

PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIP AND PEER PRESSURE AS CORRELATES OF SUBSTANCE USE/ABUSE AMONG 11TH GRADE (SS2) STUDENTS IN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS, KARU, ABUJA, NIGERIA

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Abstract

This research explored the correlates of parent-child relationship and peer pressure on substance use/abuse among 11th grade (SS2) students in public secondary schools, Karu, FCT., Nigeria. Four hypotheses were tested in the study. Cross-sectional research design was adopted for the research. The sample consisted of 297 students drawn from a population of Eight hundred (800) 11th grade (SS2) secondary school students in 2 public schools in Karu, Federal Capital Territory (FCT), Abuja, Nigeria. A systematic sampling technique was used in selecting the sample. Three research instruments were administered for data collection: A modified Perception of Parents Scale (POPS), Peer Pressure Scale (PPSQ – Revised), and Drug Abuse Screening Test (DAST-10). The results indicated that parent-child relationship did not have a relationship with substance use/abuse [$r(295) = -0.008$, $P > 0.05$ NS] while peer pressure had a significant relationship with substance use/abuse [$r(295) = 0.295$, $P < 0.05$]. The Result of multiple regression analysis revealed that, parent-child relationship, peer pressure and gender jointly predicted substance use/abuse ($R = .299$; $F = 9.575$, $P < .01$) among secondary school students in Karu. Thus, it was concluded that parent-child relationship was not related to psychoactive substance use/abuse whereas peer influence was positively related to substance use/abuse among SS2 students in public secondary schools. It is recommended, among others, the need to establish a school-based prevention program that will empower students with information and skills to rationally identify and decisively deal with any presenting destructive peer pressure.

Keywords: Parent-child relationship, peer pressure, substance use, substance abuse, students, public secondary schools, Nigeria.

Background to the study

Over the years, parental versus peer influence has been a contending issue amongst researchers. Due to its sensitive nature, researchers and clinicians regularly deal with matters bothering on interpersonal influence. On one hand, some researchers contend that adolescents' parents and peers provide competing messages about norms and rules, while others, on the other hand, proposes that parents and peers provide compatible messages (Werner-Wilson & Arbel, 2000).

Senior Secondary School students (SS2) are adolescents just like their counterparts in other climes (11th Grade). The World Health Organisation (WHO) defined 'adolescent' as persons between the ages of 10 and 19 years, and 'young people' as those between 10 to 24 years. In Nigeria, however, data show that over 30 million people fall within the ages of 10 to 19 years, while 50 million are within the ages of 10 to 24 years accounting for one-third of the population of the country (Ogbonna, 2015). All over the world, this category of population is seen as the bed-rock and future of the society. But unfortunately, substance use and abuse has taken a huge negative toll on this population of young people with its attendant negative consequences. In a recent report of Drug Use in Nigeria (2018) by the *United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime*, over 14.3 million Nigerians between the ages of 15 and 64 use hard drugs. This report clearly shows that adolescents fall within this population of drugs users listed. Also, it is based on the same report that on the 14th of April 2020, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) launched the "Drug Help Net" in Nigeria to provide over-the-phone assistance to Drug Users in Need, having estimated that there are over 3 million Nigerians living with some sort of drug use disorder, and are likely to suffer graver negative impact of the lockdown imposed by the government as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic.

With this alarming data, the National Drug Law Enforcement Agency report of 2016/2017 states that admission for treatment through referrals from illicit drug use related issues puts the figure at 2,709 males and 68 females, which is just a fragment of the bigger problem.

According to Morris and Wagner (2018), adolescence has long been acknowledged as a significant period during which individuals undergo dramatic biological, psychological, and social transformation as they move toward adulthood. White (2004) (in Morris and Wagner, 2018) assert that due to the symbolic changes in adolescence, the period is better not defined by time (e.g., the second decade of life), but rather by the set of changes that occur during the teenage years.

One thing worthy of note in this developmental phase as highlighted above is psychological transformation, particularly '*individuation*'; adolescents struggle to cultivate autonomy at a time when they are still dependent on their parents especially for financial up-keep. This era usually brings about conflicts with parents and society particularly if the teenager is 'hanging' with the 'wrong' peers. It is this attribute that increases their vulnerability to so many socio-environmental ills, including substance use and abuse.

