained. Table 4.20 shows the mean scores for problem behaviours in Nairobi and Central provinces.

From Table 4.20 the mean scores for problem behaviours between the two provinces indicate a slightly higher occurrence of problem behaviours in Central Province (M=1.71) compared to Nairobi Province (M=1.67).

Table 4.20: Problem Behaviours by Province

<u>Problem Behaviours</u>			
<u>Province</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
Nairobi	322	1.6679	.38555
Central	388	1.7144	.41487
Total	710	1.6933	.40222

To test the null hypothesis of no significant difference in occurrence of problem behaviours between provinces, an Independent Samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean scores of the two groups (Nairobi Province and Central Province). The analysis showed that the two means were not significantly different ($t=1.534$, $df=708$, $p\text{-value}>.05$), hence the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in the occurrence of problem behaviours between the two provinces was retained.

4.3.4.3 Problem Behaviours by Parental Level of Education

To compare the problem behaviours of students across the different education levels of their parents, descriptive statistics were obtained. The results are shown in Table 4.21.

As shown in Table 4.21, the students whose parents had only attained primary school education reported the lowest mean problem behaviour scores of 1.63. In general,

there were only slight differences in the mean problem behaviour scores of the students across the different education level categories of their parents.

Table 4.21: Problem Behaviours by Parental Level of Education

<u>Problem Behaviours</u>			
<u>Parental Level of Education</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
Primary school	92	1.6319	.34886
High school	165	1.7088	.41600
Middle-level college	185	1.7012	.44376
University	183	1.7072	.38633
Total	625	1.6947	.40685

To test the null hypothesis of no significant difference in occurrence of problem behaviours across education levels of parents, one way ANOVA was computed. The obtained values were not significant, ($F(3, 621) = .87, p = .45$) for father's education level and ($F(3, 663) = .31, p = .81$) for mother's education level. Since the p values were greater than .05, the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in nature and magnitude of problem behaviour across parents' education levels was retained.

4.3.4.4 Problem Behaviours by Parental Marital Status

To compare the problem behaviour scores of the students across the different marital categories, descriptive statistics were obtained. The results are shown in Table 4.22.

Table 4.22: Problem Behaviour by Marital Status

<u>Problem Behaviours</u>			
<u>Marital Status</u>	<u>Frequency</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Standard deviation</u>
Married	520	1.6728	.38188
Divorced	24	1.8928	.48445
Single	63	1.7244	.36840
Separated	35	1.8055	.37630
Widowed	57	1.6413	.35122
Total	699	1.6891	.38422

From Table 4.22, the highest problem behaviour mean score (1.89) was found among the students whose parents were divorced. The lowest problem behaviour mean score (1.64) was obtained among the students whose parents had been widowed. To test the null hypothesis of no significant difference in occurrence of problem behaviours by different marital status, one way ANOVA was used. The obtained ANOVA was not significant, ($F(4,694) = 3.114, p = .15$). Since the p value was greater than .05, the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in nature and magnitude of problem behaviours across the different marital categories was retained.

4.3.5 Relationship between Parental Nurturance and Problem Behaviours

To investigate the relationship between perceived parental nurturance and self-reported problem behaviours, the following two statistical hypotheses were tested:

H_{03} There is no relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours among adolescent students.

H₀₄ There is no relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours among adolescent students while controlling for the following demographic variables: sex, province, parents' marital status and parents' levels of education.

4.3.5.1 Relationship between Perceived Parental Nurturance and Problem Behaviours

The study sought to establish if there was a relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours among the adolescents. The null hypothesis to be tested was:

H₀₃ There is no relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours among adolescent students.

To test this null hypothesis, a Spearman rho correlation coefficient was calculated for the relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours. A moderate negative correlation was found ($\rho (710) = -0.304$, $p\text{-value} < 0.01$), indicating a significant relationship between the two variables. Since the p-value was less than 0.01, the hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours was rejected. Furthermore, the findings indicate a moderate significant negative correlation between problem behaviours and perceived maternal nurturance ($r = -0.25$, $p\text{-value} < 0.01$) and perceived paternal nurturance ($r = -0.28$, $p\text{-value} < 0.01$). Table 4.23 presents the findings on the relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours among the respondents.

Table 4.23: Partial Correlations between Perceived Parental Nurturance and Problem Behaviours

<u>Variables</u>	<u>Partial Correlations</u>			
	<u>Maternal Nurturance</u>	<u>Paternal Nurturance</u>	<u>Parental Nurturance</u>	<u>Problem Behaviour</u>
Maternal nurturance	1.00	.416**	.815**	-.248**
Sample size	697	595	697	694
Paternal nurturance	.416**	1.000	.874**	-.279**
Sample size	595	607	607	605
Parental nurturance	.815**	.874**	1.000	-.304**
Sample size	697	607	709	706
Problem behaviour	-.248**	-.279**	-.304**	1.000
Sample size	694	605	706	710

Note: **p<.01, two-tailed.

4.3.5.2 Relationship between Perceived Parental Nurturance and Problem Behaviour while controlling for various Demographic Variables

The null hypothesis to be tested was:

H₀₄ There is no relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours among adolescent students while controlling for the following demographic variables: sex, province, parents' marital status and parents' level of education.

To test this hypothesis, partial correlation coefficients were computed for each of the demographic variables and their significance tested at $\alpha=.05$ level.

In the current study, certain demographic variables had been hypothesized to have an influence on both perceived parental nurturance as well as problem behaviours. There was a possibility that the obtained correlation between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviour may have been due to some common intervening variables such as adolescent sex, province, parent's marital status and parents' level of education. It was therefore important to test whether the two variables, perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours, would still be correlated while holding each of the mentioned demographic variables constant. Partial correlations were therefore obtained.

