The Relationships between Family Communication, Self-Concept, and Academic Achievement of Adolescents in Some Schools of Petaling Jaya, Malaysia

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THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN FAMILY COMMUNICATION, SELF-CONCEPT, AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT OF ADOLESCENTS IN SOME SCHOOLS OF PETALING JAYA, MALAYSIA

by

Aizan Mohd Yusof

A Dissertation
Submitted to the
Faculty of The Graduate College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the
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Department of Counseling and Personnel

Western Michigan University
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The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between the parent-adolescent communication, adolescents' self-concept, and academic achievement.

The sample consisted of 341 Form II (8th Grade) students from seven secondary schools in Petaling Jaya, Malaysia, and their parents. The instruments utilized in this study were Rosenberg Self-Esteem Inventory and Academic Self-Concept Scales as the measure for adolescents' self-concept. The 1984 mid-year examination results were used as the measure of academic achievement. The Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory (Form A) was used as the measure of students' perceptions of their communication with their parents, and Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory (Form P) was used as the measure of the parents' perceptions of their communication with their children.

Six hypotheses were formulated to investigate the major research questions raised in this study. These hypotheses were tested statistically; and for each of these six hypotheses, the probability used for committing a Type I error was .05.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient revealed a direct relationship between parent-adolescent communication and
adolescents' self-concept. It also revealed a direct relationship between parent-adolescent communication and adolescents' academic achievement.

The t-test results demonstrated that the adolescents of the high self-concept group had a more positive perception of family communication than the adolescents of the low self-concept group.

From the results of the two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), the interaction effect between the sex of the adolescents and the parent-adolescent communication upon self-concept of the adolescents was not found. There was also no evidence to show that sex of the adolescents interacting with the nature of parent-adolescent communication had any effect on the academic achievement of the adolescents.

The results of the t-test (z-test) on the Fisher's z transformation correlation coefficients revealed a congruency of perceptions on family communication between adolescents and the parents of both high and low self-concept groups.
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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

It is an ever-growing recognition in the field of counseling that family communication is one crucial element in the family interaction and functioning. Other elements of equal importance are the parental attitudes, the types of parents (whether both are natural parents), single or stepparents, and socioeconomic status and family size. The trend focusing on family psychosocial relationship and communication in facilitating the personal growth of school children has been increasingly significant. The growth of Parent Communication Skill Program (Dinkmeyer & McKay, 1974; Frazier & Matthews, 1975), Parent Education Groups, Parent Encounter Groups, Parent Effectiveness Training (Gordon, 1970), Family Counseling and Therapy (Bell, 1961) marked the growing concern of the helping professionals in treating the family, particularly the parents, the primary influence on the children.

Communication, as a vital facet of family process, is a significant problem facing the contemporary family. Within the family where love is expected to prevail there is much evidence of lack of understanding, lack of listening, lack of empathy; in short, lack of communication (Journard, 1964). Most teenagers have trouble confiding in their parents (Duvall, 1967). Topics involving emotional or

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intimate content are the most difficult for both high school adolescents (Chiam & Fatimah, 1982) and college freshmen, both males and females, to discuss with their parents (Dubbe, 1965). Parents have especially failed to communicate adequate sex knowledge to children (Shipman, 1968) as well as other basic family expectations and responsibilities. Chiam and Fatimah (1982) did a study on urban adolescents and their families in Malaysia. They found that parent-adolescent conflict existed and attributed this to the lack of communication between parents and adolescents. The adolescents felt that their parents did not understand them. This feeling was to be expected in view of their resentments that they were given little chance to do whatever they liked, parents opposed some of their plans, and they were not allowed to go out with their friends or at night. The percentage of adolescents who felt that they cannot discuss certain problems at home range from 15.6% to 23.3%. Strangely, 20.5% to 33.3% of the adolescents checked the item that they had no one to tell their troubles to. If they were able to discuss their problems with their families, then they would have their families to whom they could tell their problems. Another study by Chiam (1983) on profiles of rural adolescents in Malaysia showed that the parent-adolescent relationship was close for a majority of them. There appeared to be lack of conflict between adolescents and parents, not because they communicated on equal planes but rather because the children gave in to their parents, probably out of respect for them and their wisdom. They were mostly troubled by parental over-expectation that exerted great pressure and mental agony.
Mounting evidence from both parents and adolescents attests to the breakdowns in parent-adolescent communication that lead to some behavioral problems among adolescents. Blum (1972), from the Standard Institute for Policy Analysis, in his book *Horatio Alger's Children*, attributed drug abuse among adolescents to the failure of their families to relate to them effectively. He stated that the illicit drug use becomes a devious means for communicating rebellion or hostility or for emotional escape due to pathological situations existing within the family. Westley and Epstein (1969) tie the mental health of the children to the communication skills of their parents. Ch'ng (1976), in her comparative study of the self-concept of delinquents and nondelinquents in Malaysia, noted among the delinquents that failure to receive love, recognition, and approval from people who matter to them, particularly parents, unconsciously ingrain in the adolescents a morbid sense of rejection and despair. This was indicated in the low scores on items such as "I am not satisfied with my family relationships." The lack of parental care and love could cause them to feel alienated and unwanted. It was evident that these disruptive features of family life would be reflected in misconduct of these adolescents. Academically the delinquents were gripped by an acute sense of underachievement and failure, leading to an accompanying sense of frustration with themselves and their inadequacy. Addressing a forum on juvenile delinquency organized by the Pan-Pacific and South-East Asia Women's Association (PPSEAWA) on April 22, 1984, the Director of the Federal Territory Welfare Department, Encik Abu Bakar Wahid said, "The growing
incidence of crime and delinquency among youngsters is due to the lack of parental interest in a child." He then suggested, "The parents should devote more time to their children and encourage them to discuss their problems without feeling guilty or pressured."

Evidently lack of communication and ineffective communication between family members, husband, wife, and their children can be considered as a major source of family problems (Ackerman, 1954, 1961; Bateson, 1958; Ginott, 1969; Haley, 1963; Jackson, 1959; Satir, 1967) that inevitably result in adjustment problems among adolescents in school. Maladjustment includes such manifestations as unfavorable attitudes toward learning, poor academic performance, low self-concept, lack of motivation, and misbehavior. Generally, the maladjusted child is one having negative attitudes and resistance toward schooling (Lichter, Rapien, Siebart, & Skhansky, 1962; Starr, 1981).

Satir (1967, 1972) proposed that adolescent disturbances reflect dysfunctional marriages and that there is a relationship between disturbed families, dysfunctional communication, and low self-esteem. Children learn inadequate communication patterns from their parents which contributes to low self-esteem. Such children tend to avoid interpersonal relationships and intimacy; they are generally dependent, submissive, and easily influenced by others and often feel anxious, threatened, and lonely (Rosenberg, 1965). They perceive their parents as being uninterested in them (Rosenberg, 1965; Tec, 1971). Other studies have also successfully traced the relationship between the nature of family interaction and school children's academic performance. The underachievers with several behavioral
problems are the products of family mismanagement (Blackham, 1967; Ch'ng, 1976; Erickson, 1971; Horne, 1974; Shelton & Meyer, 1977).

In spite of the various studies cited above, studies dealing exclusively with the measurement of husband and wife, parent and adolescent communication appear extremely limited. Most of the research in family communication patterns has been concerned with communication processes in families with schizophrenic children (Bateson, Jackson, Haley, & Weakland, 1956; Bateson, Jackson, Haley, & Weakland, 1963). Notable exceptions include Navran's (1967) correlation study of marital adjustment and husband and wife communication patterns and Bienvenu's (1969b; 1970) work in developing an Adolescent and Marital Communication Inventory.

Statement of the Problem

The present study was designed to examine the relationships between family communication, self-concept, and academic achievement of adolescents of various secondary schools in Petaling Jaya, Malaysia. With that particular purpose of the study, the following research questions were deemed appropriate by this researcher:

1. Is there a relationship between parent-adolescent communication, adolescents' self-concept, and academic achievement?

2. Do the adolescents of the high self-concept group perceive communication with their parents as more positive and functional than do adolescents of the low self-concept group?

3. Is there an interaction effect between the sex of the adolescents and family communication upon self-concept and academic
achievement of adolescents?

4. Is there a congruence of perception on family communication by adolescents and their parents of both high and low self-concept groups?

Significance of the Study

The results of this study were intended to contribute to the development of a communication skill program and family counseling services which are the new directions in the intervention strategies in the educational system in Malaysia. It has been a feature in the Malaysian educational system to put too much emphasis on the school organization as the sole generator of pupils' academic progress and to discount the crucial influence of parents on their children in their growth and development. Programs such as Parent Education and Parent Communication Skill and Family Counseling services should be incorporated and implemented in the school system in Malaysia in order to enable the involvement of parents in enhancing the academic progress of their children. The viability of these programs is apparent judging from the extent of success of parental involvement in school programs in America (Carlson & Russell, 1982; Duncan & Fitzgerald, 1969; Meredith & Bennings, 1979-1980; Navin & Sears, 1980; Rowell, 1981; Scout & Borders, 1979; Terkelson, 1976).

Finally, the results of the study could be used as an overall recommendation directed to the policy makers of educational development. Hopefully, programs designed to generate family involvement in the educational activities of the school will have a collaborative
effect on the teachers and parents in facilitating the academic progress of the schoolchildren and will also bridge the gap between parents and school personnel.

Overview of the Study

Chapter II contains a review of related literature pertaining to the family as a system of interaction, family communication and its various theories, family communication and self-concept, and academic achievement of adolescents. Other related research pertinent to the investigation is also discussed. The conclusions based on the literature review and the rationale for the formulation of the research hypotheses are spelled out at the end of this chapter.

In Chapter III, the research methodology and statistical procedures are described. Sections are presented which describe the instrumentation, population under study, procedures for data collection, and data analysis.

An analysis of data collected is contained in Chapter IV. A brief explanation of statistical techniques used is followed by statistical findings of the data analyses and a related interpretation of the results.

The summary and conclusions of the study, as well as recommendations for further research, are found in Chapter V.
CHAPTER II

SELECTED REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND RELATED STUDIES

Overview

The family is a natural social system with properties all its own, one that has developed a set of rules, roles, a power structure, forms of communication, and ways of negotiating and problem solving that allow various tasks to be performed effectively (Goldenberg & Goldenberg, 1980). The way the family functions has tremendous implications for how individuals develop and function. Family transactional patterns form the matrix within which the psychological growth of members takes place. Therefore, to understand an individual, we must look beyond his or her internal processes. We need to examine that person's various relationships with other people, especially as they occur within a family context. Even though it has been persistently stressed that each person is an autonomous individual who controls his or her own destiny, there is increasing evidence that "man is not separate from his family, from those about him and from his multigenerational past as he fancied himself to be" (Bowen, 1975, p. 369). This is further substantiated by what has been stated by Minuchin, Rosman, and Baker (1978), that every human being's sense of identity is largely dependent on the validation of self by a reference group, particularly the family or family substitute. That validation from the family, vital to all family members, is
especially important for children, who are in the process of forming identities, self-images they will carry forward into life as they form other families.

Family As a System of Interaction

A system is a set of entities with components that covary, with each element dependent on the state of functioning of each other element with which it has a relationship (Miller, 1978). A family system is governed by rules, which may or may not be overtly stated but which are understood by all family members (Jackson, 1965). These rules determine the patterning of behavior within the family. Each family develops its own set of homeostatic mechanisms, which keep the system in balance. When a problem arises or escalates to the point of endangering the system's normal functioning, these mechanisms attempt to return to the system's normal functioning, and previous equilibrium. All interactions between people may be viewed as feedback loops, because the behavior of each person involved affects and is affected by each other person's behavior (Watzlawick, Beavin, & Jackson, 1967). The system approach emphasizes the behavior of an individual within a context in which another person or persons is present and exchanges information with that individual, each influencing the other.