At school and away from the watchful eyes of parents / guardians, secondary school adolescents, as they individuate, have a great tendency to be rebellious and experiment with different behaviours (including using drugs) which are conceivably risky to their overall well-being (Loke & Mak, 2013). Experimentation is likely to be done with friends / peers to achieve among other things, the need to 'belong' and appear trendy, cool, respected and acceptable amongst peers in their social milieu. This often leads to tension and crisis with family and society especially if there is an existing strain in family relationship (Werner-Wilson & Arbel, 2000). Initiation and experimentation with drugs at this point could lead to continued usage and possible nudge into higher drug abuse (Bobo & Husten, 2000).

The healthy development of adolescents promises a healthy society in the future. Risky behavioural practices by adolescents, such as experimenting with illicit drugs has a great

probability of extending into adulthood thereby, predisposing them in adulthood to preventable morbidities and mortalities (Loke & Mak, 2013). In other words, a healthy population of young Nigerians assures of a promising and productive future for the country. Over the years, substance use has assumed an alarming dimension among adolescents all over the world. Substance use among young people in Nigeria and all over the world is prevalent both at the community level and in schools. For instance, 75% of high school seniors have tried alcohol at some point during their lifetime and 50% of high school seniors have tried at least one illicit drug (Johnston, O'Malley, Bachman, & Schulenberg, 2006). We may say that some experimenting with cigarette, alcohol, marijuana, and a number of some gateway substances are perhaps normative for this developmental period; these drugs have the viable potential of putting adolescent users into the risk of experiencing immediate negative consequences as a result of acute effects of intoxication such as car crashes, fights, unplanned and unprotected sexual encounters, etc. Consequences may be more insidious and emerge only after a substantial history of substance involvement, for instance, the development of a substance use disorder (Morris & Wagner, 2018). This gives us a background of why majority of teenagers presenting for treatment in a mental health facility are for cases relating to substance use and abuse. As Morris and Wagner (2018), put it, for adolescents presenting for rehab, substance abuse may be (a) the primary presenting problem, (b) a co-occurring problem with other mental health problems (e.g., conduct disorder, mood disorders, etc.), or (c) an issue of relatively minor concern relative to other more acute mental health problems.

Despite the negative outcomes that substance use / abuse brings on the adolescent, a very potent factor that reinforces the use of psychoactive substance is peer influence / pressure. Research and literature are replete with how compelling the social influence of peers can be on an adolescent. There is strong and unequivocal evidence for a positive relationship between peer substance use and adolescent substance use (Chassin, Hussong, Barrera, Molina, Trim, & Ritter, 2004). Also, peer use appears to be an important predictor of relapse among adolescents who have been treated for substance use problems. According to Brown, Vik, and Creamer (1989), 90% of adolescent relapses occurred in the presence of other people and were related to direct and indirect social pressure to use alcohol, marijuana, or other drugs. In order to ascertain the significance of friends in substance use/abuse, Eremie and Okwuleh (2021) established in their study that students were exposed to substance use by their friends.

By virtue of enrolling into school, adolescents are automatically exposed to peers from different economic and socio-cultural backgrounds. The opportunity to select their peers becomes narrowed to the school environment. Hence, most peers in their social network are more by default than by choice. If these peers are into substance use, there is a great tendency for an adolescent to be initiated into using substance. As Unger and Chen (1999) submitted, adolescents whose friends use psychoactive substance are likely to do same at an earlier age than other adolescents.

Meyer (2013) asserted that individuals who feel socially excluded are more likely to associate with substance-using peers by middle adolescence. This is particularly aggravated if the adolescent has experienced neglect from absent family or parents, as the case may be. Hence, the opportunity to belong to a group (deviant or substance-using group) is often perceived as

a privilege. This brings into perspective the ever-crucial role of positive parenting in the life of an adolescent.

As it relates to this study, the importance of quality, effective and positive parenting in the life of a child and adolescent cannot be overemphasised. However, in a bid to adjust to modern life and its harsh economic realities, parents (i.e., both father and mother) in a lot of Nigerian homes often engage in full-time employment to be able to meet with the financial demands of their family. A lot of times, this is at the expense of giving their children balanced and positive parenting (quality parent-child relationship) through constructive value system. For whatever reason it is, other parents lack the ability to effectively give their teens the much-needed productive impact because they (the parents themselves) lack the social skills to function as parents.