Table 4.24: Partial Correlation Coefficients while controlling for various Demographic Variables

<u>Control Variables</u>	<u>Perceived Parental Nurturance</u>	<u>Problem Behaviour</u>
Adolescent Sex	Perceived Parental Nurturance	-.308 (694) p=.000
Province	Perceived Parental Nurturance	-.304 (703) p=.000
Parent's Marital Status	Perceived Parental Nurturance	-.325 (693) p=.000
Father's Level of Education	Perceived Parental Nurturance	-.290 (618) p=.000
Mother's Level of Education	Perceived Parental Nurturance	-.313 (661) p=.000

From Table 4.24, for each of the demographic variables, namely adolescent sex, province, parent's marital status and parent's level of education, negative moderate partial correlations of -.31, -.30, -.33, -.29 and -.31 respectively were obtained. For each variable, a p value of less than .05 was required for significance. The obtained p values were all less than .05. Because all the obtained p values were less than .05, the

null hypothesis which stated that there was no relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviour while controlling for demographic variables was rejected. This meant that perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours were still significantly negatively correlated when the following demographic variables were held constant: adolescent sex, province, parent's marital status and parent's level of education.

4.4 Summary of Results

The following is a summary of results from the data analysis.

In terms of sex differences, there were more female students than their male counterparts. With respect to age demographics, 72% of the sample was in the 16-17 years age bracket. There were also 38 students that were aged between 19 and 26; a possible indicator of either later entry into school or having returned to school after a period of drop out. Of interest in regard to this finding was that majority of the older students were female. Of the students that were aged between 18 and 26, 101 were female while only 26 were male.

In terms of provincial representation, 55% of the sample comprised students from Central Province while 45% were enrolled in public secondary schools in Nairobi. This is a reflection of the fact that between the two provinces, Central Province had a higher population of students enrolled in secondary schools.

With regard to school categories, the analysis revealed that unlike Central Province, all public secondary schools in Nairobi that were not national schools, were categorized as provincial schools. The analysis also revealed that most students

attending public secondary schools in Central Province were enrolled in mixed day secondary schools.

With regard to parental marital status, the analysis revealed that 74% of the parents were married at the time of the study, with smaller percentages being separated and divorced (5% and 3% respectively).

Analysis of parents' marital status and living arrangements revealed that the majority of students who indicated their parents were divorced, single or separated, were living with their mothers as opposed to their fathers (81 against 14 respectively).

With regard to parental levels of education by province, the data analysis revealed that more parents in Nairobi had attained college or university education when compared to parents of children attending schools in Central Province. The analysis also revealed that more students were aware of their mothers' levels of education as opposed to education levels of their fathers.

Descriptive data analysis on the independent variable, perceived parental nurturance, revealed several findings. The combined perceived parental nurturance mean score was generally high ($M=3.84$) with a standard deviation of .625. Perceived maternal nurturance had a relatively higher mean score (3.95) than perceived paternal nurturance (3.70).

In terms of differences across sex, female students had slightly higher scores for both maternal and paternal nurturance. The mean scores for perceived maternal and

paternal nurturance among female students were ($M=3.90$ and $M=3.75$ respectively). The mean scores for perceived maternal and paternal nurturance among male students were ($M=4.00$ and $M=3.66$ respectively). ANOVA revealed that these differences were not significant.

Analysis of levels of perceived parental nurturance by province revealed similar patterns of perceived parental nurturance. There were slightly more students in Nairobi than in Central Province that indicated both low and average perceptions of parental nurturance. ANOVA revealed no significant differences.

On parental level of education, analysis revealed that university-educated parents were perceived to be the most nurturing with a combined nurturance mean score of 3.92 while primary school educated parents were perceived to be the least nurturing ($M=3.69$). ANOVA revealed significant differences between university-educated mothers and those that only had primary school education ($p\text{-value}=0.01$).

On parental marital status, widowed parents were perceived to be the most nurturing, with a combined nurturance score of 3.97. The lowest maternal nurturance scores were among the single mothers ($M=3.70$). ANOVA revealed that the five marital status groups differed significantly ($p\text{-value}=0.005$) with married mothers and single mothers differing significantly ($p\text{-value}=0.015$).

Descriptive data analysis was also done on the dependent variable, problem behaviours and revealed several findings. Overall problem behaviours had a mean score of 1.693 and a standard deviation of .402.

Data analysis also revealed higher mean scores for internalized problem behaviours compared to externalizing problem behaviours. Feeling very depressed, feeling overwhelmed by loneliness, feeling hyperactive and feeling extremely anxious all had problem behaviour mean scores of 2.47, 2.46, 2.309 and 2.71 respectively.

An analysis of problem behaviours by sex revealed that male students had higher problem behaviour mean scores compared to female students ($M=1.747$ and 1.624). Independent Sample t-test revealed that male students had significantly higher occurrence of problem behaviours than female students ($t=4.083$, $df=698$, $p\text{-value} < 0.001$).

An analysis of problem behaviours by province showed a higher occurrence of problem behaviours in Central Province ($M=1.7144$) than in Nairobi Province (1.6679). These differences were found not to be significant.

Analysis of problem behaviours by parental level of education revealed that students whose parents only had a primary school education, also had the lowest problem behaviour mean scores ($M=1.63$). ANOVA revealed that the differences were not significant.

Data on parental marital status revealed that the highest problem behaviour mean score ($M=1.89$) was among the students whose parents were divorced. The lowest problem behaviour mean score ($M=1.64$) was among the students whose parents have been widowed. ANOVA revealed that these differences were however not significant.

Statistical analysis of the data on the relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours revealed several findings: the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours was rejected at the 0.001 level. The alternative hypothesis that there is a relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours was accepted.

Statistical analyses revealed a significant negative correlation between: problem behaviour and perceived maternal nurturance ($r=-0.248$, $p\text{-value}<0.001$), problem behaviour and perceived paternal nurturance ($r=-0.279$, $p\text{-value}<0.001$) and problem behaviour and perceived combined parental nurturance ($r=-0.304$, $p\text{-value}<0.001$).

The null hypothesis of no significant relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours while holding constant adolescent sex, province, parent's marital status and parent's level of education was rejected as all the obtained partial correlation coefficients were significant at the .05 level. This meant that perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviour were still negatively correlated when adolescent sex, province, parent's marital status and parent's level of education were held constant.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter contains the discussions of the findings, conclusions and recommendations drawn from the study. The chapter begins with the discussions on the findings. It is then followed by a section on the conclusions drawn from the discussions and finally a section on recommendations arising from the study.