Every family system contains a number of coexisting systems. Husband and wife form one dyad, mother and children form another, siblings form still another subsystem. Subsystems can be formed by generation, by sex, by interest, or by function (Minuchin, 1974).
Each family member belongs to different subsystems simultaneously; in each subsystem, different levels of power are exercised and different skills learned. A woman can be a wife, mother, daughter, younger sister, older sister, niece, granddaughter, and so on, depending on the nature of the relationship with another family member. More enduring subsystems are the spouse, the parental, and the sibling subsystems (Minuchin et al., 1978). The husband and wife subsystem is basic, any dysfunction in this system reverberates through the family as children are scapegoated or co-opted into an alliance with one parent against the other because the couple are in conflict. The spouse subsystem also provides a model to the child about the nature of intimate relationships or the transactions between a man and a woman in general, all are likely to affect the child's relationships later in life. The parental subsystem (which may include grandparents or older children assigned to parental roles) is involved with child-rearing and functions such as nurturance, guidance, and control. The child learns to deal with people of greater power before increasing his or her capacity for decision making and self-control. The sibling subsystem contains the child's first peer group. Through participation in this subsystem, patterns of negotiating, cooperating, or competing develop. The interpersonal skills developed by a child will be significant as he or she moves beyond the family into school and later the world of work. The family system with its interaction of subsystems is therefore the context in which the child learns (Satir, 1967); the "family is the critical intervening variable between the society and the individual" (p. 27)
and will constantly grow in importance with each passing generation.

The family, as a variety of systems and subsystems, functions at all levels of efficiency from optimum functioning to total dysfunction and failure. When the family is dysfunctioning, the broad family patterns are characterized by emotional, physical, conflictual, or social illness such as irresponsible behavior and delinquency (Bowen, 1961). From clinical findings and observations, the family member who usually becomes the victim of the dysfunction and become mentally ill is one of the children (Bateson, 1958; Haley, 1963; Jackson, 1959). It is also discovered that the most important person in a child's life is considered to be the cause of the illness. The concept of the unconscious postulates that the parents could be unconsciously hurtful while trying to help the child. Even though it was not intentional or an irresponsible act of omission, it still left the parent as pathogenic (Bowen, 1966).

Optimally functioning, competent families relate to each other in a number of ways that distinguish them from those less well functioning. Unfortunately data on so-called "normal" family operations are slim, indeed, especially when compared to the growing literature on the pathogenic families. Perhaps the most authoritative word to date on how "healthy" families function comes from the work of Lewis, Beavers, Gosset, and Phillips (1976). These clinicians looked beyond the strengths and weaknesses of individual family members in order to search out those interactions within a family system that make for optimal functioning. Working with intact families with at least one adolescent but with no family member identified as a psychiatric
patient or receiving psychiatric treatment, volunteer families were interviewed and their reactions on a variety of tasks were videotaped. Ratings by various judges of their videotaped behavior were made along five major dimensions, such as structure of the family; mythology, that is, the degree to which a family's concept of itself was congruent with the rater's appraisal of family behavior; goal-directed negotiation (the effectiveness of the family's negotiation); autonomy, which includes communication of self-concept, responsibility, invasiveness, and permeability; and family affect that includes expressiveness, mood and tone, conflict, and empathy. On the basis of these ratings, each family received a score in a Global Health Pathology Scale. Thirty-three "healthy" families were distinguished from 70 families with a hospitalized adolescent, and 12 families in the former group were studied intensively. Results indicated that no single quality was unique to optimally functioning competent families compared to those poorly functioning families. Rather, a mixture of a number of variables accounted for their special style of relating to one another. The capacity of the family to communicate thoughts and feelings and the cardinal role of parental coalition in establishing the level of functioning of the total family stand out as the key factors. Parental coalitions offer family leadership as well as providing models for relating to other persons.

According to Beavers (1977), there is a relationship between the level of family system competence and the level of functioning of the children of those families. While Beavers distinguished five levels
of family functioning (optimal, adequate, midrange, borderline, and severely disturbed), he pointed out that he was really dealing with a continuum, not different kinds of families. Thus, it shall be seen, characteristics of severely disturbed families blend subtly into those only moderately disturbed and these in turn blend into those likely to be labeled as adequate or even optimal in their level of functioning. Offspring of the severely dysfunctional families, who often are schizophrenics, experience marked feelings of anxiety or depression as well as inadequate coping devices. Moderately dysfunctional (or midrange) families tend to produce children more likely to be neurotic or having behavior disorders or antisocial personalities.

To summarize, the family as a system with its governing rules that determine the patterns of interaction of its subsystems, consequently affect the patterns of behavior and personality characteristics of the family members. The nature of functioning of the family whether at optimum, moderate, or dysfunctional level relates to the functioning of the children of those families.

Family Communication

Communication is variously defined by different experts in the field of family studies. Sorrells and Ford (1969) have defined communication as verbal and nonverbal behaviors, used when two or more people interact to exchange information as to clarify, define, and test the relationship between the participants. Communication refers to social interaction or transactions, and involves all the verbal and nonverbal clues and symbols which people may or can use to give
and receive a message about a message, referred to as metacommunication (Satir, 1967).

Ard (1969) defined communication as any messages sent in any way from one person to another, including explicit, clear, healthy, intentionally transmitted, and nonverbal messages.

Bienvenu (1970) has described communication as how feelings and meanings are exchanged as people try to understand each other and attempt to see problems and differences from the other person's point of view. It is a process used to transmit feelings, attitudes, facts, beliefs, and ideas, the means people use to influence and understand each other.

Faulty communication, or frequently lack of communication, would seem to be one of the major reasons why so many families do not function at their optimal level. Counseling with married couples, as well as with parents and children, has led many people in the various helping professions to the general conclusion that lack of effective communication lies at the root of many a family's problems (Ruesch & Bateson, 1951; Satir, 1967; Watzlawick et al, 1967). Thus faulty communication can justifiably be labeled "the rock on which families flounder" (Ard, 1969).

Theoretical Viewpoints of Family Communication

A communication theory of the origin and nature of schizophrenia has been developed by Bateson et al. (1956, 1963) with the etiology centering in parental communication with the child. The primary interest of these investigators, however, has been complexity of
communication, not schizophrenia alone. They viewed their work as a
general communications approach to the study of human behavior (study
of pathological communication to behavior within groups such as
families), with schizophrenia at the extremely dysfunctional end of
the continuum. As Satir (1967) has noted, although absolutely clear
communication is possible, there are degrees of functional-dysfunc-
tional communication, or effective-ineffective, in terms of maintain-
ing a relationship, and various styles of interacting (S. Miller &

Sorrels and Ford (1969) have outlined the Bateson et al. (1969)
theory and Satir's (1967) application of it to conjoint family
therapy in the following way: communication, behavior, and inter-
action are synonymous terms for a wide range of verbal and nonverbal
behavior which defines, tests, and clarifies the nature of a rela-
tionship. It is essential to family operations and the chief clue to
member's self-concept; therefore, it can be used as a major diagnost-
ic and therapeutic tool in working with families. Certain prin-
ciples follow, first, one cannot not communicate; second, the message
sent may be misinterpreted by the receiver, so in order to understand
and respond clearly one must be able to clarify messages, or give and
receive feedback; third, communication may be multi-leveled in terms
of content, affect, context, relationship, and metacommunications,
which according to S. Miller and Nunally (1970), are messages, inter-
actions, and relationships and when these levels are incongruent,
communication is disqualified and dysfunctional.
The concept of double-bind by Bateson et al. (1956) has received a great deal of attention in accounting for family communication in schizophrenic families (Sluzi & Ransom, 1976). According to this conceptual explanation, a double-bind situation is one in which a person receives contradictory messages from the same individual; he or she is called upon to make responses, but doomed to failure whatever response he or she chooses. Bateson et al. (1963) have been careful to point out that it is not useful to conceptualize the double-bind in terms of a binder and a victim, but rather in terms of two people caught up in a circular process of an interpersonal relationship which produces conflicting definitions of the relationship and results in subjective stress.

Haley (1959), in discussing communication in schizophrenic families, noted that such families frequently disqualify individual member's statements, and members rarely make statements to each other which are confirmed. The result is that clear leadership is impossible. Coalitions are likewise impossible, especially if they are acknowledged, because they imply betrayal of the third person. Sorrels and Ford (1969) added that there is frequent blaming and members speaking for each other with full assurance and permission, because "different-ness," or individuality (Satir, 1967), is seen as a threat, as evidence of being unloved, and may well lead to disagreements and inability to fill one's needs, rather than opportunities for growth.
Related Research on Communication Theory

A great deal of research has been generated by the communication theory of Bateson's group. Haley (1962) has emphasized that communication theory and research should be concerned with objective, observable behavior, relationships, and communication processes, such as the frequency and length of individual speeches, rather than individual perceptions or affective states. An example of his research emphasizing communication is a coalition experiment, in which a father, mother, and child were seated at a round table with high partitions which prevented them from seeing each other. Each person had four buttons which were the only means of communicating with the others. Points were accumulated by forming coalitions, with the person with the highest number of points winning the game. If two members formed coalitions with each other only, they both accumulated the same scores and no one won. Each family played four rounds; before the last round they were asked to talk together to decide who would win and who would lose.

Haley found that the disturbed families had more difficulty forming and maintaining coalitions and spent less time in coalitions than the normal families, and schizophrenic children complied less often to signals for coalitions than did the other children. There was a significant difference between the two groups in ability to make the winners and losers come out as agreed, with most of the normal families successful and only half of the disturbed families successful. Fathers in the disturbed families won the majority of
games and the child rarely won, while normal family members shared about equally at winning. Contrary to expectations, the disturbed families as a group showed a wide range of variability in approaching the problem, while the normal families were rather homogeneous.

In another study, Haley (1964) investigated family interaction patterns to determine whether or not they are different in families with and without some form of disturbance. He used 40 normal and 40 disturbed families and recorded their conversations while they filled out a questionnaire and told a story in response to a Thermatic Apperception Test card. These conversations were analyzed in terms of how many times each person spoke, who followed whom, and the number of speech sequences. He found significant differences between the two groups of families, with normal families tending to use all possible interactions and disturbed families using more rigid patterns.

Ferriera, Winter, and Poindexter (1966) tested 50 normal and 76 disturbed families, requiring each to agree on stories made in response to Thermatic Apperception Test cards, with members taking turns being spokesman for the family. Conversations were tape recorded and analyzed in terms of process. Results showed that there was no difference between which family member talked the least and which one talked the most, except that schizophrenic children talked the least. There were no significant differences in participation of family members or in the amount of time that two or more members spoke at once. However, disturbed families required an extension of the time limit more frequently than did normal families, and there
was more silence in the disturbed families. Analysis showed that the families requiring more time tended to be those who spent more time in silence. This lowered their problem-solving efficiency, a conclusion which was in agreement with Haley's analysis of his experiments.