Parent-child relationship factor is crucial in encouraging social and behavioural problems among adolescents or in protecting them from such problems. Though it appears peer influences in schools are inevitable, one may reason that constructive parenting value system serves to inculcate positive values and wealth of information in the adolescent thereby helping them deal with, and possibly identify and resist destructive peer influences. In other words, positive parental values should help the adolescent rationally evaluate and negotiate the consequences of a presenting peer influence. It is obvious that parents can only make such meaningful impact on their teens in an environment of family warmth, connectedness and support. Dysfunctional family network serves as a base to which problem behaviours in most adolescents are founded, and vice versa.

Based on the foregoing, this research attempts to, among other things, contribute a perspective that would facilitate the need to establish a school-based prevention program (which is obviously lacking in most schools around Karu and environs.) in the area of interpersonal influences on adolescent substance use and to equip clinicians, families, Schools and communities with credible and updated information from empirical evidence on how interpersonal factors such as parent-child relationship, peer pressure and gender predicts substance use among students in public secondary schools, Karu.

Review of Empirical Studies

Investigating the relative influences of parents and peers on adolescent delinquency and marijuana use, Aseltine (1995) using data from a 3-wave panel study of 435 high school students were paired with a best friend. The study incorporated actual self-reports of friends' behaviours in structural models that also tested for reciprocal associations between the target adolescent and the linked best friend. Aseltine (1995) concluded that parental influences were secondary to peer influences, however, the effects attributed to peer influence in this study were significantly lower than those typically reported in the literature. He also found that both attachment to mom and parental monitoring predicted lower levels of adolescent delinquency, while parental monitoring was also associated with decreases in adolescent marijuana use. Additionally, the estimates of parental influences were generally much more robust than what has conventionally been found in other studies.

In a related study, Brook, Brook, Kats, Arencibia-Mireles, and Finch (2009), examined the interrelation of ecological and psychosocial risk factors and adolescent marijuana in a three-

sample longitudinal data analysis. Regression analysis revealed that parental drug use and adolescent low identification with parents were significantly related to marijuana use. Perceived peer marijuana use, and low perceived peer achievement predicted adolescent marijuana use. Furthermore, in a longitudinal study of 7th, 9th and 12th grade youths of Mexican-origin, Clark, Donnellan, and Robins (2016) reported that adolescents' observed behaviours towards parents, particularly hostility, were significantly associated with future substance use, while parents' behaviours towards adolescents were generally not significantly associated with future substance use. Similarly, Ekot (2016) reported that there was no significant relationship between parent-adolescent relationship and alcohol abuse by a sample of 100 adolescents in Uyo Local Government Area, Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria.

Rusby, Light, Crowley, and Westling (2018), measured both parent and adolescent report of parent-youth relationship quality and parental monitoring with 400 adolescents ages 13 – 14, by the spring of 8th grade. They found that youth report of both a poorer parent-youth relationship and lower parental monitoring were associated with alcohol use, binge drinking, and marijuana use onset. In another study, after sampling 917 Chinese adolescents with mean age of 14.38 years, Liu, Wang and Tian (2019) concluded that good parent-adolescent relationship is critical for decreasing adolescent risk-taking behaviours, otherwise, improving self-control is particularly helpful to adolescents having more conflict with their parents or less parental support to decrease adolescent risk-taking behaviours. Furthermore, Abdul (2016) studied the influence of family context and peer group on secondary school student's involvement in deviant behavior. Using a descriptive survey research, a sample of 2060 students drawn from a population of 25773 secondary school students in 18 public schools in the six states of the zone were employed in the research. Results showed that both family context and peer group predicted deviant behavior. Abdul (2016) further discovered that majority of students in the North-East Geo-Political Zone of Nigeria belonged to the extended and polygamous family structures, and thus, tend to experience less meaningful and positive impactful parent-child relationship/interaction (e.g., family supportiveness, cohesion, and parental monitoring). She also added that the students tend to associate more with their peers. Similarly, Abdulraheem, Olalekan, and Abasiokong (2018), drawing from a sample of adolescents in twenty-five communities in Yenagoa, Bayelsa State, Nigeria, concluded that majority of the respondents do not have cordial relationship with their fathers and mothers, and hence, tend to be predispose to substance use.