5.2 Discussion of the Results

The study sought to investigate the relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours among adolescent students in the former Nairobi and Central provinces of Kenya. In this section, the researcher discusses the findings of the study together with the implications, under four subsections. Subsection one discusses the findings from the analysis of demographic information of adolescent students in the study. Subsections two and three discuss the findings on the independent variable (perceived parental nurturance) and the dependent variable (problem behaviour) respectively, while subsection four discusses the findings on the relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours. Nevertheless, it was hypothesized that there was a significant relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours among adolescent students in schools in the former Nairobi and Central provinces of Kenya.

5.2.1 Demographic Information of Adolescent Students in the former Nairobi and Central provinces, Kenya

Based on the demographic analysis of the respondents, various observations were made. On sex of the respondents, there were more female students in the sample than there were male ones; 55% versus 45% respectively. With respect to age, majority of the sampled students were either 16 or 17 years of age. The number of students in this age bracket represented 72% of the total sample. 13.5% of the respondents were 18 year olds while another 4% were aged 19. This segment of older students may be an indication that they enrolled in school at a more advanced age, had repeated classes or may have returned to school after the introduction of Free Primary Education in 2003, hence being older than the rest of the adolescents.

In addition, the researcher found that of the 118 students in the 18-19 age group, 96 (81%) were female. This means there is a possibility that more female students may have returned to class after a period of drop-out or may have enrolled in school later than male adolescents. This may also reflect past biases against females from poorer families that have to make hard choices on whom to keep in school, between boys and girls when families are faced with financial difficulties.

With regard to provincial representation, majority of respondents were from Central Province. Of the total sample, 55% of respondents were from Central Province while 45% were from Nairobi Province. This may be accounted for by the fact that Central Province had a higher secondary school enrolment and higher population than Nairobi Province.

In terms of school category, the largest single proportion of adolescents, (20%), were enrolled in district mixed day schools which were found in the former Central Province. These were followed by provincial boys' boarding schools and then national schools. This was because majority of the secondary schools in Central Province were mixed day secondary schools.

On living arrangements, majority (66%) of the adolescents indicated that they lived with both their parents. Another 22% of the respondents lived with their mothers only while 5% lived with their fathers only. The findings that 22% of adolescents lived with their mothers only may indicate that majority of the respondents are from homes in which parents had divorced or separated and were under the primary care of their mothers. This may be due to the fact that child rearing in the Kenyan society is primarily done by mothers; hence, more children of divorced or separated parents would be living under the care of their mothers as opposed to their fathers. These findings may also indicate that there were more fathers that were working away from home than there were mothers. They may also imply that more single women are having children.

On marital status, 74% of respondents indicated that their parents were married. The rest of the sample indicated that their parents were single (9%), widowed (8%), separated (5%) and divorced (3%). The statistics on divorce and separation may be inaccurate due to the fact that it was probably difficult for some of the respondents to state with certainty that their parents were legally divorced as opposed to simply being separated legally or by mutual agreement. The latter is a more common practice than divorce in Kenya.

On parental levels of education, it was found that more respondents had knowledge of their mothers' levels of education compared to those of their fathers. While 44 respondents failed to indicate their mothers' education levels, 86 respondents did not provide an answer to the question on father's level of education. That these students failed to answer this question may have been due to certain reasons. Firstly, because of their parents' separation or divorce, or death of a parent, or they may not have had any knowledge on the education achievements of one parent. Secondly, the students that did not indicate a parent's level of education may have been raised in single-parented homes and therefore did not have adequate knowledge on education levels of the absent parent.

About socio-economic status, the bulk of respondents (81%) reported to being from families of average socio-economic status. Another 12% reported to being of low socio-economic status while 7% indicated they were members of families that were of high socio-economic status. The parameters of socio-economic status were not defined for the students. They were simply required to indicate in which category they perceived their families to fall. The findings could mean that most respondents perceived their families to have adequate access to basic needs. Because the parameters of socio-economic status were not defined, the findings could also be a reflection of the effect of social desirability in questionnaire response in which respondents rate themselves better than they actually are.

With regard to religious affiliation and commitment to religion, majority of respondents (96%) indicated that they were Christians and were either committed or very committed to their religion. Only 23% of the adolescents reported to being either

somewhat committed or not committed to their religion. These findings were not unexpected, considering the fact that majority of the Kenyan population identifies as Christian.

5.2.2 Perceived Parental Nurturance among the Respondents

Analysis of data on perceived parental nurturance revealed that most of the respondents scored above the mean, meaning that they perceived their parents to be highly nurturing. With regard to the perceptions of maternal and paternal nurturance, analysis of data revealed that the adolescents (both male and female) perceived their mothers to be more nurturing than their fathers. These findings are similar to those of (Hopkins & Kline, 1993) who found perceived maternal nurturance mean scores of 4.19 and perceived paternal nurturance mean scores of 3.77. Both male and female respondents in their study rated mothers as being more nurturing.

These findings were not unexpected and are consistent with cultural norms in Kenya where as stated earlier, mothers do most of the child rearing and therefore generally spend more time with their children than most fathers do. The adolescents would then experience more consistent support, care and acceptance from their mothers than their fathers and subsequently rate their mothers higher on the nurturance scale. The possibility that adolescents feel more cared for by their mothers is consistent with the findings of Stocker et al. (2007) who found that mothers were more accommodating and supportive of adolescents' emotional experiences than fathers were.

Men, in the Kenyan society, are socialized to be more of providers but also to display some measure of stoicism even when operating in family environments. The expected

restricted emotionality that many men manifest may be perceived by their children as decreased nurturance. Shek (1998), also found significant differences between reported paternal parenting and maternal parenting characteristics, with fathers perceived as relatively less responsive, less demanding, less concerned and harsher. This may be a reflection of cross-cultural perceptions of fathers as being less nurturing.