Child's Perception of Family Interaction

Various family researchers have found that parental traits, such as rejection and overprotectiveness, may well be necessary conditions in producing childhood disturbances of various kinds (Bowen, 1960; Clausen & Kohn, 1960; Haley, 1959; Symonds, 1939, 1949). Concepts about these parental traits were derived more from the children's perceptions than from direct observation of the family. Whether or not an observer rates the family communication patterns as functional or dysfunctional is not the determining factor in an individual's reaction to his environment. The individual's attitudes and behavior depend upon his response to his perceptions of his family, and researchers must take this factor into account (Heilbrun, 1960; Itkins, 1952, 1955; Rosenberg, 1965; Satir, 1967, 1972).

The child's subjective evaluation of the family environment and the particular meaning it has for him is the important factor in whether or not disturbed family interaction results in emotional disorders. One child may perceive the family experience as so severe that it results in some form of disturbance, while to another it is only mildly disturbing and much less stressful. An earlier study by Heilbrun (1960) lends support to this concept. All members of normal and disturbed mother-daughter groups were administered the Parent...
Attitude Research Instrument (PARI), and no significant differences were found between mothers and daughters in either group in their expressed child rearing attitudes. However, when daughters were asked to predict how their mothers would respond on 12 of the 13 variables, such as strictness and marital conflict, the schizophrenic daughters perceived their mothers as endorsing less culturally approved, or more pathogenic attitudes toward child rearing than did the normal daughters. Heilbrun concluded that the child's perception of the mother's characteristics and attitudes was an important factor and it was the child's perceptions of the family interaction which influenced his or her development, not the family interaction per se.

In an inquiry into the characteristics of mothers of schizophrenics, Cheek (1964) used both observation and questionnaire methods to analyze family interaction between mother, father, and young adult family members in normal families and those in which there was a schizophrenic adolescent. Analysis of the questionnaire alone showed mothers of schizophrenics as high on support-permissive responses, while observers rated them as cold and withdrawn. When these two modes of inquiry were examined together, however, the support-permissiveness of the mother was revealed as tolerance, or low disagreement, rather than active support; mothers of schizophrenics were low in both positive and negative sanctions. Cheek's findings suggested that there was a discrepancy between how the mother perceived her behavior and her behavior from an observer's point of view. Itkins (1952, 1955), investigating perceptions from the child's point of view, found that it is the young adult's
perception of the parent's behavior, not the behavior itself, which is important in determining attitudes toward parents and the control used by parents.

A comparative study carried out by Rohner, Rohner, and Rolls (1980) dealt with the perceptions of adolescents of their parents' traits and how it affected the adolescents' personalities. They reported that American as well as Mexican children who perceived their parents to be rejecting had personality and behavioral dispositions that included hostility, aggression, dependence, and negative self-evaluation, including negative self-esteem and negative self-adequacy.

Summary

Faulty communication would seem to be one of the major reasons why so many families do not function at their optimal level. Going along with the concept of double-bind for explanation, members in the family are caught up in a circular process of an interpersonal relationship which provides conflicting definitions of the relationship and results in subjective stress. Other related studies affirmed that parental interaction patterns of disturbed families are distinct from that of normal families in terms of communication processes. It is also evident that the child's perception mediates the effects of parental behavior and attitudes on the child's personality. The child's perception of the family interaction which he experiences may well be a very important, if not the most important, condition which
produces emotional and behavioral disturbances when combined with other necessary conditions.

Communication and Self-Concept

It is a generally accepted premise in the psychological literature that the family plays a significant role in the development of a child's self-concept. We tend to assume that parents, serving as models and as a source of reinforcement, mold and shape the child's ideas and feelings about the kind of person he is and would like to be.

Both the theory and the research in this area lean heavily on the concept of identification (Bandura, 1969; Kagan, 1958; Kohlberg, 1969) and learning in trying to explore and to explain the developmental aspects of self-concept. Starting with the basic fact of the child's dependence on parents and affection for them, many psychologists believe that parents have a unique opportunity to reinforce selectively a child's learning and, in so doing, to influence the general perceptions of self, the development of standards of conduct to which to aspire, and self-acceptance including negative feelings and limitations.

Both direct parental reinforcement and the reward value of imitating the parental role presumably play important parts in shaping the children's actual characteristics and behaviors. Children's learning of values, that is, the development of "ideal self," also depends on both direct parental roles. So far as children's overall "self-acceptance" is concerned, this is presumably affected greatly
by parental acceptance, since a self-rejecting parent would be unable to give adequate love and unable to provide an adequate model of self-acceptance. Rogers (1951) would stress the value of the parents' unconditional positive regard to self and child.

Difficulty in communicating is due to inadequate models for methods of communicating by parents and, if the contents of parents' messages to him are devaluing, it will affect the self-image. If parents' attitudes are uncertain, or if they disagree with each other, the messages the child takes will be equally confused. The child will try to integrate what cannot be integrated, on the basis of inconsistent and insufficient data; failing, he will end up with an incomplete picture of self and low self-concept. This low self-concept leads to dysfunctional communication.

Therefore, the relationship between self-concept (self-esteem and self-image) and communication is a circular process, because low self-concept not only results from but, in turn, leads to dysfunctional communication as the child learns to avoid confirmation of the poor self-concept and disappointments in getting needs met (Satir, 1967).

Self-esteem, the core component of self-concept, determines the individual's presentation of self in life. Its development is associated with family communication (Coopersmith, 1967; Rosenberg, 1965; Satir, 1967). Satir (1967) developed her thinking regarding the association between self-esteem and family communication in clinical work with disturbed families. Two investigators, Coopersmith (1967) and Rosenberg (1965), have published book-length reports of their
research in this area which lend support to Satir's clinical observations.

Satir (1967) has pointed out that both the content and the process of communication must be analyzed in order to understand the complex influences of family interaction. She described a dysfunctional individual as one who has not learned to communicate properly; because parents respond to each other and the child in unclear and contradictory ways, the child learns this pattern of interaction. He or she is unable to perform the "most important function of good communication: 'checking out' perceptions to see whether they tally with the situation as it really is or with the intended meaning of another" (p. 94). This results in an impairment of the ability to seek objective information and to arrive at objective conclusions. Furthermore, the child develops perceptions of self, self-esteem or self-image, by integrating both content and process messages from both parents. The parents, because of their own low self-esteem, may depreciate the child's self-concept with confusing or even devaluing messages.

In his report, Antecedents of Self-Esteem, Coopersmith (1967) devoted five chapters to discuss his research concerning the relationship between a number of parent characteristics and the self-esteem of groups of boys aged 10 to 12 years of age. He measured self-esteem by administering a 50-item self-esteem inventory, which covered self-attitudes regarding peers, parents, school, and personal interests to 1,748 fifth and sixth grade public school children, from which a sample of 85 subjects was selected. Teachers of the 1,748
children rated each child on a 14-item, 5-point scale of the child's sociability with peers, self-confidence, reactions to failure, and need for reassurance and encouragement. An 80-item questionnaire completed by the mother, an interview with her, and responses of the child to a series of questions regarding parental attitudes and behaviors supplied evidence concerning the antecedents of self-esteem. Fathers were not involved in the study beyond obtaining information about them from the mothers and children.

Coopersmith (1967) found that the antecedents of self-esteem which differentiated between children with high and low self-esteem included "total or nearly total acceptance of the children by their parents, and respect and latitude for individual action that exist within the defined limits" (p. 236). Parental self-esteem seemed to provide the child with a basis for unconscious identification and conscious modeling. Coopersmith concluded that this identification and modeling may underlie the self-evaluations of many individuals, and the combination of a high self-esteem model and an enhancing pattern of treatment should produce the highest and the most stable levels of positive self-esteem.

Recalling Satir's (1967) statement that children learn communication patterns in interaction with their parents, Coopersmith's (1967) research lends support to Satir's observation that low self-esteem is associated with dysfunctional parents and poor family communication.

Rosenberg (1965) measured self-esteem through administration of a scale consisting of 10 self-statements, to which adolescents were
asked to strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree. Self-esteem level was then compared with responses on the following 3-item to 10-item scales: Sensitivity to Criticism, Depressive Affect, Daydreaming, Parental Interest, and Relationship With Father. These questionnaires were administered to 5,024 junior and senior high school students from New York state schools.

Among the findings of this research is that self-esteem was related to school achievement for almost all children. High anxiety was associated with low self-esteem. Adolescents with low self-esteem were much more likely to have unstable self-concepts, to be influenced by others, to frequently put on an act for others, to be more sensitive to criticism, and to feel lonely. Rosenberg (1965) stated, "Factors internal to the family also appear to be involved" (p. 48), since there was correlation with highest significance found between self-esteem and parental interest in the child. Fully 20% of the students reported that their parents were indifferent to them. Rosenberg, in discussing the relationship between self-esteem and parental interest, stated extreme parental indifference is associated with lower self-esteem in the child:

Very likely such lack of interest in the child goes along with the lack of love, a failure to treat the child with respect, a failure to give him encouragement, a tendency to consider the child something of a nuisance and to treat him with irritation, impatience, and anger. . . . The feeling one is important to a significant other is probably essential to the development of a feeling of self-worth. (p. 146)
Other Related Studies

Theoretical research to date has not been able to establish any clear-cut cause and effect relationships between parental influence and development of a child's self-concept but only to explore some of the many conceivable relationships between family variables and self-concept (Wylie, 1979). The kinds of relationships which empirical studies have tried to explore over the years have been those involving (a) the perceptions of children and parents of themselves and each other and (b) the factors postulated as influencing these perceptions.

In a study entitled "Parent Prediction of Children's Self-Concepts," Piers (1972) was interested in measuring whether parents of normal children were more aware of their child's thought and feelings concerning themselves than were parents of disturbed children. The subjects were 188 normal children, 8 to 14 years of age from two separate schools, who had never attended a clinic. The second group was 97 clinic children, outpatients from three separate clinic facilities. The measuring instrument used was the Piers-Harris Children's Self-Concept Scale (Piers, 1969; Piers & Harris, 1964). The analysis showed that on the positive responses, the parents of normal children agreed with their children and with each other significantly better than did the clinic parents, and that the opposite was true for the negative responses (although the latter was significant for only clinic mothers). Mothers of normal children agreed better with their children than did clinic mothers with their
children on positive items, with the reverse being the case on the negative items.

Dietz (1969) postulated that delinquent children as compared to nondelinquents should be expected to show less perceived similarity between self and parent. To test this hypothesis, Dietz compared the self-concept, self-acceptance, and parental identification of 40 delinquent males and 42 nondelinquent males ranging in age from 14 to 18 years. Nine scales of bipolar adjectives from Osgood's Semantic Differential (Osgood, Suci, & Tannebaum, 1957) were administered to all subjects on a voluntary basis. Subjects were asked to respond using the following concepts: (a) ME as I really am, (b) ME as I would like to be, (c) father as HE really is, (d) mother as SHE really is, (e) ME as my father sees me, and (f) ME as my mother sees me. He found as predicted that the delinquents group had a greater discrepancy between the self-concept score and the self-ideal score than did the nondelinquents (ME as I really am and ME as I would like to be), implying that delinquents are less self-accepting than nondelinquents and had higher self-expectations (ME as I would like to be) than nondelinquents, but identified less closely with their parents (particularly father) than was the case for nondelinquents (ME as I really am as compared to father/mother as he/she really is). Delinquents also believed themselves to be less accurately perceived (less understood) by their parents than did nondelinquents (ME as I really am compared to ME as seen by both parents).
Bledsoe and Wiggins (1973) did a study on 50 boys and 50 girls and their parents from a southern university town of about 50,000 population. The main purpose of the study was to compare parents' perceptions of their adolescent with perceptions of the adolescent about himself or herself. Another purpose was to analyze perception of being "understood" or "misunderstood" by parents in relation to the adolescent's self-concept. Among the findings, it was found that parents' perceptions of their adolescents were more favorable than the adolescents' self-concepts; boys had more favorable self-concepts than girls. The adolescents who perceived themselves as "misunderstood" by parents rated themselves generally lower in the self-concept factors as compared to the adolescents who perceived themselves as "understood" by parents. The parents of "misunderstood" adolescents perceived them more favorably than they did of themselves.