Ikoh, Smah, Okwanya, Clement, and Aposhi (2019) examined the factors that influenced youths to take to drugs and its security implication in Lafia Metropolis of Nasarawa State, Nigeria. In the survey, samples were drawn from 10 political wards in the Metropolis. Results showed that drug abuse was significantly practiced in the Metropolis due to lack of parental control, easy access to drugs, and emerging street culture of gangsterism. Furthermore, building on the ecological systems theory, Hamilton et al. (2012) in Mathibela and Skhosana (2020) accentuate that parental conflict and family detachment are most times causative factors for succumbing to peer pressure and eventual involvement with drugs by adolescent. In a study by Berndt (1979), conformity to parents and conformity to peers were negatively correlated. In addition, the relations between parents and peer conformity changed with age. Using a longitudinal design to investigate age-related changes in the magnitude of peer and parent influences on adolescent cigarette smoking, Chassin, Presson, Sherman, Montello, and McGrew (1986) concluded that both peer and parent influences were significant predictors of

subsequent transition to higher levels of smoking. Chassin and her colleagues, however, noted that unlike previous cross-sectional research, the magnitude of peer and parent influences did not significantly vary across a sample of 6th- to 11th-graders. Duncan, Duncan, and Hops (1994) found that family influence (family cohesion) and peer influence (peer encouragement) were both significant predictors of adolescent alcohol use, though in opposite directions.

Nwoke, Ogba, and Ugwu (2012) examined the influence of family and peer on drug use among Nigerian youth. Using 233 sample of undergraduate students with mean age of 24.5 years randomly selected from the departments of Psychology, Sociology and Economics at the University of Nigeria Nsukka (UNN), Nwoke and her colleagues employed hierarchical multiple regression to arrive at a result which showed that both family influence and peer pressure significantly predicted drug use. They further explained that family factors such as distant, uninvolved and inconsistent parenting; poor parental mentoring, unclear family rules, expectations and rewards can trigger drug use among youths.

In a review by Cleveland (2003), it shows that there is evidence that parental and peer influences act in an opposing manner on adolescents' use of alcohol and cigarettes. Adolescents who reported that they received high levels of support from their parents tended to also report higher levels of parental influence in their decisions related to substance use, which in turn, was negatively related to initial levels and decreasing rates of adolescent substance use. Conversely, adolescents who reported high initial levels of friends' support were more likely to also report high levels of influence from friends, which increases the likelihood that they reported use of alcohol and cigarettes at the first wave. Similarly, Studies by Berndt (1979), investigated developmental changes in conformity to parents and peers and relations between parent and peer conformity. A total of 1,251 children in one study, and 2273 in another study both in the 3rd, 6th, 9th, 11th, or 12th grade responded to hypothetical situations in which peers urged the child to perform either antisocial, prosocial, or neutral behaviours. The result showed that for all types of behaviour, the age trends for conformity were curvilinear, and peer conformity peaked in the 6th or 9th grade. It was also observed that for antisocial behaviour, a peak in peer conformity was found at the 9th grade. Significant age changes were not found for prosocial behaviour. Conformity to parents on both types of behaviour decreased steadily with age. Berndt (1979), concluded that with some, but not all measures, conformity to parents and conformity to peers were negatively correlated. In addition, the relations between parents and peer conformity changed with age.

In order to examine the gender difference in substance use/abuse, study by Ottu and Oladejo (2014) to investigate the influence of discrimination and social identity on adolescent's substance use in selected secondary schools in Ibadan, they found, among other things, that males use more drugs than their female counterparts. However, the Treatment Episode Data Set (TEDS) report of April 3, 2014, suggests that difference in substance abuse patterns among men and women vary by age; with men 18 and above having almost doubled the rate of substance dependence as their adult female counterparts. The report, nonetheless, noted that among youths aged 12 to 17, the rate of substance dependence for both genders is the same (6.9%); there were no significant gender differences found by primary substances of abuse overall with alcohol peaking as the most commonly reported primary substance of abuse. Kuhn (2015) laid credence to TEDS 2014 report by observing that substance use and abuse begin during adolescence; male and female adolescent humans initiate use of psychoactive

substance at comparable rates, while in adulthood, more men than women use and abuse addictive drugs.

