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3 **Nutritional Status of Adolescents in Public and Private Secondary Schools in Asaba,**
4 **Delta State**

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6
7 **ABSTRACT**

8 This study aimed to compare the nutritional status of adolescents in private and public
9 secondary schools in Asaba, Delta State. A cross-sectional analytical design was conducted
10 among 282 adolescents from private day, private boarding and public secondary schools,
11 selected by multistage sampling technique. Anthropometrics measures and socio-
12 demographic characteristics data were collected using pretested questionnaire. Using WHO-
13 reference-2007, height, BMI and weight-for-age were measured for stunting, wasting and
14 underweight respectively and BMI-for-age for overweight and obesity. The collected data
15 were entered in to Microsoft Excel and exported to SPSS for further statistical analysis. Chi-
16 square test at 95% confidence interval (CI) was used to quantify independent variables of
17 nutritional indices. The mean age of the students in public, private day, and private boarding
18 schools were 14.28 ± 2.79 , 13.54 ± 2.24 , and 14.04 ± 2.53 years, respectively. The prevalence of
19 stunting, thinness, underweight, normal weight and overweight among public school
20 participants was 31, 35, 29, 71, 0% respectively; that of private day school participants was
21 34, 45, 29, 63, 9%, respectively whereas that of private boarding school participants was 39,
22 47, 23, 61, 16%, respectively. These differences in the underweight and obesity were
23 statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). Statistical analyses revealed significant associations ($p < 0.05$)
24 between socioeconomic levels and underweight, highlighting the vulnerability of adolescents
25 from lower socio-economic backgrounds. The influence of poverty on stunting was
26 particularly pronounced within private boarding schools. The result also showed that there
27 was no significant association between thinness, stunting, underweight and eating patterns
28 among adolescents in all school types, however, significant association were observed for
29 overweight. Thus, nutrition interventions to improve nutritional status of the adolescents
30 through providing comprehensive nutritional assessment and counseling services at
31 community, school, and health facility levels, and creating household's income-generating
32 activities are recommended before they reach conception to break the intergenerational cycle
33 effect of malnutrition.

34
35 **Keywords:** Nutritional status; Adolescent; Schools; Malnutrition

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39 **INTRODUCTION**

40 An adolescent is a young person who is typically between the ages of 10 and 19 years old. An
41 adolescent is also a person who is in the stage of development between childhood and
42 adulthood. This stage typically begins with the onset of puberty, which marks the physical
43 and hormonal changes that occur during this period. Adolescence is that period of life in

44 which an adolescent learns healthy eating pattern which in future leads to healthy nutritional
45 status of an adolescent. An estimated 20% of the total world population are adolescents and
46 22% of the population in Nigeria according to the 2006 census report [1]. Adolescents are
47 viewed as a group of people who are at risk of nutritional deficiencies. This is because they
48 are inclined to unhealthy and nutritionally deficient choices, lack of physical activity, and
49 mental stress, which have an impact on their behavior and way of life. Consequently,
50 nutrition plays a vital role in the growth and development of adolescents, during which the
51 establishment of healthy dietary habits and lifestyle practices is of significant importance.
52 Quality education plays a crucial function in the advancement of the economy, society, and
53 politics. Presently, simply enrolling adolescents in educational institutions is insufficient, the
54 government must guarantee that adolescents achieve fundamental proficiency and abilities
55 required for individual welfare. Educational institutions play a significant role in shaping the
56 child's consciousness and character. Nutrition is also an essential aspect of human well-being,
57 existence, and cognitive growth throughout the complete lifespan [2]. As well, malnutrition is
58 considered a pressing problem that affects the ability of children to learn and could make
59 them perform at a lower level in school [3].

60 Malnutrition is still prevalent globally with the coexistence of both overnutrition and
61 undernutrition in developed countries affecting people of all ages [4, 5]. Adolescents are a
62 vulnerable group for malnutrition and its consequences due to rapid growth and development
63 and changes in dietary habits that may have influenced their nutrient intake [6]. Malnutrition
64 in adolescents occurs in different forms, particularly undernutrition including underweight for
65 age, too short for age (stunted), too thin relative to height (wasted), and functionally deficient
66 in vitamins and minerals [7]. Globally, over 340 million children and adolescents aged 5-
67 19 years are overweight and obese [8]. Obesity among children and adolescents is about one
68 out of 10 [1]. Adolescents are at an increased risk for under nutrition in low- and middle-
69 income countries such as Nigeria because of poverty and inadequate food intake.

70 Adolescents have become more vulnerable to malnutrition due to insufficient attention from
71 health programs and nutrition interventions. Despite being the last chance to prevent
72 undernutrition and break the cycle of malnutrition, they are often considered low-risk for
73 poor health and receive little attention. Nutrition interventions have mainly focused on infants
74 and pregnant/lactating women, leaving out adolescents who have additional nutrient demands
75 for growth and development. This has led to a lack of information on adolescent nutrition,
76 making it difficult for officials to develop appropriate strategies. Lack of physical activity and

77 consuming calorie-rich junk food has also caused obesity and other metabolic disorders
78 among adolescents, which has negatively impacted their nutritional status in Nigeria. At
79 the same time, an increasing occurrence of obesity and the chronic diseases associated with it is
80 being witnessed in developed nations among adolescents. In certain developing countries,
81 half of all children and adolescents are unable to reach their full genetic growth potential
82 because of insufficient nutrition, frequent illnesses, and lack of access to healthcare [9]. In
83 developing countries, adolescents experience a dual burden of malnutrition.

Comment [G1]: Where is the references 1 to 8? It should start at 1

84 The prevalence and pattern of various types of malnutrition such as wasting, stunting,
85 overweight and obesity vary within regions in Nigeria. Abdulkarim *et al.* [10] reported
86 overall prevalence of wasting, stunting, overweight and obesity among school going
87 adolescents, 10–19 years studying in various schools in Abuja Municipal area to be 1.7%,
88 11.3%, 13.2% and 1.7%, respectively. On the other hand, Kola-Raji *et al.* [1] reported
89 prevalence of stunting, underweight, normal weight, overweight and obesity among
90 adolescents in private school in Ibadan to be 2.5%, 39.3%, 51.9%, 8.0% and 0.8%
91 respectively, whereas that of public-school adolescents was 8.4%, 37.1%, 60.1%, 2.4% and
92 0.0%. Berhe *et al.* [11] reported the pooled prevalence of stunting and underweight to be
93 20.7% and 27.5% respectively. The consequences of undernutrition in adolescents include
94 delayed growth, intellectual development, and increased risk of various health problems.
95 Research has shown that factors such as rural/urban differences, socioeconomic status,
96 lifestyle habits, and physical activity levels are associated with malnutrition in
97 adolescents [12].