A study carried out in Malaysia (Chiam, 1976) to determine the effects of sex, school prestige, and socioeconomic status on self-concept of school going adolescents, revealed an interesting aspect of socialization process that affects the differences in the self-concept of boys and girls. This developed mainly due to adolescents' perceptions of their parents' attitudes and their attitudes of themselves and each other. The sample of 249 boys and 256 girls from two boys' schools and two girls' schools in Kuala Lumpur were administered Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. The scale consisted of 100 self-descriptive statements designed to measure nonacademic aspects of the self-concept. The statements were categorized into
five subscales, they were the physical self, moral-ethical self, personal self, family self, and social scale. The findings revealed that boys and girls differ significantly in their perceptions of their social self, personal self, and self-esteem. The boys were found to have higher scores on all these three dimensions of self-concept. These prevalent differences, according to Chiam, were mainly due to parental child-rearing attitudes and sex role expectations as in accordance to the larger society. In Malaysian society, boys are considered to be more important than girls at an early age. The girls learn that their society prefers boys and accords them a higher value. This type of parental conditioning makes girls feel inferior to the boys. Since the amount of value ascribed to ourselves is our self-esteem, the differential regards accorded according to sex consequently tend to make Malaysian boys have higher self-esteem than girls. This interesting result affirms the postulation that the perceptions of adolescents of the nature of parental conditioning and of their family relationships affect the development of self-concept.

Ch'ng (1976) did a study on delinquents and nondelinquents to determine the effect of socialization (parental care and love) and sex on the self-concept. The subjects were 235 youths from two normal schools and two rehabilitation centers in Kuala Lumpur and Petaling Jaya, Malaysia. These youths were also administered the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. The findings of this study showed that the nondelinquents consistently scored higher in all the subscales of self-concept: personal self, physical self, moral-ethical
self, family self, and social self. The nondelinquents therefore have better self-images than the delinquents and esteem themselves higher than their delinquent counterparts. It was also found that the delinquents who failed to receive love, recognition, and approval from parents had low self-concept and sense of under-achievement, failure, and inadequacy as compared to the non-delinquents.

Similar to the findings of Chiam's (1976) research, Ch'ng (1976) also found that boys and girls differed in their self-concept. Comparatively, boys possessed a significantly more adequate self-concept than the girls. The greatest statistical differences found between sexes were in four specific areas: personal self, family self, social self, and physical self. Almost similar to Chiam's line of reasoning, Ch'ng attributed these differences to the economic and social roles played by the sexes and the concomitant importance assigned to them. The highly regarded roles of boys as the breadwinners on whom the very livelihood of the entire family depends affect the boys' self-concept of themselves. They perceived themselves superior to the girls. Similarly, the girls perceived themselves inferior to the boys and regarded their roles in the background vis-a-vis the man's foreground roles in the immediate family and in society at large. Therefore, an understanding to the interaction of adolescents with parents reflects the perceived differential regards and treatments based on sexes in Malaysian culture and this ultimately results in differential self-concept among boys and girls.
Sporawski and Eubanks (1976), in their study, examined the relationship between family communication and school adjustment of two groups of female high school freshmen. These subjects were specifically 40 maladjusted girls with some behavioral problems in school and 40 well-adjusted who were above average in academic performance and free of misdemeanor. The Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory was used to assess family communication. It consists of 40 items measuring parent-adolescent communication regarding a variety of topics, including self-concept, disagreements, sex, expression of anger, respect, positive reinforcement for behavior, criticism, etc. Item responses are on a 3-point scale: yes, sometimes, and no. The maladjusted females perceived a less effective communication with their parents and were more likely to see a communication gap with their mothers and fathers. When personal problems were discussed, the maladjusted group did not or could not communicate well with either parent, whereas the positively adjusted group felt positively about communicating with their mothers. It is indicated, therefore, that the girls who were having difficulties in the school environment because of their behavior dispositions were also experiencing communication problems with their parents.

Matteson (1974) did a research study to determine the relationships between family communication, marital satisfaction, and adolescent self-esteem. Forty school children of 14 to 15 years of age were selected from 111 school children to be involved in the study. Based on the scores of the Coopersmith Self-Esteem Inventory, 10 males and 10 females were assigned to a high self-esteem group and
likewise 10 males and 10 females were assigned to a low self-esteem group. The results indicate that the low self-esteem group perceived communication with both parents as more dysfunctional than did adolescents in the high self-esteem group. The perception of communication was based on the scores of the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory (Bienvenu, 1969). Parents of children with low self-esteem perceived more problems in communicating with each other than did parents of the children in the high self-esteem group. Furthermore, those parents who experienced marital communication problems rated their marriages as less satisfying than did parents who experienced more functional communication. The perceptions of adolescents in the low self-esteem group were in conflict with the perceptions of their parents. This contributes a great deal to family communication problems.

Summary

For a number of years, clinical psychologists and psychiatrists have assumed that good communication between parent and child is an important basis for keeping problem behavior to a minimum. A good communication involves, in part, an awareness by the parent of the child's self-concept. Various kinds of empirical studies have been devised to assess the relationships between family interaction and communication and the child's self-concept. Central to researchers in the investigations were child's perception of self and parents and parents' perceptions of self and of child. The area of family variables postulated as influencing these perceptions, have
considered such factors as emotional support by parents, parental acceptance or rejection, parental control or permissiveness, and intrafamily tension.

Family Interaction and Adolescent Academic Achievement

That the family is a source of variation in adolescent achievement behavior is a theorem derivable from some of the basic postulates of behavioral science. Among such postulates are those which assert that the nuclear family is perhaps the fundamental institution of socialization during the first decade of life and probably has greater impact on behavior than that which occurs subsequent to the onset of the second decade. At a high level of abstraction, many would contend that adolescent achievement behavior is contingent upon family socialization practices (Goode, 1964; McClelland, 1961; Rosen, 1956, 1959, 1962; Rosen & D'Andrade, 1959; Winterbottom, 1970).

The work of Frankiel (1959) serves to justify the acceptance of this postulation; he held the assumption that a primary source of achievement motivation may well be the kind of relationship that has been established between a child and parents and the influences that stem from this relationship. Christopher (1967), in his research, found a positive correlation between academic achievement and perceived parent-child relationships among 10th and 11th grade girls. Boys showed no such correlation. Kramer and Fleming (1966) found wide differences in opinions between mothers and fathers regarding
child-rearing practices to be highly correlated with their children's low academic achievement. Hollenbeck (1965) found that the amount of "between-parent communication" was highly correlated with children's college adjustment, but correlated slightly with academic achievement.

Family socialization practice critically affects self-concept development and later achievement performance (Rosenberg, 1965; Satir, 1967). Rosenberg's study of self-esteem on 5,024 junior and senior high school students from New York schools reports that self-esteem which is influenced by family interaction is related to school achievement for almost all children. Rosen (1956, 1959) suggested that achievement values are related to individual feelings of confidence and self-worth and reported achievement values associated with school grades and educational aspirations.

A strong case for the relationship between low self-concept and nonachievement has been presented by Roth and Meyerberg (1963) as they observed the behaviors and counseled nonachieving college students. A summation of data collected regarding nonachieving students led to the identification of symptoms directly connected to nonachieving behavior. They name these patterns of behavior the "nonachievement syndrome." One of the processes which works to cause the nonachievement syndrome is the tendency to devaluate the self. Roth and Meyerberg theorized that the devaluation process learned early in life from parents who attended only to the child's failures and rarely to his or her successes. The successes are taken for granted, but the failures are punished. The contact between parent and child,
then is based upon failure. The child learns to see himself or
er herself as a failure. Hostility and resentment are directed inwardly
toward the self which supports the feelings of being of little worth
as a student, the child seeks to become the fulfillment of the view
of the parents' expectations of him or her through his or her choice
of poor achievement.

The work of Shaw and Dutton (1962) tends to support the theory
regarding parental attitudes toward the student and the student's
self-esteem and achievement. While attempting to discover why some
students with high IQs were underachievers, findings revealed that
parents of bright underachievers were more prone to report negative
attitudes toward children than parents of bright achieving children.
These authors further theorized that this phenomenon was a cause
rather than a resultant factor concerning underachievement. They
reasoned that since negative attitudes on the part of parents toward
a child would result in a formation of negative attitudes toward self
on the part of the child, underachievement in school would result.

Other studies relating family influence to children's academic
achievement have suggested that discipline in the home (Norman &
Davis, 1957) and parental warmth or involvement (Rosen & D'Andrade,
1959) are significantly related to the child's academic achievement.
An early study done by Drews and Teahan (1957) attempted to determine
the attitudes of mothers of high and low academic achievers of both
gifted and average intelligence in terms of permissiveness, protec-
tiveness, and domination. It was found that the mothers of high
achievers were more authoritarian and restrictive in the treatment of
their children than the mothers of low achievers. The parents of
high achievers of gifted intelligence also seemed to have more puni-
tive attitudes with respect to child rearing. Rehberg, Sinclair, and
Schafer's (1970) research warrants qualified support for postulation
that child-rearing practices are associated with high achievement.
However, a variation of parent-child relation is found contrary to
that of Drews and Teahan's (1957), whereby a "democratic" or partici-
pative type of parent-son relationship is more conducive to achieve-
ment behavior than is an autocratic relationship. Similarly,
Scanzioni (1966) is his earlier study stressed the importance of a
satisfactory mother-son tie, associating achievement behavior with a
mother who is demanding, nurturant, trains for independence via
permissiveness, and rewards achievement with affection. A slight
variation of the theme is found in McClelland's (1961) contention
that while maternal dominance may not interfere with high achievement
motivation, paternal dominance does; high achievement motivation is
fostered in the adolescent male by the absence of paternal dominance
coupled with the presence of reasonably high standards of excellence
and parental approval when the son attains such standards. Brofen-
brenner (1961), however, suggested that achievement is facilitated by
a positive identification with the parent of the same sex.

A cross-cultural study done in Peninsular Malaysia (Ahmad, 1979)
attempted to relate social environment of a subsample of 5,475 stu-
dents of a 15-plus age to their academic achievement (Lower Certifi-
cate [LCE], National Comprehensive Exam). Social environment refers
to parental, teacher's, and peer's attachment, supervision, interest,
commitment, and expectations. The social environment as revealed by the regression analysis have small but significant effects on the examination results (LCE) within each ethnic group, Malay, Chinese, and Indians. Contrary to the assumption, students who performed high in the Lower Certificate Examination score reported negatively on these factors; those who performed low reported positively on social environment. This is probably the result of actual warmth shown to low performing students in the less demanding environment of weaker streams of studies.

Summary

Several relevant studies pertaining to adolescents' achievement orientations were discussed. The common themes, however, are democratic or participative type of parent-child relationship, the presence of reasonably high standards of excellence, and parental approval and reward for the achievement behavior with affection. A positive family interaction generates a string chain effect such as positive self-evaluation or self-concept and this, in turn, will lead to development of constructive and resourceful behavior that will ultimately lead to achievement and success.