In view of the literature, this study was carried to contribute local and up-to-date information on the influence of parent-child relationship, peer pressure and gender on substance use among students.

Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested

1. Parent-child relationship will significantly have a relationship with substance use/abuse among students in public secondary schools.
2. Peer pressure will significantly have a relationship with substance use/abuse among students in public secondary schools.
3. There will be a significant difference in substance use/abuse between male and female students in public secondary schools.
4. Parent-child relationship, peer pressure, and gender will jointly predict substance use/abuse among students in public secondary schools.

Research Methodology

The study adopted a cross-sectional survey research design. The study covered 11th grade (SS2) public Secondary School students in Karu, FCT., Nigeria. The age range of participants was 13 to 22 years. The total enumerated population was eight hundred (800). The calculated sample size for this population was 260 based on a 95% level of confidence, 5% margin of error and 50% population proportion (<https://www.calculator.net/sample-size-calculator>). However, a sample of 297 participants (37 more than the calculated size) were selected and their characteristics are as follows: Males (33.7%), Females (66.3%), age range (13 to 22 years), living with both parents (62.3%), living with Father (3.0%), living with Mother (7.1%), living with Foster Parent (5.7%), living with Guardians (16.8%), and others (5.1%). A systematic sampling procedure was adopted for the study. Due to the age bracket in view, and upon preliminary investigations, 11th grade or SS2 students were identified as the most suitable target population for this study. On the day of data collection, 800 students were enumerated. They were all assigned numbers (either '1' or '2') written on a piece of paper. Questionnaires were then administered to 396 participants who picked the pieces of papers with even numbers (number '2') written on it. A total of 297 participants completed and returned their questionnaires.

Three instruments were employed in this research. The 21-item modified Perception of Parents Scale (POPS) was used to measure parent-child relationship. This scale was developed to describe adolescents'/young adults' perception of their relationships with parents with a 7-point Likert scale format from 'not at all true' to 'very true' (Wintre&Yaffe, 1991). The obtained Cronbach Alpha Reliability Coefficient for the study was 0.894.

The Scoring goes thus: items 2, 6, 12, 13, 14, 15, 20, 21 must be reversed. The scale has three subscales namely parent involvement, parent autonomy support and parent warmth.

The Peer Pressure Scale was developed by Singh and Saini (2010) was revised to measure the level of peer pressure among students, mainly adolescents. It is a self-report 5-point Likert

scale measured on five categories, i.e., Strongly disagree (5), Disagree (4), Can't say (3), Agree (2), Strongly Agree (1). The pilot study conducted yielded a Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficient of 0.895.

The Drug Abuse Screening Test (DAST-10) developed by Skinner (1982) was used to measure substance abuse. The DAST-10 is a 10-item scale that can be completed within 5 to 10 minutes. Items are responded to in a "Yes" or "No" format. Score 1 point for each question answered "Yes", except for question 3 for which a "No" receives 1 point. The obtained Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficient was 0.682.

Data Analysis and Results

Hypothesis 1: This stated that parent-child relationship will significantly correlate with substance abuse among students in public Secondary Schools, Karu. This hypothesis was tested using Pearson Product Moment Correlation in table 1.

Table 1: Summary Result of the Relationship between Parent-Child Relationship and Substance Use/Abuse among Students

Variables	M	SD	df	r	P
Parent-Child Relationship	71.58	15.272	295	-.008	.894
Substance Use	7.92	1.352			

Table 1 shows the summary results of the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation between parent-child relationship and substance abuse among students in public schools, Karu. The results revealed the mean and standard deviation scores for parent-child relationship (M= 71.58, SD= 15.272) and substance use (M= 7.92, SD= 1.352). Further analysis revealed there was no significant relationship between parent-child relationship and substance abuse among students in public secondary schools, Karu [$r(295) = -0.008$, $P > 0.05$ NS]. In other words, the hypothesis was not confirmed in this study. These results imply that parent-child relationship does not significantly correlate with substance abuse among secondary school students.

