CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

The school environment is organized to shape a student’s learning behaviour. However, one of the problems associated with schooling is truancy which is a source of concern to the parents and the school authority. Truancy has been identified as a challenge among students in schools globally and in Nigeria in particular (Animashaun, 2002).

Eremie (2015) asserted that truancy is a student’s deliberate irregular attendance at school. Similarly, Osarenren (1996) observed that truancy is the failure of an absentee student to obtain permission from parents and school. Seeley (2006) explained that truancy occurs if a student is absent without an excuse from parent/guardian or school. Truancy is an antisocial behavior of students who stay away from school.

Truants exhibit class disruptive behaviour such as truancy, absenteeism, tardiness, cutting classes that constitute an impediment to a meaningful teaching and learning process. Disruptive behaviour constitutes serious challenges facing the educational sector. Viega, (2008) defined school disruption as the transgression of school rules, troubling learning conditions, and teaching environment by truants. Hence, truancy has a negative effect on the students as it disrupts the classroom management during the teaching and learning process. The refusal of students to attend school regularly without excuse from parents and school is regarded as truancy. The characteristics of truants include laziness, lack of
interest in academic work and being in the company of hoodlums. Stoll (1990) identified three types of truants to include students who are in school but absent from class, students who are neither in the class nor at school but at home and those who are neither in the school nor at home. Truancy emanates from the inter-play of factors traceable to the individual, family, school and the community.

Truancy among students includes lateness to school and class, leaving school before closing time, loitering, dodging lessons and absenteeism (Brooks, 2001). However, absenteeism is a high rate of absence from school by students when regular attendance is needed. Students indulge in truancy as a means of escaping from an unpleasant situation that causes fear or avoiding school to gain freedom. The circumstances at home might include poor parent/child relationship due to lack of affection. In addition, parents’ inability to inculcate good moral values negatively affects their children’s academic achievement. The negative peer influence also contributes to an increase in truancy rate among students.

School engagement is seen as a preventive measure for students’ poor performance in school. The extent to which students, parents and teachers actively engage in educational process predicts how likely the students will graduate (Burrus & Roberts 2012). School engagement also involves students’ active attendance and participation in the school activities. Truants rather prefer to be with their peers unknown to their teachers, parents/guardians at the detriment of their studies.

Parental involvement in schooling enhances students’ academic performance, positive attitude towards school, time spent on homework and regular school attendance behaviour.
If parents however, abdicate their responsibility towards their children to their teachers, the students may become delinquent. Again, parents’ inability to inculcate good moral values may also negatively affect their children’s academic achievement.

Truants see the time they leave home for school as a period of freedom. Cone (2012) observed that truants leave home but do not go to school or escape from school to engage in negative activities that caught their imagination and fancy. Uwakwe (1998) explained that truancy affects the school social environment creating a climate of fear and inhibiting students’ ability to learn. The entrenched truancy culture in the homes, school and society coupled with insensitive response to truancy by those in authority affects students’ attitude to truancy. This is further aggravated by the scarcity of effective techniques to prevent truancy among students by counsellors and teachers.

Emotional disposition of truants show how they feel and perceive their environment. A student who is sad emotionally due to deprivation and rejection would easily vent his anger on peers at the slightest provocation. It would also be difficult for him to concentrate on his studies during the teaching and learning process. Students who are not emotionally stable are not courageous enough to express themselves among their peers. Osarenren (2005) observed that the emotional disposition of an individual plays a significant role in his relationship.

School engagement involves students’ active involvement in classroom tasks and school activities. School engagement also implies the rate at which parents show keen interest in ensuring that their children attend school punctually to prevent being delinquent. In fact,
parents who fail to assist their children in their school work would expect a very poor academic achievement. Furthermore, some parents’ apathy towards their children’s education increases the rate of truancy among students. It is obvious that some parents do not appreciate the value of education for their children because, for them education is not a priority. The construct of parental involvement is defined here in terms of the behaviour directed towards the education of their children.

Some teachers prepare inadequate lesson notes that do not sustain students’ interest which result to poor students and teacher relationship. Nwankwo (2006) stressed that some teachers treat students as if their psychological, emotional and social needs are identical. In the same vein, Makinde (2004) stated that if children are raised in a loving environment, their psychological, emotional and social potentials will develop well. In fact, understanding the individual differences in students depicts a teacher’s high degree of professionalism.

Students who suffer isolation may not have the courage to confront their peers in self-defense. Pelling (2013) stated that some students lack assertiveness skills to confront truants as they may be victims of bullies. Unfortunately, truants do not realize the implication of their action while their peers are busy with their studies. Various attempts are being made in the Western world to curb the incidence of truancy among students. Different anti-truancy campaign strategies are used by government and non-governmental agencies to assist in reducing truancy. Some states in the United States of America require schools to adopt anti-truancy policies such as project for promoting school attendance (Dembo & Gullege 2008). One of such policies is the anti-truancy programme which
promotes regular school attendance in Washington State schools (Jones, 2009). Unfortunately, adequate records on truancy among students are not kept in schools and anti-truancy policy and programme by government are also not prevalent in Nigeria.

Assessment of students’ truancy by the teacher is necessary for early identification of those who are at-risk. The assessment could be done by generating baseline data from the general performance of the students’ activities in the school. Unfortunately, assessment of truancy among students who are at risk has not been given the desired attention. Okoli (2005) observed that the assessment of students’ academic achievement will determine their level of performance. Similarly, if students are assessed by their teachers the rate of class disruptive activities by truants would be reduced. Hence lack of assessment of students’ academic performance would create problem of time and class management to the teacher. Plummer (2005) stated that assessment of students’ academic performance by the teacher would aid decision making.

Managing disruptive behaviour and personal challenges including truancy among students has become imperative. Management of truancy involves the use of adequate counselling intervention to modify the challenges that confront students (Cherry, 2013). Management of truancy provides students with skills for inter-personal relationship and self-management. A study on curbing deviance through peace education by (Jegede, Ememe & Gami (2008) revealed that peace education is an effective tool for transforming deviant behaviour which includes truancy among secondary school students in Lagos State. The study revealed that peace education is a panacea for reducing truancy. Similarly, Oliha (2014) studied the effectiveness of contingency management and cognitive restructuring in
the reduction of truancy among secondary school students. The study showed that cognitive restructuring was more effective in truancy reduction than contingency management.

Gender plays a significant role in the rate of truancy as boys and girls are involved as some of the students do not see the need for regular school attendance. In the United States of America the male students are considered less likely to graduate than the females and the gap is 14% between male and females among African American students (Monrad, 2007). However, Gesinde (2004) stated that boys at any level of education exhibit truancy more than the girls. In their submission, Nwankwo and Onyali’s (2011) survey on truancy and dropping out of school revealed that in Nigeria, both gender exhibit similarities on truancy rate. It is therefore obvious that male and female students engage in truancy in that they share common interest. Some students are involved in truancy because they do not see the need for regular school attendance. The same students avoid the demands of schooling and stay away from school to engage in anti-social activities. The need for supervising violent-prone peers by adult authority in structured school activities to avoid delinquent life style for students becomes imperative. Robinson and Rogstad (2012) stated that girls and boys engage in truancy in the first two years of secondary school. Animashaun (2009) however, argued that boys are more aggressive than girls if caught fighting or bullying. Unfortunately, some of the girls become victims of rape, prostitution and unwanted pregnancy due to the negative effect of truancy. Truancy is a major factor in senior secondary schools thus, must be addressed to improve the standard of living and security of lives.
Managing this endemic challenge of truancy has become imperative. As such efforts are being made all over the world to reduce the rate of truancy among students in the schools. Several intervention programmes have been used to prevent, improve and change the maladaptive behaviour exhibited by students in our society such as lateness to school, absenteeism, truancy, bullying, stealing among others. It becomes necessary to explore a therapeutic intervention that would ameliorate the emotional and psychological problem faced by truants.

Over the years, counsellors have used different counselling strategies to address truancy challenges (Oliha, 2010, Henry, 2007). However, truancy could be better reduced through the use of social learning and cognitive behaviour therapies.

Social Learning focused on observation, imitation and modelling (Bandura, 2001). The process involves communication, innovation, determination and perseverance. The techniques are designed to encourage interaction that enhances novel behaviour. It stresses the use of personal and interpersonal skills, to achieve good social skills that will enhance positive relationship among people. The goal of the intervention is to enable students change their attitude by watching models. Also initiating peers is significant in behaviour change as it helps to assist students with skills required for interpersonal relationship. Furthermore, it improves self-expression, respect for others, identify assertive and non-assertive behaviour, thus allowing the students to cope with the challenges of regular school attendance.
Cognitive behaviour entails changing a perception from interpretation to a neutral or positive one, making it less stressful. This process is called reappraisal, rebelling, refraining and attitude adjustment (Serward, 2011). The cognitive behaviour strategies are designed to uncover dysfunctional and maladaptive thinking that often accompany psychological distress and challenges. These strategies are based on the belief that one’s feelings are a direct result of one’s thought. In other words, what and how one thinks determines how that person feels. All behaviour whether deviant, adaptive or maladaptive, appropriate or inappropriate are learned and maintained according to the same principles (Okoli 2002). The goal of the interaction is to unlearn, improve and hopefully change maladaptive cognitions, thus allowing the client to live a far more productive and happy life.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

It is worrisome to note that students tend to face a lot of emotional and psychological problems arising from irregular school attendance, lack of personal and interpersonal skills to cope with school work. Truants have negative perception about schooling because it interferes with their freedom as they prefer to spend most of their time with friends. From our cultural perspective when a child fails to attend school, the parents are usually blamed. However, many students struggle with personal issues that relate to lack of personal, interpersonal and problem solving skills, which manifest as behavioural problems that could most likely result to truancy.

Truants suffer from deprivation, isolation, rejection and unassertiveness, which is due to their inability to cope with social, cognitive and problems-solving skills. Some of them are bullied hence they decide to be absent from school unknown to their parents and the school
authority. In addition, some parents neither assist their children in the homework or assignment nor participate in the school programmes Uwakwe (1998). Such parents do not monitor the progress of their children thereby abdicate their responsibility to the school. Also, some students explained that they do not have writing materials such as textbooks, pencil, biros, school bags and sandals, hence prefer to be outside while the lessons are going on. Such students’ cannot benefit from the various programmes that the school offers. In addition, the effects of truancy include low achievements criminal and delinquent activities. Truancy is also a clog in the wheel of progress during the teaching and learning, as the teacher has to contend with adequate class management.

Again, some students attend school two times a week as they engage in street trading, motor park touting and graduate to street urchins in order to support their families financially. Truancy among students contributes to low grades in their examinations. Truants engage in manual jobs such as cleaners, guards, gardeners, drivers in order to meet their financial needs.

Other psychological and emotional problems could be lack of parental love, care, poverty, rejection and unassertiveness among peers. The truants also experience mental and physical stress as they are regarded as low achievers. They lack encouragement from family members, peers and their teachers. Furthermore, the absence of peace may affect the society as the truants indulge in different vices such as bullying, juvenile delinquency, hooliganism, alcoholism, armed robbery and sexual abuse. Truants have serious problems in the school with regards to participation in school activities in that they are always in the wrong place at the wrong time. A study on curbing deviance through peace education,
Jegede, Ememe and Gami (2008) showed that 32.13% of truancy rate among the participants, while the control group had 60.87%. Truancy contributes to unemployment and poverty rate of every country due to low academic achievement (American Psychological Association, 2010). The realization of the goals of secondary education as spelt out in the National Policy on Education (Federal Republic of Nigeria 2013) is not far fetched. It includes raising up a generation of people who can think for themselves, respect the views and feelings of others and dignity of labour. The goals of the policy therefore cannot be effectively achieved with the menace of truancy ravaging the educational system.

Another problem is absence of policy and programmes on truancy that will promote regular school attendance by the government. Hence, much attention has not been given to the provision of counselling services in schools, as counsellors are yet to perform their responsibility towards students. Again, non-inclusion of counselling as a core subject in secondary school curriculum to enable the counsellors to teach career guidance, personal, interpersonal and problem solving skills.

Assessment of students is critical in solving the problems of truancy in the schools Barbara (2012). Animashaun (2005) observed that some teachers have been found to avoid classes and are hostile to students put wider their care. In fact, the attitude of such teachers indicated lack of interest in their career; hence their absence encourages truancy among students. Management of truancy is difficult because researches have shown that schools lack data on assessment and management that would facilitate intervention (Bolarinwa, 1996; Hebrum, 2003 and Gesinde, 2005).
Attempts have been made by researchers such as DeSocio, Vancura, Nelson, Hewett, Kitman and Cole (2007) to tackle truancy using some counselling strategies in order to find a lasting peace in the school, home and society. Much of such efforts have not been quite effective especially among senior secondary school students in the educational system. There is a gap in research on how to improve on their irregular school attendance behaviour. Therefore, this study focused on using social learning and cognitive behaviour intervention, as the vehicle by which students could imbibe the practice of regular school attendance and cope with the challenges of schooling.

1.3 Theoretical Framework

The study was guided by the following theories:


Social Learning Theory (SLT)

Albert Bandura’s Social Learning Theory (SLT) is based on the idea that people learn by watching others and that human processes are responsible in the understanding of a personality. Three major concepts visible in the theory are observation, imitation and modelling. However, Bandura (1977) observed that most human behaviours are learnt observationally through modelling. The theory stipulates that as observed one individual form an idea of anew behaviour and on later occasion this coded information serve as a guide. Furthermore, that human beings are active information processor and think about the relationship between their behaviour and its consequences. He concluded that observational learning could not occur unless cognitive processes were at work. He also stressed that
children observe the people around them behaving in various ways. Bandura (1977) states that certain conditions determine whether or not people learn from observed behaviour. They must pay attention and retain what they have observed and must be motivated to reproduce the behaviour. The effects of observed behaviour are also stronger if the model has characteristics similar to those of the observer.

Bandura (2001) described individuals that are observed as models. In a society, children are surrounded by many influential models such as parents within the family, characters on children’s television, friends within their peer group and teachers at school. These models provide examples of behaviour to observe and imitate such as masculine and feminine, positive and anti-social behaviour among others. Bandura (2001) asserts that as students learn, they self-direct and regulate their environment based on their self-efficiency.

SLT is relevant to this study and justifies the use of SSII students as participants for the intervention. The participants are in the semi-terminal class and will not be involved in any external examinations such as WASSCE and NECO SSCE. In addition, the intervention will be held during the first term of the session and the students have enough time to practice the social skills learnt. These include personal, interpersonal assertiveness and communication skills which will enable them avoid mistakes as they have learnt how to observe, imitate and become models in their own capacity. SLT is suitable for the SSII students because teachers, counsellors peers with whom students interact are their own models, Those mentioned above will teach good social, academic and behavioural skills that will help students who are at risk of truancy to adjust in the school.
The participants will replicate the skills learnt and even develop novel ideas symbolically coded in their mental repertoire, identify the concerns they wish to explore to guide future actions. Furthermore, peer modelling strategies will enhance their self-efficacy in that they can set goals, work in groups and succeed. Social Learning Therapy was chosen for this study because it gives more attention to the existence of human needs and superior to Cognitive Behaviour Therapy which was introduced to complement Social Learning Therapy. SLT and CBT embrace both thinking and action as components of change.

**Cognitive Behaviour Theory (Aron Beck 1976)**

Aron Beck’s Cognitive Behaviour Theory (CBT) (1976) is based on the idea that it is inner thoughts that cause feelings and behaviour and not external things like people, situations and events. Emotional and behavioural reactions are learned and the goal of the therapy is to help clients to unlearn their unwanted reaction and replace them with positive action. CBT clearly states that it is not people’s experiences that make them angry or anxious but the way they think about those experiences. Beck (1976) is concerned with the need for clients to examine their thought pattern in order to replace irrational thoughts with realistic alternatives. Beek (2005) is concerned with the need for clients to examine their thought pattern in order to replace irrational thoughts with realistic alternatives.

The relevance of the theory justifies the use of SSII students as the participants for this study in that the intervention will hold during the first term of the session. They will have enough time to practice the skills learnt up to the first term of SSIII before the onset of eternal examinations such as WASSEC and NECO SSCE. The participants will develop coping skills such as identification of self-defeating talk, distorted thoughts and replace
them with more realistic alternative ideas. Again, the ability of students to practice problem solving skills and embrace home work assignment as an instrument of change in behaviour will reduce emotional and psychological problems. Furthermore, the students will practise regular school attendance behavior by avoiding lateness to school and class, noise making absenteeism and other forms of disruptive behaving among others. The theory focuses on individual belief about self, attitude towards others, values external world as they develop internal resources of strength. Based on the knowledge acquired, students will learn how to establish self-acceptance, self-confidence, self-respect and achieve a new view of one’s self and others. The educational benefit of CBT leads to a long term result as they continue to practise what they have learnt in order to reduce in the rate of truancy. Essentially, the intervention would assist the students to develop skills for solving problems thereby maintaining regular school attendance and academic success.
The conceptual framework above illustrates the use of social learning and cognitive behaviour to reduce truancy rate. Social learning was used to assist students who are at risk of truancy to imbibe regular school attendance behaviour. This is evident in that the therapy helped to reduce truancy through personal and interpersonal, perseverance and communication skills. It is to uncover dysfunctional unassertive behaviour that often accompanies emotional problems. These strategies are based on the premise that one’s inability to communicate assertively inhibits social relationship. The goal of the intervention is to change the anti-social relationship of learners to make them attend school
regularly. Cognitive behaviour therapy was used to assist the truants to maintain regular school attendance behaviour. This is because the therapy helped in restructuring the negative thoughts they have about schooling. The cognitive behaviour strategies are to uncover dysfunctional negative thinking that often accompanies distress and problems. These strategies are based on the belief that one’s feelings are a direct result of one’s thought. In other words, what and how one thinks determines how that person feels. The goal of the intervention is to challenge and hopefully change deviant cognitions, thus allow the participants to perceive the advantages of regular school attendance.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The study investigated the effectiveness of two counselling intervention on assessment and management of truancy among public Senior Secondary School two (SSII) students in Lagos State. Specifically, the study sought to:

1. determine the impact of social learning and cognitive behaviour on school disruptive behaviour of participants in the three experimental groups;
2. examine the effectiveness of social learning and cognitive behaviour on the participants’ emotional disposition in the intervention and control groups;
3. investigate the impact of social learning and cognitive behaviour of participants on truancy rate in the intervention and control groups;
4. determine the impact of counselling intervention on the perceived level of participants’ parental support and involvement for schooling in the intervention;
5. evaluate the effect of counselling intervention on disruptive behaviour on the basis of gender in the three experimental conditions;
6. establish the impact of counselling on truancy due to gender in the three experimental conditions.

### 1.5 Research Questions

The following questions guided the study.

1. What difference exists in the impact of social learning and cognitive behaviour on school disruptive behaviour among the participants in the three experimental conditions?

2. To what extent would there be any difference in the emotional disposition among participants exposed to the intervention strategies and those in the control group?

3. How would participants’ truancy rate differ among those exposed to the counselling intervention and the control groups?

4. To what extent would there be any difference in the perceived level of parental support and involvement in schooling, among participants exposed to the intervention?

5. What difference exists in disruptive behaviour among participants on the basis of gender in the experimental conditions?

6. What difference exists in the effectiveness of the intervention strategies on truancy due to gender in the three experimental conditions?
1.6 Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses guided the study.

1. There is no significant impact of social learning and cognitive behaviour on school disruptive behaviour among the participants.
2. There is no significant difference in the emotional disposition of participants exposed to the intervention strategies and control group.
3. Participants’ truancy rate would not significantly differ among the participants exposed to counselling strategies and the control group.
4. There is no significant difference in the parental support for schooling among participants in the intervention.
5. Participants’ school disruptive behaviour will not significantly differ on the basis of gender among participants’ in the experimental groups.
6. There is no significant difference in truancy rate between the male and female participants in the three experimental conditions.

1.7 Scope and Delimitation of the Study

The study covered a sample of students (male and female) in the Senior Secondary School II (SSII). The reason for the choice of SSII students was that they were in the semi-terminal class, thus, they were not involved in any external examinations such as WASSCE or SSCE. The students will be able to practice the knowledge acquired during the intervention in their first term of the SSII session, before they are promoted to SSIII. It will be possible to administer screening exercise in order to identify those who are at risk of truancy. Three schools were randomly selected from three public schools from the six Education Districts in Lagos State. The Participants’ ages range from 13 to 19 years. In addition, the study
was restricted to two counseling strategies Social Learning and Cognitive Behaviour Therapies. Hence, the justification of SSII students for the intervention was appropriate; as they will cope with the demands of regular school attendance that in turn reduce the rate of in truancy. The SSI students was not suitable for the intervention programme because they are in the first term of the session in that there was no records of absenteeism both in the daily school attendance and subject missed registers. Again, screening the students to identify those who are at risk of truancy. Therefore using the students will not produce the desired result. Furthermore, the use of SSIII students who are involved in the taking their mock examinations during the first term and their preparation for the WASSCE and the NECO SSCE examinations respectively. Hence, the intervention will interfere with the time needed for revision and general study to cover the syllabus for their final examinations.

1.8 Significance of the Study

The study will be of immense benefit to the students who are at risk of truancy because they will acquire vital skill for coping with personal, interpersonal, problem solving, self-assertiveness and self-management skills that will ensure emotional and psychological wellbeing. This study would enable the parents to encourage their children by providing pro-social skills such as active participation in their children’s school work. These include assisting the students to complete their assignment, attending Parents’ Teachers’ Association (PTA), regular visits to the school to find out about the academic performance of students during the Open Day activities.
This study would be of significant effect to the school, counselor and education administrators by organizing seminars and workshop for regular school attendance behavior. It would also broaden the knowledge of counselors on the use of Social Learning and Cognitive Behaviour Therapies. The study would provide literature for Federal government, State ministries of Education and researchers in Nigeria and other countries for policy formulation. Furthermore, the society will be happy and peaceful in that there will be a reduction in rate of crime and other vices which are the products

1.9 Operational Definition of Terms

The following terms as used in this study are operationally defined.

**Assessment:** Assessment is the process of generating baseline data from the general performance of students’ activities. In this study, it refers to the use of research instruments for gathering data administered to the participants to measure their truancy rate and learning outcome.

**Management:** It is the use of classroom management techniques during teaching and learning process. In this study, it refers to a set of therapeutic strategies used by the researcher to carry out some reformative procedure on a group of students exhibiting truancy during the intervention.

**Truancy:** Truancy refers to the students’ absence from school without permission from school and the parents. In this study, the participants were identified using the truancy questionnaire to obtain the baseline data.

**Disruptive behaviour:** In this study, school disruption is considered as the transgression of school rules. It represents every wrong doing in the school that can be categorized under school indiscipline.
**Emotional disposition:** It refers to the fear and anxiety experienced by the students. In this study, emotional disposition is the level of unstable feelings that make the participants unable to face the challenges of school work.

**Parental involvement:** Parental involvement is the level of interest, attention and support given by parents towards their children’s education. In this study, parents’ discussion with their children about the school work, visit to the school and attend school programmes.

**Social learning therapy:** Social learning therapy means a method of learning by observing, imitation and modelling. In this study, social skills are thought to enable the participants cope with personal and interpersonal skills.

**Cognitive behaviour therapy:** Cognitive behaviour therapy is used to change a perception from a negative interpretation to a positive one. In this study, it is one of the intervention techniques used in modifying negative thoughts and behaviour.
CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This study reviewed relevant related and current literature under these headings:

- Concept of truancy
- Causes and effects of truancy
- Prevalence of truancy
- Approaches to truancy
- Adolescents and truancy
- Assessment and management of truancy
- Disruptive behaviour and truancy
- Emotional disposition and truancy
- Gender and truancy
- School engagement and truancy
- Parental involvement and truancy
- Counselling strategies and truancy
- Appraisal of related literature

2.1 Concept of Truancy

Truancy means staying away from school without permission from parents and school by students. According to the International Dictionary of Education (2002), truancy is defined as a “deliberate absence from school without parental knowledge”. In the same vein, the
New Western Comprehensive Dictionary Special Price Edition (2004) said that truancy is “when a student stays away without permission. A student who absents himself/herself from school without permission from school and home is a truant.

Fowowe (2011) observed that irregular school attendance is interchangeably used with truancy which occurs when students fail to attend school without permission from school. Similarly, Nwankwo (2006) stated that truancy among students is abnormal and results to absenteeism. Herbert (2005) stressed that truants lack skills to maintain friendships hence they are isolated by peers. Truancy may refer to students who attend school but do not go to classes. Heilbbrun (2003) observed that truancy is practiced by some students who fail to attend school, rather prefer to be with their friends. In California, a student is a truant if he is absent for 3 days during the school year and in Colorado for 4 unexplained absence during a month (Hunt, 2008). Globally, truancy is regarded as cankerworm that has caused set back and deficiency for attainment of viable educational pursuit by secondary school students (Stoll, 1993; Gesinde, 2004; Adeyemi, 2004 & Animasahun, 2005).

**Habitual truancy** – is defined as a specific number of consecutive unexcused absences from school without the knowledge or consent of parents or school.

**Occasional truancy** – when a student is absent from school with the consent of parents either to help the family and not regular.

**Casual truancy** – this type of truancy occurs when student’s absence from school is by chance and not regular. Students tend to attend the lessons that they are interested in Mac Gillivery and Erickson (2006).
Truancy as a Disciplinary Problem

In every human society, there are norms and values which are socially and mentally accepted way of doing things. A situation where a person’s behaviour contradicts the accepted societal norms, the individual becomes a deviant. The school as an institution is a place for learning morality and inculcates discipline in the students. Despite this, some students still do not attend classes regularly. Students’ absence from school for unexcused reasons is referred to as truancy. However, the situation in our secondary schools regarding the issue of truancy is pathetic.