Conclusions Based on Literature Review

The preceding review of literature has indicated the apparent relationships of the major variables in this study; there are the family communication, self-concept, and academic achievement. The variables sex of the adolescents and parents and the perceptions of
adolescents and parents of their interactions also appeared to be significant in the literature review.

The related literature affirmed that parental interaction patterns with their child in terms of communication processes differed between disturbed families and normal families (Bateson et al., 1956, 1963; Haley, 1959, 1964; Ferriera et al., 1966; Satir, 1967; Sluzi & Ransom, 1976; Watzlawick et al., 1967). Due to the faulty communication, the disturbed families have maladjusted and schizophrenic adolescents as compared to the normal families.

Self-concept refers to one's conception of self in relations to others, such as parents and peers. Satir (1967), a well-known family therapist, pointed out that self-concept developed in association with the nature of family communication. The relationship between self-concept (self-esteem and self-image) and family communication is a circular process, because low self-concept not only results from but, in turn, leads to dysfunctional communication. Two other investigators, Coopersmith (1967) and Rosenberg (1965), did their researches in this particular area and their findings lend support to Satir's clinical observations. From the findings of these major research studies, it can therefore be concluded that the self-concept of children and adolescents is related to the nature of their relationship with their parents.

Parental attitudes and nature of interactions with their children critically affect the children's self-concept and later their achievement performance (Ch'ng, 1976; Rosenberg, 1965; Roth & Meyerberg, 1963; Satir, 1967; Shaw & Dutton, 1962). Studies such as
Rosenberg's reported that self-concept is related to school achievement for almost all children. Another study by Roth and Meyerberg (1963) pointed out that low self-concept is developed through a devaluation process with parents early in life and has a strong relationship to nonachievement. From these literature findings, it can be concluded that there is a relationship between the family communication and the academic achievement of adolescents.

Various empirical studies cited in this chapter have tried to explore the kind of relationships involving the perceptions of adolescents have of their family interactions and their self-concept. There are evidences from the various studies (e.g., Dietz, 1969; Matteson, 1974; Satir, 1967) that the low self-concept among the adolescents is associated with perception of dysfunctional parenting and poor family communication. For example, Satir (1967) described a dysfunctional individual as one who has not learned to communicate properly, because the parents respond to each other and the child in unclear and contradictory ways. The parents are perceived as inadequate models since their method of communicating is dysfunctional and devaluing to the child (Satir, 1967). Dietz (1969), in his study on delinquents, found that delinquents compared to nondelinquents identify less closely with their parents, particularly their fathers. This lack of identification is mainly due to the fact that they do not interact and communicate positively. A study done by Matteson (1974) had similar findings which indicates that adolescents in the low self-esteem group perceived communication with both parents as more dysfunctional than did adolescents in the high
self-esteem group. Sporawski and Eubanks (1976), who studied the relationship between family communication and school adjustment, found that the maladjusted female students in school perceived less effective communication with their parents and were more likely to perceive a communication gap with their fathers and mothers. Adolescents with high self-concept, self-acceptance, and good adjustment are, therefore, more likely to perceive their parents as loving and not neglectful or rejecting. These findings seemed to substantiate the fact that adolescent's perceptions of experienced family interactions is one crucial factor in studying the relationship of self-concept of adolescents and family communication.

Other research cited in this chapter has directly treated the variable sex as equally important with other variables in the interactional process of the families. There were two research studies that were carried out in Malaysia that specifically studied the relationship of sex of the adolescents and the self-concept (Chiam, 1976, Ch'ng, 1976). In both studies it was found that there was a marked difference in self-concept between boys and girls whereby boys scored higher in self-concept scales than girls. Both the studies attributed this situation to the parents' child-rearing attitudes and sex-role expectations in accordance with the larger society. Boys are more favored than girls and are ascribed special privileges. This situation leads to the development of better self-concept among boys as compared to girls. Other research that dealt with the relationship between the socialization process and academic achievement somehow showed that sex of the adolescents and parents is an
important factor in the socialization process. Among this research is one carried out by Scanzioni (1966) which found that the male adolescents in the family develop achievement behavior from a satisfying mother-son tie, such as demanding, nurturant, independent training, and reward achievement with affection. McClelland (1961) noted that high achievement motivation among adolescents is fostered by the absence of paternal dominance whereas Brofenbrenner (1961) suggested in his study that achievement behavior is facilitated by a positive identification with the parent of the same sex. From these findings of the literature review, it seems justified to conclude that the variable sex plays an important part in the process of family interactions that consequently leads to the resultant psychological developments of the adolescents.

Literature that deals specifically with the congruency of perception between adolescents and their parents regarding themselves and their communication with one another is relatively scarce. In this chapter, however, there are a few research studies that deal with this matter (Bledsoe & Wiggins, 1973; Cheek, 1964; Dietz, 1969; Matteson, 1973). The findings of this research somehow has similar trends, that is, the maladjusted and low self-concept adolescents perceived their communications with their parents as negative and dysfunctional; their parents, on the other hand, perceived their communication as generally positive. Adolescents who are adjusted and with high self-concept perceived their communications with their parents as more positive and functional. The parents of these adolescents also have similar perceptions of their communications with
one another (Matteson, 1974). The conclusion that can be drawn from these findings is that the perceptions of adolescents with low self-concept and that of their parents are incongruent, whereas the perceptions of adolescents with high self-concept and that of their parents are congruent.

**General Hypotheses**

Based on the findings and the conclusions in the literature review, six hypotheses were formulated in this present study. Each of these hypotheses will attempt to reaffirm the findings of the literature and related researches that were being discussed.

Hypotheses 1 and 2 were developed based on the findings in the literature which indicate the relationships between family communication and self-concept and academic achievement and also to correspond with the major purpose of the study.

**Hypothesis 1:** There is a relationship between parent-adolescent communication and adolescents' self-concept.

The formulation of this hypothesis is based on the underlying premise that has been substantiated by the literature review, that the psychological development of adolescents is strongly related to the nature of family interactions, particularly the communication process between parents and their children. With this hypothesis, this present study will attempt to affirm the postulations that has indicated by other previous studies.

**Hypothesis 2:** There is a relationship between parent-adolescent communication and adolescents' academic achievement.
This hypothesis was developed based on the assumption drawn from the related literature and researches that overwhelmingly support the view that parental attitudes and interests relate positively to the adolescents' potentials to achieve excellence in school.

The significance of the relationship between the adolescents' perceptions of their communication with their parents and the resultant psychological developments among them had been concluded in the literature review. This leads to the formulation of the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: The adolescents of the high self-concept group perceive communication with their parents as more positive and functional than the adolescents of the low self-concept group.

As has been shown in some studies, sex is an important variable to be studied in the context of family interactions. This is particularly so in Malaysia whereby the differential treatment of the children persists in accordance to the privileges and status ascribed to the sex of the children. Therefore, this results in the differences in the psychological development of the boys and girls. This situation serves as a rationale for the formulation of Hypotheses 4 and 5, that are stated as follows:

Hypothesis 4: There is an interaction effect between the sex of the adolescents and the parent-adolescent communication upon the self-concept.

Hypothesis 5: There is an interaction effect between the sex of the adolescents and the parent-adolescent communication upon the academic achievement.

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The last hypothesis in this study was developed based on the assumption drawn from the scant literature that dealt with the congruency of perception between adolescents and their parents with regards to their nature of communications. The assumption that is of a great importance in this present study is that the low self-concept adolescents have a dissatisfying relationship with their parents, whereas the high self-concept adolescents have a positive and satisfying relationship. Based on the nature of the relationships, the high self-concept adolescents perceive their communication with their parents as functional and resourceful, whereas the low self-concept adolescents perceive their communication with their parents as dysfunctional. It is also assumed that the parents, regardless of whether their children have a high or low self-concept, would generally perceive their communications with their children as positive and functional. To test this assumption, the hypothesis is stated as the following:

Hypothesis 6: The perceptions of family communication made by adolescents of the high self-concept group and their parents are congruent, whereas the perceptions of adolescents of the low self-concept group and their parents are incongruent.
CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research methodology and statistical procedures that were used in this study. Sections are presented which describe the instrumentation, population under study, procedures for collection of data, and data analysis.

Instrumentation

Self-Concept Inventories

The term self-concept in this study refers to the general or global view of oneself and also one's view of academic potentials. To measure the global self-concept, Rosenberg's Self Esteem Scale (RSE; Rosenberg, 1963, 1965) was used in this study. RSE consists of 10 items that are intended to be content general in nature and to constitute a unidimensional measure of global self-concept. The item responses are on 4-point scale (strongly agree, agree, disagree, and strongly agree). Refer to Appendix D for a complete copy of the instrument. As for its reliability, Guttman scale reproducibility coefficient of .92 was obtained. Silber and Tippett (1965) found a test-retest correlation over 2 weeks of .85 (N = 28 college students).

Academic-self-concept was defined as scores received on the two scales of academic self-concept adapted from a School Attitude
The scale **Academic Self-Concept Performance Based** consists of statements that are concerned with the students' confidence in their academic abilities and their feelings about their school performance. Students' feelings about their academic abilities can contribute to their success or lack of success in school. The scale **Academic Self-Concept Reference Based** consists of statements concerned with how students think other people (teachers, family, and friends) feel about the students' performance and ability to succeed academically.

Each scale of this measure has 17 items. Item responses are on a 4-point scale (never agree, sometimes agree, usually agree, and always agree). The range of scores obtained for each scale can vary from 17 to 68. (See Appendix E for a complete copy of the instrument.) Through extensive field testing, the reliability estimates for internal consistency range from .91 to .95 for total test, for test-retest (4 weeks apart) from .80 to .89.

**Test on Consistency of Self-Concept Instruments**

To ascertain the consistency of responses of students concerning self-concept, their scores on the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, which measures their global self-concept, and their scores on the Academic Self-Concept Scales were correlated by using Pearson product-moment correlation. As it is shown in Table 1, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for the scores of Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale and Academic Self-Concept Scales is .867 (p < .05). Therefore, the
responses of the students on the self-concept instruments were very consistent.

Table 1
Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients Between Test Scores for 341 Students in Both High and Low Self-Concept Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tests correlated</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Pearson r</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rosenberg Self-Esteem Inventory</td>
<td>23.24</td>
<td>7.79</td>
<td>0.867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and Academic Self-Concept Inventories</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid-Year Academic Achievement and Standard V</td>
<td>53.28</td>
<td>16.10</td>
<td>0.814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Assessment</td>
<td>8.80</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. p < .05.

Academic Achievement Measure

Academic achievement was defined as the mid-year examination results for the year 1984. The results of this examination consisted of the composite scores of the following subjects: national language, English language, modern mathematics, integrated science, geography, history, commerce or industrial arts or home science or agricultural science (depending on their streams), Islamic religion or pupils' own language (for Chinese and Indian students), and arts. Each subject carried a total score of 100. The average of all these nine subjects was taken as the academic achievement measure. For this particular study, the range of scores was from 25 to 95.
The Test on Consistency of Academic Achievement Measure

To ascertain the consistency of the students' performance across the various schools by their mid-year examination results, the Standard V National Assessment results were obtained from the students' records. The Standard V Assessment evaluates the pupils' achievement in specific subjects such as national language, English language, arithmetic, science, and local studies. Each subject was graded A, B, C, D, E, and F according to their performance. For the purpose of this study, points were assigned to the grades whereby an A gets 3 points, a B gets 2 points, a C gets 1 point, and D, E, and F get a zero each. In this study, no grades were missing. The total scores for each student was obtained by adding the points of the five subjects. The scores in this study range from 0 to 15.