Hypothesis 2: It stated that peer pressure will significantly have a relationship with substance abuse among students in Public Secondary Schools, Karu. This hypothesis was tested using Pearson Product Moment Correlation in table 2.

Table 2: Summary Result of the Relationship between Peer Pressure and Substance Use/Abuse among Students

Variables	M	SD	Df	r	P
Peer pressure	39.69	14.382	295	0.295	.000
Substance use	7.92	1.352			

$r(295) = 0.295$, $P < 0.05$

Table 2 shows the summary results of the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation between peer pressure and substance abuse among students in public schools, Karu. The results revealed the mean and standard deviation scores for peer pressure (M= 39.69, SD= 14.382) and

substance abuse ($M = 7.92$, $SD = 1.352$). Further analysis revealed a positive relationship between peer pressure and substance use among students in public secondary schools significant [$r(295) = 0.295$, $P < 0.05$]. In other words, the hypothesis was confirmed in this study. These results imply that peer pressure positively and significantly correlate with substance use among secondary school students in Karu.

Hypothesis 3: There will be a significantly difference in substance abuse between male and female students in Public Secondary Schools. This hypothesis was tested using Independent-Sample t-test in table 3.

Table 3: Summary Result of the difference between Male and Female Student's Substance use/abuse

Gender	N	M	SD	df	t	P
Male	100	7.92	1.447	295	0.0	.970
Female	197	7.91	1.304		38	

$t(295) = 0.038$, $P > 0.05NS$

Table 3 shows the summary results of the independent sample t-test analysis between male and female substance abuse among students in public schools, Karu. The results revealed the mean and standard deviation scores for male ($M = 7.92$, $SD = 1.447$) and female ($M = 7.91$, $SD = 1.304$). Further analysis revealed a no statistically significant $t(295) = 0.038$, $P > 0.05NS$ difference between male and female substance abuse among students in public secondary schools, Karu. In other words, the hypothesis was not confirmed in this study. These results imply that male students do not significantly differ in substance use compared to their female counterparts.

Table 4: Summary of the Multiple Regression Analysis on Substance Use/Abuse

VARIABLES	B	t	R	R ²	F
Parent-child relationship	0.004	0.818	.299	.089	9.575*
Peer Pressure	0.029	5.358*			
Gender	0.004	0.028			

Sig. Level: * $P < .01$, (df=3, 293)

Table 4 shows the summary result of the multiple regression analysis where it revealed that, parent-child relationship, peer pressure and gender jointly predicted substance use significantly ($R = .299$; $F = 9.575$, $P < .01$) and indicated a proportion of 8.9% variance for substance use among secondary school students in Karu. The result further revealed that peer pressure significantly predicted substance use ($\beta = -.968$; $t = -2.531$, $P < .05$) independently while parent-child relationship and gender do not. In other words, this hypothesis was confirmed in the study.

Discussion of Findings

Findings are discussed based on the hypotheses / research questions of the study. From the first hypothesis/research question, findings revealed that Parent-child relationship did not significantly predict substance use among students in Public Secondary Schools, Karu. The inferences to be drawn here is that students' indulgence in substance use may not, to a reasonable extent, be attributed to the nature of the relationship they have with their parents; there may be some cases of substance use that can be attributed to parent-child relationship. This is in tandem with Robins (2016) position that parents' behaviours towards adolescents were generally not significantly associated with future substance use. This is also supported by Ekot's 2016 report that there was no significant relationship between parent-adolescent relationship and alcohol abuse by a sample of 100 adolescents in Uyo Local Government Area of Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria. However, this finding seems to run contrary to the tenet of Attachment theory which perceives maladjusted behaviours in children to have emanated from histories of maternal deprivation and separation (Bowlby, 1944). Laying credence to Attachment theory is the findings reported by Abdulraheem, Olalekan, and Abasiokong (2018), after sampling adolescents from 25 communities in Yenagoa, Bayelsa State, Nigeria, they concluded that majority of the respondents do not have cordial relationship with their fathers and mothers, and hence, tend to be predispose to substance use.