The National Policy on Education (2004) conceived the aims of education at this level as education meant to:

1. Inculcate permanent literacy, numeracy and ability to communicate effectively;
2. Lay a solid basis for scientific and reflective thinking;
3. Give citizenship education as a basis for effective participation and contribution to the life of the society;
4. Mould the character and develop social attitude and morals in the child;
5. Develop in the child the ability to adapt to the child’s changing environment;
6. Give the child opportunities for developing manipulative skills that will enable the child function effectively in the society within the limits of the child’s capacity;
7. Provide the child with basic tools for further educational advancements including preparation for trades and crafts of the locality.

For the secondary education, the broad goals are just two – preparing the individual for:

1. useful living
2. higher education
Truants would neither achieve the aforementioned educational aims and objectives, acquiring the prerequisite skills, nor getting certificate of active participation in schooling if the rate of truancy among students is not reduced.

### 2.2 Causes and Effects of Truancy

Researchers have identified the causes of truancy to be multifaceted (Owodunni 2008; Siziya, Muuda, Rudatsikioa, 2007 and Animashaun, 2007). They include lateness, absenteeism, lack of interest in academic work, peer pressure, lack of parental supervision, lack of interest in a subject, financial difficulties in the family, irregular attendance to classes, single parenthood, poverty, drug problems, not liking school, having lower grades in the school subjects, disciplinary problems, lower rate of homework completion, youth violence (crime) among others.

According to the literature reviewed by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention (OJJDP) found correlates between truancy and four categories of risk factors.

1. **Family factors** (lack of supervision, poverty, alcohol or drug abuse, attitude towards education).
2. **School factors** (school size, attitude of students, staff, teachers’ inflexibility towards meeting different learning styles, inconsistent procedure for dealing with absenteeism).
3. **Economic factors** (employed students, single parent home, high mobility, parents with multiple jobs, lack of transportation).
4. **Students factors** (drug and alcohol abuse, lack of understanding of attendance laws, lack of social competence, mental and physical health problems (Baker, Sigmon and Nugent, 2001).
According to Heibrunns (2007) literature review on truancy has a number of harmful consequences not only for students but also for schools and communities. He further stated that truancy affects academic achievement throughout school compared to non-truant students. Students who are truants:

- have lower grades
- need to repeat grades more often
- have high rate of expulsion
- have lower rates of high school graduation

The review reported that some schools and districts still expel or ‘push out’ students who are both truants and low achieving, while the remaining students can raise the school’s overall level of academic achievement (as measured by grades, grade promotion and graduation rates), it can also lower enrolment, which drives school funding based on attendance. The literature review also concluded that truancy is a risk factor for other problems, including:

- substance abuse
- delinquency
- gang activity
- serious criminal behaviour (such as car theft and burglary)
- early sexual activity
- dropping out of school.

Animashaun’s (2009) study on causes of truancy found that lack of readiness to learn, lack of motivation, the fear of unknown, poor parenting, misplaced priority, bad role models,
over indulgence, excessive domestic work and spiritual factors cause truancy among secondary school students. The reasons adduced above have a negative effect on the students’ schooling as such problems are difficult to contend with. According to Henry’s (2007) study on effects of drug use found that about 11% of 8th grade students and about 16% of 10th grade students reported having been truant at least once in the previous four weeks. A survey conducted in 1996-1997 found that principals considered tardiness, absenteeism, class cutting and physical conflicts to be the three most serious discipline issues in their schools (Heavisade, Powon, Williams and Farris, 1998).

Owen (2001) opined that truancy and absenteeism can lead a child into drug addiction and in most cases student’s absence from school affects his/her intelligent quotient (IQ) which gets retarded. He further stated that such student would score below average in his class work because he missed all the normal school lessons, academic training which he would have acquired. In addition, that he would associate with bad peers who would lure him into criminal activities such as stealing, smoking, cultism, among others. In fact, these will increase his confidence in his bad behaviour which eventually have impacted negatively on his academics. Also, his thought process will consist of negative and debilitating self-talk. Oyebanji (1997) reiterated that any student who stays away from school will miss many lessons hence fall behind other students in the class. She further stressed that the impact on their academic performance should be of great concern to the parents.

Truancy is a problem because students who are absent from school cannot benefit from the various programmes that the school offers. The effects of truancy include lower academic achievements (Baker and Jenson, 2000). Truancy is a sign of maladjustment that requires
psychological intervention in what has been causing misunderstanding among adolescents, teachers, parents and in the society (Green, 2001). Osarenren (1996) also discussed the causes of truancy among students’ with factors resident in the home, school environment, peer-group, culture and society. In the same vein, Gesinde (2005) has also identified the contributory role of government in truancy behaviour among students. Lack of interest in education by some students contributes to truancy and if forced, they would become maladjusted. Galloway (2001) opined that understanding why students engage in truancy is the key to addressing this major educational problem. According to him, identifying the causes of truancy is extremely difficult to do because, like other forms of educational achievement such as (test scores), it is influenced by an array of factors related to both the individual student, family, school and the community setting in which the student lives. The complexity of this phenomenon according to Galloway is illustrated by the variety of reasons for truancy.

Researchers identified the causes of truancy among students as multifaceted (Animasaun 2007; Owodunni 2008). They include low academic ability, broken homes, peer pressure, parents’ socio-economic status, poor school climate, family (low economic status, non-chalant attitude of parents); individual (personal reasons, truancy, low grades in school, bad peer influence); school (ineffective attendance policies, poor record keeping and poor relationship with teachers); communities (lack of support for school, high crime rate). Other factors that induce truancy among adolescent students include the inability of some students to read and write properly thus making understanding difficult. Students are often confronted with significant adults both at home and school who act as wrong models (Chelin, 2008). The society also has neglected its role of ensuring values at the expense of
moral decadence (Reid, 2000) Studies have shown that students are exposed to hostile environment that does not provide them the opportunities to learn social and problem solving skills (Wilson, Parry, Nettlebeck & Bell 2003). According to Wilkins (2008), students that attend large schools may feel isolated in their school setting; hence they choose to stay away from school. Nwadinigwe and Makinde (1997) observed that majority of the students’ problems center on learning, as they need to learn new adaptive behaviour, experience rapid physical, emotional and physiological change simultaneously. A study on truancy reduction among adolescents revealed that students engage in truancy due to boredom, bullying and poor relationship. Various causes of truancy need to be addressed with the appropriate counselling intervention in order to ameliorate it and reduce its prevalence.

Henry (2007), in a study, investigated the effects of truancy among students. Evidence shows that truants have low academic achievement. In California the Verde Involving Parents Program raised monthly attendance rate from 89% to over 93%. In the same vein, Corey (2008) observed that truancy has a financial impact on communities that are involved in funding education. He further stressed that truant students are frustrated hence perpetrate acts of deviance such as fighting, bullying and absenteeism. Students attempt to model their behaviour to what represent the standard of their peer group. Consequently, the effect of truancy has serious consequences for the individual, society, nation and the international world. According to American Psychological Association (2010), the researchers observed that truancy contributed to unemployment and poverty in every country in that no nation can rise above the development of her human resources. A study on 169 street youths in Ibadan, Nigeria, revealed that 47% of them had a history of truancy...
The study suggested that truancy and being on the streets contribute to non-school attendance (Olley, 2006). Studies have revealed that adults who were truants as adolescent were more likely to experience marital problem, job instability and social maladjustment when compared to their counterparts who were not truants (Henry & Huzinga, 2007). Heubrunn (2007) found that students who are truants have low grades and have lower rates of high school graduation. Truancy affects not only youth but also the adult they will become. If the above effects are not properly handled by using adequate counselling strategies by counsellors and intervention programmes, truants would involve in high crime rate such as robbery, prostitution and increased rate of unemployment.

2.3 Prevalence of Truancy

Monrad (2007) observed that in the United States, approximately 3.8 million people between the ages of 16 and 24 were not enrolled in high school and had not earned a high school diploma or alternative credentials such as General Education Diploma (GED) in 2004. According to him, the truancy rate of children with emotional disability is approximately twice that of general education students. In addition, male students are considered 8% less likely to graduate than female students and the gap is as large as 14% between male and female African-American students among minorities. Only about 52% of Hispanic students and 56% of African-American students will graduate in four years, compared to 78% of the white students. A study was conducted by Jegede, Ememe and Gami (2009) on the prevalence of deviant behaviour among senior public secondary school II students in Lagos State, Nigeria. The sample consisted of 100 teachers and 200 students drawn from 10 schools through stratified random sampling technique. Two questionnaires were used to collect data for the study. Three research questions were raised and tested in
the study. The study showed that out of 28 indicated deviant behaviour, truancy ranked the highest with 24.1%. This result revealed that prevalence of truancy is the highest when compared to other deviant behaviour.

Again, Olley (2006) conducted a study 169 street youths in Ibadan, South West Nigeria who lacked parental supervision. The findings revealed that 47% of them had a history of truancy. Also, the Malaysia Global School Based Health Survey (GSHS) conducted a survey from February to April (2012) involving 28,933 students aged 12-17 years old. A two staged cluster sampling technique was used to select the schools and students with a response rate of 86.6%. The data were obtained using the GSHS questionnaire. The findings of the study revealed that the prevalence of truancy was 30.8% and significantly higher among male than female (32.9% vs. 8.7%). It is therefore pertinent to reduce truancy rate among adolescents by using new effective strategy during intervention. Truancy is a basis for dropping out of the school system. Usually, the truants start by getting to school and classes late, hence the lateness leads to truancy. The Zambian Global School-based Health Survey GSHS conducted a study in 2004. A total of 2527 participated. The data had 50.8% participants (58.1% male and 58.4% females) reported being truants in the past 30 days, while 42.2% were current drinkers and 62.8% reported having been bullied in the past 30 days (Siziya, Muula and Rudatskira, 2007). It is also possible that adolescents from poor households may be absent from school to work at home or elsewhere. The researchers further stated that in other studies, males had increased likelihood of being truants than females (Siziya, Muula and Rudatskira, 2007).
Truancy is a habitual engagement in unexcused absence from school is a type of behaviour displayed by students that have drawn the concern of parents, educators and society (Ziang, Wilson, Katsiyannis, Barret, Ju and Wie, 2010). Truancy has been strongly linked to greater discipline problem around the world, and it is associated with various negative health and socio-economic outcome. Research has shown that certain risk factors revolving around the student’s behaviour, academic performance and school engagement are strongly predictive of truancy (Fadhii, Riyanti and Balkish 2014).

According to Walls (2003), in the United States, the New York Court of Justice action was the first intervention measure used for preventing truancy. Rothman (2001) stated that despite the laws, rules and regulations in some countries to ensure regular school attendance, cases of low school attendance are prevalent. Similarly, Garry (2001) reported that in the United States, about 150,000 students skipped school on a daily basis in the New York City schools. Monrad (2007) observed that about 3.8 million people within the ages of 16 and 24 were not enrolled in the United States high schools. He conducted a study in Victoria school in Australia and its findings revealed that 40% to 60% children of school age engaged in truancy. Similarly, Reid (2002) observed that in England and Wales, 50,000 students engage in truancy on a school day and increases with age at the secondary schools. Similarly, Jones (2009) reported that Truancy Reduction Initiative observed that truants are not noticed over a period before manifestation. The literature revealed that prevalence of truancy among adolescents has been on the increase. Therefore, the urgent need to find therapeutic intervention package that would suit each cause is imperative.
2.4 Approaches to Truancy

Efforts are being made by stakeholders all over the world to reduce the incidence of truancy at school. The general approach is to look at all the factors responsible for truancy and address them.

1. Individual factors for example students, family, community.

2. Institutional factors

Considering the fact that different categories of students stay away from school for different reasons – intelligence, gifted as well as unintelligent children. It has become necessary to examine different approaches suggested and employed in different places in managing the issue of truancy.

According to Reimer and Dimock (2005) student get involved in truancy for many reasons, some external to school and some education-related. As a result, it is difficult to predict which student will become a truant since there have not been rigorous evaluation of truancy prevention and reduction programmes. There is also no evidence that point to the “best” programmes and practices that will reduce the truancy rate. The implementation of the same strategy may vary from place to place, so results to the same programme may differ. Nevertheless, the results of existing programmes and practices provide useful insight when developing intervention strategies. Programmes and practices fall into two broad categories: Comprehensive school-wide strategies (e.g. educational reform models and strategies to increase a student’s sense of belonging and engagement) and those that focus on meeting the needs of individual students. These researchers noted that a variety of promising programmes and practices exist within each category and that successful
implementation of these strategies will require the political will of policy makers, educators, families and communities, a sustained commitment and over time, increased and redirected resources and focused attention on the person and academic needs of students.

Smink and Reimer (2005) in the same vein, observed that reducing truancy rate require urgent attention from policy makers. The researchers outlined the broad strategies for reducing truancy rates as follows: Provide rules that will prevent students from staying away from school, address the root causes of truancy, strengthen school readiness, strengthen the skills, motivate the students to practice regular school attendance.

Furthermore, Railback (2004) remarked that students who are at risk for academic failure are a diverse groups of individuals with a diverse set of needs and is probably no quick fix it to keep every student in the school with high school graduation. Nevertheless, the writer suggested several things that educators could do to help students at risk of truancy to succeed and attend school regularly. These include:

- Identifying students who are at risk of truancy as early as possible.
- Make the curriculum relevant to the students’ lives and needs.
- Communicating high expectations for academic success.
- Showing students that they are ones who have made success possible.
- Encouraging and facilitating identification with students.

The researcher further remarked that some programmes also seek to promote pro-attendance culture in the school for example, rewarding students for consistent attendance and holding events and campaigns that reinforce the importance of attendance. Some of
these efforts also reach out to parents and community through public education campaigns and events to create pro-attendance culture in the family and community that reinforce that of the school.

Several safe schools/healthy students’ sites are using the effective approaches to prevent and reduce truancy. A common trend is the community based comprehensive approach. The various community partners must collaborate on the most effective approach to satisfy the particular needs of their community. For example, how community members can become involved in the effort to create a community that supports the school attendance and learning engagement of students.

Kern County in California (2008) focused their truancy intervention around the School Resource Office (SRO) and School Attendance Review Board (SARB). The school district not only empowered SROs to target habitual truants, but it also gave SROs the responsibility to run SARB sessions. The SARB is a problem solving group that addresses truancy and behaviour problems that interfere with educational progress of students. The SARB brings together school staff, parents, law enforcement, child-serving agency representatives, as well as agency and collaborative partners. Together, the partners can provide services to children and families who need support. For example, requiring students to attend school every day, directing the student and family to counselling, arranging parenting classes for parents, arranging tutoring when needed. As a result of the comprehensive approach, several improvements were made between 2009-2011, the percentage of students in the districts whose attendance improved from 41-58 percent.
The second approach commonly used by some localities cited in this report is to provide alternative educational environments for students who neither attend regular school nor perform well in the regular classroom. These alternative learning environments attempt to create a more supportive and personalized learning environment for students to help them overcome some of the risk factors associated with truancy such as absenteeism, class disruptive behaviour and low academic performance. Alternatively, learning environments can either operate within existing schools or as separate, alternative schools at an off-site location. Alternative environment within regular schools can include small groups of students meeting each day to work on academic skills in a more personal setting or smaller schools housed within the regular school. These smaller schools usually have smaller classes, and more teachers per student for probation services.

The third type of approach is the check in check out (CICO) programmes is for the improvement of school attendance/school engagement. The programme has several key features:

Frequent feedback to students about their behaviour to prevent future problems behaviour, positive reinforcement to students for meeting daily goals, data tracking of positive behaviour in addition, to disciplinary issues and the acknowledgement of expected behaviour through a reward system. The pro-attendance culture created by this programme requires strong administrative support and consistent communication between teachers and staff. There is a strong evidence of this programme’s effectiveness both for truancy data measurements and truancy related disciplinary issues. The general intent of this approach is to move beyond traditional modes of school organization to make schools more interesting and responsive places where students learn more and are able to meet higher standards.
Some researchers have suggested that these restricting efforts have the potential to reduce truancy out of a much larger number of students by simultaneously addressing many factors associated with truancy. For example, to provide five examples to reflect the diversity of intervention in different places that have some evidence of effectiveness in preventing truancy as follows:

- **Check and Connect:** This model is designed to engage students in school and learning via a mentor/monitor who establishes a long term relationship and maintains regular contact with the students, family and teachers. Risk factors are systematically monitored and intervention are tailored to meet individual students needs (e.g. increased communication with parents, tutoring, problem-solving).

- **Support Center for Adolescent Mothers:** The family support center was developed to provide social and educational supports to teen mothers in order to prevent repeat pregnancy and truancy. Four key components of the model include establishing early contact with the mothers, involving families, implementing parenting education groups and involving the community.

- **School Transactional Environment:** The goal of this prevention programme is to enhance healthy school adjustment by restructuring the environmental characteristics of the school settings. For example, students take primary academics with cohorts of students, classrooms are arranged in close proximity and teachers serve as counsellors and a link between students and families.

- **Project Teen Outreach Programme:** This programme was designed to prevent teen pregnancy and truancy among students. Students volunteer in their communities and participate in classroom-based discussions on a weekly basis for one full year. Key elements include learning life skills, discussing social and
emotional issues and participating in volunteer service opportunities in the community.

- **Personal Growth Class:** Semester-long personal growth classes are designed to prevent drug abuse and truancy among high school students identified at high risk for school failure. The classes use an intensive school-based, social network prevention approach. Key elements include experimental learning study skills training, peer-tutoring and training in decision making provided by peers and teachers (Nauer, Kim, White and Yermen, 2008). The various intervention are put in place to reduce truancy rate in the various centers.

2.5 **Adolescents and Truancy**

Studies have shown that truancy is at its peak at adolescence (Osarenren, 1996, APA 2010, Monrad, 2007, Alliance for Excellent Education Factsheet, 2010). Adolescence is regarded as the age of “storm and stress” and is characterized by a lot of problems emanating from the peculiarity attached to this period between children, childhood and adulthood (Omoegun, 2011). This stage is generally referred to as the most turbulent stage of human development and characterized by physical and physiological changes.

According to Osarenren (2005), in terms of age grade adolescence refers to a period between puberty and adulthood, generally heralded by a final surge of all round physical growth. The changes are usually accompanied by needs and, often times, confusing emotional responses, a broadening of social functioning, that occur so unevenly that it is difficult to define the exact beginning and the ending of this period. This could explain the reason that there is no consensus among authors as to the exact age of on-set of

Some basic and fundamental problems that confront adolescents include identity formation, physical and sexual growth, development of morals and values, quest for independence, peer culture, adolescent delinquency, school problems like truancy and absenteeism, poor social skills, vocational choice among others (Osarenren, 2005). She observed that while adolescents have grappled with the numerous subjects from different subject teachers, some may be confronted by emotional disturbances emanating from their homes, schools peers and the community. These problems may culminatively lead to educational deficiencies such as poor study habits, academic under-achievement, poor self concept, low self-esteem and lack of motivation to learn. Eventually, all these complexities may lead the adolescent to gravitate towards indiscipline and delinquency.

It is pertinent to note that at adolescence, youth start to organize their emotional feelings. Their limited life experiences and dependence on significant others do not make it a smooth process for them. The result is that instead of becoming stable and emotionally well adjusted individuals, some adolescents struggle with their problems alone, hence become lonely. Some of the adolescents also who are truants interact among themselves and have
emotional adjustment problems that affect school adjustment and school performance (Adomeh, 1997). Nwadinigwe and Makinde (1997) observed that the majority of our adolescent problems center on learning, as they need to learn new adaptive behaviour even as they experience rapid, physical, emotional and psychological changes simultaneously.

In late adolescents, one’s goals, abilities and values are influenced strongly by social experiences that interact with one another thus affect the obstacles that are encountered in early adulthood that in turn affect their decision making. Bemberg and Thorlindsson (1999) studied violent behaviour among truant adolescents. The researchers found that violent behavior and delinquency have similar social predictors that tend to drive from hanging out with deviant peer groups which has a strong influence on adolescent lives universally. They further stated that socializing without stable adult authority figures in structured activities at school is shown to lead to delinquent life style among adolescents.

Studies have shown that truancy is at its peak during adolescence (Osarenren 2005, Forcier and Garafalo 2012 & Oliha 2014). The stage is often referred to as the most turbulent stage of human development that is characterized by physical and physiological changes. Osarenren (2005) stated that in terms of age grade, adolescence refers to a period between puberty and adulthood generally heralded by a surge of rapid growth. The changes, according to her, are usually accompanied by confusing emotional responses; broadening of social awareness and functioning that occur such that it is difficult to define when the period begins or ends. Based on the reason that there is no consensus among authors regarding the age of the on-set of adolescence. However, some basic and fundamental problems that confront adolescents include identity formation, physical and sexual growth, development of values, quest for independence, peer culture, school problem like truancy
and absenteeism, poor study skills, vocational choice among others (Osarenren, 2005). She observed that while adolescents have to grapple with the numerous subjects from different subject teachers, some are confronted with emotional stress emanating from the home, school and peers that lead to indiscipline. A study on truancy reduction among adolescents revealed that students engage in truancy due to boredom, bullying and poor relationship with teachers (Eastman, Small, Cooney & Connor (2007).

Adolescence is associated with some common problem which if not well managed could combine with other issue, to lead to truancy. Educational attainment is a crucial predictors of several health related life styles and premature mortality. However, truant adolescents have been reported to engage in risky social practices, illicit drug we alcoholic drinking and cigarette smoking (Henry 2007). He address that the unsupervised time that adolescents have when they are truants allow them to initiate unhealthy behaviour. Other facts that have been reported as associated with truancy are level of parental education, amount of adolescents’ unsupervised time and poor school grades Nelson and Gerber (1979).

The researchers further emphasized that in order to highlight the significance of truancy in the social discourse in developing countries, there is the need to estimate its prevalence and associated factors. There is however, limited information about the prevalence of truancy among adolescents in Africa. They conducted a study using a rational sample of in-school adolescents in Swaziland found that the prevalence of truancy as 21.6%. Their reports included: that self-reported history of truancy was associated with lower school grades, having been victim of bullying, gone hungry due to lack of food in the home. It is possible
that adolescents from poor households may miss school because they need an opportunity to fend for themselves. Adolescents who had parents that rarely checked their home work were more likely to report truancy than those whose parents always checked their homework. Adolescents who indicated that their parents rarely understood their problems were more likely to report truancy that those who said that their parents always understood their problems. Parents who are involved in their students schooling will affect their psychological, educational disposition positively hence reduce the rate of problems associate with adolescence.

Peer pressure is a strong social influence among adolescent students. According to social learning theory norms, habitual behaviour and life style are instilled through the primary social groups of family and peers (Cherlin, 2008). Viewed in the context of social learning theory if the social controls based on school setting break down, students tend to become vulnerable to risk factors and engage in delinquent activities (Bandura, 2001). Students share common interest among their peers who assist one another during their interaction. Nakpedia, (2012) observed that children irrespective of their age should be thought sex education during the early stages of development to prevent negative peer pressure. Generally, students need guidance to prevent negative peer pressure while they engage in peer relationship.

Animashaun (2005) declared that it is easier for students to yield to the pressure from their peers than to obey their teachers and school authority. In the same vein, Baker & Jenson (2000) lamented that the weak school rules and peer group culture contributed to high rate of truancy among students. Research has shown that some students lack assertiveness skill
to engage their truant peer hence could not motivate other students (Reid, 2002). He further stated that the poor relationship between teachers and students erode student’s self-esteem. To further aggravate a bad situation. Mayer (2003) stressed that some adults act as wrong role models to the adolescent students hence influence them negatively. A well behaved student associates freely among peers but an anti-social students would be rejected among his friends and classmates.

2.6 Assessment and Management of Truancy

Okoli (2005) defined assessment as all the methods used to determine the extent of an individual’s achievement. In teaching and learning context, assessment refers to the methods used to determine achievement of learning outcomes. He further stated that formative assessment provide feedback during teaching and learning. Assessment emphasizes the mastery of the classroom content instead of earning of marks or text scores. It gauges students’ progress academically. Results are used to adapt instructions to meet students’ need. Feedback helps students through suggestion for improvement and discussion of errors rather than providing correct answers.

Summative assessment according to Okoli (2005) is the summary, evaluation or judgement reached at the end of a topic, theme, unit, term or school year based on performance and data. It is an assessment that is administered at the conclusion of a unit of instruction to assess students’ learning and the effectiveness of an instructional method or programme. He emphasized that it demonstrates a learner’s success in meeting the criteria set. Summative assessment is used to measure reward achievement and provide data for selection for example, the next level in education or employment.
Diagnostic assessment is intended to improve the learners’ experience and level of achievement. It assess what the learner already knows, nature of difficulties encountered if undiagnosed might limit engagement for new learning. It is often used before teaching or when problem arises. The various components of assessment stated explain how an effective teaching and learning process can be adequately measured.

The purpose of truancy assessment is to provide early identification of students who are at age of truancy in order to apply prompt intervention.

Spiegler and Guevremoat (2010) defined behavioural assessment as a set of procedures used to obtain information about an individual or group that will guide the development of a specific plan for an intervention which involves:

- Gathering unique and detailed information about a client’s problem.
- Focusing on the client’s current functioning and life condition.
- Taking samples of client’s behaviour to provide information about how he/she functions at different occasion.
- Narrowly focused rather than dealing with a client’s total personality.
- It is integrated with therapy.

The five characteristics are consistent with behaviour therapy for a planned intervention programme. Certain signs and indicators show that a student is at risk of truancy. These include lateness to school, absenteeism, disruptive behaviour, tardiness and truancy. The purpose of truancy assessment is to provide early identification of at risk students through the assessment of students’ activities in the school.
Railsback (2004) observed that truants come from low socio-economic background include:

- those who are identified as having special educational needs;
- learning disabilities, emotional and behavioural problem that interfere with learning and achievement;
- students whose cultural background do not accept easily the dominant culture at school;
- students from environment in which academic success is either supported nor encouraged.

Railsback (2004) concluded that truants come from low socio-economic backgrounds, single-parent families and children from poor homes. The truant students who failed to participate in the screening and assessment would likely get involved in violent activities and drug abuse. Reimer and Dimock (2005) conducted a study on truancy prevention. They confirmed that there is a strong correlation between early truancy and continued behavioural problem. They listed the characteristics associated with effective truancy prevention to include:

- Early identification of truant children and appropriate assessment.
- Rapid coordination, targeted service response to identified needs.
- Consistent timely monitoring and revising of service plan.
- Attention to family environmental factors affecting the child.