Data analysis on the levels of perceived parental nurturance indicated that a majority of the respondents had high perceptions of parental nurturance. This means that most adolescents perceived their parents to be very caring and supportive, as well as accepting of them. It may also be possible that because majority of the respondents lived with both parents at home, the respondents were actively experiencing nurturance from their parents, hence the high perceived parental nurturance scores.

On parental nurturance and level of education, slight differences in mean scores across different levels of education were obtained. Those parents that had completed only primary school were perceived to be the least nurturing of all parents in the four different categories. The parents with university level of education were also perceived to be the most nurturing. The analysis of significant differences in perception of parental nurturance in regard to parents' level of education showed mixed results. There were no significant differences in perceived parental nurturance for fathers. There were however significant differences in perceptions of perceived parental nurturance with regard to mothers' levels of education. Mothers with university level of education were found to differ significantly with those that only

had a primary school level education. This means that mothers with a university education were more nurturing than those with only a primary school education.

It is possible that since men are not the primary caregivers of children in our society and are typically less bonded with their children, the education levels of fathers may not be that significant in the perceptions of nurturance. The fact that mothers' education was found to have significant differences as opposed to fathers may also be accounted for by the fact that they spend more time with their children, as expected culturally. It may also be because, as reported earlier, more adolescents in the sample who indicated as living with a single parent were living with their mothers only. The education levels of mothers may contribute to the manner in which they run affairs in their homes and therefore the findings had significant differences.

These findings both support and contradict those of Davis Kean (2005) who studied the influence of parental education and family income on child achievement and found that the amount of schooling that parents received influences how they structure their home environment as well as how they interact with their children in promoting academic achievement. Mothers who are more educated may practice better structuring of their households than less-educated mothers. They may also pay more attention to certain aspects of their adolescent children than lowly-educated mothers, hence the significant differences. This has been documented in Laosa (1982) who found that mothers in more highly-schooled families held higher educational aspirations for their children than did the mothers in the lower-schooled families. The lack of significant differences in level of education of fathers suggests the need for further studies on parental nurturance and education levels of fathers.

Analysis of data on perceived parental nurturance and parental marital status, revealed that fathers who were widowers were perceived to be the most nurturing, followed by married fathers. Divorced and separated fathers were perceived to be the least nurturing. It is possible that because fathers are less directly involved in the rearing of their children, those who have separated or divorced, were more likely to be disconnected from their children perhaps because the adolescents were living with their mothers, hence the lower perceived nurturance scores. Day et al. (2009) found that when one parent's involvement was low (for whatever reason), the other parent's involvement made a significant difference and important contribution to the child's well-being, particularly on the area of internalizing behaviours. The perceived lack of contribution by fathers may have contributed to the low perceived paternal nurturance scores.

The finding that widowed fathers were perceived as the most nurturing was unexpected. While there are hardly any studies on the nurturing patterns and abilities of widowed fathers, it is possible that they may have increased their support and care for their children after the death of their wives and as a result, the high scores on perceived parental nurturance. These findings may also be an indicator of increased efforts at emotional bonding by both the widowed fathers and their adolescent children. This possibility is supported by the findings of de Bourdeaudhuij and van Oost (1998) who found that the level of family bonding, such as the extent to which families emotionally join together, combined with the way in which family members interact with each other affects the risk-taking behaviour of adolescents. In addition, Saric-Raboteg et al. (2001) found that high parental monitoring was the only aspect of parental behaviour, in their study, that was consistently negatively related to

children's behaviour problems and substance abuse. It is possible that fathers' whose spouses had died may have increased their level of parental monitoring and in the process may have been considered, by their adolescents, to be more caring and supporting. These findings, that widowed fathers were perceived as the most nurturing, indicate the need for more studies focusing specifically on the nurturing dynamics of widowers.

Mothers scored higher on perceived nurturance than fathers. Single mothers were perceived to be the least nurturing. Data analysis showed that there were differences in perceptions of nurturance across the maternal marital groups. Married mothers were found to differ significantly with single mothers. These findings may be explained by the crucial role that mothers play in the upbringing of their children.

As was stated earlier, mothers in the Kenyan society do the bulk of child rearing. As such, children would experience more consistent support, care and acceptance from mothers. Married mothers probably have more support from their husbands in general and especially in child rearing as opposed to single mothers who lack support from a partner. The crucial role of spouses has been documented in Bulanda and Majumdar (2009) who found that positive interactions with one parent's involvement and high quality relations with self-esteem grew stronger in the presence of high involvement and relationship quality of the second parent. Married fathers, who relate well with their adolescent children, may aid in the perception of positive interactions with parents, hence the significant difference found between married mothers and single ones. Another aspect that could be making married mothers to be perceived as being

more nurturing may be the fact that mothers often intercede for their children, when fathers appear too harsh or stubborn.

With regard to combined nurturance, widowed parents were perceived to be the most nurturing followed by married parents and lastly, divorced and separated parents. These findings may imply that parents that are separated, divorced or going through a divorce, may be experiencing considerable conflicts with their partners that may make their adolescent children consider them less nurturing than those parents who are in a functional marital relationship devoid of unhealthy conflicts. Divorce and separation are sometimes characterized by acrimony and negative interaction patterns that may undermine perceptions of support, love and care held by their children. Van Oort et al. (2010) found that family dysfunction and high parenting stress were associated with anxiety. Stevens et al. (2005) also found an association between parental conflicts in the upbringing of children and internalizing problem behaviours. Adolescents who experience parental discord are unlikely to perceive their parents to be highly nurturing.

5.2.3 Problem Behaviours among the Respondents

Analysis of data on problem behaviours revealed that there was a generally low occurrence of problem behaviours among the adolescent students. The findings of low occurrence of externalized problem behaviours do not support those of previous studies done locally. Previous studies, (Mkula, 2005; Mutisya, 2003; Njoroge, 2005; Oriya, 2005; Wachira, K., 2002; Wachira, M. 2002) all found different forms of externalized problem behaviours to be occurring in high frequency and to be a major problem in secondary schools in different parts of the country.