Comment [G2]: The citation must be correlative starting at 1 and continuing correlatively 2, 3, 4, etc.

98 In many developing nations, efforts to improve nutrition have primarily concentrated on
99 children and women, disregarding adolescents. Meeting the nutritional requirements of
100 adolescents may be a crucial move towards ending the cycle of malnutrition, long-term
101 illnesses, and destitution that passes from one generation to another. Conversely,
102 investigations into the causal factors of malnutrition among adolescents have been conducted
103 in various regions, including Ibadan [1], Abuja [10], Aba [13], Kano [14], Umahia [15], and
104 Calabar [16]. However, it is noteworthy that no analogous studies have been undertaken in
105 Asaba, Delta State. It is important to address the nutritional needs of adolescents as it can
106 accelerate economic development. The objective of this study was to assess the nutritional
107 status of adolescents in public and private secondary schools in Asaba, Delta State.

108 **METHODOLOGY**

109 **Research design:** The study adopted a cross sectional analytical design.

111 **Area of the Study:** The study was conducted in Asaba, which is the capital city of Delta
112 State in Nigeria. Asaba is situated on the western bank of the Niger River, with an estimated
113 population of 407,126 people. It spans an area of approximately 762 square kilometers (294
114 sq. miles) in the northern region of Delta State, located between latitude 06o141-6o151N and
115 longitude 06o40E1-6o451E in West Africa. The city is bounded on the east and northeast by
116 the river Niger and on the west by the rolling slopes of the Asaba plateau.

117 **Study Population:** The study population comprised of adolescents in private and public
118 Secondary Schools in Asaba that are registered under the ministry of basic and secondary
119 education.

120 **Inclusion criteria included:**

- 121 i. All private and public secondary schools operating in Asaba.
- 122 ii. Adolescents within a specific age range, such as 10-19 years old.
- 123 iii. All adolescent boys and girls attending private and public secondary schools in Asaba.

124 **Exclusion criteria included:**

- 125 i. Adolescents who are seriously ill.
- 126 ii. Schools not registered by the state ministry of education
- 127 iii. Adolescents who are unwilling for anthropometric measurements.
- 128 iv. Adolescents whose parents refused to give their consent.

129
130 **Sample and Sampling Technique**

131 **Sample Size:** The minimum sample size was determined using the formula for comparative
132 designs below [17].

$$N = \frac{[Z_{\alpha} + Z_{\beta}]^2 2p(1-p)}{d^2}$$

134 Where N= Minimum sample size for each group

135 Z_{α} = Percentage point of normal distribution corresponding to the two (two sided)
136 significance level. In this case, significance level is 5%, Z_{α} = 1.96

137 Z_{β} = Power of the test, which is conventionally 80%, Z_{β} = 0.84

138 p = Population proportion estimated to adolescent malnutrition from previous study
139 which is 26.7% or 0.267 [1].

140 $1-p$ = the variance of the proportions = $1-0.21 = 0.71$

141 d = the minimum difference to be detected by the study (20%) = 0.2

142 Substituting in the formula therefore:

$$N = \frac{[1.96 + 0.84]^2 2 * 0.267 * 0.71}{0.2^2} = \frac{2.972}{0.04} = 74$$

143

144 10% was added to take care of Attrition = $74+8= 82$

145 Furthermore, to enhance the precision of research findings, the researcher decided to augment
146 the sample by including an extra 12 adolescents. It is widely recognized that increasing the
147 sample size improves the accuracy of research findings, a principle supported by established
148 research methodologies.

149 Sample size = Public school (94) + Private day (94) + Private boarding (94) =282
150 adolescents.

151

152 **Sampling Technique**

153 A multistage sampling method was employed in this study.

154 **Stage one: Selection of Secondary Schools:** A Comprehensive list of schools registered in
155 the ministry of basic and secondary education was obtained. The list contains a total number
156 of seventy-day secondary schools. This comprise of 13 public schools and 57 private schools.
157 A simple random sampling technique was used. Five schools were selected from the public
158 and fourteen from the private secondary schools (seven day and seven boarding schools,
159 respectively) using balloting method.

160

161 **Stage Two: Selection of Class arm to be studied**

162 A minimum of 13 students from each private schools and 20 students from public schools
163 were selected from each school. From each of the six classes in each secondary school,
164 simple random sampling technique by balloting was used to select a classarm of students for
165 the study.

166 **Stage Three: Selection of students**

167 A systematic sampling technique was used, four students were required from each selected
168 class arm from the public and private schools. A class list containing the names of every
169 student in the selected class arm was obtained. This formed the sampling frame.

170 **Data Collection Instrument:** The study instrument was a semi-structured questionnaire,
171 weighing scale and stadiometer. The instrument was titled “nutritional status of adolescents
172 in private and public secondary schools in Asaba, Delta State”. The instrument was
173 developed to cover three (3) sections. Section A: Socio-demographic characteristics; Section
174 B: anthropometric measures and Section C: Factors affecting adolescents’ nutritional status.

175

176 **Scoring and Interpretation of Variables/Outcome Measures**

177 a) **Nutritional Status:** This was obtained using the Body Mass Index (BMI), a measure
178 of body fat based on a person's weight and height. A BMI score of less than 18.5

179 indicates underweight, 18.5-24.9 indicates normal weight, 25-29.9 indicates
180 overweight, and over 30 indicates obesity.

181 **b) Prevalence of malnutrition:** The prevalence of stunting, wasting and underweight was
182 calculated by dividing the number of children with stunted growth, wasting,
183 underweight, overweight and obesity by the total number of children in the population
184 being assessed.

185 **c) Types of Malnutrition:** A weight-for-height score below -2 standard deviations (-
186 2SD) from the reference median indicates moderate underweight, while a score below
187 -3SD indicates severe underweight. A weight-for-height score below -2 standard
188 deviations (-2SD) from the reference median indicates moderate wasting, while a
189 score below -3SD indicates severe wasting. A height-for-age score below -2 standard
190 deviations (-2SD) from the reference median indicates moderate stunting, while a
191 score below -3SD indicates severe stunting. A weight-for-height score above +1
192 standard deviation (+1SD) from the reference median indicates overweight, while a
193 score above +2SD indicates obesity [18].