Furthermore, truancy has a negative influence on students’ academic performance and achievement. However, addressing the issue early has shown that its rate can be reduced. A
number of studies have demonstrated that effective reduction programme can produce a marked decline in delinquency and crime committed by truants (Heilbrum, 2007). A literature review by National Center for School Engagement found that students who are truants:

- have low grades
- need to repeat grades more often
- have higher rates of expulsion
- have lower rates of high school graduation (Romero & Lee, 2007).

The researchers reported that some schools and districts still expel students who are both truant and low achieving. The act of removing these children can raise the school’s overall level of academic achievement (as measured by grades, grade-promotion and graduation rates) it can also lower enrolment which drives school, funding based on attendance. The literature reviews concluded that truancy is a risk factor for other problem for example:

- substance abuse
- delinquency
- gang activity
- serious criminal behaviour (theft and burglary)
- suicide attempt
- early sexual activity
- dropping out of school

Hunters (2005) described the ripple effect of poor academic achievement as paraphrased below. Academic failure usually leads to a common practise of grade retention, which
makes students to experience feelings of shame and isolation because of their inability to succeed academically. Consequently, these students try to avoid their school work in an effort to hide their skill deficit. Some of them demonstrated inappropriate behaviour as defence mechanism which may lead to disciplinary issues with the school authorities and possible suspension or expulsion.

Management of truancy involves the use of adequate psychological and emotional intervention programmes to reduce the rate of truancy among students who are at risk.

A study on the phenomenon of family motivated truancy found that the students were an important factor in helping to run the home and or business. In addition, parents were less active in the home studies of their truant students (Burley, 2000). The result indicated that some families rely on their children in ways that can reduce the amount of time and effort left for schooling. Dembo and Gulleges’s (2008) study on community based truancy programmes observed that some aspects of the programme are effective such as parent or guardian involvement, a continuum of services to include: meaningful incentive, consequences, mental health services, mentoring, social services, school administrative support and commitment to keeping youth in the educational mainstream. The researchers further stated that any intervention that do not get to the root causes of truancy fail to address the problem that may lead to serious juvenile justice system.

The community based programme focus more on providing mentoring and improving teacher-students relationship thus, encouraged regular attendance through one on one interaction with students. In the United States programmes on truancy reduction is based on sanction and procedure oriented. Resources are focused on identifying, locating and
transitioning truants back to their respective schools with appropriate sanctions. The efforts include, police involvement, formal adjudication and suspension or remedial programmes which has not resolved truancy effectively (Byer and Kuhn, 2003). It is therefore imperative to assess students’ behaviour to ensure causes of students being at risk of disruptive activities. According to Desocio, Vanoura, Nelson, Hewett, Kitnon and Cole’s (2007) study on increase in school engagement to reduce truancy. The researchers used a pilot programme that focused on mentoring teacher-students relationship, to encourage both attendance and performance at school through daily student check-in and one on one interaction with teachers. The findings showed that students who received the intervention had significantly fewer absences than students in the control group. However, the researchers did not report any system issues, relating to interfacing with the school administration or the teachers who participated in the programme.

Sinclair, Christenson, Evelo and Hurley conducted a study on absenteeism and signs of school withdrawal. Results from the study indicated that the intervention group had significant increase in the percentage of students whose absences fell below 5% of the time. Bryce and Baird (1986) investigated family therapy as a problem centered approach regarding students’ refusal to attend school. Family therapists were engaged to identify barriers to school attendance. Their interview with students and parents revealed a wide range of problems that fit the categorization of family dysfunction. The researchers explained that careful attention given to the families allowed for more effective collaboration on the school refusal problem.
A longitudinal follow up evaluation showed that the major difference between the group of children who returned to school and those who did not led to the better development of good relationship within the family. Also the resolution of family conflicts played a crucial role in overcoming school refusal. Smink and Heilbrunn’s (2005) study of juvenile justice observed that courts hesitate to imprison parents or place children in foster homes or detention for truancy, because it would be counter productive and do not reduce truancy rate. Also, that schools are reluctant to file truancy petitions against children or parents due to the time the school, staff need to spend in court. It is imperative therefore, to use an effective approach to address the early signs of absenteeism among students in order to serve as truancy prevention before it occurs.

Corey (2008) observed that there is a strong correlation among truancy, school academics and behaviour problems. Karp and Breslin (2001) investigated the concept of restorative justice on truancy reduction in school communities. They applied the social control technique among the school students. The study revealed that social control technique helped to strengthen the relationship among teachers and students. Animashaun’s (2009) study on school attendance behaviour in Osun State, Nigeria, revealed that motivation is key in assisting students to attend school regularly. It implies that parents and teachers need to motivate students to ensure regular school attendance. Similarly, Wade (2008) evaluated a programme on Colorado Foundation for Families, Children and Truancy. The programme focused on parents, community resources, social services, mentoring and school report while the youths remained in the educational mainstream, throughout mentoring. The study revealed that the intervention achieved some of its objectives such as improved teacher-student relationship, encouraged regular attendance and interaction among the students. In
the same vein, McGiboney (2001) reported that in Georgia, truancy intervention showed that parents’ driving license was evaluated by school grades. Pascopella (2003) observed that Minnesota Youth Court on truancy intervention provides information about legal consequences signed by parents, students, and counsellors. The findings of these intervention programme indicated that the rate of truancy can be reduced, if proper and adequate monitoring of truants to ensure continuity among the teachers counsellors and parents.

2.7 Disruptive Behaviour and Truancy

School disruption is considered as the transgression of school rules, troubling learning conditions, teaching environment or relationship with school (Veiga, 2008). Lone, Greshroom, Macmillian and Bocian (2001) emphasised that students exhibiting antisocial behaviour have limited interpersonal skills and low academic achievement because they spend less time engaged in academic activities. According to Johnson (2013), there are nearly as many types of disruptive behaviour as there are student to exhibit them. Most group intervention are helpful to create a climate of productive behaviour but the most serious types of misbehavior require individual intervention, sometimes with additional community resources. However, improving the overall behavioural climate of the school also reduces the incidence and severity of more serious violations. He summarized the intervention that work to include parent involvement, alternative education programmes and schools individual counselling, peer involvement, recreation and community activities, fear arousal, moral appeal and effective education.
The application of suitable therapeutic counselling therapy would ameliorate the disruptive behaviour among students. In addition, early identification of students who are at risk of truancy and truants would provide the right management procedure to apply during counselling.

**Cause of Students’ Disruptive Behaviour**

1. Inconsistent parenting
2. Uncaring parents
3. Over-protective parents
4. Bad influences on a students’ local community
5. Poverty
6. Poor quality teaching
7. Teachers’ negative attitude towards student
8. Repeating change in subject teacher
9. Repeating the same class
10. Lack of motivation from teacher
11. Classroom poor conditions (lack of lighting, ventilation, sounds etc)
12. Some psychological problems of a student

**Types of Disruptive Behaviour**

1. Trying to gain influence among his/her peers
2. Trying to gain power in the classroom to threaten teacher
3. Entering in the classroom hurriedly with screening sounds
4. Sleeping during teaching
5. Chatting with one another during teaching
6. Coming to classroom habitually late
7. Unnecessarily arguing with teachers
8. Bringing noisy electric devices in the classroom
9. Blaming one another for any mischief
10. Initiating quarrel among the students
11. Shouting loudly to create thrill in classroom
12. Wandering in veranda which diverge attention of students inside the classrooms
13. Start answering before the question finishes
14. Playing with (hands, feet, pen etc.)
15. Using rough language with other students and teachers
16. Reporting others for his or her mistakes or misbehavior
17. Deliberately destroying things/materials
18. Challenging the teacher on certain concepts
19. Ignoring the teachers’ directions
20. Shifting from one chair to another
21. Discussing religious/sectarian issues
22. Losing temper on slight penalty given by teacher
23. Making complaints against his/her fellows

Psychologists have shown much interest in what they describe as Disruptive Behaviour Disorder (DBD). According to studies (Loona and Kamal, 2011; Pisecco, Gruber, Gallen, Kline & Huzinec, 1999), the most common DBD in children and adolescents include Oppositional Defiant Disorder (ODD), Conduct Disorder (CD) and Attention Deficit
Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) and the treatment for these disorders include therapy, education and medication. It is noteworthy that the researcher is not interested in diagnosis and treatment of Disruptive Behaviour Disorders. However, it is worth mentioning because the presence of such disorders could manifest and culminate to school disruptive behaviour categorized under different forms of disciplinary problems like absenteeism, truancy, lateness, fighting, stealing, vandalism among others. School disruption is considered as the transgression of school rules, troubling learning conditions, teaching environment or relationship with school (Veiga, 2008).

School disruptive behaviour like truancy, high level absenteeism, tardiness, cutting classes, getting into trouble are important early indicators of dropping out because they are linked to poor school outcomes. According to Ilogu (1996), behaviour problems of students are much more exerting causes of dropping out because they make students to voluntarily leave school prior to graduation, without entering another school to continue their education. Eastman, Cooney, Connor and Small (2007) stipulated that truancy is highly related to eventual dropout because it often has immediate consequences for students in terms of reduced academic achievement, as students have more limited opportunities for learning when they are absent from school. According to Barrington and Hendrick (1989), discipline problems and high level absenteeism are two most important early indicators of dropout.

Osarenren (2005) observed that truancy and absenteeism are some of the unacceptable behaviour exhibited in the school. According to her, truancy is an indication of adolescent rebellion, self assertion and maladjustment which are traceable to the different problems
associated with the period of adolescence. She attributed the reasons for truancy and absenteeism to factors from the home, school, peer group, culture and the society.

Lane, Gresham, MacMillan and Bocian (2001) however emphasised that students exhibiting antisocial behaviour have limited interpersonal skills and low academic achievement because they spend less time engaged in academic activities. As a result, they may experience perceived discrimination and rejection from their classmates, teachers and administrators, which may lead to even more disruptive behaviour. It also makes them feel that they have no support system at school to assist them.

Dafiaghor (2011) in a study titled Lateness: A major problem confronting school administrators in Delta State, Nigeria observed that lateness has posed a major problem to school administrator and the school system itself resulting in non-achievement of set educational goals. The study outlined the definitions of lateness to include a situation where an individual arrives after the proper, scheduled or usual time; a term used to describe “people not showing up on time” and a synonym of “tardiness” which implies being slow to act or slow to respond, thus not meeting up with proper or usual timing. The researcher pin-pointed that:

a. **Lateness disorganizes and causes distraction to the individual and the whole system**

According to the researcher, the individual that came late to school is both a problem to himself, fellow students, teacher and others in the school system because when he walks in while teaching is going on, both teachers and students turn to look at him and the system flow is distracted and distorted. He wonders where to start from to catch up, asks a fellow
student questions like is he just starting? How long has he been teaching? What has he taught? Let me see your note? thereby disorganizing and causing distraction to the entire school system. In conclusion, citing “Clackmannashire Council Online” statement, Daifighor declared that “lateness is disruptive to the individual and to the work of the class and may be an early warning of other difficulties”.

b. **Lateness inhibits the process of achieving the goals of the school**

Here, Dafiagbor argued that lateness inhibits the achievement of the goals of any organization. According to him, if an employer’s goal is to make money and the individual’s contribution to the organization could bring N20 per hour. If he/she then comes 30 minutes late everyday, then N10 is lost everyday as a result of lateness and as small as this looks, multiplied by the days of the year hence a good number of employees with this habit would cause a vary great loss to the organization. Thus, lateness could lead to loss of revenues for the company (school) as well as the individual and non-achievement of set goals and objectives. He further cited a particular “attendance and punctuality policy” which clearly states that “regular and punctual attendance is of paramount importance in ensuring that all students have full access to the curriculum as valuable learning time is lost when students are absent or late”.

c. **Lateness leads to absenteeism and general failure in life**

Illustrating this point, the researcher argued that both students and staff sometimes feel remorseful about their lateness and very often they just decide to be absent. This has a very negative effect on the individual’s academic and other achievements in life as the period of absence from school could be used in engaging in other destructive activities outside the school.
In conclusion, Dafiagbor reiterated that “lateness among students, staff and supporting staff in public primary and secondary schools in Delta State is a major administrative problem. Therefore, there is need for students and parents to help identify and proffer solution to this disturbing problem that could lead to students’ truancy, and also inefficiency and ineffectiveness on the part of the school administrators”. He commented that lateness could be reduced by providing free education, counselling and entrenching discipline among students and staff, in addition to the use of electronic systems and truancy sweep programmes by school heads. According to the researcher, truancy patrol is a situation where members of the community are sensitized to seize or report students found outside the school environment after a stipulated period of time, for disciplinary actions. This would likely force pupils to learn to be punctual.

In another study by Jones, Lovrich and Lovrich (2011) the researchers observed that truancy poses significant short and long term challenges for the truant, school, family, and community. According to them, truant behaviour often serves as an indicator of deeper problems. For example, individuals working with truant students tend to embrace (either directly or indirectly) the idea that truancy has far-reaching implications with severe consequences for both childhood and adult outcome. These impacts are reported to be individual, school, family and community-specific as discussed below.

a. **Individual-specific outcome:** According to the researchers, individual-specific consequences of truancy are both immediate and long-term. The most obvious immediate result of truancy is educational, with chronically truant students reported to suffer severe academic deficits. Such educational failure most often culminates in poor future employment outcome, with chronically truant students experiencing
employment-related difficulties such as lower status occupations, less stable career patterns, higher unemployment rates, and low earnings as adults. Chronically truant students also experience future related difficulties, including those formed in early parenthood; they tend to produce a greater number of dependents, due to early marriage, and experience more frequent marital breakdown as adults. Poor health status is also documented as a negative adult outcome of early chronic truancy. Such individuals are said to be more likely to suffer from poor mental health, from substance abuse issues, as well as increased personal injury. Another factor is engagement in deviant and anti-social activities which has been reported as an immediate result of early truancy behaviour, with long term effects believed to include adult criminal activity.

b. **School-specific outcome:** Jones, Lovrich and Lovrich (2011) indicated that truancy has a direct impact on educational institutions, with school-specific consequences of truancy behaviour being largely revenue-based. According to them, the most serious consequence of truancy for school districts is lost revenue; school funding is typically allocated based on daily attendance rate. With less revenue, school districts have a reduced capacity to meet the educational needs of their students through educational services and programmes, a situation that impacts all enrolled students regardless of their attendance behaviour. In addition to the revenue-based consequences of truancy, school administrators, teachers and staff also report that truancy often results in major disruptions to the educational process. Whether these disruptions are caused by having to devote considerable amounts of time and effort to locating truant students and contacting parents/guardians, or from helping truant students to catch up or keep up with their school work, such disruptions are reported
to be not only financially costly, but also burdensome in terms of the loss of educational progress towards learning goals and objectives.

c. **Family-specific outcome:** According to these researchers, truancy behaviour generally impacts family life quite negatively. This impact can take the form of family conflict with educational or social services providers, or stress among family members resulting from lost work or a lack of supervision of the truant student when not in school.

d. **Community-specific outcome:** For communities, Jones, Lovrich and Lovrich (2011) stated that the effects of truancy can be economic, political, and social in nature and that long-term outcome of truancy for communities include forgone income and tax revenue that can support government services communities with members who place increased demands on social services programmes, increase in crime rates, and members who have reduced levels of political participation, reduced intergenerational mobility, and poor levels of health.

Johnston (2013) observed that there are nearly as many types of disruptive behaviour as there are students to exhibit them and that more and more young people from troubled, chaotic homes are bringing well-developed patterns of antisocial behaviour to school. Walker, Ramsey and Gresham (2004) as cited in Johnston remarked that, as these students get older, they wreak havoc on schools because their aggressive, disruptive, behaviour waste teaching time. It also disrupt the learning threatens safety, overwhelms teachers and ruins their own chances for successful schooling and life.
Johnston (2013) further pinpointed that most of the worst disruption is caused by a relatively small number of students, usually just a few in each class and they are students who are, clinically, anti-social. According to him, while all bad behaviour may look the same and have the same disruptive effects, there are subtle differences in the types of misbehaviour that give clues to its causes and to effective intervention for correcting it. The researcher listed several key risk factors associated with poor school behaviour as outlined by the Center for Mental Health of the US Department of Health and Human Services, to include:

- Poverty
- Abuse and neglect
- Harsh and inconsistent parenting
- Drug and alcohol use by caregivers
- Emotional and physical or sexual abuse
- Modelling of aggression
- Media violence
- Negative attitude toward school
- Family transitions (death or divorce)
- Parent criminality

He also outlined factors associated with productive behaviour – what the report called “protective factors” that could reduce the risk of anti-social and disruptive behaviour to include different domains as follows:

**Individual Domain**

High IQ

Female gender

A positive social orientation
Family Domain

A warm supportive relationship with parents or older adults
Parental monitoring or supervision activities

School Domain

Extracurricular activities
Encouragement from teachers towards their future

Peer Domain

Having friends who behave conventionally
Associating with peers who disapprove of violence

The need to manage school disruptive behaviour because of its destructive effects cannot be over emphasized. A number of studies have attempted to deal with the management of disruptive behaviour. Wilson and Lipsey (2007) tried to synthesize research about the effectiveness of school-based psychosocial prevention programs for reducing aggressive and disruptive behaviour, using meta-analysis. This work updated previous work by the authors and further investigated which programme and student characteristics were associated with the most positive outcome. Two hundred and forty-nine experimental and quasi-experimental studies of school-based programmes with outcome representing aggressive and/or disruptive behaviour were obtained. Sizes and study characteristics were coded from these studies and analyzed. Results showed that positive overall intervention effects were found on aggressive and disruptive behaviour and other relevant outcome. The most common and most effective approaches were universal programmes and targeted programmes for selected/indicated children. The mean effect for these types of
programmes represents a decrease in aggressive disruptive behaviour that is likely to be of practical significance to schools. Multi component comprehensive programmes did not show significant effects and those for special schools or classrooms were marginal. Different treatment modalities (e.g. behavioural, cognitive, social skills) produced largely similar effects. Effects were larger for better-implemented programmes and those involving students at higher risk for aggressive behaviour. They concluded that schools seeking prevention programmes may choose from a range of effective programmes with some confidence that whatever they select will be effective. Also they advised schools to give priority to those programmes that will be easier to implement well in their setting.

Mashalaba and Edwards (2005) carried out a study to manage Conduct Disorder (CD) a type of disruptive behaviour becoming a widespread problem in Southern Africa. The aim of the study was to design, implement and evaluate a multi-modal cognitive-behavioural intervention developed overseas, in order to investigate whether this approach, can be replicated in South African schools for deprived children. The target adolescent had a history of severely disruptive behaviour and was facing expulsion from a shelter for homeless children and his school. A thorough assessment served as the basis for a case formulation and treatment plan. Intervention included 23 individual sessions focusing on bereavement and the learning of self-control skills and prosocial behaviour, as well as contingency management training for school and shelter staff. Progress was tracked with a behaviour checklist completed daily by the teacher and regular interviews with school and shelter staff. After four months, the disruptive behaviour was eliminated. However, he was involved in stealing with some other learners and expelled anyway. Nevertheless, the case study provides evidence for the cognitive-behavioural approach held in a new setting. It
can be documented in a way in which a comprehensive intervention can be tailored, to the needs of a child with a severely deprived background and little social support.

Johnston (2013) observed that while the school has little control over many of these variables or factors of school disruptive behaviour, it could adjust practices to mediate the effect of risk factors and enhance the protective factors to have a positive impact on student behaviour in the school environment. School intervention that either help prevent disruptive behaviour or exacerbate such behaviour should include:

1. **Classroom Management and Teaching Strategies**

   Johnston observed that punishing, threatening, blaming, and criticizing students as a way of influencing their behaviour only works in the short term and that research shows that effective teachers tend to rely instead on proactive strategies for preventing behaviour problems. They reinforce appropriate behaviour, teach social problem solving skills and for students with chronically disruptive behaviour, teachers use point or token systems, time-out, contingent reinforcement, and response cost.

2. **Adapting Instruction and Curriculum**

   According to Johnston, instruction and curriculum need to be adapted to meet the individual needs of students if not, disruptive behaviour can result. Therefore, any investigation of the student’s behaviour needs to look closely at what adaptations may need to be made.
3. **Teaching Social Problem Solving**

Johnston remarked that the direct teaching of social problem solving is a common feature of programmes for preventing and resolving discipline problems, as well as for treating students with the most serious antisocial behaviour. Although these intervention vary in the strategies emphasized, they share a common focus on teaching thinking skills that students can use to avoid and resolve interpersonal conflicts, resist peer pressure, and cope with emotions and stress. The most effective are those that include a range of social competency skills and that are delivered over a long period of time to continually reinforce skills.

4. **School-wide and District-wide Programmes**

According to Johnston, this involves building a climate that views appropriate behaviour as an essential precondition for learning. Such programmes are implemented throughout the school or district – school rules are established, communicated clearly to staff and students, and consistently enforced. Staff are trained to teach students alternatives to vandalism and disruptive behaviour. Such programmes have yielded promising results.

Johnston (2013) outlined the intervention that work in reducing school disruptive behaviour to include:

**Parental Involvement**

According to him, overall research indicated that successful intervention programmes always include a home-school component. Parent management training and family therapy are two approaches that show considerable promise for affecting student behaviour. In parent management training, parents are taught such techniques as strategic use of praise, rewards, time out, response cost and contingency contracting. They have opportunities to
discuss, practice, and review these techniques. On-going consultation with the parent is also provided. Family therapy seeks to address family conflict. A primary goal is to empower parents with skills and resources necessary to solve their own family problems. This approach has been shown to be effective in reducing a range of delinquent behaviours. Johnston (2013) however observed that though parent management training and/or family therapy may be a necessary component of programmes for students with a chronic history of anti-social behaviour, less intensive intervention involving parents would be sufficient for most children. Any programme that involves parents’ participation would facilitate the reduction of truancy amongst students.

**Alternative Education Programmes and Schools**

According to Johnston (2013), alternative education programmes and schools are designed to create a more positive learning environment through low teacher-to-student ratios, less structured classrooms, and individualized and self-paced instruction. The strongest and most consistent improvement for students enrolled in such a programme or school was their attitude towards school. Research results regarding their effectiveness, however, have been inconsistent and difficult to interpret, primarily because such programmes tend to vary greatly in their intervention, students served, structure and programme goals.

**Individual Counselling**

Johnston observed that there are hundreds of different techniques used by counsellors and therapists, the majority of which have not been evaluated through research. This makes it difficult to assess the impact of individual counselling as an intervention for chronic behaviour problems. According to him, it would appear that when used alone (i.e. when not
coupled with other intervention or strategies), programmes that provide students with individual counselling tend to be ineffective in decreasing antisocial behaviour, especially when such behaviour is chronic. The same is generally true of programmes in which adults lead discussion with students about their behaviour, attitudes, and values.

**Peer Involvement**

Johnston noted that there is no denying that peers can have a profound influence on a student’s behaviour as peer-oriented intervention are designed to capitalize on the potentially positive influence of peers in bringing about improvements in behaviour. However, he observed that two of such approaches (peer counselling and peer-led information groups) may actually be counter productive in that the least disruptive students in the group may be negatively influenced. According to him, some researchers caution that per tutoring, cooperative learning, and peer collaboration tasks may be too demanding for many anti-social children.

**Recreation and Community Activities**

Johnston (2013) stipulated that many schools and communities offer recreational, enrichment or leisure activities such as after school sports or midnight basketball as alternatives to more dangerous activities. Evaluation results show that acts of delinquency and substance abuse decrease only while students are directly supervised. These programmes are more likely to be effective in reducing such behaviour if they are secondary components to programmes that directly teach social competency skills.
Fear Arousal, Moral Appeal and Affective Education

According to Johnston (2013), programmes that are designed to reduce substance abuse or improve behaviour by disseminating information, arousing students’ fears, appealing to their concepts of right and wrong, or improving self-esteem generally have not been found to be effective. Approaches that include resistance-skills training (where students learn about the social influences that can lead to substance use, as well as specific skills for resisting these pressures) have been shown to reduce substance use in the short-term. However, without continued instruction, positive effects of these programmes are short-lived.

Johnston (2013) reiterated the recommendations of Walker and his colleagues that schools are not the source of children’s antisocial behaviour, and they cannot completely eliminate it. But schools do have substantial power to prevent it in some children and greatly reduce it in others. According to these researchers, first and foremost, schools can help by being academically effective because academic achievement and good behaviour reinforce each other. Experiencing some success academically is related to decreases in acting out and conversely, learning positive behaviour is related to doing better academically.

Secondly, schools can, to a large and surprising extent, affect the level of aggression in boys just by the orderliness of their classrooms because most disruptive behaviour in classrooms occur during transitions from one activity to another - “breaks in the conceptual action” of the class. By managing classes more efficiently and effectively, teachers can help reduce the opportunity for disruption substantially.
Finally, Johnston (2013) reported on a model of three progressively more intensive levels of intervention for addressing challenging behaviour within school, developed by Walker et al. According to Johnston, this model is important because research has shown that the best way to prevent anti-social behaviour is actually to start with an inexpensive school-wide intervention and then add on more intensive intervention for the most troubled kids. The three levels of intervention are known as universal, selected and indicated. Each is briefly described by Walker below.

“Universal” intervention are school or classroom practices that affect all students. Examples of universal intervention relevant to behaviour are class-wide social skills training and well-enforced school discipline codes. According to Johnston, school-wide programmes accomplish three things – improve almost all students’ behaviour and most students, even if they do not qualify as troublemakers, still need some practice being self-behaved; have their greatest impact among students who “are on the margins” – those students who are just beginning to be aggressive or defiant. Sometimes, systematic exposure to a universal intervention will be sufficient to tip them in the right direction; offers a foundation that supports the antisocial students throughout the day by reinforcing what they are learning in their more intensive selected and indicated intervention. These latter intervention are more efficient and have a greater impact when they are applied in the context of a prior, well-implemented, universal intervention.