The consistency of responses was tested by correlating the scores of the academic achievement measures: mid-year examination and Standard V National Assessment. From the results of Pearson product-moment correlation, as shown in Table 1, the consistency of performance on both instruments was apparent with significant correlation coefficient of .814 ($p < .05$). The academic performance measured by the mid-year examinations can, therefore, be taken as standardized results across the schools.

Family Communication Inventory

The family communication was defined by the scores obtained from Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory (PACI), Form A for...
adolescents and Form P for parents (Bienvenu, 1968). The Form A inventory was used to assess adolescents' perceptions of family communication and also to obtain background data such as sex, age, race, religion, number of children, and type of parents. This self-report inventory was designed for use in individual and family counseling and family life education. It consists of 40 items measuring parent-adolescent communication regarding a variety of topics including self-concept, disagreement, sex, expression of anger, respect, positive reinforcement of behavior, criticism, etc. Item responses are on a 3-point scale (yes, sometimes, and no). See Appendix F for a complete copy of the instrument. The results of three reliability studies were reported: split-half corrected Spearman Brown correlation coefficient of .86 with 75 subjects, a Spearman rho test-retest correlation coefficient of .78 with 84 subjects retested within 3 weeks, and a Spearman of .88 with 63 subjects retested within 2 weeks.

The Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory Form P, which was completed by one of the parents in this study, also includes the same 40 items with wording changed so that responses would be elicited in terms of how the parents perceive themselves communicating with their adolescents. (Refer to Appendix H for the complete copy of the instrument.) A General Information Sheet, which includes questions concerning parents' age, sex, occupation, income, years of schooling, and the number and age of the children in the family, was also completed by the parents. (Refer to Appendix J for a copy of this instrument.)
Back Translation

All the instruments used in this study were translated into Malay Language with the assistance of linguists at the Language Research Division, Dewan Bahasa (literally translated Language Hall), Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. This arrangement was made with the head of Language Research Division. The inventories were back translated into English by a group of different translators. The original English and the back-translated versions of the inventories were compared and discrepancies were noted and translated. This process was repeated until the back-translated version matched very closely the original English version (Brislin, 1970).

The translated versions of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, Academic Self-Concept Scales, and Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory, Form A, are in Appendix K. The translated version of Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory, Form P, is in Appendix L; and the translated version of the General Information Sheet is in Appendix M.

Population

The population under study was the families chosen from a large town in the state of Selangor called Petaling Jaya. For the detailed information on Petaling Jaya, the people of Petaling Jaya, and the educational system of Malaysia, which is relevant to the population under study, refer to Appendix N.
The Sample

There were two categories of samples:

1. The student sample included 341 Form II (8th grade) adolescents from various secondary schools in Petaling Jaya.

2. The parent sample included 341 pairs of parents of the students chosen to be the sample in the study.

Using random sampling procedure, schools were chosen. There were seven schools selected out of 17 secondary schools in Petaling Jaya. Refer to Appendix C for the list of schools. The schools selected were all government controlled; the population of each school is, therefore, representing a good cross-section of the larger population of the town. Four of these schools were coeducational, two were all girls schools, and one was an all boys school. Using stratified sampling procedure, the Form II classes of each school were chosen according to the stream of studies: commerce and industrial arts or home science. Approximately 50% to 60% of the total number of classes in each stream were picked at random. A total number of 32 Form II classes were chosen and the total population of students for these classes was 1,204. Of these 32 classes, 17 were from the commerce stream and the remaining 15 were from the industrial arts and home science (see Table 2).

These 1,204 students were administered the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Inventory, Academic Self-Concept Inventory, and Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory (Form A). Of these 1,204 students, 5 lived with single parent or step-parents and 9 lived with grandparents;
Table 2
Distribution of Students According to Schools and Streams of Studies
(N = 1,204)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Commerce</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No. of classes</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>662</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Industrial arts/home science</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No. of classes</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>542</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These subjects were not considered further, as only adolescents living with both of their natural parents were included as subjects for this study. Eleven questionnaires were incomplete. The self-concept inventories of the remaining 1,179 students were scored and ranked from high to low. Based on these scores, a total of 493 students were chosen, 251 were chosen from the highest end of the self-concept continuum and were assigned to the high self-concept...
group. The other 242 were chosen from the lowest end of the self-concept continuum and were assigned to the low self-concept group. The range of self-concept scores of the students with high self-concept was from 140 to 161, while the range of scores of the students with low self-concept was from 62 to 99. The parents of these 493 adolescents were sent a letter (Appendix I) explaining the study and inviting them to participate by responding to the set of Parent-Adolescent Inventory (Form P) and General Information Sheet that were attached together with the letter. This was followed by a phone call a week later to remind them of the study and requesting their cooperation by responding to the questionnaires posted to them. Another set of questionnaires were sent to those families whose houses were without phones, if the responses from the first set were not received from them. Of the 341 parents who responded, 172 parents were from the high self-concept adolescent group and 169 parents were from the low self-concept adolescent group. The remaining 152 student respondents were eliminated since their parents did not respond (see Table 3).

The adolescent sample composition that was retained in this study was 100 females and 72 males for the high self-concept group (N = 172; 50.4%) and 100 females and 69 males in the low self-concept group (N = 169; 49.5%). This composition is shown in Table 4.

Age

One hundred and forty-two of the adolescents were 13 plus years of age and the remaining 199 adolescents were 14 plus years of age.
Fathers' age range was from 31 to 74 years, while mothers' age range was from 28 to 65 years.

Table 3

Distribution of Student and Parent Samples According to Self-Concept Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>High self-concept group</th>
<th>Low self-concept group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Selected student sample</td>
<td>Response rate of parents %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total no. and percentage of response rate

<p>| | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>251</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>68.5</td>
<td>242</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sex

In term of distribution of sample by sex, there were 200 girls (58.7%) and 141 boys (41.4%). Out of these 200 girls, 112 were Malay girls, 63 were Chinese girls, and 25 were Indian girls. Out of the
141 boys, there were 76 Malay boys, 43 Chinese boys, and 22 Indian boys (refer to Table 5).

Table 4
Self-Concept by Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self-concept group</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5
Sex by Race

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th>Indians</th>
<th>Malays</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>59.4</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>53.2</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>40.6</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>46.8</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Race

The racial composition of the student sample represented a good cross-section of larger society. As indicated in Table 5, there were 106 Chinese adolescents (31.1%), 188 Malay adolescents (55.1%), and 47 were Indian adolescents (13.8%). Since the parent sample was based on student sample, racial composition of the parent sample represented the same racial breakdown.

The distribution of sample according to the levels of self-concept by race is shown in Table 6.

Table 6
Self-Concept by Race

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th>Indians</th>
<th>Malays</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq. %</td>
<td>Freq. %</td>
<td>Freq. %</td>
<td>Freq. %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>54 50.9</td>
<td>25 53.2</td>
<td>93 49.5</td>
<td>172 50.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>52 49.1</td>
<td>22 46.8</td>
<td>95 50.5</td>
<td>169 49.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>106 100.0</td>
<td>47 100.0</td>
<td>188 100.0</td>
<td>341 100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Family Size

For the purpose of analysis, families in this study were categorized according to their sizes. The size was determined by the
number of family members which include the parents and the children. Accordingly, the sizes are: large families—nine and more members, average size families—five to eight members, and small families—four and less members. The distribution of families according to sizes is shown in Table 7.

Table 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family Size by Race</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malays</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freq.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For all the three races, the largest percentage of each group was made up of families of average size, 56.4% of the Malay families, 61.3% of the Chinese families, and 68.1% of the Indian families. Of the Chinese families, 25.5% were made up of small size families as compared to a smaller percentage of 4.8% among the Malay families and 8.5% of the Indian families. In the large family category, there was a larger percentage, 38.8%, of the Malay families; the Indian families made up 23.3%; and the Chinese families made up 13.2%.
Socioeconomic Status

In view of the significance of socioeconomic status on the family interaction and self-esteem from various research findings (Nye, 1951; Rosenberg, 1965; Straus, 1968), it appeared necessary to include information regarding socioeconomic status from the parents. Criteria used as measures of socioeconomic status are: family income, parents' educational level, and parents' level of occupation.

Family income. The family income was categorized according to four levels: (1) M$2,001 and above, (2) M$1,001-M$2,000, (3) M$501-M$1,000, and (4) M$500 and below.

The distribution of parents' income by race is indicated in Table 8. There were 10% of the Malay parents in the highest income bracket of $2,001 and above as compared to the 31% of the Chinese parents. The Indian parents had only 4% in this income bracket. Another 10% of the Malay parents were in the income bracket $1,001-$2,000 as compared to 21.7% of the Chinese parents. The Indian parents had 14.9% in this income bracket. The income bracket M$501-M$1,000 included 31% Malay parents, 28.3% Chinese parents, and 14.9% Indian parents. The largest percentage of the Malay parents, 48.9%, as well as the Indian parents, 66%, were from the income bracket of $500 and below. The Chinese parents of this low income category made up the smallest percentage, 18.9%.
Table 8

Family Income by Race

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family income</th>
<th>Malay Freq.</th>
<th>Malay %</th>
<th>Chinese Freq.</th>
<th>Chinese %</th>
<th>Indian Freq.</th>
<th>Indian %</th>
<th>Total Freq.</th>
<th>Total %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M$2,001 and above</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M$1,001-M$2,000</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M$501-M$1,000</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>27.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M$500 and below</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>48.9</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>66.0</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>42.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>341</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Parents' educational levels. The educational levels of the parents in this study sampled the educational structure of Malaysia. The following is being extracted and slightly adapted from the Chart 1, Appendix N.

1. Professionals and higher degrees—MA, MS, ME, MD, MBBS, PhD, LLB, and Diploma of Education.
2. First degrees—BA, BSc, BBA.
3. College diploma—Teachers College Diploma, Institute of Technology MARA, Diploma from Polytechnics and Universities.
4. High school certificates—Higher School Certificate (pre-university), Malaysian Certificate of Education.
5. Lower secondary education.
6. Primary school education and less.

The distribution of parents' educational levels by race is shown in Table 9. For the Higher Degrees qualification, the Chinese parents made up the largest percentage of 8.5% as compared to 2.1% of the Malay parents and also 2.1% of the Indian parents. As for the University First Degrees qualification, the Chinese parents also made up the largest percentage of 16% as compared to the 4.3% of the Malay parents and 2.1% of the Indian parents. Following this trend, the Chinese parents made up the largest percentage of 10.4% having a College Diploma, the Indian parents made up 6.4%, and the Malay parents made up 2.7%. Comparatively, the Malay parents had the largest percentage of 21.8% with High School qualification, whereas the Indian parents made up 17%, and the Chinese parents made up 16%. In terms of Lower Secondary Education, the Indian parents made up about 25.5%, the Malay parents made up 19.7%, and the Chinese parents made up 13.2%. In the case of Primary School qualification or any qualification lower than this level, 49.5% of the Malay parents belong to this category; 35.8% of the Chinese parents and 46.8% of the Indian parents also belong to this category. This means that a large majority of the Malay parents, Chinese parents, and Indian parents have Primary School qualification as compared to the small number of Malay, Chinese, and Indian parents with high qualifications, such as Professional Degrees and Basic Degrees.