194 **d) Factors associated with the nutritional status:** Poverty levels of the adolescents
195 was measured by wealth status comprising of dwelling characteristics such as floor
196 material, source of drinking water, type of house, and toilet facilities. Nutritional
197 knowledge of the adolescents was assessed using objective structured questions on
198 nutrition. The questions assessed their knowledge on nutrition terms of good health,
199 water intake, diet and disease. For a score-based indicator of knowledge, each
200 respondent was given a score based on the number of correct responses provided and
201 ranked from 0-15 points.

202 For item 1, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 14 and 15 each response was scored as follows: "Yes" = 1
203 point "No" = 0 point. This means that the sequencing of these items is related to food
204 that the adolescent should eat and be recommended to do. For item 2, 3, 4, 9, 10, 12
205 and 13 each response was scored as follows: "Yes" = 0 point "No" = 1 point. This
206 means that the sequencing of these items is related to understanding about nutrition
207 that the adolescents should not eat and not be recommended to do. The criterion of
208 knowledge level was based on the percentage of knowledge score and classified into
209 three groups following Bloom's criteria [19].

210 Score 0-8 (<60%) = Poor knowledge

211 Score 9-12 (60-80%) = Moderate knowledge

212 Score 13-15 (<80%) = Good knowledge

213
214 **Reliability of the Instrument:** The reliability of the instrument was established using
215 Cronbach Alpha method. A trial test was performed and scores were subjected to Cronbach
216 Alpha statistical reliability test to determine the reliability index of the instrument. The result
217 of the analysis of 0.75 indicated that the instrument was reliable.

218
219 **Data Collection and Administration:** The researcher obtained a letter of introduction from
220 the Head of Department, Community Medicine and Primary Health to the selected schools.
221 Then the researcher also wrote a letter seeking for permission from Delta state ministry of
222 basic and secondary education to carry out the research in the selected schools. The researcher
223 administered the questionnaires to the respondents in their class rooms.

224
225 **Ethical Consideration:** Ethical approval for the study was obtained from the Human
226 Research Ethics committee of Nnamdi Azikiwe University Awka. Informed consent was
227 obtained freely without coercion from respondents and assuring them of respect for the
228 confidentiality of the data obtained from them. The objective of the study was thoroughly
229 explained to them and that they were free to opt-out of the study any time they wished to do
230 so.

231
232 **Data Analysis:** After data collection, data was thoroughly screened, reviewed, compiled and
233 checked for its completeness, consistency and accuracy by the researcher and the data
234 analysis was done as per the objectives of the study. Editing, classifying, coding and entry of
235 data was done using Microsoft Excel and analysis carried out using Statistical Product
236 Service Solution (SPSS) version 23.0. Descriptive analysis such as frequencies, percentage
237 and means were calculated. Categorical variables were presented as frequency and
238 percentages. Association between categorical variables like nutritional status, types of
239 malnutrition and prevalence of malnutrition was determined using Chi-square test of
240 association. Level of significance was determined at p value =0.05.

241 242 **RESULTS**

243 **Demographic Characteristics of the Adolescents**

244 The demographic characteristics of the adolescents are presented in Table 1. A total of 282
245 adolescents took part in the study. The mean age \pm standard deviation (SD) of the study
246 participants in public, private day, and private boarding schools were 14.28 \pm 2.79,

247 13.54±2.24, and 14.04±2.53 years, respectively. Regarding gender distribution, slightly less
 248 than two-fifths, 108 (38.30%), of the participants were males, while the majority, 174
 249 (61.70%), were females. In terms of academic levels, the majority were in JSS3 (72 or
 250 25.53%) and SS1 (73 or 25.89%), followed by 31 (10.99%) in JSS1, 44 (15.60%) in JSS2, 33
 251 (11.70%) in SS2, and 29 (10.28%) in SS3. Regarding religious affiliation, the majority, 226
 252 (80.14%), identified as Christians, 41 (14.54%) as Muslims, and 15 (5.32%) belonged to
 253 other religions.

254
 255 **Table 1. Demographic and socioeconomic-related characteristics of school's adolescents**
 256 **in Asaba, Delta State (n = 282)**

Variables	Public		Private Day		Private Boarding	
	N (94)	%	N (94)	%	N (94)	%
Age						
10 -13	35	37.23	42	44.68	45	47.87
14 – 16	40	42.55	37	39.36	32	34.04
17 – 19	19	20.21	15	15.96	17	18.09
Mean ± SD	14.28±2.79		13.54±2.24		14.04±2.53±2.53	
Sex						
Male	33	35.11	33	35.11	42	44.68
Female	61	64.89	61	64.89	52	55.32
Class						
JSS1	12	12.77	10	10.64	9	9.57
JSS2	9	9.57	16	17.02	19	20.21
JSS3	33	35.11	11	11.70	28	29.79
SS1	19	20.21	36	38.30	18	19.15
SS2	11	11.70	11	11.70	11	11.70
SS3	10	10.64	10	10.64	9	9.57
Religion						
Christian	94	100.00	71	75.53	61	64.89
Islam	-	-	23	24.47	18	19.15
Others	-	-	-	-	15	15.96

257
 258 **Prevalence and types of malnutrition among adolescents in Asaba, Delta State**
 259 Table 2 shows the prevalence and types of malnutrition among adolescents in Asaba, Delta
 260 State. The prevalence of thinness (BAZ < - 2 SD) among students in public, private day, and
 261 private boarding schools was 35%, 45%, and 47%, respectively (p>0.05). Regarding stunting
 262 (HAZ < - 2 SD), the overall prevalence rates were 31%, 34%, and 39% for public, private
 263 day, and private boarding schools, respectively (p>0.05). Concerning overweight, the
 264 prevalence was 8% in private day schools and 16% in private boarding schools, with no
 265 overweight recorded in public schools (p<0.000). Notably, obesity was not observed in any
 266 of the adolescents across all school types. The prevalence of severe thinness (BAZ < - 3 SD)

267 was 2% for both public and private day schools, with none recorded for private boarding
268 schools. The prevalence of severe stunting was 3% and was only observed in public schools
269 ($p<0.000$).In terms of the nutritional status of the adolescents according to the body mass
270 index (BMI), 29% of adolescents from public and private day schools were underweight,
271 respectively, while 23% of adolescents from private boarding schools were underweight
272 ($p=0.030$).