The study findings showed that some of the more common externalized problem behaviours such as bullying occurred infrequently. This is not supported by previous studies. Townsend et al. (2008) found that 52% of boys and 36% of girls in Cape Town had been involved in bullying. In Kenya, Ndeti et al. (2007) found that between 63.2% and 81.8% of students in public secondary schools in Nairobi, reported various types of bullying, both direct and indirect. With regard to fighting and other types of violence, the findings of low occurrence are also inconsistent with those of previous studies. Several studies (Mrug et al., 2008; Mutisya, 2003; Oriya, 2005 and Wachira K, 2002) found high occurrences of physical violence in school settings.

These differences in findings may be accounted for by the fact that previous studies, conducted locally on problem behaviours, sampled teachers and education administrators who were asked to report on the various forms of deviance and indiscipline that were rampant in their institutions. In addition, this study used a self-report approach to measure the occurrence of problem behaviours. This may have been influenced by leniency on the part of the adolescents who rated themselves better than they really were with regard to problem behaviours.

Analysis also revealed lower mean scores on externalizing problem behaviours than on internalizing types of problem behaviours. This was unexpected as most local studies on problem behaviours found externalized problem behaviours to be widespread in secondary schools. The finding that there was a higher occurrence of internalizing problem behaviours support those of Khasahkala et al. (2012) who found a high occurrence of depression among secondary school students in Nairobi. The

researchers also found positive correlations between scores for depression and perceived rejecting parenting behaviour, perceived no emotional attachment maternal behaviour and perceived under-protective paternal behaviour. This further highlights the influence of parent-adolescent relationships on the internalizing behaviour of adolescents.

The findings of higher occurrence of all the internalizing problem behaviours examined in the study may also indicate the possible co-occurrence of these types of behaviours. Depressed adolescents are more likely to isolate themselves from their friends and family and therefore more likely to become antisocial and experience loneliness. Ritakallio et al. (2010) found that antisocial boys were seven times more likely to be depressive than social boys. They also found that antisocial girls were four times more likely to be depressive than social girls. An adolescent experiencing loneliness may also present more anxiety than one who is more connected with friends and family. Brage and Meredith (1993) found that depression was most highly correlated with loneliness. The co-occurrence of internalized problem behaviours was also found by Johnson, LaVoie and Mahoney (2001) whose findings showed that feelings of social anxiety and social avoidance were related to feelings of loneliness.

The findings could also mean that there is a possibility that other factors such as peer relations in school may be contributing to high occurrence of internalizing problem behaviours. Urik and Demir (2003) found that peer relations accounted for 35% of the variance in loneliness; family structure accounted for 15%; and demographic variables accounted for 4%. This highlights the need for further studies on the

influence of peer factors in the internalizing problems that adolescent students experience.

The findings of higher mean scores on internalizing problem behaviours such as depression may also indicate that the adolescents may be on track to experience various psychosocial challenges. As has been found in previous studies, the occurrence of depression in adolescence may precipitate the co-occurrence of other types of antisocial behaviour, both internalizing and externalizing. Stevens et al. (2005) found a high level of comorbidity between internalizing and externalizing problem behaviours. Yu et al. (2006) found that compared with non-depressed youth, depressed youth were more likely to anticipate involvement in risky behaviours in the future. Vieno, Kiesner, Pastore & Santinello (2008) also found that depressive symptoms predict increases in antisocial behaviour. These findings have implications for both parents and school administrators because of the possibility that some of the externalized problem behaviours that adolescent students present in local secondary schools may have been precipitated by internalized problem behaviours that were never identified and dealt with effectively.

The findings on the high occurrence of internalizing problem behaviours are important in a number of ways. Firstly, it was expected that there would be a higher frequency of externalized problem behaviours based on previous studies mentioned earlier. Secondly, the said findings may indicate that parents, administrators and policymakers have in the past focused overwhelmingly, and perhaps incorrectly, on externalized problem behaviours and ignored internalizing problem behaviours which

have been shown to have potentially negative psychological and social consequences for adolescents.

In terms of problem behaviour and adolescent sex, the findings showed differences in the occurrence of problem behaviours between male and female students. Male students engaged in both externalized and internalized problem behaviours, more frequently than female ones. The differences were found to be significant. These findings support those of Finn, Fish & Scott (2008) who found that male students exhibited more misconduct than did female students. These differences occurred in all three behaviour categories examined: Low, Intermediate and High. They however do not support those of Brage and Meredith (1993) who found no significant difference between female loneliness and male loneliness.

On problem behaviours across the two former provinces, data analysis showed slight differences in the occurrence of problem behaviours. Adolescents in the former Central Province had slightly higher scores on problem behaviours than did those of Nairobi. The differences were however not significant. These findings are consistent with those of different studies (Mutisya, 2003; Oriya, 2005; Wachira K, 2002 and Ziro, 2002) found that different schools in different parts of the country reported the same nature of students' indiscipline.

With regard to problem behaviours and parental levels of education, data analysis showed that students whose parents had only attained primary school level of education, reported the lowest occurrence of problem behaviours. The differences in occurrence of problem behaviours across the different education level categories were

however not significant. It would be expected that students whose parents had higher levels of education, would report less problem behaviours. As such, future studies addressing parental education levels and adolescent problem behaviours may need to focus on specifics such as parental education.

In terms of problem behaviour and parental marital status, there were differences in the mean scores across the different marital categories. The widowed and married category reflected the lowest problem behaviour scores while the single, separated and divorced categories had the highest scores on problem behaviour. The differences were however not significant.

These findings may indicate the importance of parental marital dynamics in influencing adolescent behaviours. The relational dynamics present among couples that are separated or divorced may influence the behaviour of their children and increase the likelihood of problem behaviour occurrence. Shelton and Harold (2008) found that inter-parental conflict was related to child appraisals of father and mother rejection which were related to children's internalizing symptoms and externalizing problems, respectively. Similar findings were reported by Fear et.al. (2009), whose study on parental depression and inter-parental conflict found that inter-parental conflict was positively associated with both internalizing and externalizing symptoms in children/adolescents. Similarly, a longitudinal study on marital quality and adolescent internalizing symptoms by Ha, Overbeek, Vermulst and Engels (2009) found that low marital quality at Time 1 was directly related to adolescent internalizing problems at Time 2 in the oldest siblings. These findings highlight the

importance of further studies on the effects and influence of marital quality on adolescent problem behaviour.