According to Walker et al, approximately 80 to 90 percent of all students will respond successfully to a well-implemented universal intervention. Once the school environment is orderly, the anti-social students pop up like corks in water. These students have “selected”
themselves out as needing more powerful “selected” intervention that employ much more expensive and labour-intensive techniques. The goal with these students is to decrease the frequency of their problem behaviour, instill appropriate behaviour, and make the children more responsive to universal intervention. While selected intervention typically are based in the school, to be their most effective they often require parental involvement. Nevertheless, even when parents refuse to participate, selected intervention still have positive effects and are well worth the effort.

These researchers observed that the vast majority of antisocial students will start behaving better after being involved in universal and selected intervention, but schools can expect that a very small percentage of antisocial students will not. These are the most severe cases – the most troubled children from the most chaotic homes – and they require extremely intensive, individualised, and expensive intervention. These intervention called “indicated” are typically family focused, with participation and support from mental health, juvenile justice, and social service agencies, as well as schools. Most non-specialised schools will find that running such an intervention is beyond their capacity. It is for such students that alternate education settings are necessary. There is the need to implement service learning activities within the school curriculum, to address social support needs of students and also promote personal and social skill development.

Oluremi’s (2013) student investigated the relationship between truancy and academic performance of secondary school students in Southwestern Nigeria. It also examined the relationship between school physical environment and truancy behaviour among students as well as the deference between male and female manifestation of truancy behaviour.
Using stratified sampling technique the researcher selected 360 participants from four secondary schools, in four out of the six states in Southwestern Nigeria. Three research instruments were used for this study namely, Academic Records of Students, Attendance Registers and “School Environment Questionnaire (SEQ). Four hypotheses were raised and tested using chi-square and t-test analysis. The study revealed that there was a significant relationship between truancy and academic performances of students; there was not a significant relationship between the school physical environment and truancy behaviour among students and there was not a significant difference between the academic performance of male and female truants. However, there was no significant difference between male and female manifestation of truancy.

**Personal and Social Skill Development**

White, while citing other studies remarked that there are several individuals or skills-based risk factors related to school dropout. Children with disruptive or aggressive behaviours are significantly more likely to drop out of school than are children without such behaviours. Early substance abuse is predictive of school dropout just as is poor academic performance. According to the researcher, proactive prevention programming is considered to be a critical part of the school counsellor’s role. Typically, intervention programmes included under this umbrella involve both large (classroom) guidance and small group counselling activities dealing with topics such as career exploration, academic survival skills, stress and anger management, interpersonal communication, and social problem solving. With the knowledge that these interventions produce not only short-term improvements in student behaviour and school adjustment, but also possible protection from the longer term
consequence of school dropout, school counsellors should aggressively push for interventions such as these as part of their comprehensive school counselling programmes.

The implementation of service-learning activities within the school curriculum was included here as having promise both in addressing the social support needs of students and in promoting their personal and social skill development. Service learning differs from pure community service in that the former involves a structured opportunity for students to process their real-life service experiences in a peer group and also examined additional data on adolescents’ motivators and role models. Students were from a major city in the Midwest, and were 99% African American and of lower socio-economic levels. The findings indicated that students appeared to benefit from the opportunity to develop close relations with adult tutors who cared about their success.

2.8 Emotional Disposition and Truancy

The word “emotion” first appeared in language in the mid-16th century adapted from the French word *emouvoir*, which literally means ‘to stir up’. Hockenbury (2007) described an emotion as a complex psychological state that involves three distinct components, a subjective experience, a physiological response and an expensive response. Emotional disposition is seen as an important construct in the process of education because it is recognized as a major factor in the learning outcome of students. Mayer (2004) described emotion as a complete state of feeling that results in physical and psychological changes that influence thought and behaviour. Emotionality is associated with a range of physiological phenomena including temperament, personality, mood and motivation. He
stated further that human emotion involves physiological arousal experience behaviour and conscious experience.

Understanding the emotions of other people will play a crucial role in safety and survival. According to Mayer (2004), students tend to have a general feeling of rejection when confronted with negative actions from their environment due to fear and insecurity. Psychologists recognized that people need a stable emotional state in order to function optimally in their environment. The emotional disposition of truants depends on how they perceive their environment, for example, positive feelings radiate joy while negative feelings exhibit sadness. Osarenren (2005) observed that people have emotions that are instrumental to their level of interaction in that a person who experiences unpleasant emotion will feel sad. Similarly, Plummer (2005) stated that truants demonstrate poor emotional adjustments that affect their relationship among their peers.

On the one hand, truant students experience negative emotional disposition toward their studies because they lack the interest and ability to work hard for success to be achieved. On the other hand, students who experience stable disposition interact positively among peers hence avoid alienation. Wiklins (2008) and Gallagher (2013) posited that parents and teachers are expected to give adequate attention, love and care that would encourage emotional stability in students hence prevent truancy. Oliha and Audu (2010) studied rehabilitating emotional maladjustment problem among adolescents. They found that students who are emotionally disturbed act against the rules and regulations of the school, family and society. In some students, it may manifest in behaviour such as absenteeism, fighting and class disruptive activities while others tend to withdraw socially and isolate
themselves. According to Adimo (1989), the school curriculum does not provide adequate intervention, hence attention which the truant students need most is never given to them. He further stated that the counsellor sees the students as withdrawn, while the teachers view them as rebellious. Hence, Akinboye (2003) observed that truants must be given the opportunity to learn how to adjust and deal with emotional instability in order to succeed in their academic work.

School teachers are counsellors have critical roles to play in identifying truants. They have to determine the psychological problems they are experiencing which impede their active participation in school. Identification of these students’ problem and responding to them promptly by placing them as early as possible into effective intervention programmes that would benefit them, their families and the society (Denbo and Gulledge (2009). Unfortunately, serious attention to the underlying causes of truancy is usually given after the student’s absent from school becomes frequent. At that point they have developed difficulties in the school and other areas of psychological functioning.

Mayer and Salovey (1993) found emotionally intelligent students to be highly adaptable and able to cope with pressure and experience less stress. Notably, such students have acquired skills and competences that predict positive outcome at home and in the school based on regular attendance behaviour. Truants need adequate attention from their teachers to sustain positive emotion in order to manage the challenges they encounter and become functional adults.
Researcher deserved that truant students often experience serious interrelated problems with regards to a stressed family life (Baker, Sigmond and Negent, 2001), alcohol and drug use (Henry and Kusinga, 2007), emotional, psychological and educational functioning (Egger, Costello ad Angold, 2003).

Similarly, Garry (1996) observed that truants have low grades, high rate of being retained in a particular grade or placed in remedial or special programme due to emotional instability. Research has shown that truants are at considerable risk of containing their troubled behaviour in school and entering the juvenile justice system (Loeber and Farrington, 2000). These interrelated problem behaviour among truants support the concept of problem behaviour syndrome as truants are engaged in a specific form of deviant behaviour drug use and delinquency (LeBlanc and Bouthiller, 2003). These behaviours are seen to reflect a general emotional disposition towards deviant behaviour. The early identification of truants by teachers and counsellors before they become involved in serious delinquent activities may reduce their emotional instability. Truant students who are emotionally disturbed cannot benefit from their low participation during the teaching process compared to their peers who have stable emotional disposition.

Psychologists recognize that an individual needs a stable emotional state in order to function optimally in his environment. A student that is not happy will experience negative emotional disposition towards his studies and peers. In his view, Plummer (2005) stated that truants demonstrate poor emotional adjustments that affect their relationship with peers. Although, truants desire to have a balanced emotional disposition but they are often confronted with challenges beyond their control. Furthermore, a student with a stable
emotional disposition is expected to interact positively with peers and avoid alienation. Wilkins (2008) stated that a stable emotional disposition should be nurtured in the early development of a child by parents and teachers to prevent truancy. It is expected that one of the roles of the teacher is to ensure that the students work in a conducive environment devoid of ill feelings.

2.9 Gender and Truancy

The role of gender in educational outcome is a common discourse in research. The impact is being examined in most academic issues ranging from regular school attendance, academic achievement, performance, school enrolment, retention, truancy among others. In the United States, the male students are considered 8% less likely to graduate than female students and the gap is as large as 14% between male and female among African-American students (Monrad, 2007). According to Need Assessment on Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (2010) in Nigeria, the gross enrolment by gender shows that male enrolment has been consistently higher than the females by 6% on the average since the year 2000. Furthermore, students who are truants are likely to stay away from school as a result of poverty.

Ogunjuyigbo and Fadeyi (2002) conducted a study titled “Problem of Gender Differentials in Literacy and Enrolment among the Yoruba of South-West Nigeria”. The study was designed in response to the general concern for the low educational status of Nigerian women. Data for the study were obtained from a survey conducted in three Local Government Areas (LGAs) of Osun and Oyo States of South Western Nigeria. These include Ola-Oluwa in Osun State and Ogo-Oluwa in Oyo State, the two LGAs where the
existing disparity is worsening to the disadvantage of women and girl child and Obokun Local Government Area in Osun State with high female literacy and enrolment serving as the control local government area. The study revealed that the dept of the problem of gender disparity. It revealed:

i. that the main causes of gender disparity are fear of early marriage and pregnancy, the poor attitude of government escalating costs and cultural factors;

ii. that mostly in Mushin communities, parents and girls share the culture of early marriage and work towards it early;

iii. that the parents were more interested in boys’ education than the girls’.

To tackle these problems, measures such as public enlightenment, free education at all levels, improved infrastructure and teaching standards, literacy campaigns as well as increased financial commitment by the parents were recommended.

Alika and Egbochukwu (2009) conducted a descriptive survey on why girls drop out of school in Edo State and its implication for counselling. The population of the study comprised all girls who dropped out of school and reenrolled in schools in Edo State. The sample comprised four primary schools, four secondary schools and skill acquisition centres in Benin City. A check list on reasons that they are truants hence drop out of school was used for data collection while the analysis was done using percentage. The result revealed that poverty had the highest percentage of 53% while death of parents, pregnancy, ill health and inadequate teaching had the least percentage of 11% among others. They recommended that counsellors should identify indigent students who are truants and are
prone to drop out of school as a result of poverty and help negative some form of scholarship or financial assistance for them.

Dimkpa (2012) conducted a study on parent’s perception of primary school enrolment in Rivers State. The main aim of the study was to investigate the differences in the involvements pattern of males and females in the primary school on the one hand and to examine parents’ perceptions of their causes of sex differences in the enrolment pattern on the other hand. Descriptive survey design was employed and a total of 20 Universal Basic Education schools were randomly selected from 73 schools in Port Harcourt, River State, Nigeria. Data was used obtained from 20 head teachers and 194 purposively selected late rate parents using a self-designed instrument titled Gender Enrolment Disparity Questionnaire (GEDQ). The data were analysed using the percentages, mean scores and t-test. The study revealed that the females constituted 6,343 (52.6%) and the males 5,714.4% (47.4%). It also revealed that male and female parents were not significantly different in their perceptions of the causes of low-male enrolment (t=1.42, p>0.05). In a national United States sample of adolescents 8th and 10th grades who are typically 13 to 16 years (Henry, 2007) estimated a 4 week truancy prevalence of 10.5% to 16.4%. Henry found that males are more likely to be truants than females.

MacGrillivag & Erickson (2006) reported in the school system in Denver, Colorado (United States) reported that there was no gender difference in truancy among adolescents. The findings that males were more likely to be truants could be based on cultural expectations. It could also be that truancy among boys may be more tolerated than truancy among girls or girls being truants.
A study of gender differences in social support investigated the effect of family structure on behavioural outcomes. The findings revealed that gender plays a key role in the prediction of behavioural problems in the home (Neff & Karney, 2005). Gesinde (2004) observed that boys at any level of education exhibit truancy more than the girls. Nwankwo and Onyali (2011) in a survey on truancy and dropping out of school revealed that in Nigeria, both gender exhibited similarity in truancy rate and dropping out of educational opportunities. It is obvious that both male and female adolescent students engage in truancy because they feel the sense of belonging.

2.10 School Engagement and Truancy

School engagement is a multi-dimensional construct with little consensus on its definition because there are multiple layers and aspects of engagement. Finn (1989) defines school engagement as a multi-dimensional construct having a behavioural component termed participation and an emotional or psychological component termed identification. Frederick, Blumenfield and Paris (2004) classified engagement into three – behavioural, emotional and cognitive. Anderson, Christenson, Sinclair and Lehr (2004) and Appeleton, Christenson, Kim & Reschly (2006) divide engagement into four – behavioural, academic, cognitive and psychological with multiple indicators for each sub type. As a result of this overlap in the classification of different aspects of engagement, this study views engagement as all covert and overt indicators that reflect a student’s feelings and behaviour towards his academic (personal commitment to learning) as well as his relationship in the school environment (with peers, teachers and other adults).
School engagement is a multi-dimensional construct with little consensus on its definition due to the multiple aspects of engagement. Fredericks, Blumenfield and Paris (2004) classified engagement into three; behavioural, emotional and cognitive. In their submission, Appleton, Christenson, Kim and Reschly (2006) stated four types of engagement as behavioural, academic, cognitive and psychological. This study viewed engagement as a student’s behaviour towards his academic (personal commitment to learning) school environment (with peers, teachers and other adults). There is a general agreement that school engagement produces positive outcome. Fredricks et al (2004) observed that engagement is associated with persistence in school, increased performance answers to preventing truancy, boredom and poor performance in school. According to Burrus and Roberts (2012) it is possible to use the students, parents and teachers active engagement in the educational process to predict how likely children would graduate. Similarly, Cone (2012) stated that behavioural engagement is based on participation which includes involvement in academics and extra-curricular activities which are crucial in preventing truancy. In their view, Patrick, Ryan and Kaplan (2007) stressed that when students feel a sense of emotional support from teachers and peers, they are encouraged to discuss their work. In addition, the students are more likely to use self-regulatory strategies to engage in task related interaction. Their study also revealed that emotional engagement is about “appeal” based on positive and negative reaction of teachers and students that influence willingness to work. Based on this premise, the school must build a sense of community among the staff and students, to enable at-risk students feel that educators have a genuine interest in them. Finally, the students need to be cared for and respected for improved performance in the school work. There is also a general agreement that school engagement produces positive school outcome and preventing the rate of truancy.
Engagement reflects in students’ attitudes and behaviour with respect to formal (classroom activities), informal (peer and adult relationship).

There is general agreement that school engagement produces positive school outcome. Fredericks et al (2004) observed that engagement is associated with persistence in school as well as increased performance and is often seen as the answer to preventing truancy, boredom and poor performance in school. Burrus and Roberts (2012) concluded that it is possible to use the extent to which students, their parents, and teachers actively engage in the educational process to predict how likely the students are to graduate. Connell (1990) and Finn (1989) in their studies reveal that behavioural engagement which draws on the idea of participation including involvement in academic and social or extracurricular activities is crucial for achieving positive outcome and preventing truancy. They also found that emotional engagement which is about “appeal” includes positive and negative reactions to teachers, classmates, academic or school, creates ties to the institution and influence willingness to do work. Based on this premise the school must build a sense of community among to staff and students, to enable students who are at risk of truancy have a genuine interest often.

Patrick, Ryan and Kaplan (2007) found that when students feel a sense of emotional support from their teacher, academic support form their peers, and are encouraged to discuss their work, they are more likely to use self-regulatory strategies and engage in task-related interaction. Similarly, Hunters (2005) noted that students that have a positive connection to the school have improved self-esteem and are less likely to engage in inappropriate behaviour. As such, the school must build a sense of community among the
faculty, staff, students and make teachers feel that educators have a vested and genuine interest in them. They need to feel cared for and respected. Open communication and a shared vision help to build a sense of trust among the students and educators. Several scholars suggest that students’ emotional engagement is related to the decision to drop out and that alienation, a feeling of estrangement or social isolation contributes to the truancy problem (Elliot & Voss, 1974; Finn, 1989; Newman, 1981).

Cairns & Cairns (1994) and Wehlage & Rutter (1986) confirmed that truant students are more likely to have social difficulties and negative attitudes towards school. Findings from Teu jillo, (2006) revealed that nearly all the interventions showed evidence of effectiveness in their review had a strong focus on engaging students in school and learning. Student engagement has emerged as a key ingredient of effective truancy prevention programmes and strategies.

Glanville and Wildhagen (2006) observed that despite the growing body of theory and research on the consequences of school engagement, there was still a good deal in that area to learn. According to them, one limitation of current state of knowledge was that of not having a firm grasp of which aspects of engagement are most crucial in promoting academic success. A second limitation was that most studies of the relationship between engagement and achievement do not allow for the plausible influence of achievement on engagement. A third limitation was that for all of the emphasis on the importance of engagement for disadvantaged minority youth, scarcely any studies compared the influence of engagement across racial and ethnic groups. They however used national representative data to estimate longitudinal models evaluating the effects of prior engagement on
educational outcome and of prior achievement on future engagement. They found that behavioural engagement reduces the likelihood of truancy, while psychological engagement and time spent on homework positively influence academic achievement. Their result also suggested that prior academic achievement positively affects behavioural engagement and time spent on homework. They however observed no differences in the effects of engagement on educational outcome between racial and ethnic groups.

Rumberger (2001) suggested that there are two dimensions to engagement: academic engagement, or engagement in learning and social engagement, or engagement in social dimensions of schooling (school membership). Engagement is reflected in students’ attitudes and behaviour with respect to both the formal aspects of school (e.g. classrooms and school activities) and the informal ones (e.g. peer and adult relationship). Both dimensions of engagement can influence the decision to be truants because they quit doing their school work (academic engagement), or because they do not get along with their peers (social engagement) for instance. He further observed that student engagement has been shown to predict dropping the reduction of truancy among students and entrance academic achievement. Absenteeism, the most common indicator of overall student engagement, and student discipline problems are both associated with truancy that influenced by both the social and academic experiences of students.

Hunter’s (2005) in his submission, noted that although most theories draw upon the construct of school engagement in their conceptualization of the dropout process, research addressing its hypothesized prospective relation with truancy remains scarce and does not
account for the academic and social heterogeneity of students who leave school prematurely.

Balfanz, Herzog, Maciver’s (2007) study argued that Philadelphia’s graduation rate crisis in high-poverty cities intensifies in the middle grades. Also that the challenges of the onset of adolescence living in distressed neighbourhoods and attending chaotic, disorganized, and under-resourced schools characterized by high levels of teacher turnovers and vacancies all combine to promote truancy among students. They advocated for the development of practical early warning signs of truancy among students.

2.11 Parental Involvement and Truancy

Parental involvement refers to parents’ behaviour related to the child’s schooling that can be observed as the manifestation of their commitment to their child’s educational affairs (Lopez, 2001). According to this definition, the effect of parents’ involvement will be noticed as they play their roles to the school and students for being diligent. In addition, these supports given to the children will enable them work harder in their studies, score good grades and high academic performance.

Fantuzzo, Davis and Ginsberg (1995) averred that parental involvement refers to a variety of parental behaviour that influence children’s cognitive development and school achievement. They further highlighted the behaviour as being a member of parents/teachers association, volunteering in school, helping with home work, discussing school activities with the child, monitoring child’s school progress, encouraging and rewarding good grades,
modelling reading behaviour, contacting the school in case of problems, monitoring the child’s out-of-school activities and talking regularly with the child.

There is an absence of a clear definition of parental involvement construct because of the complexity and multidimensionality of its concept. However, Bakker and Denessen (2007) observed that despite this conceptual and vagueness of definition in the issue of parental involvement, the term refers to a variety of parental behaviour that directly or indirectly influences children’s cognitive development and school achievement (Fantuzzo, Davis and Ginsberg, 1995). They outlined illustrative examples of these parents’ behaviours, presented in the empirical literature to include: attending parent-teacher conferences; being a member of a PTA, volunteering in school, helping in the classroom, helping with homework, discussing school activities with the child, monitoring child’s school progress, encouraging and rewarding good grades, reading to/with the child, modelling reading behaviour, taking the child to the library, contacting the school in case of problems, monitoring the child’s out-of-school activities, and talking regularly with the child. According to them, parental involvement apparently refers to parent behaviour related to the child’s school or schooling that can be observed as manifestations of their commitment to their child’s educational affairs, in order to reduce truancy rate.

Apart from these school or schooling related behaviour, the researchers outlined other behaviour that are not directly related to school or schooling, as suggested by some authors that should also be incorporated in the conceptualization of the construct of parental involvement. Among them are: limit television watching time (Georgiou, 1997. Baker, Denessen & Brus-Laevan 2007); Sui-Chu and Willms, 1996), following a specific set of
rules to discipline the child (Mcwayne, Hampton, Fantuzzo, Cohen and Sekino, 2004), being home when the child returns from school (Sui-Chu and Willms, 1996), limiting the amount of time for going out with friend and watching the child in sports and taking the child to cultural events Baker and Denessen, (2007).

Seinberg, Lamberm, Dombusel and Darling (1992) associated more general parenting behaviour (i.e. authoritative parenting) with the highly involved parent. According to them, apart from observable behaviour, parent involvement has also been conceived as a set of parental beliefs, attitudes and values, varying from simply knowing where the child is and knowing the child’s friends, to parents’ enthusiasm, parents’ beliefs that they should take an active role in their children’s education, educate their children to become good citizens, have high aspirations for their children and have a positive sense of efficacy for helping the child learn, besides their perception of invitations to involvement from the school, teacher and the children (Hoover-Dempey, Worker, Sandlert, Wetsel, Green, Wilkins and Closson 2005). They concluded that the scope of parent involvement can vary from a narrow perspective, defining parent involvement as parent involvement activities at school, to a broad perspective, also including parenting behaviour at home and parents’ attitudes towards their child’s schooling.

Bakker and Denessen (2007) also pointed out that there are varieties of measures, methods and operationalization of parental involvement in literature. According to them, some measures include concrete parent involvement behaviour, referring to the involvement at school. For example attending parent teacher conferences) as well as parents’ home involvement helping the child with his or her homework). While some measures
exclusively school-based involvement activities like contacting the child’s teacher, serving committees, helping in the classroom and volunteering to help in field trips. The scope of home-based involvement activities differ from focus on parents’ activities to reinforce children’s cognitive development, such as helping with homework, reading with the child, and visits to a library, to more general parenting activities, such as monitoring children’s activities like television watching, going out and selection of friends. These varieties have also resulted in diversities of empirical outcome on parental involvements. According to the researchers, a recent review of the impact of parental involvement on pupil achievement (Desforges and Abouchaar, 2003) showed research on parent involvement to yield quite diverse, even contradicting results. This could be attributed to the main reason for the diversity of results of studies on effects of parent involvement due to the complexity of the concept of parent involvement.

However, Griffith (1996) emphasized that parental participation can be influenced by parents, teachers and students. He found parental participation in a child’s education to be essential for effective teaching and learning. Stevenson and Baker (1987) found in their study involving 179 grade school children, parents and teachers, a positive relationship between parental involvement and achievement of students. Fuehrmann, Keith and Reimers (1987) conducted a longitudinal study of high school seniors to determine the effects of parental involvement on student grades. In their study, parental involvement was measured by five items that asked students how often their parents were involved in their daily lives. Analyses showed that parental involvement resulted in students’ achieving higher grades and spending less time watching television and more time on homework actually helped to reduce the level of truancy among students.
In a study, Ekpo and Ajake (2013) investigated the influence of family socio economic status and educational level of parents on delinquency among senior secondary school students in Calabar South, Cross River State, Nigeria. This study illustrated the impact of the family on the behaviour of students. It was a survey research with a random sample of 600 students drawn from a target population of 2,640 senior secondary school students in the study area. The study used independent t-test to analyze data generated on family socio-economic status and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to analyze data generated on the educational level of parents. The result of the analysis showed that family socio economic status and the educational level of parents significantly influences students’ delinquency such as truancy.

Apebende, Akpo, Idaka and Ifere (2010) underscoring the importance of parental involvement in school success carried out a survey to determine parental involvement in their children’s education as an on pass on the effective nation’s implementation of the UBE. The instrument used was a 14 item Parents/Guardians Involvement Questionnaire while the data for the study was derived from 500 parents/guardians in Calabar municipality of Cross River State. Using the one sample mean (population t-test) and the independent t-test, the hypotheses tested revealed that parental involvement in their children’s education was significantly low and that female parents were more involved in the education of their children and wards. They observed that parental involvement in their children’s education was necessary for effective nation’s implementation of UBE, and recommended that the school counsellors should organize an awareness workshop for the Parents/Teachers Association to improve their understanding of the diverse ways parents
could be involved in the education of their children. The counsellors were advised to counsel the parents on the need to:

1. Visit schools to find out about the progress of their children.
2. Help the children with their take home assignments so that these could be properly done.
3. Provide funds for the renovation of dilapidated buildings or provide any help in the school.
4. Ensure that their children go to school on time, regularly and provide them with required school materials.
5. Visit school and present talks on topics of interest to the children.
6. Work in co-operation with teachers for the good of their children.

Ho Sui-Chu & Willms (1996) in their study examined whether variations in levels of school achievement are related to four types of parent involvement: home discussion, home supervision, school communication and school participation. The study showed that parent involvement made a significant and unique contribution to explaining the variation in children’s academic achievement regardless of parental background. The results revealed that the assumption that parents from ethnic-minority groups participate less than white parents was not so and that differences in the involvement of parents of male and female students were pronounced. Based on the findings of the study, the authors suggested that schools may be able to make gains in student achievement by giving parents concrete information about parenting styles, teaching methods, and school curricular. It suggested that further research is needed to examine the effects of a particular policy and programmes that support parent involvement and home learning.
Parental participation can be influenced by parents, teachers and students. Similarly, Macfarlane (2008) found parental participation in a child’s education to be essential for effective teaching and learning. The success of a child can be assessed through the mother’s psychological functioning and the quality of the home environment. According to Cherlin (2008), the low socio-economic background of students is a predictor of poor academic performance. Thus, students who come from poor homes find it difficult to cope with the challenges at school. Epstein and Sheldon (2002) conducted a study on high school seniors to determine the effect of parental involvement on students’ grade. In their study, parental involvement was measured by five items that asked students how often their parents get involved in their daily lives. Analyses revealed that parental involvement resulted in students achieving higher grades, spending less time watching television and more time on homework. The students whose parents did not participate in the school work were denied the opportunity to progress positively in the academic performance. They failed to be among their peers who were successful, due to the negligence of parents to be involved in their children’s schooling and attendance.