273
274

UNDER PEER REVIEW

275 **Table 2.** Anthropometric status of study participants of school adolescents in Asaba, Delta State (N = 282)

Variables	Categories	Public		Private Day		Private Boarding		p-value
		N (94)	%	N (94)	%	N (94)	%	
Height for age (Stunting)	Severe stunting	3	3	-	-	-	-	0.000
	Moderate stunting	26	28	32	34	37	39	0.640
	Not stunted	65	69	62	66	57	61	0.984
BMI (kg/m ²)	Underweight (<18.5kg/m ²)	27	29	27	29	22	23	0.030
	Normal weight (>18.5kg/m ²)	67	71	59	63	57	61	0.823
	Overweight (>25 kg/m ²)	-	-	8	9	15	16	0.000
	Obesity (>30 kg/m ²)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Weight for age (thinness)	Severely thin	2	2	2	2	-	-	0.000
	Moderately thin	31	33	40	43	44	47	0.367
	Normal	61	65	52	55	50	53	0.849

276 **Factors associated with thinness, stunting, underweight and overweight of adolescents**

277 **Factors associated with stunting among school adolescents' in Asaba, Delta State**

278 The findings extracted from Tables 3 and 4 offer valuable insights into the factors associated
279 to stunting among school adolescents in Asaba, Delta State. The study examined a range of
280 factors across different types of schools: public, private day, and private boarding. Regarding
281 poverty levels, the chi-square (χ^2) value was found to be 0.203, 1.144 and 7.372 for public,
282 private day and private boarding schools, respectively and p-value=0.203, 0.564 and 0.025
283 which showed no significant association between stunting and poverty levels among
284 adolescents in public and private day schools. However, a significant association between
285 high poverty levels and stunting was observed in private boarding schools
286 ($p=0.025$). Socioeconomic levels also emerged as significant factors, with low socioeconomic
287 levels being connected to stunting in private day schools ($p=0.004$). In terms of nutritional
288 knowledge, the chi-square (χ^2) value was found to be 3.933, 2.011 and 2.051 for public,
289 private day and private boarding schools, respectively and p-value=0.140, 0.366 and 0.359
290 which showed no significant association between stunting and poverty levels among
291 adolescents in all school types. Similarly, eating patterns did not reveal significant
292 associations with stunting in public and private day schools. Nonetheless, a significant
293 association was noted in private boarding schools ($p=0.067$).

294
295

Comment [G3]: What is this? the double subtitle is not understood

Table 3. Factors associated with stunting among school adolescents' in Asaba, Delta State

Factors	Public		Private Day		Private Boarding	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Poverty levels						
High	2 (2.13%)	6(6.38%)	17(18.09%)	33(35.11%)	10(10.64%)	4(4.26)
Medium	23(24.47%)	49(52.13%)	13(13.83%)	21(22.34%)	2(2.13%)	6(6.38%)
Low	4(4.26%)	10(10.64%)	2(2.13%)	8(8.51%)	25(26.60%)	47(50.00%)
Socioeconomic levels						
High	-	-	6(6.38%)	33(35.11%)	17(18.09%)	33(35.11%)
Medium	16(17.02%)	38(40.43%)	22(23.40%)	22(23.40%)	10(10.64%)	12(12.77%)
Low	13(3.19%)	27(28.72%)	4(4.26%)	7(7.45%)	10(10.64%)	12(12.77%)
Nutritional knowledge						
High	7(7.45%)	22(23.40%)	5(5.32%)	7(7.45%)	2(2.13%)	7(7.45%)
Moderate	15(15.96%)	37(39.36%)	25(12.77%)	45(47.87%)	25(26.60%)	31(32.98%)
Low	7(7.45%)	6(6.38%)	2(2.13%)	10(10.64%)	10(10.64%)	19(20.21%)
Eating pattern						
Excellent	-	2(2.13%)	7(7.45%)	10(10.64%)	12(12.77%)	12(12.77%)
Fair	27(28.72%)	63(67.02%)	17(18.09%)	41(43.62%)	18(19.15%)	28(29.79%)
Poor	2(2.13%)	-	8(8.51%)	11(11.70%)	7(7.45%)	17(18.08%)

Comment [G4]: Maybe is better the fusion of both tables similar to table 9

298 **Table 4. Chi-square tests for the association with between poverty levels,**
 299 **socioeconomic status, nutritional knowledge, eating pattern and stunting among school**
 300 **adolescents' in Asaba, Delta State**

Factors	Public		Private day		Private boarding	
	χ^2	p-value	χ^2	p-value	χ^2	p-value
Poverty levels	0.203	0.904	1.144	0.564	7.372	0.025
Socioeconomic status	0.089	0.766	11.063	0.040	1.287	0.526
Nutritional knowledge	3.933	0.140	2.011	0.366	2.051	0.359
Eating pattern	5.406	0.067	1.514	0.469	2.184	0.336

301 **Factors associated with Thinness among school adolescents' in Asaba, Delta State**

302 The findings, as presented in Table 4, illuminate the factors connected with thinness among
 303 school adolescents in Asaba, Delta State. The study investigated various factors across three
 304 types of schools: public, private day, and private boarding. Regarding poverty levels, the chi-
 305 square (χ^2) value was found to be 3.624, 2.165 and 11.042 for public, private day and private
 306 boarding schools, respectively and p-value=0.163, 0.339 and 0.040 which showed no
 307 significant association between thinness and poverty levels among adolescents in public and
 308 private day schools. However, within private boarding schools, a significant association
 309 between high poverty levels and thinness was observed ($p=0.004$). Socioeconomic levels also
 310 demonstrated a significant association with thinness, as low socioeconomic levels were
 311 correlated with thinness in public schools ($p=0.066$). In terms of nutritional knowledge, no
 312 significant associations were found across the school types. The chi-square (χ^2) value was
 313 found to be 0.913, 4.261 and 2.240 for public, private day and private boarding schools,
 314 respectively and p-value=0.633, 0.119 and 0.326 which showed no significant association
 315 between thinness and nutritional knowledge among adolescents in all school types. Regarding
 316 eating pattern, the chi-square (χ^2) value was found to be 4.796, 4.976 and 0.913 for public,
 317 private day and private boarding schools, respectively and p-value=0.091, 0.083 and 0.634
 318 which showed no significant association between thinness and eating patterns among
 319 adolescents in all school types.
 320

Table 5. Factors associated with thinness among school adolescents' in Asaba, Delta State