5.2.4 Relationship between Perceived Parental nurturance and problem Behaviours

Analysis of data on the relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours revealed a significant negative correlation at the .001 level. Spearman Correlation Coefficient showed a significant negative correlation between problem behaviours and paternal nurturance.

The relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours was still negative and moderately significant when the demographic variables related to both perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviour were controlled for. The demographic variables were: adolescent sex, province, parent's marital status and parent's level of education. The implication of these findings is that students, who perceive their parents to be highly nurturing may manifest less problem behaviours than those who perceive low/weak nurturance from their parents.

Considering that parental nurturance is the perception, by adolescents, of the extent to which their parents approve of them, as well as how supportive and accepting their parents are towards them, these findings support those of previous studies on different aspects of parenting and their influence on adolescent psychosocial development that have been conducted in different parts of the world. Hopkins and Klein (1993) found a positive relationship between nurturance and several dimensions of self-perception. These included morality, social acceptance, scholastic competence and intellectual

ability. The implications of these findings are that an adolescent who manifests high morality and social acceptance is less likely to engage in antisocial behaviour. Saranson and Saranson (2001) found that children of parents who described them more positively (a sign of care and acceptance), also reported higher levels of positive and lower levels of negative psychosocial adjustment. Arim et al. (2011) found that perceptions of parental nurturance in early adolescence were negatively associated with indirect and direct aggression later in adolescence.

Other studies have examined different aspects of parental nurturance and their influence on substance use. Saric-Raboteg et al. (2001) found that high parental monitoring was consistently negatively related to children's behaviour problems and substance abuse. Wood et al. (2004) found that higher levels of perceived parental involvement were associated with weaker relations between peer influences and alcohol use and problems. Mndeme (2004) found that youth drug use was associated with the following parental characteristics: lack of parental understanding, lack of parental confiding relationships, a lack of parental awareness of youth's behaviour and lack of inconsistent parental rules. Parents who are highly nurturing are more likely to be involved in their children's affairs. They are also more likely to be more understanding and aware of what their child is going through. This means that their children are less likely to engage in problem behaviours such as substance use and abuse.

Still, other studies have found correlations between parental factors related to nurturance such as acceptance, care and support and adolescent problem behaviours. Dmitrieva et al. (2004) found that the path from family-related life events to

adolescent problem behaviours was mediated by perceived parental involvement, parent-adolescent conflict and perceived parental sanctions of adolescent misconduct. Knafo and Plomin (2006) found that parents who had positive feelings towards their children and provided positive, non-coercive discipline had children who were relatively more pro-social. The opposite was also true of parents high in negativity toward their children.

5.2.5 Support for the Theoretical Framework

In the current study, problem behaviour was conceptualized using the Problem Behaviour Theory by Jessor & Jessor (1991) as well as Attachment Theory by Bowlby & Ainsworth (1991). According to the Problem Behaviour Theory, the perceived environment system comprises social control, models and support. The influence of these variables depends on the directness or conceptual closeness of their relation to problem behaviour.

Social control, models and support are experienced in various ways, including: parental disapproval of problem behaviour, parental controls and support, and parental influence. It would be expected that problem behaviour proneness in the environment system would include low parental disapproval of problem behaviour, low parental controls, low parental support and low parent influence. The findings of the study showed that parental support, love and acceptance (parental nurturance) were perceived to be high, meaning that theoretically these components of perceived parental nurturance serve as controls against the engagement in problem behaviours within the environment system.

While the study did not measure parental disapproval of behaviour and parental controls, and did not compare parental and peer influence, the fact that perceived parental nurturance was found to be significantly negatively correlated to problem behaviour suggests that with regard to the environment system component, the findings of this study lend credibility to the theory.

According to Attachment Theory, attachment style continues to influence behaviour and emotional regulation throughout the lifespan of an individual. The findings of the study, of low occurrence of overall problem behaviour and a high perception of perceived parental nurturance, and a significant relationship between the two, suggests that most respondents in the study have a secure attachment with parental figures that may have been crucial in lowering the likelihood of engagement in problem behaviours. The respondents in the study may have developed healthy Internal Working Models that have allowed them to update these models to respond pro-socially to the emotional challenges they face at their stage of development.

This pro-social response may be in the form of healthy affect regulation and hence a low occurrence of overall problem behaviour. These healthy attachment styles may be the theoretical link between the perceived environment system component of the Problem Behaviour Theory, and the actual involvement in problem behaviours by the secondary school students.

5.3 Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn from this study:

The study found that female students had higher perceived parental nurturance scores than male students, and that mothers were perceived to be more nurturing than fathers. There were however, no significant differences in perceived parental nurturance by sex.

The study also found that widowed fathers were rated as the most nurturing parents in the different marital categories. This finding, while unexpected, is interesting in the sense that while men have been rated lower on nurturance in all other categories, they have a capacity to be very nurturing. It appears that perhaps this capacity may be actualized when they are forced by circumstances to be highly nurturing. Perhaps many fathers in Kenya feel the need to succumb to societal expectations that dictate that they should not be highly nurturing. This finding necessitates the need for further research to understand the nurturance dynamics of men and widowed ones in particular.

There was evidence of a significant difference in marital status, specifically between married mothers and single mothers in regard to perceived parental nurturance. This means that there is need to consider marital relationships when analyzing parental nurturance and other parental dynamics that may influence the behaviour outcomes of adolescents. The fact that married parents were ranked highest on perceived parental nurturance means that there is a crucial and supportive role that marriage plays in child rearing.

The finding that there was a significant difference in the education levels of mothers with regard to perceived parental nurturance, lends credence to the value of girl-child and overall female education in the Kenyan society. This finding is of great importance in the sense that women who are highly educated would probably be in a position to raise better psychosocially adjusted children. This means that with more education of females to high levels, there is the likelihood that society would experience fewer challenges of antisocial behaviour, among the youth as a whole, because the children of highly educated women would present fewer problem behaviours than those of poorly educated women.