2.12 Counselling Strategies and Truancy

Guidance and counselling is a helping relationship that seeks to assist the individual in attaining self-understanding and self-direction in order to live a more productive, happier and satisfying life (Olusakin and Ubangha, 1996). The need of guidance and counselling cannot be over-stressed.
As outlined in Olusakin and Ubangha (1996):

- Guidance emphasizes the whole child concept which balances the notion that students are isolated learners, seeking to learn what their elders think they should learn.
- Guidance emphasizes the concept that immaturity and experience in a complicated world necessitate intervention.
- Guidance emphasizes the behavioural principles that choice making is a learning process that involves both the young person and the understanding mentor.
- Guidance seeks to bring natural process to bear in the effective phases of life.
- Guidance emphasizes that the future is unknown. It stresses the durability, dependability and flexibility of the young person.
- Guidance is a form of teaching but it could be in sharp contrast to instruction given.
- Guidance is a unique attempt to keep the school system in touch with the realities of contemporary hazards, alienation, bewilderment, powerlessness and opportunities.

School counsellors therefore, are positioned in schools to help children adapt to the school environment, understand themselves and be able to maximize their potentials. They assist students in three broad areas – educational, personal-social and vocational. Their roles in preventing wastages such as occur in the educational sector is indispensable because all over the globe, counsellors are meant to play an integral role in the overall development of students including helping those who are at risk of truancy and truants to overcome their challenges.
The policy statement from the American School Counsellor Association (ASCA) declared the position, rationale and roles of professional school counsellors in truancy prevention and the handling of students who are at risk of truancy are:

**Position:** Professional school counsellors at all levels make a significant, vital and indispensable contribution towards the mental wellbeing of “at risk” students. School counsellors work as members of a team with other students’ service professionals including social workers, psychologists and nurses in liaison with staff and parents to provide comprehensive developmental counselling for all students who are potential truants and those at risk of truancy.

**Rational:** There are probably as many definitions of the “at risk” of truancy students as there are school districts. Any student may become truant, performing below academic potential or using drug. The reasons that these behaviour deals with personal and social concerns such as poor self-esteem, family problems, unresolved grief, neglect or abuse. Students experiencing these concerns can be helped by professional school counsellors. The school counsellor in conjunction with other members of staff identify potential truants and work closely with them to help them stay in school and attain regular school attendance.

**The Professional School Counsellor’s Role:** The professional school counsellor provides in defining and identifying students who are at risk of truancy. The goal is to identify and intervene before they move on through a continuum of self-destructive behaviour. The school counsellor provides responsive programmes which include short term individual, group, family and crises counselling; individual planning to meet academic, educational
and career counselling needs; curriculum programmes to strengthen personal/interpersonal skills (choice, self-acceptance, emotional feelings, belief and behaviour, problem-solving skills, decision making, identifies suicidal students counsel them and make referral to appropriate agencies; provide in-service support presentation to staff, provides referrals for additional specialized support services within the district and from other community resources; provides consultation with support for parents/guardians of students who are at risk of truancy. The school counsellor works as a member of a team with other student service professionals.

In all, the tasks were summarized as follows:

Professional school counsellors work with other educators and community resources to provide early identification assessment and intervention for potential students who are truants and those at risk of truancy. In Nigeria, the National Policy on Education (2004) stipulated the need for counsellors in our secondary schools and the commitment of the federal government in ensuring that it is achieved in this policy statement: “in view of the apparent ignorance of many young people about career prospect, and personality maladjustment among school children, career officers and counsellors shall be appointed in post-primary institutions. Since qualified personnel in this category are scarce, government shall continue to make provision for training of interested teachers in guidance and counselling. Guidance and counselling shall also feature in teacher education programmes. Proprietors of schools shall provide guidance-counsellors in adequate number in each primary and post-primary school”. Based on this policy statement, it is obvious that counsellors are indispensable in the efforts to guide against all forms of wastages in the educational sector.
According to White (2010), there is scarcity of intervention research on truancy prevention, which may be partly attributed to the nature of the problem itself. The problem associated with school truancy are much more systemic and multifaceted, the long development pathways that lead to school truancy is complex and difficult to execute. By the time the problem is identified, it may be perceived by relevant school personnel as too difficult to effectively intervene. Despite this, White (2010) observed that conceptualizing that school truancy is the culminating event in a process of alienation from school is the result of both negative forces (risk factors) and a lack of sufficient support (protective factors) may provide school counsellors with a framework for intervention. Programme and strategies that address both sides of the equation reduction of risk factors and enhancement of protective factors early in a student’s academic career will be more likely to have a positive effect of the academic trajectory of identified students.

Besides this, White (2010) suggested a model of comprehensive preventive programme which integrates school wide programmes with special services for students who are identified at truants and those at risk of truancy. A committee of teachers or other school personnel, led by the school counsellor is charged with early identification of problems with students’ absentees. Problems with poor attendance such as chronic absenteeism or sudden, unexplained absences are noted and parents are communicated immediately. Assessment is done to produce a baseline data which would provide the adequate intervention for the problem. Furthermore, a second school wide remediation plan would foster parent-counsellor communication. Given the strong correlation between socio-economic status of the parent, the counsellor dictates certain times of the week that would be convenient to meet with families (every evening) for discussion of student concern and
progress. Families can schedule telephone mini conferences so they do not have to find transportation to the school or take time off from work place. These conferences are held consistently from the start of the school year.

A third school-level component is a classroom volunteering programme. By partnering with local senior citizen center or other community groups, the school counsellor coordinates and trains adult volunteers to be present in several classrooms so the teacher is able to devote more time to skills instruction.

In addition to school wide and system intervention, students who are identified as being at risk of truancy are offered modelling support, participation in programmes to address specific skills deficiencies and academic interventions. For example, an ongoing modelling support group facilitated by the school counsellor might include low socio-economic status or minority students who discuss the common challenges faced by the group. Skilled basic programmes. For example, problem-solving and social skills workshops held before school) are coordinated by the school counsellor and led by adult volunteers or students at the local college. In this hypothetical programme, the students have access to all programmes not just those at the school wide level.

Owodunni (2008) suggested that school counsellors can impact academic achievement and improve students’ behaviour by taking an active role in improving the school climate. Also, by serving as advocates for students who are at risk of truancy hence, making students feel cared for, thus improving their educational experience and promote regular school attendance.
Hunters (2005) used small group counselling and peer modelling to reduce truancy and enhance academic achievement through regular school attendance. In addition he implemented an unstructured group counselling experience to improve participants’ academic performance and school attendance.

**Personal and Social Skills Development**

Bergeron, Nolan, Dai and White (2013) observed that there are several individual or skill-based risk factors related to children with disruptive behaviour due to truancy, than children who do not possess such behaviour. According to the researchers, proactive intervention programmes are considered to be a critical part of the school counsellor’s role. Typically, intervention programmes included under this umbrella involve both large (classroom) guidance and small group counselling activities; the topics such as career exploration, academic survival skills, stress and anger management, personal and interpersonal skills, communication skills, social and problem solving skills. These intervention may produce not only short term improvements in student truant behaviour and school adjustment, but also give possible protection from the longer term consequence of truancy. School counsellors should aggressively provide adequate therapeutic intervention as part of their comprehensive school counselling programmes.

The implementation of service-learning activities within the school curriculum was included here in order to address the social needs of student and promote their personal skill development. Service learning differs from pure community service that the former involves a structured opportunity for students to process their real life service experiences.
in a peer modelling group context with a counselling professional as facilitator. These weekly or bi-weekly sessions help students process issues related to interpersonal conflicts resolution, problem solving, goal setting, critical thinking and career awareness. Processing such real life verses simulated experiences brings immediacy to student learning. The commonly used services learning activities involves tutoring younger children, working on outdoor public area (native traits), visiting other adults and people with infirmities and preparing food and clothing for distribution to the poor.

Programme implementation would require a project leader at the school. The school counsellor could serve in this control role. However, he/she could recruit a small team of parents to maintain contact with the participating community partners such as hospitals, nursing homes, city parks department, country libraries and civic organizations. The school counsellor would monitor students’ participation and performance as well as facilitate the process groups.

**Parental Involvement** - According to Morsback and Prinz (2006), studies have shown that students who stay in school and perform successfully tend to have parents who are informed concerned and involved with their children’s education on one hand; on the other hand, negative parental attitudes about school, low expectations, and poor parenting style contribute to poor student performance and truancy. Brody and Flor (1998) observed that parents who are concerned about their children’s education contribute to positive educational outcome. The parental component should include keeping parents regularly informed of their child’s performance and progress at school, intensive parent focused
interventions that addressed parent training in behaviour management and general parenting skills.

Dattilio (2002) suggested several practical strategies for counsellors to use to enhance parental involvement. Parents who have limited English proficiency should be provided with the translation of school information relevant to their involvement (explicitly stating what the parents can do to be involved).

- Arranging mini conference night for parent teacher contact and providing childcare at the school during such events.
- The author suggested communicating optimism and by sending “Glad Notes” that address students’ positive behaviour, attitude and accomplishments.

It is unfortunate that many parents receive only negative information or disciplinary notes about their children from the school on a regular basis. The counsellor can play a central role in initiating, coordinating and executing these events.

Counsellors are expected to perform an integral role in the development of students. It includes helping students who are at-risk of truancy to overcome their challenges. White (2010) observed that there is a scarcity of intervention research on truancy prevention which is partly attributed to the nature of the problem itself. He further stated that conceptualizing school truancy as a culminating event in a process of deprivation from both negative forces (risk factors). Also, that lack of sufficient support (protective factors) would provide school counsellors with a framework for intervention. Similarly, Plummer (2002) observed that students would benefit from programmes that address the reduction of risk and enhancement of protective factors.
Finally, the researcher observed that although the goal of parental involvement is one that all school personnel should support, no single individual within the school can assume responsibility for. Therefore, when a person is not appointed to be responsible for ensuring parental involvement then, it is unlikely to have an increase on the baseline levels. To this end, the school counsellor’s skills in programme development, system coordination and sensitivity to parental needs and concerns would position him/her as an ideal individual to assume this task.

**Simple Forms of Learning**

This refers to a learning procedure in which a stimulus that normally evokes a given reflex is associated with a stimulus that does not usually evoke that reflex with the result that the latter stimulus will eventually evoke the reflex when presented by itself (Dworetzky, 1994). Classical conditioning theorists lean towards a stimulus first, followed by a response. This pattern is repeated as often as necessary to achieve the desired behaviour change (Boeree, 1998).

In a series of well-known experiments, Pavlov (1927) decided to pair a stimulus (food) that would elicit an unlearned response (salivation) with a stimulus (bell) that did not elicit salivation and was therefore neutral at the beginning of the experiment. Meat (food) is referred to as Unconditioned Stimulus (US) because no learning is required to make dogs salivate when they are given meat. The reflex response of salivating is referred to as an Unconditioned Response (UR). Pavlov (1927) took a stimulus that did not cause salivation in dogs (a bell) and began to pair it systematically with the presentation of food. Pavlov (1927) was able to cause salivation without giving food; ringing the bell was enough. The
dogs associated food with the bell, and they would salivate. The process by which the bell obtains the power to elicit the Conditioned Response (CR) is called reinforcement. The more the meat and bell were paired, the more the bell came so easily and successfully elicit the CR, which is salivation (Dworetzky, 1994).

Watson and Rayner (1920) tested Albert a healthy 11 month old boy by systematically exposing him to a white rat, a rabbit, a dog, a monkey, various masks, cotton wool and burning newspaper. The infant did not show fear in any situation. The two researchers found that making a very loud noise by striking a steel rod with a hammer (US) startled baby Albert and caused him to cry. Whenever Albert touched the rat (CS), the loud gong would be struck (US). Eventually, Albert would start to cry as soon as he saw the rat. Albert’s fears generalized to related objects such as a rabbit, a dog, a white cotton ball and even Santa Claus mask, but not to dissimilar objects such as blocks. This is probably because Albert had associated the loud noise with characteristics possessed by the rat, which he saw in some of the other objects as well (Dworetzky, 1994).

Classical conditioning is not the only form of learning involved in the formation of fear, drug use of prejudice. A person would also be more likely to show these behaviours if he were rewarded for emitting them (operant conditioning) or if he observed other people, especially those whom he respected, demonstrating such behaviours (social learning) (Dworetzky, 1994).
**Operant Conditioning**

The operant conditioning theorists believe that desired behaviour could be achieved by the use of reinforcers (Boeree, 1998). This refers to changes in behaviour that occur as a result of consequences that reinforce or punish emitted responses. It is the acquisition of novel behaviour. Thorndike (1905) observed the behaviour of cats. He would deprive a cat of food for sometime and then place it inside a puzzle box, a container from which it was possible for the animal to escape if it happened to trip a latch that opened the door. Food was placed outside the box in plain view of the cat. Eventually, the cat would accidentally hook a claw onto the wire loop or step on the treadle that pulled the latch and the door to the box would open, enabling the cat to secure the food.

Thorndike’s (1905) observation of such trial and error learning led him to consider that the consequences of an act were an important factor in determining the probability that the action would occur. His thesis was that any act, which in a given situation produces satisfaction, becomes associated with that situation, so that, when the situation recurs, the act is more likely than ever before to recur also. Conversely, any act, which in a given situation produces discomfort, becomes disassociated from that situation, so that when the situation recurs, the act is less likely than before to recur. Operant conditioning is responsible for many of the learned skills people learn from birth, such as playing the piano, riding a bicycle, learning to read and write and cooking. Shaping is a method of creating a good behaviour by reinforcing successive approximations towards the goal behaviour (Dworetzky, 1994).
Social Learning

This refers to learning by observing the actions of others. It is also called observational learning or vicarious conditioning (Dworetzky, 1994). Bandura, Ross and Ross (1963) argued that social learning is a distinct kind of learning that requires new principles in order to understand it. They asked nursery school children to observe an adult model striking a large inflated Bobo doll with a mallet. The model also hit, kicked and sat on the doll. The model and the observing children were not reinforced at any time during the session. Later, after the model had gone, the children were observed in a toy-filled room with other children who had not observed the model. The children who had observed the model were more aggressive, in imitation of the model than those who had not observed the model. Social learning through imitation may often occur without the need for direct reinforcement.

Skinner (1969) stated that anything not directly observable, such as drives or thoughts, has a place in an objective science. To the behaviourists, learning is mostly responsible for the development of personality. They argued that complex social interactions and aspects of personality are due to the history of conditioning unique to each individual (Dworetzky, 1994). Strong emphasis is placed on the environment, rather than on the self as the source of motivation. Unconscious processes are not considered to be important. Early experience is thought to have a moderate role in the formation of later personality development (Dworetzky, 1994).
**Social Learning Therapy** – This therapy founded by Albert Bandura (1977) is based on the use of social skills such as observation, imitation and modelling to communicate with others in a way that is effective and appropriate. The social skills also help individuals to learn without the need for direct reinforcement.

**Cognitive Behaviour Theory**

Cognitive behaviour theory is best conceptualized as a general category of theories, or a set of related theories which have evolved from the theoretical writings, clinical experiences and empirical studies of behavioural and cognitively oriented psychologists. The basic assumption of Cognitive Behaviour Theory (CBT) is that one’s thoughts influence ones’ emotions and behaviour and that if negative thoughts are altered, negative emotions and behaviour will be altered as well. The CBT’s earliest originators were behaviourists such as Parlov, Watson, Skinner who paved the way for the behavioural treatment of mental disorders. However, in 1960’s and 1970’s, others began to reconsider the role of cognition in psychiatry disorders. Albert Ellis developed Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy (REBT) which postulates that emotional distress primarily originates from one’s evaluations of an event and not from the event itself.

Similarly, Aron T Beck developed cognitive therapy, which theories that an individual’s effect and behaviour are determined largely from the way he or she “structures the world” based on attitude and assumptions derived from previous experience. Subsequently, behavioural modification and cognitive therapy techniques are merged to form Cognitive Behaviour Theory.
Cognitive theory states that people’s feelings are influenced by what they think or how they view life events (Carson and Butcher, 1992; Ivey and Downing, 1987). It is not people’s experiences or situations that make them angry, depressed or anxious but the way they process the information and think about those experiences (Feltham and Horton, 2000). According to Feltham and Horton (2000), human beings have cognitions – we can think, we process information coming in through our five senses and we make interpretations, inferences and evaluations about that information. In this way, people interact with their environment. These cognitions are linked to feelings, behaviour and physiology.

Beck, the founder of cognitive theory describes three types of cognitions, which influence an individual’s feelings and behaviour. These are (i) information processing – individuals are constantly receiving information from the internal (e.g. bodily reaction) and external environments which their brains process and make sense of (ii) automatic thoughts – Becks refers to cognitions (individuals thoughts which occur spontaneously) as automatic thoughts which are part of a person’s internal dialogue, and (iii) schema – the unspoken rules or underlying beliefs learned through early experiences, which every individual holds about self, others and the world (Beck, 1995). Self-debasing beliefs lead to negative emotions like depression, anger and anxiety. These emotions are brought upon by negative interpretations of events (Westermeyer, 2006).

The theory describes the role of faulty thinking in making us anxious and suggested a way to recover from it through cognitive restructuring (Cook, 2006). According to Beck (1995), the way we process information is governed by structures called schemata. These schemata are made up of rules for explaining incoming information and for retrieving what we already learned. They are capable of exerting powerful effects on how we experience and
relate to the world. For example, the schemata of persons with social phobia cause them to become anxious and avoidant by explaining incoming information and memories of social threat.

Cognitive psychologists contend that learning cannot be described in terms of a change in behaviour. Learning occurs whether or not there is an observable change in the learner. Cognitive theorists also believe that an instructor can produce learning by transferring information to the learner and helping them to organize it in such a way that they are able to cognitivists believe that the instruction enables the learner to look past the environmental factors and organize the information that is important (Gagne, Briggs and Wager, 1992).

Beck (1995) proposes a multi-factorial theory to explain how these maladaptive cognitive schemas; automatic thoughts and cognitive distortions leading to emotional disturbance are acquired. The model suggested that people become vulnerable to psychological problems as a result of the following interacting factors: genetic predisposition, social learning and childhood experience (Faltham and Horton, 2000).

There is the cognitive attribution theory which according to Crowl, Kamisky and Podell (1997) is based on the idea that what we attribute events to influence our behaviour. If for example, on the one hand, you believed that you failed a test because you are simply not good, you may not bother to study for the next test. If on the other hand, you believe that you failed because you did not study hard enough, you may study harder next time (Crowl, Kamisky and Podell, 1998). Intervention consists of correcting faulty or illogical thinking by repeatedly confronting cognitive schemata with discrepant information from role-playing and homework assignments Westermayer (2006).
**Behaviour Theory**

Behaviour theory states that most behaviour are learned and can therefore be unlearned. Learning occurs whenever the activity of an organism brings about a relatively permanent change in its behaviour. Behaviourists do not measure understanding because they do not feel that mental capacity can be measured. They agree that behaviour can be learned through a series of stimuli and responses (Boeree, 1998).

The relatively permanent changes in behaviour are changes, which enable the organism to cope effectively with the regularities of the environment (Nwadinigwe and Makinde, 1997). People can be moulded into almost any behaviour pattern through reinforcements (Wrightsman and Deaux, 1981).

Behaviour theory was founded on the belief that true change and movement towards goals is accomplished through action and that disorders are learned ways of behaving that are maladaptive. If we can learn to change our behaviour, then our thoughts, feelings and attitudes will also change (Nwadinigwe and Makinde, 1997).

**Cognitive Therapy** – This therapy founded by Beck (1976) was designed to help people learn to identify and monitor negative ways of thinking, then to alter this tendency and think in a more realistic manner.

**Behaviour Therapy** – This therapy according to Wolpe (1969) involves the use of experimentally established principles of learning for the purpose of changing unadaptive behaviour. It is based on the principles that man is capable of solving his own problems provided he is helped to do so (Achebe, 1988).
Cognitive Behaviour Therapy – This therapy as developed by Meichenbaum (1977) is based on the ideas that internal speech governs behaviour. To change behaviour therefore, one must change one’s internal speech. The goal of this therapy is to change maladaptive beliefs, using a wide range of techniques at the clinician’s disposal (Roth and Fonagy, 1996). The simple insight that forms the heart of CBT is that one can change feelings by changing your thoughts. It is a learning experience in which the participants learn new perceptions and skills (Hays, 2009).

Learning may be defined as a relatively permanent change in behaviour resulting from experience. The word ‘relatively’ is used because learning implies a more lasting change (Dworetzky, 1994). Skinner (1953) building on the work of earlier researchers outlined the ways in which the environment might act on an organism to determine what the organism learns and how it behaves.

He gave the basic tenets of behaviourism as:

1. The mechanisms of learning are similar for almost all species. The way a man learns to drive a car and the way an elephant learns a circus trick can be understood by applying the same principles of learning.

2. All learning no matter how complex can be understood in terms of two kinds of simple association mechanisms referred to as classical conditioning and operant conditioning.

3. The best way to understand learning is to examine the environment and the observable forces in it and to analyze how these forces affect the responses of the organisms in question. Concepts such as the mind or thinking should be ignored, as they can never be directly observed.
Of these intervention methods, Social Learning Therapy and Cognitive Behaviour Therapy were chosen for these studies. Cognitive Behaviour Therapy was chosen because it aims at rapid improvement in one’s feelings and moods and early changes in self-defeating behaviour one may be caught up in (Bush, 2006). Social Learning Therapy and Cognitive Behaviour Therapy embrace both thinking and action as important components of change. They however differ in the sense that Social Learning Therapy gives more attention to the existence of human needs (Bandura, 2002).

**Social Learning Therapy**

Social learning therapy is defined as a structured social skills therapy that facilitates problem-solving and modify maladaptive behaviour. The therapy consists of personal and inter-personal skills designed to change the attitude and behaviour of students towards regular school attendance. The social learning therapy focused on observation, imitation, and modeling so as to encourage students to learn. The findings of Dembo and Gulledge (2008) support the efficacy of the use of social learning intervention across educational environment, disability types, ages and gender in the reduction of truancy. Alberti and Emmons (2008) confirmed that social skill training has been widely evaluated and there is evidence of its efficacy in modifying unassertive students who apply learnt assertive skills to specific interpersonal situations. The study of Corey (2008) on the effectiveness of social learning and its significant gains on individual or group revealed that (the model) act as a stimulus that improves the emotional feelings of students hence ensure stable disposition. Similarly, Seeley’s (2006) study revealed that social learning therapy is widely affirmed to be applied by parents to teach children pro-social skills at home. In his view, Johnston (2013) affirmed the use of social learning therapy to modify the behaviour of truants.
He stipulated that children’s minds are still “fluid” hence they imitate and learn fast what they see leading to a change in behaviour. In addition, he stated that the child learns through the process of imitation, role-modelling, and covert-verbal meditation (persuasion). According to him, the process is viable because children usually form small groups based on their value and reward system, prestige and leadership qualities among their peers. The social skills would enable students develop the right attitude to self-expression, respect for others and achieve self-efficacy.

**Cognitive Behaviour Therapy**

Cognitive behaviour therapy (CBT) is defined as a focused, structured, collaborative and usually short term therapy. The strategy was designed to change the attitude and thinking of students towards regular school attendance behaviour. Cognitive behaviour therapy (CBT) focused on communication and strives to change their perception about truancy. The aim of CBT is to facilitate problem solving skills and to modify dysfunctional thinking and behaviour. The findings of Cobb, Sample, Awell and Johns (2005) strongly support the efficacy of the use of cognitive behavioral intervention across educational environments, disability types, ages and gender in the reduction of truancy and its correlates. Joughin (2003) observed that cognitive-based problem solving skills therapy has been widely evaluated with evidence for short term in modifying aggression and conduct disorders in children. Plummer (2005) carried out a study to manage Conduct Disorder (CD) in an adolescent who had a history of severe disruptive behaviour, using the Cognitive behavioural intervention. He stated that after four months, the disruptive behaviour was eliminated. CBT therapy helped students to identify self-defeating statements, get rid of false belief and develop realistic alternatives. The use of home work by counsellors and
teachers has shown that it is valued as an instrument to ensure change of behaviour among the truants students.

Consequently, a student who engages in self-defeating statement will think thus:

- Due to my parents’ neglect, I can not cope with my studies at school.
- My classmates call me an area boy or girl (street urchin) and a failure in life.

The intervention changed his negative thought and was replaced with:

- If I attend school regularly I would have to learn and not drop-out of school.
- My attitude to problems must change positively for me to succeed in my studies.
- I can interact with my friends at school and work with them freely.

2.13 Appraisal of Literature Review

This study is aimed at determining the assessment and management of truancy among public senior secondary school students in Lagos State. Relevant literature have been reviewed with the aim of having an in-dept knowledge on concept of truancy, prevalence of truancy, causes of truancy, effects of truancy, assessment of truancy, management of truancy, school disruptive behaviour, emotional disposition and truancy, gender and truancy, school engagement and truancy, parental involvement and truancy, social learning, cognitive behaviour and counselling strategies.

The problem of truancy among public senior secondary school students is evident and also the level of conflicts these students go through. This has limited their level of commitment to their studies. Social learning and cognitive behaviour were introduced to assist in ameliorating the rate of truancy in order to obtain optimal success in their educational
achievement. It was revealed that participants exposed to social learning and cognitive behaviour were able to maintain regular school attendance. Also assessment and managing of students’ activities in the school has helped to identify those who are at risk of truancy, has contributed to the need to manage them. Furthermore, participants exposed to cognitive are equipped to handle problem solving skills. However, lack of literature on the comparative relative effectiveness of school learning and cognitive behaviour techniques among truants have created a gap between the literature reviewed and the present research work hence the need for this work.