Factors	Public		Private Day		Private Boarding	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Poverty levels						
High	4(4.26%)	4(4.26%)	23(24.47%)	27(12.77%)	12(12.77%)	2(2.13%)
Medium	27(28.72%)	45(47.87%)	12(12.77%)	22(23.40%)	4(4.26%)	4(4.26%)
Low	2(2.13%)	12(12.77%)	6(6.38%)	4(4.26%)	27(12.77%)	45(47.87%)
Socioeconomic levels						
High	-	-	27(28.72%)	12(12.77%)	23(24.47%)	27(28.72%)
Medium	15(15.96%)	39(41.49%)	21(22.34%)	23(24.47%)	8(8.51%)	14(14.89%)
Low	18(19.15%)	22(23.40%)	5(5.32%)	6(6.38%)	12(12.77%)	10(10.64%)
Nutritional knowledge						
High	9(9.56%)	20(21.28%)	5(5.32%)	7(7.45%)	5(5.32%)	4(4.26%)
Moderate	18(19.15%)	34(36.17%)	34(36.17%)	34(36.17%)	28(29.79%)	28(29.79%)
Low	6(6.38%)	7(7.45%)	2(2.13%)	10(10.64%)	10(10.64%)	19(20.21%)
Eating pattern						
Excellent	-	2(2.13%)	8(8.51%)	9(9.56%)	12(12.77%)	12(12.77%)
Fair	31(32.98%)	59(62.77%)	29(30.85%)	29(30.85%)	22(23.40%)	24(25.53%)
Poor	2(2.13%)	-	4(4.26%)	15(15.96%)	9(9.56%)	15(15.96%)

Comment [G5]: Maybe is better the fusion of both tables similar to table 9

322 **Table 6. Chi-square tests for the association with between poverty levels,**
 323 **socioeconomic status, nutritional knowledge, eating pattern and thinness among school**
 324 **adolescents' in Asaba, Delta State**

Factors	Public		Private day		Private boarding	
	χ^2	p-value	χ^2	p-value	χ^2	p-value
Poverty levels	3.624	0.163	2.165	0.339	11.042	0.040
Socioeconomic status	2.992	0.084	4.492	0.106	1.468	0.480
Nutritional knowledge	0.913	0.633	4.261	0.119	2.240	0.326
Eating pattern	4.796	0.091	4.976	0.083	0.913	0.634

325
 326 **Factors associated with Underweight among school adolescents' in Asaba, Delta State**

327 Tables 7 and 8 shows the factors associated with adolescent underweight in Asaba, Delta
 328 State. Regarding poverty levels, the chi-square (χ^2) value was found to be 9.104, 8.322 and
 329 7.724 for public, private day and private boarding schools, respectively and p-value=0.001,
 330 0.004 and 0.023 which showed a significant association between underweight and poverty
 331 levels among adolescents in all school types. Furthermore, a significant association was
 332 established between socioeconomic levels and underweight in all schools. The chi-square
 333 (χ^2) value was found to be 9.451, 6.941 and 10.431 for public, private day and private
 334 boarding schools, respectively and p-value=0.001, 0.032 and 0.001. In terms of nutritional
 335 knowledge, no significant associations were found across the school types. The chi-square
 336 (χ^2) value was found to be 1.731, 2.043 and 2.211 for public, private day and private
 337 boarding schools, respectively and p-value=0.167, 0.302 and 0.302. On the other hand, a
 338 significant statistical association was observed pertaining to eating patterns and underweight
 339 across public ($p=0.020$), private day ($p=0.050$), and private boarding ($p<0.001$) schools.

340

341 **Table 7. Factors associated with underweight among school adolescents' in Asaba, Delta State**

Factors	Public		Private day		Private Boarding	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Poverty levels						
High	2(2.13%)	18(19.15%)	13(13.83%)	40(42.55%)	6(6.38%)	16(17.02%)
Medium	27(28.72%)	47(50.00%)	6(6.38%)	17(18.09%)	-	-
Low	-	-	4(4.26%)	14(14.89%)	16(17.02%)	56(59.57%)
Socioeconomic levels						
High	-	-	6(6.38%)	19(20.21%)	12(12.77%)	51(54.26%)
Medium	19(20.21%)	36(38.30%)	15(15.96%)	42(44.68%)	6(6.38%)	12(12.77%)
Low	10(10.64%)	29(30.85%)	2(2.13%)	10(10.64%)	4(4.26%)	9(9.57%)
Nutritional knowledge						
High	11(11.70%)	21(22.34%)	5(5.32%)	16(17.02%)	-	-
Moderate	12(12.77%)	29(30.85%)	14(14.89%)	46(48.94%)	14(14.89%)	53(56.38%)
Low	6(6.38%)	15(15.96%)	4(4.26%)	9(9.57%)	8(8.51%)	19(20.21%)
Eating pattern						
Excellent	-	-	4(4.26%)	11(11.70%)	4(4.26%)	14(14.89%)
Fair	27(28.72%)	52(55.32%)	15(15.96%)	47(50.00%)	14(14.89%)	45(47.87%)
Poor	2(2.13%)	13(13.83%)	4(4.26%)	13(13.83%)	4(4.26%)	13(13.83%)

Comment [G6]: Maybe is better the fusion of both tables similar to table 9

342 **Table 8. Chi-square tests for the association with between poverty levels,**
 343 **socioeconomic status, nutritional knowledge, eating pattern and underweight among**
 344 **school adolescents' in Asaba, Delta State**

Factors	Public		Private day		Private boarding	
	χ^2	p-value	χ^2	p-value	χ^2	p-value
Poverty levels	9.104	0.001	8.322	0.004	7.724	0.023
Socioeconomic status	9.451	0.001	6.941	0.032	10.431	0.001
Nutritional knowledge	1.731	0.167	2.043	0.302	2.211	0.302
Eating pattern	6.348	0.020	4.976	0.050	9.631	0.001

345

346 **Factors associated with overweight among school adolescents' in Asaba, Delta State**

347 Tables9 shows the factors associated with adolescent overweight in Asaba, Delta State.
 348 Regarding poverty levels, the chi-square (χ^2) value was found to be 10.233 and 9.213 for
 349 private day and private boarding schools, respectively and p-value=0.001 and 0.003 which
 350 showed that there was an association between poverty levels and the occurrence of
 351 overweight.

352 A significant association was also identified between socioeconomic levels and overweight
 353 within private day ($p=0.023$) and private boarding ($p<0.001$) schools. Adolescents stemming
 354 from lower socioeconomic backgrounds exhibited higher odds of being overweight in
 355 comparison to those with higher and medium socioeconomic backgrounds.

356 Furthermore, the study highlights a statistically significant association between nutritional
 357 knowledge and overweight within private day ($p=0.004$) and private boarding ($p=0.020$)
 358 schools. Adolescents possessing poor nutritional knowledge demonstrated greater odds of
 359 being overweight when compared to those with limited nutritional knowledge, as opposed to
 360 individuals with moderate and high nutritional knowledge. Regarding eating patterns, the chi-
 361 square (χ^2) value was found to be 8.011 and 9.305 for private day and private boarding
 362 schools, respectively and p-value=0.005 and 0.002 which showed that there was an
 363 association between eating patterns and the occurrence of overweight. Adolescents with
 364 inadequate eating patterns were more prone to experiencing overweight compared to their
 365 peers with fair and moderate eating patterns.