Parents' occupational levels. The format of occupational levels in this study was obtained from Fourth Malaysia Plan (1980). The
Table 9
Parents' Educational Levels by Race

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational levels</th>
<th>Malays</th>
<th></th>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th></th>
<th>Indians</th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher degree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University first degree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College diploma</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school education</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower secondary education</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary school education and less</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>49.5</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>46.8</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>44.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>341</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
occupational levels as indicated below was slightly adapted by including the category proprietor of large business enterprise with the professionals and technicians in the first level.

1. Professionals, technicians, and proprietors of large business—e.g., medical doctor, dentist, college professor, surveyor, pilot, quality controller, technician.

2. Managerial and administrative jobs—director, manager, executive, administrator, personnel, etc.

3. Clerical and related jobs—e.g., clerk, typist, stenographer, office assistants, etc.

4. Service jobs—e.g., army, police, securicor, fire department, hospital and hostel attendants, etc.

5. Sales and related business—e.g., shop proprietor, hawkers, vendors, etc.

6. Agricultural work—e.g., rubber tapper, farmer, estate laborer, etc.

7. Manual work in transport, production, and labor—e.g., factory worker, machine operator, lorry driver, bus driver, laborer with construction, tin mines, etc.

The distribution of parents' occupation by race is shown in Table 10. A large majority of the Malay parents have manual jobs in production, transport, and labor (37.2%). The next largest percentage of Malay parents was in service jobs (27%). About 11.7% of the Malay parents had professional jobs, big business, and technical jobs. A smaller percentage of them were in managerial (7.5%), clerical (6.9%), sales and small business (9%), and agricultural jobs (0.5%). A majority of the Indian parents were also in the manual jobs (40.4%). Next largest percentage for the Indian parents were in professional jobs, big business, and technical jobs (14.9%), and service works (14.9%). About 10.6% of them were in clerical jobs and
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational levels</th>
<th>Malays</th>
<th></th>
<th>Chinese</th>
<th></th>
<th>Indians</th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionals, big business, technical jobs</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managerial and administrative jobs</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical jobs</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service works</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales and small business</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural jobs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manual jobs in transport, production, and labor</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>341</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8.5% in agricultural jobs. They made up small percentages in managerial and administrative jobs (4.3%), and in sales and small business (6.4%). Unlike the other two races, the Chinese parents were mostly in big business, professional jobs, and technical jobs (24.5%). The next largest percentage of the Chinese parents were in the managerial and administrative jobs (18.9%), 17.9% of them were in service jobs, 15.1% of them were in manual jobs, 13.2% of them were in sales and small business, and 8.5% were in clerical jobs. A very small percentage of them was in agricultural jobs (1.9%).

**Procedure for Data Collection**

The first contact with the seven schools selected for this study was made through a letter to the Educational Planning and Research Division, Ministry of Education, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. The letter explained the present writer's academic status, the study and its purpose, and request for permission to survey the school children in Petaling Jaya. (See Appendix A for a copy of this letter.) A copy of the research proposal was forwarded together with this letter.

The approval letter from the Ministry was received together with the list of schools in Petaling Jaya to be used for selection procedure (see Appendix B and Appendix C). When the population was determined through random and stratified sampling, the survey was carried out.

The data collection was conducted in a very organized manner. The present writer determined a very suitable date and time and place with the headmaster of each school for the administration of the
Rosenberg Self-Esteem Inventory, Academic Self-Concept Scales, and Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory (Form A). When dates were obtained from all the seven schools, the administration of the tests was carried out one school at a time according to the date determined.

In three of the schools, the administration of the tests was carried out each time in the library; in another two schools, the administration of the tests was carried out in the assembly halls; and in the remaining two schools, it was carried out in the classrooms. The administrations of tests in the classrooms were assisted by four teacher-trainees from the University of Agriculture Malaysia. Each administration lasted for about an hour.

Each time before the administration of the tests, the students were told that the study had two particular purposes: one was to ascertain their assessment of themselves in terms of their general views of their own ability, potentials, and academic performances. The second purpose was to investigate their perceptions of parent-adolescent communication. They were also told that all the answers were confidential and that no one but the examiner would see the questionnaires. They were also assured that although their parents would be contacted by letter to invite them to participate in the second phase of the study regarding parent-adolescent communication from the parents' point of view, their responses would not be known by their parents. Students supplied names of parents, addresses, and phone numbers together with their responses, to enable contact with their parents. The Malay version of the instructions to be conveyed to the students by the teacher-trainees is in Appendix G.
The self-concept inventories were scored and ranked from high to low. On the basis of these scores, 251 adolescents and their parents were assigned to the upper third self-concept group (high) and 242 adolescents and their parents were assigned to the lower third self-concept group (low). The background characteristics of these two groups of adolescents were similar in terms of age, living in an intact family, with both natural parents.

The parents of the selected subjects were sent a letter (see Appendix I) explaining the study, its purpose, and its confidentiality, and inviting at least one of the parents to participate by responding to the set of questionnaires, that is, Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory (Form P) and the General Information Sheet which were attached together with the letter. The approval letter from the Ministry of Education and a stamped, preaddressed envelope was also included in the mailing. This was followed by a phone call a week later to remind them of the study and requesting their cooperation by responding to the questionnaires posted to them. Another set of questionnaires was sent to those families whose houses were without phones if responses from the first set were not received from them. Of the 341 parents who responded, 172 parents were from the high self-concept adolescent group and 169 parents were from the low self-concept adolescent group. The data on the academic achievement of the 341 students were collected from the form teachers of the students soon after the 1984 mid-year examination results of each school were ready.
Data Analysis

Each hypothesis in this study was tested statistically by one or more of the following procedures: Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, *t* tests, two-way analysis of variance, and Fisher's *z* transformation correlation coefficient. An alpha level of .05 was used for all the above statistical procedures.

In operational terms, Hypotheses 1 and 2 are stated as following:

Hypothesis 1: The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient between parent-adolescent communication and adolescents' self-concept is not equal to zero.

Hypothesis 2: The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient between parent-adolescent communication and adolescents' academic achievement is not equal to zero.

The null hypotheses \( \rho = 0 \) were tested by using Pearson product-moment correlation. The probability of committing a Type I error was set at the .05 level.

The formula for the test statistic of these two hypotheses is as follows:

\[
* t = r \sqrt{\frac{n - 2}{1 - r^2}}
\]

Hypothesis 3 is a directional hypothesis that is stated in operational terms as follows:

The difference between the means of the high self-concept group and the low self-concept group is not equal to zero.
The null hypothesis \( \mu_{HSA} - \mu_{LSA} = 0 \) was tested by using the \( t \) test. The probability of committing a Type I error was set at the .05 level.

The following formula of the \( t \) test was utilized for this hypothesis testing:

\[
\frac{(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2) - (\mu_1 - \mu_2)}{S_{\bar{X}_1} - S_{\bar{X}_2}}
\]

In operational terms, Hypotheses 4 and 5 are stated as follows:

Hypothesis 4: The interaction effects between sex of the adolescents and the nature of communication with their parents upon the self-concept is not equal to zero.

Hypothesis 5: The interaction effects between sex of the adolescents and the nature of communication with their parents upon the academic achievement is not equal to zero.

The null hypotheses, all \( \mu_{rc} - \mu_{r} - \mu_{c} + \mu = 0 \) were tested by using the two-way analysis of variance. The test statistic for these hypotheses is the \( F \) ratio. The probability of committing a Type I error was set at .05 level. The \( F \)-ratio formula is as follows:

\[
F_{RC} = \frac{MS_{RC}}{MS_{W}}
\]

Fisher's \( z \) transformation correlation coefficient was used to test Hypothesis 6. This hypothesis was to determine the congruency of perceptions on family communication by the parents and adolescents.
of both high and low self-concept groups. In operational terms, this hypothesis is stated as follows:

Hypothesis 6: The difference between the Fisher's $z$ correlation coefficients of high self-concept group and low self-concept group is not equal to zero.

The correlation coefficient of the high self-concept group ($z_{\text{HSG}}$) is the resultant Fisher's $z$ correlation coefficient between the adolescents' perceptions on family communication and parents' perceptions.

The correlation coefficient of the low self-concept group ($z_{\text{LSG}}$) is the resultant Fisher's $z$ correlation coefficient between the adolescents' perception on family communication and parents' perceptions.

The null hypothesis of no difference between the two population correlation coefficients ($z_{\text{HSG}} - z_{\text{LSG}} = 0$) was tested using this general formula.

$$z = \frac{(z_{r1} - z_{r2}) - (z_{p1} - z_{p2})}{S_{z} \frac{1}{r1} + \frac{1}{r2}}$$

The probability of committing a Type I error was set at .05 level.
CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This study was designed to determine the relationships between the parent-adolescent communication, self-concept, and academic achievement of adolescents. This chapter discusses the testings of the six major hypotheses, followed by the results and the trends of the findings.

Three hundred and forty-one male and female Form II adolescents of various secondary schools in Petaling Jaya, together with their parents, were involved in this study. They comprised the high and low self-concept groups. The self-concept of the adolescents was assessed by the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Inventory and the Academic Self-Concept Scales of School Attitude Measure. The academic achievement was measured by the averages of the composite scores of the 1984 mid-year examination. The adolescent's perception of the family communication was measured by the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory, Form A, and the parents' perception of the family communication was measured by the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory, Form P.

Tables 11, 12, and 13 present the summaries of the means, standard deviations, and the range of scores of self-concept, academic achievement, and family communication of the high and low self-concept groups.
Table 11

Means, Standard Deviations, and Range of Scores of Self-Concept Inventories for Both High and Low Self-Concept Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Inventory</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Min.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High self-concept</td>
<td>Rosenberg self-esteem scores</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Academic self-concept</td>
<td>117.0</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low self-concept</td>
<td>Rosenberg self-esteem scores</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Academic self-concept</td>
<td>75.7</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>Inventory</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>Max.</td>
<td>Min.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High self-concept (N = 172)</td>
<td>Mid-year examination results</td>
<td>64.4</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>155.00</td>
<td>90.7</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Standard V National Assessment</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>6.99</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low self-concept (N = 169)</td>
<td>Mid-year examination results</td>
<td>41.99</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>114.10</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Standard V National Assessment</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>7.90</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 13
Means, Standard Deviations, and Range of Scores of Parent-Adolescent Communication Form A and Form P for Both High and Low Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Inventory</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>Max.</th>
<th>Min.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High self-concept</td>
<td>Parent-Adolescent Communication</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Form A (N = 172)</td>
<td>82.4</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>101.60</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Form P (N = 172)</td>
<td>88.3</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>231.60</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low self-concept</td>
<td>Parent-Adolescent Communication</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Form A (N = 169)</td>
<td>51.0</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>90.96</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Form P (N = 169)</td>
<td>76.5</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>308.10</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hypotheses Testing

Six research hypotheses were formulated to examine the questions posed by this research. Each hypothesis was constructed to investigate the resultant scores of parent-adolescent communication with self-concept and academic achievement of the adolescents in the study.

To determine the relationship between parent-adolescent communication and adolescents' self-concept, it was hypothesized:

**Hypothesis 1:** There is a relationship between parent-adolescent communication and adolescents' self-concept.

The student scores on self-concept inventories and the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory (Form A) were correlated using the Pearson product-moment correlation. The null hypothesis which is population equal to zero was tested against the nondirectional alternate at the .05 level of significance. Since the value of the test statistic exceeded the critical value, the null hypothesis was rejected. Data relative to Hypothesis 1 are summarized in Table 14.