Based on the second hypothesis/research question, findings showed that Peer pressure significantly predicted substance use among students in Public Secondary Schools, Karu. This infers that, peer pressure would considerably increase the likelihood of students indulging in substance use; most students who are exposed to peer pressure have a greater tendency to be predisposed to psychoactive substance use. Possible explanations for this outcome may be: (a) the need to 'belong' or associate as postulated by the theory of social exclusion, (b) perceived attractiveness of a presenting peer group/individual as articulated by the theory of selective attention, and (c) the overwhelming evidence in local and internal literature about a positive and significant relationship between peer pressure and substance use. Duncan, Duncan, and Hops (1994) found that peer influence (peer encouragement) was a significant predictor of adolescent alcohol use. Also, Nwoke et al. (2012), observed that early initiation and association with friends who use drugs predicts drug use among youths. Similarly, results from research by Abdul (2016), reveals among other things that peer group predicted deviant behaviour.

Findings in respect to the third hypothesis/research question revealed that there was no statistically significant difference in substance use between male and female students in Public Secondary Schools, Karu. In other words, there are a lot of similarities in substance use between female and male students as a result of the influences they experience from parent-child relationship and peer pressure. This finding corroborates the Treatment Episode Data Set (TEDS) report of April 3, 2014, which suggests that among youths aged 12 to 17, the rate of substance dependence for both genders is the same (6.9%), and there were no significant gender differences found by primary substances of abuse overall with alcohol peaking as the most commonly reported primary substance of abuse. Kuhn (2015), observes that substance use and abuse begin during adolescence; male and female adolescent humans initiate use of psychoactive substance at comparable rates, while in adulthood, more men than women use and abuse addictive drugs. On the contrary, Ottu and Oladejo (2014) seem to suggest that secondary school males use more drugs than their female counterparts.

On the fourth hypothesis/research question, findings indicated that parent-child relationship, peer pressure and gender jointly predicted substance use among students in Public Secondary Schools, Karu. Furthermore, as shown in table 6 above, a negative parent-child relationship will likely create room for more peer pressure and eventually increase the likelihood of students indulging in the use of psychoactive substance. In other words, respondents who do not have cordial relationship with their parents report significant level of peer pressure, and a high disposition to use psychoactive substance. A better explanation to this scenario can be seen in the research done by Duncan, Duncan, and Hops (1994). They found that family influence (family cohesion) and peer influence (peer encouragement) were both significant predictors of adolescent alcohol use, though in opposite directions. That is, family influence was negatively related to adolescent alcohol use whereas peer influence was positively related to adolescent substance use. Also, Cleveland's 2003 research adds more evidence to these findings by observing that parental and peer influences act in an opposing manner on adolescents' use of alcohol and cigarettes. Adolescents who reported that they received high levels of support from their parents tended to also report higher levels of parental influence in their decisions related to substance use, which in turn, was negatively related to initial levels and decreasing rates of adolescent substance use.

Conversely, adolescents who reported high initial levels of friends' support were more likely to also report high levels of influence from friends, which increases the likelihood that they reported use of alcohol and cigarettes at the first wave, which seems in tune with the norm of social reciprocity.

Conclusion

The combined influences of parent-child relationship and peer pressure are strong predictors of substance use among students though in opposite directions. That is, parent-child relationship influence was negatively related to psychoactive substance use whereas peer influence was positively related to substance use among SS2 students in public secondary schools, Karu. In other words, students who reported high levels of parent autonomy support, involvement and warmth are likely not to be predisposed to substance use. Conversely, students with high peer pressure may experience negative relationship with parents and are likely to be more predisposed to substance use.

Recommendations / intervention and clinical relevance

1. Parents and guidance need to up their approach in observing who their children have as friends, find out who are within their children's social network in the neighbourhood, schools, community, media and social media.
2. There is the need to establish a school-based prevention program that will empower students with information, and the much-needed skills to rationally identify and decisively deal with any presenting destructive peer pressure. For instance, regular workshops and counselling services should be put in place at schools (Onukogu, Ekpe, Edet and Anya, 2015).
3. For mental health professionals, physicians, advanced practice registered nurses (e.g., Psychiatry nurses), and every primary and behavioural care institution who screen and provide care for youths with psychoactive substance use and other behavioural maladjustments, the findings in this research points to the importance

of paying a great deal of attention on improving the quality of adolescents' peer networks.

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