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Table 9. Factors associated with overweight among school adolescents' in Asaba, Delta State

Factors	Public		Private Day		Private Boarding		χ^2	P-value	χ^2	P-value
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No				
Poverty levels										
High	-	-	4	45	10.233	0.001	-	-	9.213	0.003
Medium	-	-	4	41			2	22		
Low	-	-	-	-			13	57		
Socioeconomic levels					9.102	0.023			11.212	0.001
High	-	-	4	35			11	54		
Medium	-	-	2	22			2	12		
Low	-	-	2	29			2	13		
Nutritional knowledge					9.751	0.004			10.543	0.020
High	-	-	-	-			-	-		
Moderate	-	-	4	44			8	42		
Low	-	-	4	42			7	37		
Eating pattern					8.011	0.005			9.305	0.002
Excellent	-	-	-	-			2	21		
Fair	-	-	6	51			10	33		
Poor	-	-	2	35			3	25		

373

DISCUSSIONS

374
375 From the results of this study, the percentage of stunting in public schools, private boarding
376 and private day were found to be 31%, 32% and 37%, respectively. The percentage of
377 stunting was higher in the private boarding schools and lower in the public schools, however,
378 no significant ($p>0.05$) relationship existed. The overall average percentage of stunting across
379 all participants was reported as 34.8%. This prevalence of stunting is slightly lower than that
380 reported by Esimai and Ojofeitimi[20] among the adolescents in Port Harcourt (36.3%). This
381 prevalence is higher than that of Nwoke *et al.* [13], who reported stunting prevalence of 7%
382 and 25% among adolescent boys in private and public schools, respectively in Aba, Abia
383 State. This stark contrast highlights the considerable disparities in adolescent nutritional
384 status even within the same country. This could be attributed to regional variations in socio-
385 economic conditions, dietary patterns, cultural practices, and healthcare access, reaffirming
386 the need for targeted interventions tailored to specific contexts. The higher prevalence of
387 stunting in private boarding schools suggests chronic under-nutrition, which might result in
388 slowing the metabolic process of maturation [21]. This could be due to the living environment

Comment [G7]: Maybe should be better summarize

389 which could influence dietary habits. Adolescents living away from home might have fewer
390 opportunities to make healthy food choices due to limited control over their diets. Lack of
391 parental oversight on dietary choices could lead to less balanced diets and potentially
392 contribute to stunting.

393 The prevalence of thinness in public schools, private boarding schools, and private day
394 schools was identified as 35%, 43%, and 47%, respectively. Similarly, the occurrence of
395 thinness was greater in private boarding schools and lower in public schools; however, no
396 statistically significant relationship was observed ($p>0.05$). Factors such as limited physical
397 activity, sedentary behaviours, and sleep patterns in boarding schools might influence
398 metabolic rates and energy expenditure, potentially leading to thinness. The overall average
399 percentage of thinness across all participants was documented as 42.2%. This prevalence is
400 comparatively lower when contrasted with the findings of Ejike *et al.* [15] reporting 24.2%
401 prevalence among adolescent boys in the eastern region of Nigeria. Furthermore, the
402 prevalence reported here falls below the rate of 60.6% reported by Mijinyawa *et al.* [14] for
403 adolescents in Kano. This substantial difference emphasizes the diverse nutritional challenges
404 faced by adolescents across different regions within the same country. Socio-economic
405 factors, cultural practices, and regional disparities likely contribute to these variations in
406 prevalence rates.

407 The occurrence of being underweight in public schools, private boarding schools, and private
408 day schools was identified as 29%, 29%, and 23%, respectively. The prevalence of
409 underweight was higher in private day and public schools, and lower in private boarding
410 schools ($p<0.030$). The overall average percentage of overweight among all participants was
411 recorded as 28.7%. This prevalence is comparatively lower when contrasted with the
412 prevalence of 39.3% reported by Kaji-Raji *et al.* [1] in both private and public boarding
413 secondary schools in Ibadan. However, it is slightly higher than the prevalence of 21%
414 reported by Nwoke *et al.* (2017) for adolescents in Aba, Abia State. The findings of this study
415 also diverge from those of Kaji-Raji *et al.* [1], who reported a higher prevalence of
416 underweight in public schools than in private schools. This discrepancy was attributed to
417 inadequate social and healthcare services within the country. Several factors could potentially
418 contribute to the observed higher prevalence of underweight among adolescents in public
419 schools compared to their counterparts in private boarding schools, as revealed by this study.
420 These factors encompass socio-economic conditions, access to nutrition, healthcare
421 disparities, and environmental influences.

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422 The percentage of adolescents who had normal weight in the public-school category was 71%
423 while that of private day and boarding schools were 63% and 61%, respectively. These values
424 were higher than the prevalence of 51.9% and 60% reported by Kola-Raji *et al.* [1] for
425 adolescents in private and public schools in Ibadan. The result showed that the prevalence of
426 normal weight among adolescents in the public schools was higher than that of adolescents in
427 the private day and boarding schools which agreed with the findings of Kola-Raji *et al.* [1].
428 The prevalence of being overweight in private boarding schools and private day schools was
429 recorded as 9% and 16%, respectively, while none of the adolescents in public schools were
430 found to be overweight. Several factors could help elucidate why adolescents in public
431 schools exhibited a lower prevalence of overweight. Public schools often cater to a more
432 diverse socio-economic demographic, encompassing a range of income levels. Adolescents in
433 these schools might have limited access to discretionary income, which could potentially
434 translate into a diet that is relatively simpler and less reliant on energy-dense foods. This
435 economic constraint might contribute to a lower likelihood of overweight. The prevalence of
436 overweight displayed a significant difference ($p < 0.001$), with private boarding schools
437 exhibiting a higher prevalence compared to private day schools. Private boarding schools
438 often encompass an all-encompassing residential setting where adolescents spend extended
439 periods away from home. The controlled environment of boarding schools can impact dietary
440 choices, access to physical activity, and exposure to various lifestyle factors. The higher
441 prevalence of overweight in private boarding schools could be attributed to factors such as
442 limited opportunities for outdoor activities, a higher likelihood of sedentary behaviours, and a
443 cafeteria-style meal system that may offer fewer nutritious food options compared to private
444 day schools. Socio-economic conditions also play a pivotal role. Private boarding schools
445 typically cater to students from more affluent backgrounds. The potential availability of
446 discretionary income might lead to increased consumption of energy-dense, nutrient-poor
447 foods, contributing to higher rates of overweight. Additionally, the presence of amenities that
448 promote a sedentary lifestyle, such as televisions and video games in boarding facilities,
449 might contribute to reduced physical activity levels, further exacerbating the risk of
450 overweight. The overall average percentage of overweight among all participants was
451 registered as 8.2%. In comparison, this prevalence is relatively lower when juxtaposed with
452 the prevalence rates of 13.2% reported by Abdulkarim *et al.* [10] among adolescents in
453 secondary schools in the Abuja Municipal area, and 11.4% among adolescents in secondary
454 schools in Calabar as reported by Ene-Obong *et al.* [16]. These variations could be attributed