The literature revealed that several researches are being employed to enhance positive school attendance behaviour of students. It has also showed that there is scarcity of intervention researches on truancy (Heibrun, 2003). However, truancy being an unacceptable form of behaviour among students promotes irregular school attendance. It has also led to an increase in research to identify appropriate intervention. Therefore, this research intends to fill the gap by developing a conceptual framework and therapeutic intervention based on the principles of social learning therapy and cognitive behaviour therapy for truants in public senior secondary schools in Nigeria.
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter focused on the following sub-headings:

This section discusses the research design, area of study, population, sample, sampling techniques, research instrumentations, establishing psychometric properties of the instruments, administration of instruments and statistical method of data analysis.

3.1 Research Design

The study adopted the quasi-experimental pre-test, post-test design. It was used to subject the participants to experimental conditions based on social learning therapy and cognitive behaviour therapy. The quasi-experimental design was considered appropriate for this study because it involves human behavior and may not permit complete randomization of subjects and control of the variables (Ilogu 2005, Nwadinigwe, 2005). The groups are intact groups (three schools). The descriptive survey design should be employed in studies that aim at collecting data, describing in a systematic manner, characteristic features of facts about a given population. It was also used to expose participants who were early identified as truants to social learning therapy and cognitive behaviour therapy. The design is presented below:

\[
\begin{align*}
R & \quad 0_1 \quad X_1 \quad 0_2 \\
R & \quad 0_3 \quad X_2 \quad 0_4 \\
R & \quad 0_5 \quad C \quad 0_6
\end{align*}
\]
\[ R = X_1 \text{ Represents Intervention 1 - Social Learning} \]
\[ R = X_2 \text{ Represents Intervention 2 - Cognitive Behaviour} \]
\[ R = C \text{ Represents Control or Waiting Group} \]

01 03 & 05 represent pre-test scores
02 04 & 06 represent post-test scores

### 3.2 Variables of Study

**Independent Variables:** experimental conditions (Social learning and cognitive behavior and control group).

**Dependent Variables:** disruptive behaviour, emotional disposition, truancy and parental involvement.

Moderating Variable: gender

### 3.3 Area of Study

This study was conducted in Lagos State which is located in the South West, Nigeria. Lagos State was created on May 27th 1967 with Ikeja as the capital. The State is made up of 20 Local Government Areas and 37 Local Council Development Areas. It lies within longitude \(20^\circ 42^0\) E and latitude \(60^\circ 22^0\) and \(60^\circ 42^0\) N. It is bound on the north and east by Ogun State. To the west, it shares boundaries with the Republic of Benin and on the southern border lies the Atlantic Ocean. Lagos State has various ethnic groups, abundant resources and it is the economic nerve centre of Nigeria. There is availability of schools for low and high socio-economic classes. Lagos State was chosen for this study due to its urbanization with a high attendance rate of socialization which brings different challenges through cultural background. It is a socio-cultural melting point attracting different ethnic
groups and to regular in Nigeria. Lagos State has a large population of schools with 349 public junior secondary schools and 317 senior secondary schools. Another reason for choosing Lagos State is because of the prevalence of high rate of truancy among students (Jegede, Ememe & Gami, 2009).

3.4 Population

The population of this study comprised all the male and female public Senior Secondary School Two (SS II) students in the three Education Districts of Lagos State. The reason for the choice of SS II students was that they were in the semi-terminal class, thus they were not involved in any external examination such as WASSCE or the NECO SSCE. The intervention will have a positive impact on the participants’ performance in these external examinations.

3.5 Sample and Sampling Procedure

The sample of the study comprised all the students in the six Education Districts of Lagos State. The sampling procedure used the Multi-stage sampling process to select the sample for the study. At first, three Education Districts were randomly selected from the six Education Districts in Lagos State using hat and draw method. The next stage involved the use of random selection of one Local Government Area from each of the three selected Education Districts. Furthermore, simple random sampling technique was used to select three public senior secondary schools one each from the three selected Local Government Areas. The final stage involved baseline assessment of all the 239 SSII students in the 3 schools. The researcher administered absenteeism and truancy questionnaire (screening) to all SSII students in each of the randomly selected schools in order to select qualified
participants for the intervention subject to the following criteria obtained from the attendance and the subject missed register.

1. the students must be in SSII
2. they were absent at least two times in a week in each class
3. the students were absent at least two time a week in the English language class
4. the students missed classes in Mathematics

Table 1: Distribution of sample in pre-assessment selection for baseline data based on truancy scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Low Score</th>
<th>High Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows that 239 students were the population of the three Education Districts randomly selected from the six Education Districts. The 239 students were administered absenteeism questionnaire and only 130 students were identified as having high scores that is they stay away from the school and classes. These 130 students formed the participants that were administered all the research instruments AQ, TQ, DBQ, SEQ, PDS and PIQ at pre-test.
Table 2: Number of students who participated in the study and their training group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>Type of Intervention</th>
<th>Type of Group</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total No of Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Social Learning Therapy</td>
<td>Training I</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Cognitive Behaviour Training</td>
<td>Training II</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>Placebo III</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>64</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows that the intact group of male participants were 22, 23 and 19 respectively for School A, B and C making a total of 64 males while the female participants 24, 21 and 21 were selected from School A, B and C respectively making a total of 66 females. In all, 130 participants were selected for the study. The selected schools in each of the Education Districts selected for the study were coded school A, school B, and school C for the sake of confidentiality.

3.6 Instrumentation

The six major instruments used to obtain relevant data for this study are:

1. Absenteeism Questionnaire (AQ)

This was developed by the researcher to obtain information from the students. English and Mathematics are the subjects chosen because majority of the students do not like these subjects hence they are absent from such classes. The instrument which contained ten items on the rate of absenteeism of the students has four point response scale of 1 Strongly Agree, 2 Agree, 3 Disagree, 4 Strongly Disagree. Direct scoring for positive items 1-4 and reverse scoring for negative items 4-1. The content validity was determined by the researcher’s supervisors and lecturers of measurement and evaluation in the department.
The reliability coefficient was 0.62 as reported by the researcher during the pilot study. Participants who scored above 30 were at risk of truancy hence selected for the study. The scores are summed up across the 10 items with a range of 10-40. Below is the sample of the items.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>I attend school regularly</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I often come to school every other day</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>I do not like to stay in Mathematics class during lessons</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. **Truancy Questionnaire (TQ)**

The researcher adapted the Truancy Questionnaire by Reid (2002). This is an instrument used to measure the participants’ disposition towards learning, truancy rate, parents’ and teachers’ roles. The researcher adapted 25 items out of the original 30 items and its 4 point response scale of 1. Strongly agree, 2. Agree, 3. Disagree, 4. Strongly disagree. Some words were changed to suit the Nigerian environment such as participants’ medical condition, use of telephone and language of communication. The content validity was determined by the researcher’s supervisors and lecturers of measurement and evaluation in the department. The reliability coefficient was 0.62 as reported by the researcher during the pilot study. The maximum score obtainable was 100. Participants who scored below 50 were adjudged to be at risk of truancy and were selected for the study. Scores for positive items was 1-4 and reverse scores for negative items was 4-1.
Below are sample items.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>1.</strong> I prefer to attend school regularly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>2.</strong> Some of our teachers do not make the lessons interesting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>3.</strong> I prefer to loiter around the school compound.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. **Disruptive Behaviour Questionnaire (DBQ)**

The researcher adopted Verga’s (2008) Disruptive Behaviour Questionnaire Professed by Students (DBS-PS) to measure participants’ predisposition to school disruptive behaviour like absenteeism, tardiness, truancy (16 items). It is a self-reported instrument with a reliability coefficient of 0.64 during the pilot study. The content validity was determined by the researchers and the lecturers of Measurement and Evaluation in the Department. The researcher adjusted its original 6 point scale to 4 point scale, dropping the original introductory statement. Below are samples of DBQ items.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Item</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>1.</strong> I miss classes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>2.</strong> I physically attack my school mates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>3.</strong> I obey the teachers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The researcher adapted the scoring as follows: reverse scoring was used for negative items 4-1 while direct scoring was used for positive items 1-4 such that high scores indicated less school disruptive behaviour while low score indicated high level of school disruptive behaviour. The maximum score obtainable is 64 and minimum 16. Participants whose scores fell below 32 were considered to be at risk of truancy.
4. **School Engagement Questionnaire (SEQ)**

The School Engagement Questionnaire by Appleton, Christenson Kim and Reschly (2006) measures the participants’ level of peers’ support for schooling. The SEQ by Appleton, et al (2006) originally had 30 items. The researcher adapted it by using the 25 items that were related to the environment and its 4-point response scale of 1. Strongly agree, 2. Agree, 3. Disagree, 4. Strongly disagree. Some words were changed to suit the research environment such as participants’ medical condition, language of communication and juvenile court record. The content validity was determined by the researcher’s supervisors and the lecturers of measurement and evaluation in the department. The test-retest reliability coefficient obtained during the pilot study was 0.67. The tests were scored as follows; direct scoring for positive items was 1-4 and reverse scoring for negative items 4-1. The maximum score obtainable was 100. Participants who scored below 50 were considered to be at risk of truancy and were selected for the study.

Below are sample items from the SEQ.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Statement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>In my school, some teachers do not care about students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I am interested in my school work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Some students in my school are not supportive when I need them.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. **Psychological Distress Scale (PDS)**

The Psychological Distress Scale is a 10-item scale designed by Kessler and Mroczeck (2003) to measure levels of negative emotional states experienced by participants. The instrument was adapted by the researcher to measure the emotional disposition of
participants. The respondents indicated the degree to which they agree with the items along a continuum ranging from 1. None of the time, 2. A little of the time, 3. Some of the time, 4. Most of the time. The scores are summed up across the ten items, the range of possible scores on the PDS is 10 to 40. The content validity was determined by the researcher’s supervisors and the lecturers of measurement and evaluation in the department. The maximum score was 40 and participants who scored below 30 are low scores that indicate low psychological distress and high scores above 30 indicated high distress. Participants who scored above 30 were at risk hence selected for the study. The test-retest reliability coefficient of 0.72 was established during the pilot study.

Below are sample items.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>During the last four weeks, about how often do you feel tired for no good reason?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>During the last four weeks, about how often do you feel nervous?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>During the last four weeks, about how often do you feel restless or fidgety?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. **Parental Involvement Questionnaire (PIQ)**

The Parental Involvement Questionnaire was adapted from Chu and Williams (1996) questionnaire of parental support and involvement for schooling. It has ten items to measure the perceived level of participants’ parental support and involvement for schooling. The questionnaire comprised of ten items to measure the perceived level of participants’ parental support and involvement with their schooling. It sought to determine the frequency of some parents’ behaviour on four dimensions: home discussion, home
supervision, school communication and school participation. The respondents indicated the degree to which they agree with the items ranging from 1 Never, 2. Occasionally 3. Most of the time, 4. All of the time. The researcher derived ten questions strictly for students’ response. Most of the statements were changed to suit the environment. The original response patterns for the four dimensions were adapted by the researcher. The content validity was determined by the researcher’s supervisors and lecturers of measurement and evaluation in the department. The instrument has a reliability coefficient of 0.70 obtained during the pilot study. High score indicated high parental support and involvement and low score indicated poor parental support and involvement. The maximum score was 40 and participants who scored below 20 were considered to have low parental support, hence selected for the study. Below are sample items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Since the beginning of this school year, how often have your parent(s):</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>talked with you about planning your secondary school programme?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>discussed the subjects or programme at school with you?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>checked your homework as well as your class notes?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.7 Validation of the Instruments

The content validity of the instruments was determined in consultation with the thesis supervisors who are experts in the fields of Guidance and Counselling and other lecturers in the Department of Educational Foundations. It was done to ensure its relevance to the subject matter, coverage of the content areas, appropriateness of language usage and clarity of purpose.
### 3.8 Reliability of the Instruments

In order to obtain the reliability of the research instruments, a pilot study was done before the main study to determine the psychometric properties. A sample of 30 students were randomly selected from 55 initial students of school D in the fourth Education District outside the three selected Education Districts for the intervention. Four instruments were administered to the respondents and after two weeks, they were re-administered to them.

The results of the two tests were collated and correlated using Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient statistics to establish the test-retest reliability of the instruments. The reliability coefficients are presented in Table 3 below.

**Table 3: Test-retest reliability coefficient estimate of index of truancy**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>No of Items</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Test Position</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>r_n</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AQ</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Absenteeism</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>23.48</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>25.08</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEQ</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>School Engagement Questionnaire</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>46.86</td>
<td>10.519</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>60.58</td>
<td>14.736</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DBQ</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Disruptive Behaviour Questionnaire</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>28.56</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>27.26</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PDS</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Psychological Distress Scale</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>20.18</td>
<td>9.12</td>
<td>0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>4.781</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TQ</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Truancy Questionnaire</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>41.96</td>
<td>6.363</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>63.32</td>
<td>14.647</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PIQ</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Parental involvement Questionnaire</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>32.08</td>
<td>7.526</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>3.517</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.9 Procedure for Data Collection

The researcher obtained a letter of introduction for permission to the Education Districts to carry out the field work in the schools from the Department of Educational Foundations, University of Lagos. The researcher sought permission from the Directors of the selected Education Districts and the Principals of the selected secondary schools in Lagos State. The research instruments were administered to the respondents by the researcher with the aid of the research assistants recruited for the purpose of the study.

3.10 Training of Research Assistants

The researcher sought the assistance of four Masters Degree students of Guidance and Counselling in the Department of Educational Foundations, University of Lagos. The assistants were trained on how to assist in administering and scoring of the instruments and also act as models during the intervention. The training was done one hour twice a week for two weeks before the commencement of the field work. The training included explanation on the nature and purpose of the research, personal, and interpersonal skills, rational thought processes. Also to maintain confidentiality of information provided by the participants and avoid interference with their decisions. The research assistants were adequately remunerated.

3.11 Intervention Procedure

This was carried out in three phases.

Phase I: Pre-Intervention Assessment

It took place one week before the commencement of the intervention package. The pre-intervention assessment instruments – Absenteeism Questionnaire (AQ), Disruptive Behaviour Questionnaire (DBQ), Truancy Questionnaire (TQ), School Engagement Questionnaire (SEQ), Psychological Distress Scale (PDS), and Parental Involvement
Questionnaire (PIQ) were administered to the participants in the sampled schools in the three experimental groups. The pre-test lasted one week before the commencement of the intervention.

**Phase II: Intervention**

The sampled schools for the study were randomly assigned to intervention and control groups. The intervention group met once a week for eight weeks of sixty minutes per session while the control group was on the waiting list. School A had the intervention in the classroom every Tuesday throughout the eight (8) sessions for 1 hour while School B had their intervention in the classroom every Thursday throughout the eight (8) sessions for 1 hour respectively. The control group did not receive any training but was taught study habits at the end of the intervention on a later date.

**Phase III: Post-Intervention Assessment**

One week after the intervention sessions, the researcher re-administered the Absenteeism Questionnaire (AQ), Disruptive Behaviour (DBQ), Truancy Questionnaire (TQ), School Engagement Questionnaire (SEQ), Psychological Distress Scale (PDS) and Parental Involvement Questionnaire (PIQ) to all respondents in the experimental and control group. This was to ascertain the effects of the intervention on the participants.

**Detailed Intervention Procedure**

**Social Learning Therapy**

The therapy consists of personal and interpersonal skills designed to change the attitude and behaviour of truants’ learning by observing the actions of others. The social learning
therapy focused on observation, imitation, modelling, communication, innovation, determination and perseverance among the participants. The research assistants also served as models during the group sessions. In addition, the programme would help the models and participants to interact cordially and encourage novel behaviour. The researcher met the models once each week for feedback and further clarifications.

Session 1: Establishment of Rapport
The researcher established rapport with the participants. She introduced the goals of the therapy to them and were discussed with the participants. Also the researcher explained the objectives of the counselling programme, its procedure, duration and roles of the participants with emphasis on truancy.

Session 2: Problem Exploration. The intervention slogan was introduced “Hard work does not kill”. The researcher guided the participants to define truancy and the factors that make students practise it emanates from the family, school and community. Furthermore, the effects of truancy was discussed. The participants wrote down the salient points in their exercise books and took them home for their parents to comment on. The participants had refreshment as a motivation during the intervention to round off the session.

Session 3: Identification of social skills Review of the previous session. Attendance was taken to ensure punctuality. The researcher introduced observation, imitation and modelling through discussion. Also, the researcher assigned participants to groups with a model as the group leader. Models, researcher, and participants shared information on the effect of being early or late to the programme. The participants wrote their experiences
from JSIII to SSII as assignment. They wrote the salient points in their exercise books for parents’ comments.

**Session 4: Discussion on assertiveness.** The researcher read the participants’ stories of how they become truants and the lessons learnt to the group. Attendance was taken to ensure punctuality. The groups role-played being assertive with the models as group leaders. The researcher observed the groups and discussed their performance, how to communicate freely and respect the views of others. The group leaders and members provided verbal reactions as feedback. The participants gave their notes to their parents for comments. Parents’ comments served as encouragement for the participants’ punctuality and also as feedback to the researcher about the participants’ progress during the intervention.

**Session 5: Identification of social skills.** Review of Previous Session with discussion on social skills needed to improve participants’ regular attendance at school such as respect for others, being punctual and politeness. The importance of good social skills and the disadvantages of poor social skills such as lateness and fighting were discussed. The participants identified peers, siblings, parents and teachers that they relate with. Furthermore, the participants expressed their views in relation to those mentioned above. The participants wrote the importance of social skills as assignment.

**Session 6: Identification of Challenges of Truants.** The researcher and participants define who a truant is and listed some challenges that truants encounter such as isolation, deprivation and rejection and their effects on them. Discussion on the assignment was
done. The groups role played class disruptive behaviour such as avoiding class, cheating, leaving seats and speaking without permission. The researcher marked their notes and encouraged them to observe models within and outside the intervention session and also become models. Their work showed a remarkable improvement. The researcher answered questions from participants to round off the session.

**Session 7: General review of the previous Sessions** The participants shared their views, experience during the intervention and suggested ways of improving the skills learnt in the future. The participants also explained in turns the benefits of good social learning behaviour as it affects the individual and society. Their teachers explained that the participants were regular at school, which marked a great improvement in attendance and participation in school activities.

**Session 8: Summary and Termination** The researcher reviewed and summarised the sessions for the participants, entertained questions and comments from the various groups and terminated the counselling process. They were encouraged to guard against behaviour that can lead to truancy.

**Intervention 2**

**Cognitive Behaviour Therapy**

The strategy was designed to change the attitude and thinking of students towards truancy and regular school attendance. Cognitive behaviour therapy focused on helping the participants to improve by modifying their thoughts through communication and problem solving skills. Cognitive behaviour therapy strives to change participants’ perception about
truancy. Also to assist the participants’ to identify personal interest and skills needed to develop appropriate thought process that enhances positive thinking.

The objectives of the intervention were to change participants’ negative perception of school attendance, develop in them the importance of being punctual at school hence nip the negative behaviour of truants in the bud.

**Session 1: Creating Rapport** The researcher established rapport through introduction of participants and models. The researcher ensured confidentiality and emphasized the need for trust. The need for active participation was stressed during the counselling sessions. The group rules, goals, objectives of the programme and time were emphasized with the slogan “Hard work does not kill”.

**Session 2: Problem exploration.** The researcher took the attendance of the participants. The participants define truancy as it emanates from the home, school and community.

The researcher guided the participants to list the negative behaviour that lead to truancy and their effects. Truancy is the absence of a student from school without permission from the parents/teachers. The researcher went through participants’ homework and it was discussed. They were asked to write their stories from JS3 to SS2 based on their personal experiences as an assignment. The researcher answered questions from participants to clarify doubts. Finally, participants had refreshments to round off the session.

**Session 3: Identification of truants and their thought process.** Review of Previous session and the assignment. The researcher introduced cognitive therapy to the participants explaining how their thoughts affect the way they feel. The participants were asked to write
what they say to themselves when confronted with any difficult situation. The researcher illustrated some of the self-talk that result to self-defeating statement such as “I am not a bright student”, “I like being absent from school”, “I prefer my truant friends”. The researcher grouped the participants and their leaders and they role played negative self-talk that lead to truancy. Participants were asked to explain two ways of avoiding negative thoughts as assignment.

**Session 4: Questioning our Thinking Error.** Belief patterns such as laziness, lateness to school and absenteeism. The researcher went through their homework and there was a general discussion on the participants’ response. The researcher taught the participants how to eliminate negative thoughts by substituting them with desirable alternatives. They were guided to notice the activating events that trigger their thoughts and the consequences in order to challenge their thoughts for achievable goals. The participants recorded the salient points in their exercise books for parents’ comments. Birthday celebration was encouraged as a motivation among participants to round off the session.

**Session 5: Creating rational thought.** The researcher took attendance of participants. The researcher taught the participants how to create rational thought belief as substitutes for irrational self-talk such as, “I like being in school regularly”, “I prefer to be with hard working friends”, “Truancy reduces positive school attendance behaviour”. The researcher taught the participants how to think and verbalize the gains of regular school attendance and participation at school. Participants were asked to list three rational self-talk as assignment.
Session 6: Problem-solving loop. The researcher reviewed the assignment with the participants through discussion. The researcher used the problem-solving loop to illustrate to the participants steps to follow when faced with irregular school attendance and other life challenges. Identify the problem, list ways to solve it, select the best strategy, implement it and evaluate the outcome. The researcher taught the participants the importance of feedback from their interaction during the therapy. Discussion on problem-solving and parents’ comment on the participants’ activities. The participants role-played the ways of eliminating truancy which was discussed to round off the session.

Session 7: Review of participants’ attendance. The researcher reviewed the participants’ attendance during the programmes as successful. Each group shared their experiences and mentioned the benefits of good behaviour as it helps to reduce the rate of truancy among them. The teachers observed that the participants improved in attendance and continuous assessment. The session was rounded off with the advantages of early attendance and punctuality through discussion.

Session 8: Summary and Termination The researcher reviewed and summarized the session entertained question and clarified doubts. Participants commented on the programmes and the achievement attained. They were advised to maintain their standard for a regular school attendance. The participants were encouraged to safely discuss their inner worlds – their thoughts, feelings and actions.
Phase Three: Post Intervention Assessment

A week after the intervention was completed, the researcher re-administered the Absenteeism Questionnaire (AQ), Disruptive Behaviour Questionnaire (DBQ), Truancy Questionnaire (TQ), School Engagement Questionnaire (SEQ), Psychological Distress Scale (PDS), and Parental Support and Involvement Questionnaire (PSIQ) to the participants in both the experimental and control groups. It was to evaluate the effect of social learning and cognitive therapy on truancy.

Control Group

Participants in the control group later received placebo lesson on how to manage their time wisely after the post-test assessment to enable them benefit from the study at a latter date. They participated in the pre-test and post-test assessment. The objective of the lesson was to enable them learn how to manager their time wisely in the course of their study.

Session 1: Discussion on the value of time. The researcher established rapport with the participants. The researcher guided the participants to explain the importance of time in their studies. Furthermore, effect of improper use of time was discussed. The researcher and participants listed some salient points about time such as: time is a valuable resource needed for success; it is very short and cannot be handled wastefully. Time is provided for every individual, and must be spent immediately it is received hence it is wasteful. It cannot be stored or transferred to anyone. Discussion on the fact that lack of time management contributes to low achievement in their school work. The participants listed other values of time as it relates to managing other aspects of life. They copied the salient points on the chalkboard into their exercise books.
Summary: The researcher reviewed the lesson with the participants through questioning and entertained comments and clarified their doubts. They were encouraged to make good use of time and avoid procrastination.

3.12 Method of Data Analysis
The data collected from various instruments were analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics appropriate for each hypothesis. The mean and standard deviations for pre and post test assessment measured were completed while analysis for covariance were used to test the hypotheses. All hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS OF DATA ANALYSES

In this chapter the data generated from the instruments were coded and subjected to both descriptive and inferential statistics. The mean and standard deviation for the pre-test and post-test assessment were computed. Also, post-hoc analyses were done using Fisher’s protected t-test. Thus, the hypotheses were analyzed with the use of Two-Way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA). All hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance.

4.1 Test of Hypotheses

**Hypothesis One:** There is no significant difference in the post-test mean scores of disruptive behavior of participants in social learning therapy, cognitive behaviour therapy and control group.

The hypothesis was tested using analysis of covariance statistics (ANCOVA). The result of the analysis is presented in Table 4.

**Table 4: Descriptive data on influence of experimental conditions on disruptive behaviour among participants**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Post-Test</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social learning therapy</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>37.78</td>
<td>8.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive learning therapy</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>38.84</td>
<td>8.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>36.65</td>
<td>5.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>37.79</td>
<td>7.39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4 shows that at pretest, the mean scores of the participants in the three experimental group ranges from 37.78 for social learning therapy, 38.84 for cognitive learning therapy to 36.65 for the control group. It also shows that at post test, the social learning group recorded the greatest improvement in their disruptive behaviour with a mean difference of 27.22 followed by the cognitive learning group with a mean difference of 15.75 while the control group recorded the lowest mean change of -4.20. To determine if these differences were statistically significant, the Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was done and the result is presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Analysis of covariance of difference in the post test mean scores of disruptive behaviour in the three experimental conditions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F-cal</th>
<th>Sig. of F.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>23663.072a</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7887.691</td>
<td>115.980</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>16433.869</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16433.869</td>
<td>241.642</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Covariance</td>
<td>349.544</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>349.544</td>
<td>5.140</td>
<td>.025*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental group</td>
<td>23619.743</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11809.872</td>
<td>173.651</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>8569.151</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>68.009</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>32232.223</td>
<td>129</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant, P < 0.05; F-critical at 0.05 (2, 126) = 3.07 < 173.651; F-critical at 0.05(3,126) = 2.68 < 115.980; F-critical at 0.05 (1, 126) = 3.92 < 5.140

Table 5 shows that a calculated F-value of 173.651 resulted as the difference among the three experimental groups. This is statistically significant since it is greater than the critical
value of 3.07 given 2 and 126 degrees of freedom at 0.05 level of significance. Hence hypothesis one was rejected. To determine where the significance between group differences lie, post-hoc analysis was performed using Fisher’s protected t-test procedure. The result of the analysis is shown in Table 6.