The findings that internalizing problem behaviours occurred at a higher frequency than externalizing ones, for both male and female students, suggests that it may be more beneficial to begin focusing on the emotional health of adolescents as opposed to the constant emphasis on externalizing problem behaviours as is the case among a critical mass of teachers, school administrators and parents in Kenya today. There is also a need for further studies to ascertain if the occurrence of internalizing problem behaviours influences the manifestations of externalizing problem behaviours among adolescents in Kenya.

The study found that there was a significant difference in the occurrence of problem behaviours between male adolescents and female adolescents with males experiencing a higher occurrence of both internalizing and externalizing problem behaviours. This suggests that in developing strategies to effectively deal with problem behaviours, special emphasis needs to be placed on the male adolescent. This means that program

designs for intervening amongst adolescents should avoid generalized approaches that may prove ineffective with the male adolescent.

From the study, there was evidence that there exists a relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviour among adolescent students in public secondary schools in the former Central Province and Nairobi Province. This fact remained relevant even after controlling for certain demographic variables, namely: adolescent sex, province, parent's marital status and parent's levels of education. This finding highlights the importance of family emotional socialization in the psychosocial adjustment of adolescents. This means that it is likely that promoting healthy and positive family interaction processes may contribute greatly to not just better educational outcomes for adolescents, but also result in invaluable general life outcomes for young Kenyans.

5.4 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, several recommendations are suggested for education policymakers, teachers and school administrators as well as parents and guardians. All these stakeholders are responsible collectively and individually for ensuring that adolescent students complete their secondary school education in the most productive way possible by avoiding problem behaviours that could undermine their future goals.

5.4.1 Recommendations for Policymakers

- i. There is need to incorporate findings of scientific studies in the policies that govern management of adolescents in the education sector as opposed to

relying overwhelmingly on the findings of reports of commissions and task forces that are not based on in-depth scientific research.

- ii. There is need to enhance awareness among parents about their influence in the psychosocial development and consequently, the educational outcomes of their children so as to help them appreciate that educational success of their children is not the sole responsibility of the government and teachers.

5.4.2 Recommendations for School Administrators and Teachers

- i. There is an urgent need to organize seminars with parents to not only discuss students' performance and behaviours, but also the important role of parents in influencing the education outcomes of their children.
- ii. There is need to appreciate and be more cognizant of the possible influences of family factors when dealing with behaviour challenges among adolescent students in order to apply less punitive measures when addressing problem behaviour issues. This will only emerge when teachers and administrators delve into the factors that may be leading to problem behaviours.
- iii. Stakeholders need to appreciate and be more cognizant of internalized problem behaviours as opposed to the common focus on only externalized problem behaviours that school administrators and teachers are socialized to pay attention to.

5.4.3 Recommendations for Parents

- i. There is need to expose parents to factors that lead to problem behaviours in children or to make them appreciate their influence on the antisocial and pro-social behaviour of their adolescent children and how that can affect the future

course of their lives. In particular, today's parent needs to appreciate that material welfare is not enough to make adolescents prepare for their future lives.

5.4.4 Suggestions for Further Study

Considering that the current study examined a specific parental variable, nurturance, as opposed to general parenting and its relationship to problem behaviours among adolescent students in two former provinces in Kenya, several recommendations can be made from it. These include the need for the following:

- i. There is need for replication of this study in other regions to find out if findings of a similar nature would be obtained before a relevant national policy can be proposed.
- ii. There is need for similar studies using different approaches to problem behaviour assessment to find out if similar results would be obtained.
- iii. There is need for further studies focusing on the possible influence of other variables on problem behaviour. These variables include peer modelling, peer controls and peer expectations, as well as perceptions of nurturance by teachers and administrators.
- iv. There is need for further studies focusing on internalized problem behaviours among adolescent students and relationships between the same and perceived parental nurturance.
- v. There is need for further studies designed specifically to investigate variables that may be related to parental nurturance, such as sex, age, marital status, educational qualifications and cultural differences.

- vi. There is need for further studies focusing on the nurturing dynamics of widows and widowers. This is because the current study found them to be perceived as the most nurturing category of parents.
- vii. There is need for further studies investigating the relationship between perceived parental nurturance and problem behaviours among adolescents in different grades. This is because the current study only examined students in their third year of high school.

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APPENDIX I: Maternal Nurturance Scale**FORM: A**

For each of the following statements, indicate, by circling, that which best describes how that statement applies to you and your mother. Read carefully and think how each statement applies to you and your mother during the years of growing up at home. There are no right or wrong answers, so do not spend much of your time on any one item. Be sure not to omit any items. Record your answer in the space to the right.

	Strongly Agree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My mother rarely says nice things about me.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am an important person in my mother's eyes.	1	2	3	4	5
3. My mother often acts as if she doesn't care about me.	1	2	3	4	5
4. My mother enjoys spending time with me.	1	2	3	4	5
5. My mother expresses her warmth and affection for me.	1	2	3	4	5
6. My mother is easy for me to talk to.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I am tense and uneasy when my mother and I are together.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I feel that my mother finds fault with me more often than I deserve.	1	2	3	4	5
9. My mother takes an active interest in my affairs.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I feel very close to my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
11. My mother does not understand me.	1	2	3	4	5
12. My mother believes in me.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I don't feel that my mother enjoys being with me.	1	2	3	4	5
14. My mother doesn't really know what kind of person I am.	1	2	3	4	5
15. My mother is a warm and caring	1	2	3	4	5

individual.					
16. My mother does not feel that I am important and interesting.	1	2	3	4	5
17. My mother is very interested in those things that concern me.	1	2	3	4	5
18. My mother is often critical of me and nothing I ever do seems to please her.	1	2	3	4	5
19. My mother rarely shows me any affection.	1	2	3	4	5
20. My mother consoles me and helps me when I am unhappy or in trouble.	1	2	3	4	5
21. My mother is generally cold and removed when I am with her.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I receive a lot of support from my mother.	1	2	3	4	5
23. My mother is very understanding and sympathetic.	1	2	3	4	5
24. My mother does not really care much what happens to me.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX II: Paternal Nurturance Scale