455 to factors such as regional disparities in dietary habits, lifestyle, and socio-economic
456 conditions. A study conducted by Musa *et al.* (2012) in Benue similarly indicated a
457 prevalence of overweight at 9.7%, which aligns with the prevalence obtained in this study.
458 Notably, none of the adolescents were classified as obese. This finding might reflect an
459 encouraging trend, but a holistic view necessitates considering the potential implications of
460 overweight on the long-term health trajectories of adolescents.

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461 The results pertaining to the association between poverty levels and stunting are noteworthy.
462 Despite high poverty levels being prevalent, the data does not indicate significant
463 associations with stunting across all three school types. This implies that, in the context of
464 this study, the influence of high poverty levels on stunting might not be uniform across
465 different types of schools. However, it is important to highlight a significant association
466 between high poverty levels and stunting specifically in private boarding schools. This
467 finding suggests that the impact of poverty on stunting might be more pronounced within the
468 private boarding school environment. Socioeconomic levels emerged as a significant factor in
469 this study. Low socioeconomic levels were found to be linked to stunting among students
470 attending private day schools. This finding agrees with the study of Jonah *et al.* [23] who
471 reported that families with low socioeconomic levels (poor families) are at a much higher risk
472 of having stunted child than high socioeconomic families. However, Santosa *et al.* [24]
473 reported that family socioeconomics was not significant in determining maternal factors that
474 cause stunting in children. The association between family socioeconomic status and child
475 stunting might vary depending on the life stage being examined. The geographical location,
476 cultural practices, economic conditions, and healthcare systems within which the studies were
477 conducted might differ significantly. These variations can impact the prevalence of stunting
478 and the factors contributing to it. This highlights the role of socioeconomic factors in
479 contributing to stunting, particularly within the private day school setting. The significance of
480 this association underscores the need for targeted interventions to address socioeconomic
481 disparities that might contribute to stunting among adolescents in these schools. The study of
482 nutritional knowledge and its relation to stunting yielded interesting results. While no
483 significant associations were identified across the various school types, it is important to
484 acknowledge that this finding might suggest a more consistent level of nutritional awareness
485 among students regardless of school type. This could potentially indicate a positive aspect of
486 the education system's effectiveness in imparting nutritional knowledge to adolescents.

487 Examining the impact of poverty levels on thinness, the data revealed intriguing patterns.
488 While high poverty levels did not exhibit significant associations with thinness across all
489 school types collectively, a distinctive outcome emerged within the realm of private boarding
490 schools. Notably, a significant association between high poverty levels and thinness was
491 observed specifically within private boarding schools. This finding implies that the influence
492 of poverty on thinness might vary across different school settings, with private boarding
493 schools demonstrating a heightened vulnerability of thinness among students facing high
494 poverty levels. Socioeconomic levels also demonstrated intriguing trends in relation to
495 thinness. A significant association was observed between low socioeconomic levels and
496 thinness in public schools. This suggests that socioeconomic disparities could be contributing
497 to the prevalence of thinness among students in public school environments. Although the
498 association did not reach statistical significance. Exploring the role of nutritional knowledge
499 in relation to thinness, the study did not find significant associations across the various school
500 types. However, a significant association was noted in private day schools. This result
501 indicates the possibility of a subtle connection between nutritional knowledge and thinness
502 specifically within the context of private day schools. Similarly, the findings of eating
503 patterns and their association with thinness yielded noteworthy insights. Although significant
504 associations were not detected in public and private boarding schools, a significant
505 association was identified in public schools. This indicates that eating patterns might play a
506 role in thinness among students in public schools.

507 The findings of poverty levels and their impact on underweight prevalence yielded
508 particularly noteworthy results. Across all school types, the presence of significant
509 associations between poverty levels and underweight was evident. Adolescents hailing from
510 lower poverty levels exhibited an increased vulnerability to underweight in stark contrast to
511 those from higher and medium poverty levels. This finding underscores the pervasive
512 influence of socioeconomic disparities on underweight prevalence, transcending school
513 types. Socioeconomic levels emerged as another pivotal factor influencing underweight
514 among school adolescents. Adolescents originating from lower socioeconomic backgrounds
515 demonstrated a heightened likelihood of underweight compared to their counterparts from
516 higher and medium socioeconomic backgrounds. The results of this study align with that
517 Farooq *et al.* [25] who reported that the family's wealth index quintile was significantly
518 associated with underweight status of children in Punjab. Similarly, Galgamuwa *et al.* [26]
519 reported that living in small houses, large number of family members, low monthly income

520 and maternal employment were significantly associated with undernutrition among school
521 children. This result underscores the importance of addressing socioeconomic inequalities in
522 combating underweight across diverse educational settings.

523 Based on the findings of the chi square analysis of the data, no significant association was
524 observed between nutritional knowledge and underweight. In actuality, the nutritional status
525 of adolescents was predominantly within the normal range, while their nutrition knowledge
526 was deemed satisfactory. These two sets of data appeared to exhibit a linear trend, yet no
527 direct causal association was established. It should be noted that possessing sound nutrition
528 knowledge does not consistently result in making nutritious dietary choices; this aspect is
529 also influenced by habits and purchasing power capabilities. A prior study indicated that there
530 was a lack of significant association between nutrition knowledge and nutritional status
531 among junior high school students in the Kerjo Subdistrict of Karanganyar District [28].
532 Veronika *et al.* [28] also reported that there was no significant association between nutrition
533 knowledge and nutritional status. It was underscored that nutrition knowledge played a
534 pivotal role in shaping the food preferences and choices of the subjects. The reason behind
535 the absence of a link between nutritional status and knowledge is likely due to the indirect
536 impact of knowledge on nutritional intake, which contrasts with the more direct influence it
537 exerts on status [29]. Furthermore, adolescents with suboptimal eating patterns were found to
538 be at a heightened likelihood of encountering underweight compared to peers with fair and
539 moderate eating patterns. This highlights the role of dietary habits in shaping the prevalence
540 of underweight across different school environments.