**Table 6: Fisher’s protected t-test on difference in participants’ disruptive behaviour**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Social Learning (46)</th>
<th>Cognitive Learning (44)</th>
<th>Control (40)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Learning</td>
<td>65.00^a</td>
<td>3.27^*</td>
<td>9.3^*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Learning</td>
<td>10.43</td>
<td>54.57^a</td>
<td>6.32^*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>32.55</td>
<td>22.12</td>
<td>32.45^a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at 0.05; a = group means are in diagonal; difference in interventions group means are below the diagonal while the protected t-values are above the diagonal.

Table 6 shows that participants exposed to social learning therapy significantly differ on disruptive behaviour from those exposed to the cognitive therapy (t = 3.27; df = 88; critical t = 2.02; P < 0.05). Participants exposed to social learning therapy significantly manifested a decrease in disruptive behaviour than those in the control group (t = 9.3; df = 84; critical t = 2.02; P < 0.05). Participants exposed to cognitive training significantly manifested a decrease in disruptive behaviour than the control group. (t = 6.32; df = 82; critical t = 3.11; P < 0.05). It was observed that social learning therapy and cognitive behaviour therapy were effective in improving disruptive behaviour among participants but the social learning therapy was most effective.
**Hypothesis 2:** There is no significant difference in the post test mean scores of emotional disposition of participants in the three experimental conditions.

**Table 7: Descriptive data on influence of experimental conditions on emotional disposition of participants**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Pre-Test Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Post-Test Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Mean Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Learning Therapy</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>31.61</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>12.41</td>
<td>-19.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Behaviour Therapy</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>29.00</td>
<td>6.66</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>20.55</td>
<td>-8.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>31.88</td>
<td>6.01</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>31.18</td>
<td>-0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>130</strong></td>
<td><strong>30.81</strong></td>
<td><strong>5.65</strong></td>
<td><strong>130</strong></td>
<td><strong>20.94</strong></td>
<td><strong>-9.87</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note:* The less the score the better the emotional disposition

Table 7 reveals that the pretest score ranges from 31.61 for social learning group, 29.00 for the cognitive learning group and 31.88 for the control group. This table also shows that the social learning group had the highest improvement in the post-test with a mean difference of -19.20 followed by the cognitive learning group with a mean difference of -8.45, while the control group recorded the lowest mean difference of -0.70. However, to determine whether significant difference exists in emotional disposition among the participants in the experimental conditions, the Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) statistic was done and the result of the analysis is presented in Table 8.
Table 8: Analysis of Covariance on difference in the post test mean scores of emotional disposition of participants in the three experimental conditions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F-cal</th>
<th>Sig. of F.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>7681.916a</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2560.639</td>
<td>115.410</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>958.700</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>958.700</td>
<td>43.210</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Covariance</td>
<td>140.244</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>140.244</td>
<td>6.321</td>
<td>.013*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>7487.981</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3743.990</td>
<td>168.745</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>2795.592</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>22.187</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>10477.508</td>
<td>129</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Significant, P < 0.05; F-critical at 0.05 (2, 126) = 3.07 < 168.745; F-critical at 0.05 (1, 126) = 3.92 < 6.321; F-critical at 0.05 (3, 126) = 2.68 < 115.410

Table 8 shows that a calculated F value of 168.745 resulted as the difference in emotional disposition due to the experimental conditions. This calculated F is significant since it is greater than the critical F-value of 3.07 given 2 and 126 degree of freedom at 0.05 level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis was rejected because the intervention were effective in improving the emotional disposition of the participants. Based on the significant F, value obtained above, further analysis of data was carried out with the use of Fisher’s protected t-test where in a pair wise comparison of group means was carried out to determine the trend of the difference among the three experimental groups in their emotional disposition. The result of the analysis is presented in Table 9.
Table 9: Fisher’s protected t-test on difference in participants’ emotional disposition on learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Social Learning (46)</th>
<th>Cognitive Learning (44)</th>
<th>Control (40)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Learning</td>
<td>12.41*</td>
<td>-4.47*</td>
<td>-9.43*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Behaviour</td>
<td>-8.14</td>
<td>20.55*</td>
<td>-5.34*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>-18.77</td>
<td>-10.63</td>
<td>31.18*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at 0.05; a = group mean are in diagonal, difference in interventions group means are below the diagonal while the protected t value are above the diagonal.

The results in Table 9 indicates that participants that were exposed to social learning therapy improve significantly more in emotional disposition than those exposed to cognitive therapy (T-cal = -4.47; df = 88; t-critical = 2.02; P < 0.05). Also, participants that received social learning therapy significantly improve in their emotional disposition than those in control group learning (t-cal = -9.43; df = 84; t-critical = 2.02, P < 0.05. Similarly, participants exposed to cognitive learning improve in their emotional disposition than the control group (t-cal = -5.34; df = 88; t-critical = 2.02, P < 0.05). Invariably, it can be concluded that SLT and CBT were effective in improving the emotional disposition of participants but the social learning was more effective.
**Hypothesis 3:** There is no significant difference in post-test mean scores of truancy rate among participants in the three experimental conditions.

**Table 10: Descriptive data on influence of experimental conditions on truancy rate among participants**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social learning training</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>37.89</td>
<td>9.88</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>56.54</td>
<td>10.65</td>
<td>18.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive training</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>34.64</td>
<td>9.69</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>67.52</td>
<td>5.80</td>
<td>32.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>37.23</td>
<td>9.16</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>38.95</td>
<td>10.22</td>
<td>1.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>130</td>
<td>36.58</td>
<td>9.63</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>54.85</td>
<td>14.72</td>
<td>18.26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 shows that the scores of participants in their pre-test ranges from 37.89 in the social learning therapy, 34.64 in cognitive learning therapy to 37.23 in the control group. The participants exposed to social learning therapy had the mean difference of 18.65, followed by those exposed to the cognitive learning therapy which had the highest mean difference of 32.89 while those in control group had the least mean difference of 1.77. To determine whether significant difference occurred in the truancy rate among the participants in the experimental conditions, the Analysis of covariance statistics was used and the result of the analysis is presented in Table 11.
Table 11: Analysis of covariance on difference in the post test mean score of truancy rate among participants in the three experimental conditions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F-cal</th>
<th>Sig. of F.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>17695.777*</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5898.592</td>
<td>72.544</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>30464.787</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>30464.787</td>
<td>374.671</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Covariance</td>
<td>385.144</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>385.144</td>
<td>4.737</td>
<td>.031*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental group</td>
<td>16663.377</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8331.688</td>
<td>102.467</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>10245.146</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>81.311</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>27940.923</td>
<td>129</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant, P < 0.05; F-critical at 0.05 (2, 126) =3.07 < 102.467; F-critical at 0.05 (1, 126) = 3.92< 4.737; F-critical at 0.05(3, 126) =2.68 < 72.544

The result in Table 11 indicates that the calculated F-value of 102.467 resulted as the difference in the truancy rate of the participants in the three experimental groups. Thus, calculated F-value is significant since it is greater than the critical F-value of 3.07 given 2 and 126 degree of freedom at 0.05 level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis 3 is rejected. To determine where the significance lie within the group of the truancy rate among the participants, Fisher’s protected t-test analysis was used and the trend of difference is shown in the Table 12 below.
Table 12: Fisher’s protected t-test on difference in participants’ truancy rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Social Learning (46)</th>
<th>Cognitive Learning (44)</th>
<th>Control (40)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Learning</td>
<td>56.54&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>-3.69*</td>
<td>5.39*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Learning</td>
<td></td>
<td>667.52&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>8.76*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td></td>
<td>28.57</td>
<td>38.95&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at 0.05; a = group mean are in diagonal, difference in interventions group means are below the diagonal while the protected t value are above the diagonal.

The results in the Table 12 above reveals that participants exposed to social learning therapy significantly differ in truancy rate from those exposed to cognitive therapy (cal. t = -3.69; df = 88; critical t = 2.02, P < 0.05). Likewise, participants exposed to social learning therapy differ significantly in truancy rate from those of the control group (t = 5.39; df = 84; critical t = 2.02, P < 0.05). Similarly, it was observed that statistically, significant difference exists in the truancy rate between participants exposed to cognitive learning and the control group (t = 8.76; df = 82; critical t = 2.02, P < 0.05). Significant difference was therefore found between the cognitive therapy and social learning therapy in reducing the truancy level of participants with the former being highly effective. Hypothesis three is therefore rejected.
**Hypothesis 4:** There is no significant difference in the level of parental support for schooling of participants in the intervention. This hypothesis was tested using analysis of covariance statistics. The result of the analysis is presented in Table 13.

**Table 13:** Descriptive data on difference in participants’ parental level of support and involvement in schooling due to experimental conditions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social learning therapy</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>16.67</td>
<td>5.45</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>36.26</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td></td>
<td>19.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive learning training</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>17.80</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>28.39</td>
<td>7.22</td>
<td></td>
<td>10.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>15.60</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>16.08</td>
<td>5.31</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>130</strong></td>
<td><strong>16.72</strong></td>
<td><strong>4.84</strong></td>
<td><strong>130</strong></td>
<td><strong>27.38</strong></td>
<td><strong>9.78</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>10.66</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Evidence from Table 13 reveals that at pre-test the mean scores across the three experimental groups were 16.67 for social learning therapy, 17.80 for cognitive therapy and 15.60 for the control group. It further shows that participants exposed to social learning therapy recorded the highest improvement with a mean difference of 19.59 followed by those exposed to cognitive behaviour therapy with mean difference of 10.59 while the control group had the least mean difference of 0.48. To determine whether significant difference exists in parental support and involvement for schooling. Analysis of Covariance statistics was done. The result is presented in Table 14.
Table 14: Analysis of covariance on difference in the post test mean score of parental support and involvement for schooling among participants in the three experimental conditions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F-cal</th>
<th>Sig. of F.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>8907.860</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2969.287</td>
<td>109.430</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>5344.347</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5344.347</td>
<td>196.960</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Covariance</td>
<td>123.167</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>123.167</td>
<td>4.539</td>
<td>.035*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental group</td>
<td>8481.415</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4240.708</td>
<td>156.286</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>3418.909</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>27.134</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Corrected Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>12326.769</strong></td>
<td><strong>129</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant, P < 0.05; F-critical at 0.05 (2, 126) = 3.07 < 156.286; F-critical at 0.05 (1, 126) = 3.92 < 4.539; F-critical at 0.05(3, 126) = 2.68 < 109.430

Table 14 result shows that a calculated F-value of 156.286 resulted as the effect of experimental conditions on parental support for schooling among participants. This calculated F-value of 156.286 is significant since it is greater than the critical F-value of 3.07 given 2 and 126 degree of freedom at 0.05 level of significance. Consequently, the null hypothesis was rejected. The intervention was effective in improving parental involvement in the schooling of the participants. Based on the significant F-value obtained, further analysis of data was done to determine the trend of the difference using Fisher’s protected t-test. The result of the analysis is presented in Table 15.
Table 15: Fisher’s protected t-test on difference in parental support and involvement in schooling among the participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Social Learning (46)</th>
<th>Cognitive Learning (44)</th>
<th>Control (40)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Learning</td>
<td>36.26</td>
<td>3.99*</td>
<td>9.30*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Learning</td>
<td>7.87</td>
<td>28.39*</td>
<td>5.67*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>20.18</td>
<td>12.31</td>
<td>16.08*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Significant at 0.05; a = group mean are in diagonal, difference in intervention group means are below the diagonal while the protected t value are above the diagonal.

Table 15 shows that participants exposed to social learning therapy differ significantly on perceived level of parental support for schooling than those exposed to cognitive behavior therapy ($t = 3.99$; df = 88; critical $t = 2.02$, $P < 0.05$). Similarly, participants exposed to cognitive therapy have high level of parental support for schooling than those in the control group ($t = 5.67$; df = 82 critical $t = 2.02$, $P < 0.05$). Still on the same vein, it was observed that participants exposed to social learning therapy have high level of parental support for schooling than those in the control group ($t = 9.30$; df = 84; critical $t = 2.02$, $P < 0.05$). It can therefore be concluded that the social learning therapy was most effective in improving the level of parental support for schooling of participants. Hence hypothesis 4 was rejected.
**Hypothesis 5:** There is no significant difference in the post test mean scores of disruptive behaviour in the three experimental conditions due to gender.

**Table 16: Descriptive data on the influence of gender on disruptive behaviour among participants due to experimental conditions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experimental Groups</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Learning Training</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>35.64</td>
<td>6.44</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>64.05</td>
<td>11.16</td>
<td>28.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>39.75</td>
<td>9.19</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>65.88</td>
<td>7.72</td>
<td>26.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>37.78</td>
<td>8.18</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>65.00</td>
<td>9.46</td>
<td>27.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Behaviour Training</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>38.57</td>
<td>9.41</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>53.65</td>
<td>12.13</td>
<td>15.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>39.14</td>
<td>6.40</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>55.57</td>
<td>7.79</td>
<td>16.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>38.84</td>
<td>8.03</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>54.57</td>
<td>10.22</td>
<td>15.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>37.74</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31.58</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>-6.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>35.67</td>
<td>5.66</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>33.24</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>-2.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>36.65</td>
<td>5.48</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>32.45</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>-4.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>37.31</td>
<td>7.36</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>50.67</td>
<td>16.47</td>
<td>13.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>38.26</td>
<td>7.46</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>52.21</td>
<td>15.22</td>
<td>13.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>37.79</td>
<td>7.39</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>51.45</td>
<td>15.81</td>
<td>13.66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result of the descriptive data presented in Table 16 indicates that the pre-test mean value of disruptive behaviour for male participants were 35.64 for social learning therapy, 38.57 for cognitive behaviour therapy and 37.74 for the control group. Likewise, the pre-test mean score value for female participants were 39.75 for social learning therapy, 39.14 for cognitive behaviour therapy and 35.67 for the control group.
Also, at post-test male participants in social learning therapy, cognitive behaviour therapy and control group had mean score of 64.05, 53.65 and 31.58 respectively. Their female counterpart in social learning therapy, cognitive behaviour therapy and control group had mean score of 65.88, 55.57 and 33.24 respectively.

The table further indicates that the male and female in SLT had the highest reduction in disruptive behaviour with the average mean difference of 28.41 and 26.13 respectively. To determine whether the mean difference score in disruptive behaviour among the participants is significant, Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) statistics was computed. It is evident that there was no interaction effect due to gender in the experimental condition.

The result is presented in Table 17.

Table 17: Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) of difference in the post test mean scores of disruptive behaviour among participants in the three experimental conditions due to gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F-cal</th>
<th>Sig. of F.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>23812.409a</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3968.735</td>
<td>57.977</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>16242.001</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16242.001</td>
<td>237.270</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Covariance</td>
<td>392.566</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>392.566</td>
<td>5.735</td>
<td>.018*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental group</td>
<td>23604.967</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11802.483</td>
<td>172.415</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>130.611</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>130.611</td>
<td>1.908</td>
<td>.170 NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental/Gender</td>
<td>14.379</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7.190</td>
<td>.105</td>
<td>.900 NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>32232.223</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>32232.223</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant, p < 0.05; NS = Not Significant; F-critical at 0.05 (2, 123) = 3.07 < 172.415; F-critical at 0.05 (1, 123) = 3.92 > 1.908; F-critical at 0.05 (6, 123) = 2.17 < 57.977, F-critical at 0.05 (1, 123) = 3.92 < 5.735, F-critical at 0.05 (2, 123) = 3.07 > 0.105
Table 17 shows that a calculated F-value of 172.415 resulted as the difference in disruptive behaviour among participants in the three experimental groups. The F-calculated value of 172.415 is statistically significant since it is greater than the critical F-value 3.07 given 2 and 123 degree of freedom at 0.05 level of significant. This shows that the experimental condition significantly improved the rate of disruptive behaviour among participants. The result shows that a calculated F-value of 1.908 is lesser than the critical F-value of 3.92 given 1 and 123 degree of freedom at 0.05 level of significance. There is no significant difference in the post-test mean scores of participants’ disruptive behaviour due to gender. Hence, hypothesis 5 was accepted.

**Hypothesis 6:** There is no significant difference in truancy rate between the male and female participants exposed to social learning, cognitive and the control groups.

**Table 18: Differences in truancy level of participants in the three experimental groups due to gender**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experimental Groups</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Pre-Test</th>
<th>Post Test</th>
<th>Means</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Learning Training</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>37.05</td>
<td>8.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>38.67</td>
<td>10.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>37.89</td>
<td>9.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>34.26</td>
<td>9.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Learning Training</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>35.05</td>
<td>9.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>34.64</td>
<td>9.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>37.89</td>
<td>9.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>36.62</td>
<td>9.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>37.23</td>
<td>9.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>36.30</td>
<td>9.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>36.86</td>
<td>10.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>36.58</td>
<td>9.63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 18 reveals that in social learning training, the male had the highest mean difference of 20.86 in truancy rate followed by females with 16.63. The female participants had the greatest mean difference of 33.62 when exposed to cognitive behaviour therapy than male with 32.22. However, in the control group both male and female participants had the lowest mean difference when compared with other groups with 2.89 and 0.67 respectively. To determine whether significant difference exists in truancy rate among the participants due to gender and experimental conditions. Analysis of covariance was computed. The result of the analysis is presented in Table 19 below.

Table 19: Analysis of covariance on difference in the post test mean score of truancy rate among participants in the three experimental groups due to male and female

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Squares</th>
<th>F-cal</th>
<th>Sig. of F.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>17956.603a</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2992.767</td>
<td>36.869</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>30465.120</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>30465.120</td>
<td>375.309</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Covariance</td>
<td>392.306</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>392.306</td>
<td>4.833</td>
<td>.030*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental group</td>
<td>16564.589</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8282.295</td>
<td>102.032</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>49.810</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>49.810</td>
<td>.614</td>
<td>.435 NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental/Gender</td>
<td>215.482</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>107.741</td>
<td>1.327</td>
<td>.269 NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>9984.320</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>81.173</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Corrected Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>27940.923</strong></td>
<td><strong>129</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant, P < 0.05; NS = Not Significant; F-critical at 0.05 (2, 123) = 3.07 < 102.032; F-critical at 0.05 (1, 123) = 3.92 > 0.614; F-critical at 0.05(6, 123) = 2.17 < 36.869, F-critical at 0.05 (1, 123) = 3.92 < 4.833, F-critical at 0.05 (2, 123) = 3.07 > 1.327
Table 19 shows that calculated F-value of 102.032 resulted as the difference in truancy rate among participants due to experimental conditions. The calculated F-value of 102.032 is significant since it is greater than the critical F-value of 3.07 given 2 and 123 degrees of freedom at 0.05 level of significance. A calculated F-value of 0.614 resulted due to the influence of gender on truancy rate of the participants. This calculated F-value is not significant since it is less than the critical F-value of 3.92 given 1 and 123 degrees of freedom at 0.05 level of significant. Therefore, there is no significant difference in the post test scores on truancy rate among participants that can be accounted for based on male and female participants. Therefore, hypothesis 6 was accepted.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the discussion of results of the statistical analysis presented in chapter four and offers plausible interpretations of findings. It also highlights the contribution to knowledge, recommendations, implication for counsellors and suggestions for further research.

5.1 Summary of the Findings

This research study was conducted to investigate assessment and management of truancy among public senior secondary school students. Six research hypotheses were formulated to direct the study. The study was hinged on 2 Theoretical Framework. They are Social Learning Theory by Albert Bandura (1977) and Cognitive Behaviour Theory by Aron Beck (1976).

The research design adopted for the study was Quasi experimental pre-test/post-test control group. The population of the study comprised all the public Senior Secondary School II in Lagos State, Nigeria.

The Absenteeism Questionnaire (AQ), Disruptive Behaviour Questionnaire (DBQ), Truancy Questionnaire (TQ), School Engagement Questionnaire (SEQ), Psychological Distress Scale (PDS) and Parental Involvement Questionnaire (PIQ) were the instruments used for collecting data for the study. The data generated were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics and Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) tested at 0.05 level of significance.
Four of the six research hypothesis were rejected and two were accepted. The findings showed that there were significant differences in the mean scores of students. In addition the study revealed that gender was not a significant factor in the reduction of Truancy rate and Disruptive Behaviour.

5.2 Discussion of Findings

Disruptive Behaviour

The findings in hypothesis one showed that there was a significant difference in post-test scores of school disruptive behaviour, among participants exposed to social learning therapy (SLT), cognitive behavior therapy (CBT) and the control group. The reason for the effectiveness of the Social Learning Therapy more than the Cognitive Behaviour Therapy could be attributed to the content of the intervention package which included training on social learning techniques and principles. The participants developed positive communication skill among their peers through observation, imitation and modelling behaviour. It is envisaged that social bonding would help students to work together in the school as partners in progress.

Cognitive Behaviour Therapy was effective due to the contents of the intervention which included a period of the therapy on cognitive behaviour strategies and principles. As faulty thinking can lead to truancy, participants were guided on how to reconstruct their thinking and avoid erroneous thoughts by exploring positive alternative reasoning, which Beck (1976) and Ellis (1960) identified as ‘constant chatter’ internal dialogue going on in our heads. The participants were asked to key into their social network as they are not alone in their challenging experiences. These findings were supported by Cobb, Sample, Awel, and
John’s (2005) who posited that teaching cognitive behavioural strategies to students with disabilities reduced their likelihood of exhibiting violent, verbal and physical behaviour when compared with their control group counterpart. Dembo & Gulledge (2008) were also in agreement with the findings as their study showed that social skills therapy significantly reduced violent prone behaviour of students. Both intervention groups showed significant improvement in participant’s level of disruptive behaviour compared to participants in the control group. This result agreed with Patrick, Ryan and Kaplan’s (2007) findings that when students feel a sense of emotional support from their teachers, have academic support from their peers they are likely to engage in task-related interaction. These strategies will assist students to be assertive among their peers by expressing their views while they respect the views of others. This finding is in agreement with Dembo and Gulledge’s (2009) that alienation, and social isolation contributed to truancy. The findings of this study revealed that both intervention positively influenced participants’ interaction among peers and teachers. The participants focused on their school work, due to their ability to replace their negative self-debilitating talk with realistic alternatives. Also, the participants were able to appreciate the various domains of cognitive behaviour therapy, giving them the ability to recognise the required skills needed for appropriate responses.

**Emotional Disposition**

The findings in hypothesis two showed that there was a significant difference in the post-test scores of emotional disposition of participants exposed to Social Learning Therapy (SLT), Cognitive Behaviour Therapy (CBT) and the control group. The reason for the positive impact of social learning therapy more than the cognitive behavior therapy could be ascribed to the contents of the intervention package. These included teaching the
importance of good social skills and the disadvantages of poor social skills which impacted on their mode of communication. Social learning therapy has significant gains as individual or group (model) serves as a reinforcement for their peers. The reason for the positive impact of the cognitive behaviour therapy could be attributed to the content of the intervention. These included teaching the guidelines of changing negative self-talk to positive alternative ideas which influenced emotional disposition of the students. Also, the therapy changed their negative perception about schooling to maintaining regular school attendance behaviour.

These findings were supported by Corey (2008) who posited that social learning therapy (SLT) has significant effect on improving emotional engagement (emotions, values) in preventing truancy when compared with their control group counterparts. Finlay (2006) was also in agreement with the findings that the behavioural engagement (academics and extra curricular activities) improved students’ emotional problems. The study is also consistent with Corey’s (2008) research into the effectiveness of social learning therapy which revealed that social learning therapy has significant gains as individual or group (the model) act as a stimulus that improved the emotional feelings of students.

In agreement with these findings, Fredrick, Bluemenfield & Paris (2004) study revealed that social learning therapy was effective in improving emotional engagement as an element in preventing truancy. Finlay’s (2006) study revealed that behavioural engagement (punctuality and academic activities) improved students’ emotional problem. The findings of this study revealed that students were motivated to develop novel social skills, homework served as a behaviour change that reduced emotional instability hence the participants were able to recognise the importance of punctuality and participation.
**Truancy Rate**

The findings in hypothesis three revealed that there was a significant difference in the post-test scores of truancy rate among participants exposed to social learning therapy (SLT), cognitive behaviour therapy (CBT) and the control group. The reason that it was effective could be ascribed to social learning which focuses on social skills, interpersonal skills, social relationship among the participants. They were able to appreciate the various domains of social learning, as a guide for peer modelling.

The reason for the effectiveness of cognitive behaviour therapy may be due to the participants’ ability to identify negative automatic thoughts that limited, their actions and replaced them with positive thoughts. However, the cognitive behavior therapy was more effective than the social learning therapy. Hence, it enhanced their ability to make informed choices and decisions that stimulated their emotional well-being, to cope with the reduction of truancy rate. In agreement with this study, Alberty and Emmon’s (2008) study of unassertiveness in interpersonal relationship revealed that social skills therapy has been widely evaluated for its efficacy in modifying unassertive students who applied learnt assertive skills to specific interpersonal situations. Johnston’s (2013) study was also in agreement with the findings of this study that social learning therapy is efficacious in modifying the behaviour of truants. He stipulated that children’s minds are still “fluid” hence they imitate and learn fast what they see leading to a change in behaviour. Furthermore, working together in groups during the intervention also exposed them to the advantages of maintaining positive relationship in the school. The finding is in agreement with Oliha’s (2014) study on the use of cognitive restructuring in the reduction of truancy among adolescent students. The result showed that the intervention has a significant effect
The findings in hypothesis four revealed that there was a significant difference in the post-test scores of parental support for schooling of participants exposed to Social Learning Therapy (SLT), Cognitive Behaviour Therapy (CBT) and the control group. The reason could be attributed to social learning therapy which focuses on interpersonal relation, communication and role modelling was more effective than cognitive behaviour. In addition, working in groups during the intervention exposed them to the advantages of positive interpersonal relationship in school. Also, the comments made by parents on the participants’ notes facilitated punctuality and active participation during intervention. The teachers explained that participants were punctual and made remarkable progress in their studies.