FORM: B

For each of the following statements, indicate, by circling, that which best describes how that statement applies to you and your father. Read carefully and think how each statement applies to you and your father during the years of growing up at home. There are no right or wrong answers, so do not spend much of your time on any one item. Be sure not to omit any items. Record your answer in the space to the right.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My father rarely says nice things about me.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am an important person in my father's eyes.	1	2	3	4	5
3. My father often acts as if he doesn't care about me.	1	2	3	4	5
4. My father enjoys spending time with me.	1	2	3	4	5
5. My father expresses his warmth and affection for me.	1	2	3	4	5
6. My father is easy for me to talk to.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I am tense and uneasy when my father and I are together.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I feel that my father finds fault with me more often than I deserve.	1	2	3	4	5
9. My father takes an active interest in my affairs.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I feel very close to my father.	1	2	3	4	5
11. My father does not understand me.	1	2	3	4	5
12. My father believes in me.	1	2	3	4	5

13. I don't feel that my father enjoys being with me.	1	2	3	4	5
14. My father doesn't really know what kind of person I am.	1	2	3	4	5
15. My father is a warm and caring individual.	1	2	3	4	5
16. My father does not feel that I am important and interesting.	1	2	3	4	5
17. My father is very interested in those things that concern me.	1	2	3	4	5
18. My father is often critical of me and nothing I ever do seems to please him.	1	2	3	4	5
19. My father rarely shows me any affection.	1	2	3	4	5
20. My father consoles me and helps me when I am unhappy or in trouble.	1	2	3	4	5
21. My father is generally cold and removed when I am with him.	1	2	3	4	5
22. I receive a lot of support from my father.	1	2	3	4	5
23. My father is very understanding and sympathetic.	1	2	3	4	5
24. My father does not really care much what happens to me.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX III: Problem Behaviour Scale

Please answer the following questions. Circle your answer where appropriate.

SECTION A

- a) Sex:** 1. Male 2. Female
- b) Class:** 1. Form Two 2. Form Three
- c) Age:** _____
- d) What is your parent(s)/guardian(s) marital status?**
 1. Married 2. Divorced 3. Single 4. Separated 5. Widowed
 6. Other: Specify _____
- e) What is your father's/guardian's level of education?**
 1. Primary school 2. High school 3. College 4. University
 5. Other: Specify _____
- f) What is your mother's/guardian's level of education?**
 1. Primary school 2. High school 3. College 4. University
 5. Other: Specify _____
- g) What is your father's/guardian's occupation?** _____
- h) What is your mother's/guardian's occupation?** _____
- j) Religious affiliation**
1. Catholic
2. Protestant
3. Muslim
4. Hindu
5. Other (Specify) _____
- k) In what way would you describe your commitment religion?**
1. Very committed
2. Committed
3. Somewhat committed
4. Not committed

SECTION B**DIRECTIONS**

Read each of the statements below. Decide HOW OFTEN engage in each of the described behaviours. Even though you may do these things just for fun, please indicate ONLY how often you engage in each behaviour.

Circle One of the following responses for each statement

How often do you	Never	Hardly ever	Sometimes	Often	Most of the time
1. Bully fellow students	1	2	3	4	5
2. Fight fellow students	1	2	3	4	5
3. Tease fellow students	1	2	3	4	5
4. Threaten fellow students	1	2	3	4	5
5. Steal from fellow students	1	2	3	4	5
6. Maintain silence in class	1	2	3	4	5
7. Insult fellow students	1	2	3	4	5
8. Observe school rules	1	2	3	4	5
9. Sneak out of school	1	2	3	4	5
10. Deliberately miss classes	1	2	3	4	5
11. Obey your parent(s)/guardian(s)	1	2	3	4	5
12. Run away from home	1	2	3	4	5
13. Fight family members	1	2	3	4	5
14. Insult family members	1	2	3	4	5
15. Threaten family members	1	2	3	4	5
16. Steal from family members	1	2	3	4	5
17. Abstain from alcohol	1	2	3	4	5
18. Smoke cigarettes	1	2	3	4	5
19. Smoke bhang	1	2	3	4	5
20. Chew miraa	1	2	3	4	5
21. Abstain from other drugs	1	2	3	4	5
22. Feel very depressed	1	2	3	4	5
23. Feel overwhelmed by loneliness	1	2	3	4	5
24. Feel hyperactive	1	2	3	4	5
25. Feel extremely anxious	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX IV: Informed Consent

You have been asked to take part in this study that seeks to obtain information on the relationship between parental nurturance and problem behaviours. This research is for educational purposes only and you have been chosen because the study focuses on secondary school students.

If you decide to take part in this study you will only be asked to complete three questionnaires. One questionnaire seeks information on behaviour in school and at home while the other two seek to find out your perceptions of how your mother/guardian and father/guardian treat you.


Your participation in this study is confidential. None of the information will identify you by name and the completed questionnaires will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Participation in research is voluntary. You have the right to refuse to be in this study. If you decide to be in this study and change your mind, you have the right to drop out at any time.

Having understood that there is no risk to participating in this study, I hereby accept to take part.

Signature of Participant

Date

APPENDIX V: Research Permit

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<p>THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT: Prof./Dr./Mr./Mrs./Miss..... MUCHIRI KAREGA of (Address)..... KENYATTA UNIVERSITY P.O. BOX 43844, NBI has been permitted to conduct research in..... Location, District, CENTRAL AND NAIROBI Provinces on the topic..... The relationship between Parental nurturance & problem behaviours amongst adolescent Students in Nairobi & Central Province, Kenya. for a period ending..... 31ST DECEMBER 20 10</p>	<p>Research Permit No...... NCST/RRI/12/1/SS/448 Date of issue..... 26/05/2010 Fee received..... SHS 2,000</p> <div data-bbox="1085 750 1324 1019"></div> <p><i>[Handwritten Signature]</i> Applicant's Signature</p> <p><i>[Handwritten Signature]</i> Secretary National Council for Science and Technology</p>