541 The presence of significant statistical association, particularly within private day and private
542 boarding schools, indicates that adolescents with lower poverty levels are more susceptible to
543 overweight compared to their peers from higher and medium poverty levels. This emphasizes
544 the importance of considering economic disparities when addressing overweight in these
545 school environments. Similarly, the study highlights the substantial influence of
546 socioeconomic levels on the likelihood of overweight within private day and private boarding
547 schools. The statistically significant connection observed within private day and private
548 boarding schools signifies that adolescents from lower socioeconomic backgrounds face
549 elevated odds of being overweight compared to those with higher and medium
550 socioeconomic backgrounds. This result underscores the need for targeted interventions to
551 address socioeconomic factors in combating overweight among students. These findings agree
552 well with the study of Hoebel *et al.* [30] who reported that the prevalence of overweight and

553 obesity was highest among girls and boys from families of low SES. Overweight in
554 adolescence are a worldwide health problem. Overweight represent one of the most important
555 public health challenges in terms of noncommunicable diseases in the 21st century [31]. The
556 relationship between overweight or obesity and socioeconomic status (SES) in adolescence
557 has long been known internationally and shows that not all population groups are affected
558 with equal frequency [32]. Chen *et al.* [33] also discovered that children from more
559 privileged socioeconomic backgrounds, living in urban or suburban settings with higher
560 levels of paternal education and family income, exhibited a higher prevalence of overweight
561 in comparison to those from less advantaged backgrounds. Nevertheless, this outcome stands
562 in contrast to the findings reported by Liang [34], necessitating further investigation to
563 authenticate the current outcomes. Liu *et al.* [35] identified a significant protective interaction
564 effect between paternal education and household wealth in relation to the risk of obesity
565 among girls. However, they did not detect a significant disparity in the prevalence of
566 childhood obesity across various levels of household wealth. This discrepancy from our
567 results highlights an inconsistency. The dissimilar impacts of socioeconomic status on
568 overweight, as observed in the aforementioned studies, might arise from variations in
569 classification criteria, representation areas, and sample sizes. This study employed meticulous
570 classification criteria (comprising three levels) to define parental poverty and socioeconomic
571 status. This meticulous approach implies that the outcomes of the present study could be
572 more dependable than those of previous research, addressing the potential limitations of
573 earlier studies.

574 Furthermore, the study elucidates the role of nutritional knowledge in relation to overweight.
575 The statistically significant association identified within private day and private boarding
576 ($p=0.020$) schools underscores that adolescents possessing poor nutritional knowledge are
577 more prone to being overweight, in contrast to individuals with limited nutritional
578 knowledge, moderate nutritional knowledge, or high nutritional knowledge. These findings
579 agree well with the study of Wang *et al.* [36] who reported that improving the dietary
580 knowledge level of children and adolescents was associated with decreased risk of
581 overweight and obesity. This finding accentuates the importance of promoting nutritional
582 education as a potential strategy to mitigate overweight risks in these school settings. The
583 period of adolescence is a critical phase encompassing both growth and the acquisition of
584 knowledge, along with the development of healthy habits [37]. The promotion and
585 acquisition of dietary knowledge hold particular significance for the well-being of children

586 and adolescents [38]. Failing to comprehend dietary knowledge can adversely impact dietary
587 behaviours and impede healthy growth. Earlier research has indicated an association between
588 the level of dietary knowledge among children or adolescents and the occurrence of
589 overweight. A Polish study comprising 1,515 children and adolescents aged 6–18 years
590 demonstrated that an insufficient understanding of dietary matters was linked to a high
591 percentage of obese or overweight children. This, in turn, could elevate the risk of
592 cardiovascular diseases in adulthood [39].

593 The statistically significant associations unveiled within private day and private boarding
594 schools for overweight highlight that adolescents with inadequate eating patterns face higher
595 susceptibility to overweight compared to their counterparts with fair and moderate eating
596 patterns. The findings agree with the study of Cutler *et al.* [40] who reported that higher
597 adherence to dietary patterns loading heavily on vegetables was associated with lower risk of
598 overweight/obese weight status in older and younger girls, whereas higher adherence to a
599 'sweet & salty snack food' pattern was associated with lower risk in older and younger boys.
600 Yang *et al.* [41] also found significant statistical associations between dietary patterns and
601 childhood overweight/obesity in Asian adolescents. Similarly, Mu *et al.* [42] reported that a
602 prudent/healthy dietary pattern may decrease overweight/obesity risk, while a
603 western/unhealthy dietary pattern may increase overweight/obesity risk. In a review of 30
604 cross-sectional studies, a diet rich in fruits and vegetables were inversely associated with
605 BMI and a diet rich in meat and fat was positively associated with BMI [43]. This emphasizes
606 the role of dietary habits contributing to overweight among students in these schools.

607 **CONCLUSION**

609 This study unveiled the prevalence rates of thinness, stunting, underweight, and overweight
610 among adolescents as 42.2%, 34.8%, 28.7%, and 8.2%, respectively. Across different school
611 types, public schools had a stunting prevalence of 31%, private day schools exhibited 32%,
612 and private boarding schools showed the highest prevalence at 37%. The prevalence of
613 overweight was absent in public schools, 16% in private day schools, and a noteworthy 9% in
614 private boarding schools. Regarding thinness, public schools reported 35%, private day
615 schools had 43%, and private boarding schools had the highest prevalence at 47%. Similar
616 trends were seen in underweight, with public schools at 29%, private day schools at 23%, and
617 private boarding schools at 29%. Significant differences in overweight and underweight were
618 observed among the three school types, whereas no associations were found for stunting and
619 thinness. This study highlights thinness and stunting as significant public health concerns

620 (defined by WHO criteria). It underscores the complex links between poverty and stunting,
621 especially in private boarding schools. Socio-economic factors impact thinness, highlighting
622 adolescents from lower socio-economic backgrounds' vulnerability to underweight.
623 Nutritional knowledge significantly influences overweight within private day and boarding
624 schools, emphasizing its role. The study highlights the potential impact of nutritional
625 knowledge on these conditions and the importance of eating patterns in underweight
626 vulnerability. Collaborating with educational boards and health authorities, schools should
627 introduce structured physical activity sessions and engaging extracurricular activities. This
628 encourages regular exercise, maintaining healthy body weights, and reducing obesity risk
629 among adolescents in the study area.

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