In support of these findings, Seleeys’s (2006) study showed that effective Communication should be applied as social skills therapy by parents to teach children pro-social skills at home. Personal and interpersonal skills contributed in building social relationship among participants which invariably promoted regular school attendance. This result is in
agreement with Hoover-Dempsey, Walker, Sandler, Whetsel, Wilkins and Closson’s (2005) study which revealed that parental involvement for schooling created social skills needed for interpersonal relationship, during parents/teachers conferences just as Parents Teachers Association (PTA). In support of these findings, McWayne, Hampton, Fantuzzo, Cohen and Seikino’s (2004) study on the effects of cognitive behaviour aimed at modifying unrealistic belief parents hold about school and home. Their findings showed that parental behaviour influenced children’s cognitive development through helping in homework, volunteering in school, discussing school activities with the child, monitoring child’s progress at school. This suggests that parents who show interest in their children’s education, is an important factor in ensuring that punctuality and being aware of their friends would encourage good grades in their studies. This finding is in agreement with Patrick, Ryan and Kaplan’s (2007) study that revealed that when students feel a sense of emotional support from their teacher, parents and academic support from their peers they would have a sense of belonging. It is also in line with Hunter’s (2005) findings that the school must build a sense of community among the family, staff, and students to sustain their interest to stay in school. The findings of Griffith’s (1996) study on parental involvement in schooling revealed that parental participation can be influenced by parents, teachers and students as they work together to achieve success. The finding is in agreement with (Fuehrmann, Keith, & Reimer’s, 1989) study of high school seniors to determine the effects of parental involvement in students’ grades. Analysis showed that parental involvement resulted in students’ achieving higher grades and spending less time watching television and more time on homework. It is pertinent that parents should apply bonding as a stimulating factor in their family relationship as it encourages peace, unity in the school and home.
Disruptive Behaviour due to Gender

The findings in hypothesis five showed that there was no significant difference in the post-test score, of disruptive behaviour due to gender of participants exposed to social learning therapy (SLT) cognitive behaviour therapy and the control group. This implied that there was no interaction effect between male and female and experimental condition in their disruptive behaviour. In agreement with these findings Gray, Jensson, (1990) Stoll, 1993 and Whitney (1998) did a study on the effect of gender on school attendance behaviour. Their findings showed that no significant difference existed in negative school attendance behaviour, of males and females in that both engage in truancy almost equally.

However, serious awareness programmes on the importance of education, for both gender are being carried out both at the federal and state levels. The findings showed that gender effect was not significant on disruptive behaviour among participants. This implies that there is no interaction effect between gender and experimental conditions on disruptive behaviour. It is evident that experimental conditions did not discriminate between gender. This intervention guarantees counselling strategy that will be beneficial to both sexes. These findings result supported Gray & Jenson, 1990; Stoll, 1993 and Whitney, (1998) who investigated the effect of gender on school attendance behaviour. Their study revealed that no significant difference exists in the negative school attendance behaviour of males and females, that both play truancy almost equally. This result contradicts the findings of Gesinde (2004) who studied the influence of child, family and school as determinants of school truancy. The study revealed that boys in the senior secondary schools exhibited truancy more than girls. Reid’s (2002) study revealed that girls engage in truancy more than boys in the first three years in the secondary school. The findings of this study also
contradicted that of Reid (2002). The findings of this study showed that gender is not significant in truancy among the participants. There is also no interaction effect due to gender. However, serious awareness programmes on the importance of education, for both gender are being carried out both at the federal and state levels.

**Truancy Rate Due to Gender**

The findings in hypothesis six revealed that there was no significant difference in the post-test scores on truancy rate of male and female participants exposed to social learning therapy (SLT), cognitive behaviour therapy (CBT) and the control group. The reason could be attributed to the fact that there was no interaction effect between male and female on truancy rate in the three experimental conditions. The findings of this study is in contrast with Animashaun’s (2005) study on gender and school attendance behaviour among secondary schools students. The study showed that more boys indulged in truancy than girls especially when engaged in fighting and bullying. The findings of this study again contradicted the findings of Robinson and Rogstad’s (2012) which showed that girls exhibit truancy in the first few years in the secondary schools as they try to role-play the boys who are their models. Monrad’s (2007) study on gender showed that in the United States, male students are considered eight percent 8% less likely to graduate than female students and the gap is as large as fourteen percent (14%) between male and female African-American students. The findings of this study agreed with Oluremi’s (2013) study that revealed that no significant difference existed in the manifestation of truancy between male and female. Therefore, it is evident that gender does not determinant irregular school attendance behaviour such as truancy. In the intervention groups there was no particular trend in terms of gender differences. There was no indication that any of the intervention
conditions appeared more effective for either of the gender. “The two counselling therapy had equal effects on both boys and girls. The study shows that there is no difference in the truancy rate of participants that were exposed to experimental conditions due to gender. Also, there is no interaction effect due to gender in the study.

5.3 Conclusion

From the discussion of the findings, the following conclusions are drawn. Regular attendance at school by students is needed to facilitate learning. Its consistency is determined by the importance attached to the teaching and learning outcome. Students who take their school activities seriously eventually emerged with good grades in their examinations. In view of the irregular attendance of students and absence from school without permission known as truancy, it became necessary for this study to investigate and moderate factors such as disruptive behaviour, emotional disposition, truancy rate, parental involvement in schooling and gender rate. It confirmed the researcher’s expectation that strategies can be used as vehicles in which truants balance the demands of school activities and at home.

The study revealed that Social learning Therapy was more effective than Cognitive Behaviour Therapy in promoting regular school attendance behaviour, relating to assertiveness in communication, reduced disruptive behaviour, stable emotional disposition and parental support for schooling. This could be attributed to the fact that both therapies embraced thinking and action, they however differ in that Social learning Therapy gives more attention to the existence of human needs.
5.4 Contributions to Knowledge

1. The study developed a conceptual framework that could be used by school counsellors in managing students who are truants.

2. The study established the efficacy of social learning therapy and cognitive behaviour therapy, thus, it has filled the gap between the literature reviewed and the present research work.

3. The study proved that social learning therapy is an effective technique in managing communication, personal and interpersonal skills. Cognitive behaviour therapy is a veritable strategy in managing negative thought processes and problem solving skills.

4. The study has developed a norm to be adopted in the diagnosis and identification of students, who are at risk of truancy and truants that would enable stakeholders in education to design appropriate remedial strategies.

5.5 Recommendations

In the light of the findings of this study, the researcher has come up with a number of recommendations.

1. It is therefore recommend that school counsellors and education administrators can utilize programmes about regular school attendance by organising symposia, seminars and workshops for senior secondary school students in that they can acquire personal, interpersonal, communication, problem-solving and thought processes skills. This will develop the students’ social, mental, psychological and emotional well-being to enable then practice regular school attendance behaviour.
2. Counsellors should include truancy skills in their scheme of work. Each term should focus on a particular skill while teaching the students.

3. The government should also mount a sensitization campaign through mass and print media by encouraging parents to take active participation in the education of their children and attend school Parent Teachers Association.

4. School counsellors should intensify their efforts in the use of social learning therapy and cognitive behaviour therapy to ameliorate school disruptive behaviour and truancy among students.

5.6 Implication for Counselling

This study has revealed that school counsellors and therapists can utilise social learning therapy and cognitive behaviour therapy strategies, in helping truants to resolve truancy by changing their negative attitude. The strategies have been effective in dealing with emotional and psychological problems. Hence, school counsellors can change, modify the way students think, act and feel.

The study showed that social, therapy and cognitive behaviour therapy were effective in increasing students’ interpersonal relationship through modelling, role-play and problem solving skills. Counsellors can find them useful in enabling student take responsibilities in order to adjust well in their studies.

The study also showed that school counselors can use the intervention for identifying students who are at risk of truancy and truants. Hence solve their problems.
The efficacy of the intervention packages would serve as service provider in that counsellors should write journals, papers, organize seminars and talks on career guardians for students.

5.7 **Suggestions for Further Studies**

1. The study was limited to Lagos State, Nigeria. It is important to replicate the empirical study in other parts of the country.

2. Social learning therapy and cognitive behaviour therapy were used as therapeutic strategies in this study. Technique such as Realty Therapy could be developed and employed to investigate their effectiveness in the reduction of truancy.

3. The study concentrated its intervention on senior secondary school students. It could be replicated among junior secondary school students.

4. Studies should be carried out with focus on decreasing school disruptive behaviour of students in Nigerian schools in order to reduce truancy.
REFERENCES


Joughin, C. (2003). Cognitive behaviour therapy can be effective in managing behavioural problem and


APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

ASSESSMENT AND MANAGEMENT OF TRUANCY QUESTIONNAIRE

**Instruction:** The purpose of this questionnaire is to generate information on the extent of truancy among senior secondary school students. You are required to make objective and sincere responses. Any information provided will be strictly confidential.

Thank you.

**Section A: Demographic Data**

Please tick (√) or fill the gap as applicable

1. Age: ______________________

2. Sec: Male ( ) Female ( )
APPENDIX II

Section B

Domain: School Engagement


This questionnaire is designed to measure the participants’ peer and adult support for learning. It is not a test hence there is no right or wrong answer. Thick the appropriate column or number carefully.

1. Never
2. Occasionally
3. Most of the time
4. All of the time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>In my school, teachers care about students.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Adults in my school listen to the students.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Other students at school care about me.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX III

Section C

Domain: Truancy Questionnaire

Measures: Truancy Questionnaire (Reid, 2002) is to measure the students’ learning condition in the school

4. Strongly agree
3. Agree
2. Disagree
1. Strongly Disagree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I stay away from school regularly</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Being a truant helps me to escape from home and school to be with my friends.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>A truant misses lessons in school therefore, avoid truancy.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX IV

Section D

Domain: Disruptive Behaviour Questionnaire

Measures: Disruptive Behaviour Questionnaire (Viaga, 2008)

Measure participants’ predisposition to school disruptive behaviour such as absenteeism, truancy, tardiness among others. Tick (✓) any number that is appropriate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I internationally destroy or break school materials.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I physically attack my school mates.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I obey the teachers.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# Section E

**Domain:** Psychological Distress Scale

**Measures:** Psychological Distress Scale by (Kessler and Mrozeck, 2003).

Measures levels of negative emotional states experienced by participants. Using the scale described below, tick the number that is applicable to you.

1. None of the time
2. A little of the time
3. Some of the time
4. Most of the time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>During the last four weeks how often do you feel tired out for no good reason?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>During the last four weeks about how often do you feel fidgeting?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>During the last four weeks about how often do you feel restless?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section F

Domain: Parental Involvement Questionnaire

Measures: Parental involvement (Chiu and Willins, 1996)

Measures the perceived level of participants’ parents’ involvement in schooling. Tick the number that is best applicable to you from the scale below.

1. Never
2. Occasionally
3. Most of the time
4. All of the time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Talked with you about planning your secondary school programmes.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Discussed the subjects or programmes at school with you.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Discussed school activities or events of particular interest to you with you.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX VII

ABSENTEEISM QUESTIONNAIRE (AQ)

1. I attend school regularly
2. I often come to school every other day
3. I prefer to stay in the library than to stay in the classroom
4. I do not like to stay in Mathematics class
5. I love to stay in the
6. I like to stay in English class
7. I like to stay in Mathematics class
8. I do not like to stay in English class
9. I like to stay in the classroom during lessons
10. I prefer to play during lessons.
APPENDIX VIII

SCHOOL ENGAGEMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (SEQ)

Appleton et al (2006) to measure participants’ peer influence for learning. Tick the appropriate column or number in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Question</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>In my school, teachers care about students.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Adults in my school listen to the students.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Other students at school care about me.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>My teachers are there for me when I need them.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The school rules are not fair.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Overall, my teachers are open and honest with me.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I enjoy talking to the teachers here.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Most teachers at school are interested in me as a person, not just as student.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Adults in my school treat me fairly.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Students at my school are there for me when I need them.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I enjoy talking to the students here.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Students here respect what I have to say.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I have some friends at school.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>I have a say about what happens to me in school.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>My family/guardians are there for me when I need them.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>When I have problem at school, my family/guardians are willing to help me.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>When something good happens at school, my family/guardians want to know about it.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>My family/guardians want me to keep trying when things are tough at school.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>I will learn but if only my family/guardian gives me a reward.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Most of what is important to know you learn in school.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>The test in my school do a job of measuring what I am bale to do.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>I will learn if only my teacher gives me a reward.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>The grades in my class work do a good job of measuring what I am able to do.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>What I learn in my classes will be of importance in my future.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX IX

TRUANCY QUESTIONNAIRE (TQ)

Truancy questionnaire by Reid (2002) adapted by the researcher to measure students’ learning condition. Tick the appropriate number or column in the table below.

1. Strongly Agree
2. Agree
3. Disagreed
4. Strongly Disagree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I stay away from school regularly.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Being a truant helps me to escape from home and school to be with my friends.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>A truant misses lessons in school therefore, avoid truancy.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I wake up late every morning.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>One should avoid a friend who is a truant.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Truancy does not bother my conscience.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Truancy leads to poor academic performance.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I like the company of my truant peers.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Truants are noted for poor academic performance.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Our teachers do not the lessons interesting.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Truants lack love from teachers.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I like to loiter around the school.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Truants do not take the study seriously.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Students from broken homes stay away from school more than their peers from stable homes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>My senior in the school bully me.</td>
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<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Parents have a vital role in stopping truancy.</td>
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<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>I dislike some of my subject teachers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>My parents are too busy to monitor my activities.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Some of our teachers are wicked.</td>
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<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Truants do not obey school rules.</td>
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<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>I skip lessons without any reason.</td>
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<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Learners involve in truancy due to poor relationship with teachers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>I have learning problem.</td>
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<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>I like being late to school.</td>
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<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>I am always afraid of bullies.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX X

Disruptive Behaviour Questionnaire (DBQ)

The researcher adapted Veiga’s (2008) Disruptive Behaviour Questionnaire Professed by Students (DBS-PS) to measure participants’ predisposition to school disruptive behaviour like absenteeism, truancy, tardiness etc.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>D. B. S.</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I intentionally destroy or break school materials.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I physically attack my school mates.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I obey the teachers.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I speak without permission.</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I physically attack the teachers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I swear in the classroom.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I come to school under the influence of alcohol or drugs.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I leave my place, yell and cause other disturbances in the classroom.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I forget to bring my materials to the classroom.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I steal in the school.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I verbally attack the teacher.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I arrive punctually at school.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I miss classes.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>I do not pay attention in the classroom.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I verbally attack my school mates.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I threaten people at school.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX XI

Part II: Psychological Distress Scale

These items are to measure the level of psychological distress of participants. The test contains ten questions. For each item there are five response options based on how frequently the participants experience the particular problem. Read each item and put the appropriate score on the corresponding statement. The response and corresponding scores are as follows:

None of the time  =  1
A little of the time  =  2
Some of the time  =  3
Most of the time  =  4
All of the time  =  5

1. During the last four weeks how often do you feel tired out for no good reason? (   )
2. During the last four weeks about how often do you feel fidgeting? (   )
3. During the last four weeks about how often do you feel restless? (   )
4. During the last four weeks about how often do you feel that you could not sit still? (   )
5. During the last four weeks about how often do you feel depressed? (   )
6. During the last four weeks about how often do you feel nervous that nothing could calm you down? (   )
7. During the last four weeks how often do you feel hopeless? (   )
8. During the last four weeks about how often do you feel that everything was an effort? (   )
9. During the last four weeks about how often do you feel so sad that nothing could cheer you up? (   )
10. During the last four weeks about how often do you feel worthless? (   )
APPENDIX XII

**Parental Involvement Questionnaire** by Chu and Williams (1996) adapted by the researcher to measure level of participants and parental involvement and support for learning. Tick the appropriate column or number in the table below.

1. Never
2. Occasionally
3. Most of the time
4. All of the time

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Since the beginning of this school year, how often have your parent(s):</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>talked with you about planning your secondary school programmes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>discussed the subjects or programmes at school with you</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>discussed school activities or events of particular interest to you with you</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>checked on your home work as well as class notes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>limited the amount of time you spent for watching TV</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>limited the amount of time for going out to visit friends</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>stayed at home when you returned from school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>visited or called the school/teachers in relation to your academic performance, behaviour and social issues</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>attended school functions like PTA, open day and valedictory service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>volunteered to perform any task for your school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Phase I: Pre-Intervention Assessment
It took place one week before the commencement of the intervention package. The pre-intervention assessment instruments – Absenteeism Questionnaire (AQ), Disruptive Behaviour Questionnaire (DBQ), Truancy Questionnaire (TQ), School Engagement Questionnaire (SEQ), Psychological Distress Scale (PDS), and Parental Involvement Questionnaire (PIQ) were administered to the participants in the sampled schools in the three experimental groups. The pre-test lasted one week before the commencement of the intervention.

Phase II: Intervention
The sampled schools for the study were randomly assigned to intervention and control groups. The intervention group met once a week for eight weeks of sixty minutes per session while the control group was on the waiting list. School A had the intervention in the classroom every Tuesday throughout the eight (8) sessions for 1 hour while School B had their intervention in the classroom every Thursday throughout the eight (8) sessions for 1 hour respectively. The control group did not receive any training but was taught study habits at the end of the intervention on a later date.

Phase III: Post-Intervention Assessment
One week after the intervention sessions, the researcher re-administered the Absenteeism Questionnaire (AQ), Disruptive Behaviour (DBQ), Truancy Questionnaire (TQ), School Engagement Questionnaire (SEQ), Psychological Distress Scale (PDS) and Parental Involvement Questionnaire (PIQ) to all respondents in the experimental and control group. This was to ascertain the effects of the intervention on the participants.

Detailed Intervention Procedure
Social Learning Therapy
The therapy consists of personal and interpersonal skills designed to change the attitude and behaviour of truants’ learning by observing the actions of others. The social learning therapy focused on observation, imitation, modelling, communication, innovation,
determination and perseverance among the participants. The research assistants also served as models during the group sessions. In addition, the programme would help the models and participants to interact cordially and encourage novel behaviour. The researcher met the models once each week for feedback and further clarifications.

**Session 1: Establishment of Rapport.** The researcher established rapport with the participants. She introduced the goals of the therapy to them and were discussed with the participants. Also the researcher explained the objectives of the counselling programme, its procedure, duration and roles of the participants with emphasis on truancy.

**Session 2: Problem Exploration.** The intervention slogan was introduced “Hard work does not kill”. The researcher guided the participants to define truancy and the factors that make students practise it emanates from the family, school and community. Furthermore, the effects of truancy was discussed. The participants wrote down the salient points in their exercise books and took them home for their parents to comment on. The participants had refreshment as a motivation during the intervention to round off the session.

**Session 3: Identification of social skills** Review of the previous session. Attendance was taken to ensure punctuality. The researcher introduced observation, imitation and modelling through discussion. Also, the researcher assigned participants to groups with a model as the group leader. Models, researcher, and participants shared information on the effect of being early or late to the programme. The participants wrote their experiences from JSIII to SSII as assignment. They wrote the salient points in their exercise books for parents’ comments.

**Session 4: Discussion on assertiveness.** The researcher read the participants’ stories of how they become truants and the lessons learnt to the group. Attendance was taken to ensure punctuality. The groups role-played being assertive with the models as group leaders. The researcher observed the groups and discussed their performance, how to communicate freely and respect the views of others. The group leaders and members provided verbal reactions as feedback. The participants gave their notes to their parents for comments. Parents’ comments served as encouragement for the participants’ punctuality.
and also as feedback to the researcher about the participants’ progress during the intervention.

**Session 5: Identification of social skills.** Review of Previous Session with discussion on social skills needed to improve participants’ regular attendance at school such as respect for others, being punctual and politeness. The importance of good social skills and the disadvantages of poor social skills such as lateness and fighting were discussed. The participants identified peers, siblings, parents and teachers that they relate with. Furthermore, the participants expressed their views in relation to those mentioned above. The participants wrote the importance of social skills as assignment.

**Session 6: Identification of Challenges of Truants.** The researcher and participants define who a truant is and listed some challenges that truants encounter such as isolation, deprivation and rejection and their effects on them. Discussion on the assignment was done. The groups role played class disruptive behaviour such as avoiding class, cheating, leaving seats and speaking without permission. The researcher marked their notes and encouraged them to observe models within and outside the intervention session and also become models. Their work showed a remarkable improvement. The researcher answered questions from participants to round off the session.

**Session 7: General review of the previous Sessions** The participants shared their views, experience during the intervention and suggested ways of improving the skills learnt in the future. The participants also explained in turns the benefits of good social learning behaviour as it affects the individual and society. Their teachers explained that the participants were regular at school, which marked a great improvement in attendance and participation in school activities.

**Session 8: Summary and Termination** The researcher reviewed and summarised the sessions for the participants, entertained questions and comments from the various groups and terminated the counselling process. They were encouraged to guard against behaviour that can lead to truancy.
Intervention 2
Cognitive Behaviour Therapy
The strategy was designed to change the attitude and thinking of students towards truancy and regular school attendance. Cognitive behaviour therapy focused on helping the participants to improve by modifying their thoughts through communication and problem solving skills. Cognitive behaviour therapy strives to change participants’ perception about truancy. Also, to assist the participants’ to identify personal interest and skills needed to develop appropriate thought process that enhances positive thinking.

The objectives of the intervention were to change participants’ negative perception of school attendance, develop in them the importance of being punctual at school hence nip the negative behaviour of truants in the bud.

Session 1: Creating Rapport  The researcher established rapport through introduction of participants and models. The researcher ensured confidentiality and emphasized the need for trust. The need for active participation was stressed during the counselling sessions. The group rules, goals, objectives of the programme and time were emphasized with the slogan “Hard work does not kill”.

Session 2: Problem exploration. The researcher took the attendance of the participants. The participants define truancy as it emanates from the home, school and community.

The researcher guided the participants to list the negative behaviour that lead to truancy and their effects. Truancy is the absence of a student from school without permission from the parents/teachers. The researcher went through participants’ homework and it was discussed. They were asked to write their stories from JS3 to SS2 based on their personal experiences as an assignment. The researcher answered questions from participants to clarify doubts. Finally, participants had refreshments to round off the session.

Session 3: Identification of truants and their thought process. Review of Previous session and the assignment. The researcher introduced cognitive therapy to the participants explaining how their thoughts affect the way they feel. The participants were asked to write what they say to themselves when confronted with any difficult situation. The researcher illustrated some of the self-talk that result to self-defeating statement such as “I am not a bright student”, “I like being absent from school”, “I prefer my truant friends”. The researcher grouped the participants and their leaders and they role played negative self-talk that lead to truancy. Participants were asked to explain two ways of avoiding negative thoughts as assignment.
Session 4: Questioning our Thinking Error. Belief patterns such as laziness, lateness to school and absenteeism. The researcher went through their homework and there was a general discussion on the participants’ response. The researcher taught the participants how to eliminate negative thoughts by substituting them with desirable alternatives. The were guided to notice the activating events that trigger their thoughts and the consequences in order to challenge their thoughts for achievable goals. The participants recorded the salient points in their exercise books for parents’ comments. Birthday celebration was encouraged as a motivation among participants to round off the session.

Session 5: Creating rational thought. The researcher took attendance of participants. The researcher taught the participants how to create rational thought belief as substitutes for irrational self-talk such as, “I like being in school regularly”, “I prefer to be with hard working friends”, “Truancy reduces positive school attendance behaviour”. The researcher taught the participants how to think and verbalize the gains of regular school attendance and participation at school. Participants were asked to list three rational self-talk as assignment.

Session 6: Problem-solving loop. The researcher reviewed the assignment with the participants through discussion. The researcher used the problem-solving loop to illustrate to the participants steps to follow when faced with irregular school attendance and other life challenges. Identify the problem, list ways to solve it, select the best strategy, implement it and evaluate the outcome. The researcher taught the participants the importance of feedback from their interaction during the therapy. Discussion on problem-solving and parents’ comment on the participants’ activities. The participants role-played the ways of eliminating truancy which was discussed to round off the session.

Session 7: Review of participants’ attendance. The researcher reviewed the participants’ attendance during the programmes as successful. Each group shared their experiences and mentioned the benefits of good behaviour as it helps to reduce the rate of truancy among them. The teachers observed that the participants improved in attendance and continuous assessment. The session was rounded off with the advantages of early attendance and punctuality through discussion.
**Session 8: Summary and Termination**

The researcher reviewed and summarized the session entertained question and clarified doubts. Participants commented on the programmes and the achievement attained. They were advised to maintain their standard for a regular school attendance. The participants were encouraged to safely discuss their inner worlds – their thoughts, feelings and actions.

**Phase Three: Post Intervention Assessment**

A week after the intervention was completed, the researcher re-administered the Absenteeism Questionnaire (AQ), Disruptive Behaviour Questionnaire (DBQ), Truancy Questionnaire (TQ), School Engagement Questionnaire (SEQ), Psychological Distress Scale (PDS), and Parental Support and Involvement Questionnaire (PSIQ) to the participants in both the experimental and control groups. It was to evaluate the effect of social learning and cognitive therapy on truancy.

**Control Group**

Participants in the control group later received placebo lesson on how to manage their time wisely after the post-test assessment to enable them benefit from the study at a latter date. They participated in the pre-test and post-test assessment. The objective of the lesson was to enable them learn how to manager their time wisely in the course of their study.

**Session 1: Discussion on the value of time.** The researcher established rapport with the participants. The researcher guided the participants to explain the importance of time in their studies. Furthermore, effect of improper use of time was discussed. The researcher and participants listed some salient points about time such as: time is a valuable resource needed for success; it is very short and cannot be handled wastefully. Time is provided for every individual, and must be spent immediately it is received hence it is wasteful. It cannot be stored or transferred to anyone. Discussion on the fact that lack of time management contributes to low achievement in their school work. The participants listed other values of time as it relates to managing other aspects of life. They copied the salient points on the chalkboard into their exercise books.

**Summary:** The researcher reviewed the lesson with the participants through questioning and entertained comments and clarified their doubts. They were encouraged to make good use of time and avoid procrastination.