The Pearson $r$ between the parent-adolescent communication and self-concept for the entire sample was 0.86. The coefficient of determination ($r^2$) indicates the proportion of the variance in one variable that can be associated with the variance in the other variable (Hinkle et al., 1979). The coefficient of determination for the entire sample was 0.74. Therefore, 74% of the variance in the self-concept can be associated with the variance in the family communication.
Table 14

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient Between Self-Concept Scores and Parent-Adolescent Communication (Form A) Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tests correlated</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Pearson r</th>
<th>r²</th>
<th>t value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall scores of self-concept inventories</td>
<td>119.7</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Rosenberg and Academic Self-Concept)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory (Form A)</td>
<td>66.8</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>31.2*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05.

To determine the relationship between parent-adolescent communication and adolescents' academic achievement, it was hypothesized:

**Hypothesis 2**: There is a relationship between parent-adolescent communication and adolescents' academic achievement.

The scores on the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory (Form A) and the averages of the composite scores of mid-year examinations were correlated using the Pearson product-moment correlation.

The null hypothesis which is population equal to zero was tested against the nondirectional alternative at the .05 level of significance. Since the value of the test statistic exceeded the critical value, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Data relative to Hypothesis 2 are summarized in Table 15. The Pearson r between parent-adolescent communication and academic achievement for the entire sample was 0.667. The coefficient of
determination ($r^2$) for the entire sample was 0.45. Therefore, 45% of the variance in the academic achievement can be associated with the variance in family communication.

Table 15

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tests correlated</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Pearson $r$</th>
<th>$r^2$</th>
<th>t value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mid-year exam. results</td>
<td>53.3</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory (Form A)</td>
<td>66.8</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>16.47*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05.

To find the differences in perception between the adolescents of the high self-concept group and the low self-concept group regarding their communication with their parents, it was hypothesized:

**Hypothesis 3:** The adolescents of the high self-concept group perceive communication with their parents as more positive and functional than the adolescents of the low self-concept group.

The mean scores of the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory (Form A) for both the high and low self-concept groups were obtained for $t$ test. The null hypothesis that there is no differences between the two group means was tested against the directional hypothesis. The probability of committing a Type I error was set at the .05 level of significance. Since the observed difference exceeded the critical
value of $t$, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Data relative to Hypothesis 3 are summarized in Table 16.

Table 16
Means, Standard Deviations, and $t$ Ratio for Parent-Adolescent Communication Scores of High Self-Concept Group and Low Self-Concept Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>$t$ ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High self-concept group</td>
<td>82.4</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low self-concept group</td>
<td>50.8</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>27.9*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at .05 level.

To determine the interaction effect of the sex of the adolescents and parent-adolescent communication on the self-concept of the adolescents, it was hypothesized:

Hypothesis 4: There is an interaction effect between sex of the adolescents and parent-adolescent communication upon the self-concept.

The two independent variables in this hypothesis are the sex of the adolescents and the different nature of parent-adolescent communication which are good, average, and poor. To ascertain the interaction effects of both the independent variables upon the self-concept of the adolescents, a two-way analysis of variance was used. The null hypothesis of no interaction effect between sex of the adolescents and parent-adolescent communication upon the self-concept
was tested against the alternate hypothesis at the .05 level of significance. Since the observed $F$ value 0.55 did not exceed the critical value 3.0 at $\alpha = .05$, the null hypothesis was retained.

Data relative to Hypothesis 4 are summarized in Table 17.

Table 17

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>$F_{cv}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rows (sex)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>60.35</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>3.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column (Family Communication, Form A)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>57615.24</td>
<td>166.37*</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction (Sex x Family Communication)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>224.01</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>335</td>
<td>406.41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>340</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the .05 level.

To determine the interaction effects of sex of the adolescents and parent-adolescent communication upon the academic achievement of the adolescents, it was hypothesized:

Hypothesis 5: There is an interaction effect between sex of the adolescents and parent-adolescent communication upon the academic achievement.
The independent variables in this hypothesis are the sex of the adolescents and the nature of parent-adolescent communication, such as good, average, and poor. To ascertain the interaction effects of both the independent variables on the academic achievement of the adolescents, a two-way analysis of variance was utilized. The null hypothesis that there is no interaction effect between sex of the adolescents and parent-adolescent communication upon the academic achievement was tested against the alternate hypothesis at the .05 level of significance. Since the observed $F$ value 0.59 did not exceed the critical value $3.0$ at $\alpha = .05$, the null hypothesis was retained. Data relative to Hypothesis 5 are summarized in Table 18.

Table 18

Two-Way Analysis of Variance: Interaction of Variables
Sex and Family Communication Upon the Variable
Academic Achievement of Adolescents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>$F_{cv}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rows (Sex)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>333.07</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>3.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column (Family Communication, Form A)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14396.75</td>
<td>81.63*</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction (Sex x Family Communication)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>103.56</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>335</td>
<td>176.37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>340</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the .05 level.
To determine whether or not the adolescents and the parents of the high self-concept group have similar positive perceptions of their communications and the adolescents and the parents of the low self-concept group do not have similar perceptions of their communications, it was hypothesized:

**Hypothesis 6:** The perceptions on family communication made by adolescents of the high self-concept group and their parents are congruent, whereas the perceptions of adolescents of the low self-concept group and their parents are incongruent.

The scores of the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory, Form A (for adolescents) and Form P (for parents), for each self-concept group were correlated by using Person product-moment correlation coefficient. The $r$ value of both groups were transformed to Fisher's $z$ correlation coefficient. The null hypothesis of no difference between the two population correlation coefficients was tested against the nondirectional alternative hypothesis, at the .05 level of significance. The null hypothesis was retained since the observed value of the test statistic did not exceed the critical value. Data relative to Hypothesis 6 is summarized in Table 19.

**Results of the Research**

The results of this research demonstrated that there was a relationship between parent-adolescent communication and adolescents' self-concept and academic achievement. A very high positive correlation between parent-adolescent communication scores and self-concept scores of adolescents showed a substantive relationship between those
Table 19

Means, Standard Deviations, Pearsonian r Correlation Coefficient, Fisher's z Transformation Correlation Coefficients, and t Ratio for the Scores of Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory, Form A and Form P of Both High and Low Self-Concept Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Tests correlated</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Pearson r</th>
<th>Fisher's z</th>
<th>t ratio (Z test)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High self-concept</td>
<td>Parent-Adolescent Communication</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form A</td>
<td></td>
<td>172</td>
<td>82.4</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>0.240</td>
<td>0.245</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form P</td>
<td></td>
<td>172</td>
<td>88.9</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low self-concept</td>
<td>Parent-Adolescent Communication</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form A</td>
<td></td>
<td>169</td>
<td>50.8</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>0.227</td>
<td>0.230</td>
<td>0.194*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form P</td>
<td></td>
<td>169</td>
<td>80.5</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* t test = 0.194 < 1.96 at α = .05.
two variables. There was also a high positive correlation between parent-adolescent communication scores and the academic achievement scores of adolescents. This, therefore, indicates that there is a substantive relationship between those two variables.

On the comparison of the perception of adolescents of the high self-concept and low self-concept groups of their communications with their parents, the results of the t-test demonstrated that adolescents of the high self-concept group had positive perceptions of their communication (relationships) with their parents whereas adolescents of the low self-concept group perceived their communications with their parents as less functional.

There was no evidence to show that the sex of the adolescents interacting with the nature of communication had any effects on the self-concept of adolescents. The resultant test value was not significant (see Table 17). There was also no evidence to indicate that the sex of the adolescents interacting with the different nature of communication had any effects on the academic achievement of the adolescents. The resultant test value was not significant (see Table 18).

It has been hypothesized and further substantiated by literature that adolescents with high self-concept and their parents perceive their communications as positive since their relationships are more fulfilling and satisfying. However, the adolescents with low self-concept and their parents do not have similar perceptions of their communication. Adolescents of the low self-concept group perceive their communication with their parents as less positive, and at its
worst, perceive it as dysfunctional. Their perceptions and that of their parents' perceptions are incongruent.

However, the results of the present research seemed to suggest the trend of a modest positive congruency of perception of adolescents and parents of the high self-concept group. The same trend of results was obtained for the low self-concept group, that is, a modest positive congruency of perception of adolescents and parents. This is not in concert with the hypothesis which stated that perceptions of adolescents and their parents on family communication are incongruent for the low self-concept group and congruent for the high self-concept group.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose, problems, and procedures of the study are summarized in this chapter; conclusions are presented on the basis of the results reported in Chapter IV, and recommendations are made on the basis of the conclusions.

Summary

The purpose of this investigation was to determine whether the family communication as measured by the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory (Form A) had some bearings upon the self-concept and academic achievement of adolescents in Form II of secondary schools in Petaling Jaya, Malaysia. An answer to the question of whether the family relationship and communication affect the personality development and academic performance of the adolescents appeared significant in light of the growing concern regarding the relevance of family involvement in the educational development of school children. This study is one of the very few studies in Malaysia that endeavor to shed light upon the influence of family relationships and communication on the well-being of the adolescents. The results should prove very beneficial to the school personnel confronted with unmotivated adolescents coupled with self-defeating behavior and human relation problems. On the whole, it should prove to be useful to the policy makers of the educational system in Malaysia who are faced with the
task of facilitating community involvement, particularly on the part of parents in the educational activities of the school.

A review of related literature and research relevant to the relationship between family communication, self-concept, and academic achievement supported the idea of the family as a system of interactions that influences the pattern of behavior, personality development, and academic performance of the children. Most of the literature and research concluded that self-concept and academic achievement are associated with the ways parents interact and communicate with their children.

The subjects in this field study were male and female Form II students of secondary schools in Petaling Jaya. They were administered three instruments which measured global self-concept, academic self-concept, and parent-adolescent communication. Based on the self-concept scores the students were divided into a high self-concept group and a low self-concept group. The results of the 1984 mid-year examination, criteria for achievement, were collected for the students from the classroom teachers and the Standard V National Assessment was collected from the student records. The total number of students participating in the study was 341. Of this number, 172 were in the high self-concept group and 169 were in the low self-concept group. The parents of the selected student sample were sent questionnaires (Form P) which measured parent-adolescent communication from the parents' point of view. Demographic information regarding family size, family income, parents' educational levels, and occupational levels were also collected along with the scores from
the Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory.

The major research questions raised in this study were examined by tabulating the results of the measure of family communication with measures of adolescents' self-concept and academic achievement. Six null hypotheses were proposed to investigate these questions. The first null hypothesis stated that there would be no relationship between the parent-adolescent communication and adolescents' self-concept. The second stated that there would be no relationship between parent-adolescent communication and adolescents' academic achievement. The third stated that adolescents of both high and low self-concept groups would not differ in their perceptions of their communications with their parents. The fourth stated that there would be no interaction effect between the sex of the adolescents and the nature of parent-adolescent communication upon the self-concept of the adolescents. The fifth stated that there would be no interaction effect between the sex of the adolescents and the nature of parent-adolescent communication upon the academic achievement of the adolescents. Finally, the sixth hypothesis stated that there would be a congruency of perception on family communication by adolescents and their parents of both high and low self-concept groups.

To test all the hypotheses formulated to investigate the relationships among family communication, self-concept, and academic achievement, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was employed. The test of means (t-test) was used for the comparison of perception by adolescents of high and low self-concept. A two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to determine the interaction.
between the sex of the adolescents and the nature of family communication upon self-concept and academic achievement of adolescents. The congruency of perceptions on family communication by adolescents and their parents of both high and low self-concept groups were determined by using the Fisher's $z$ transformation correlation coefficient. The difference in the correlation coefficients of both groups were determined by using a $t$ test ($z$ test). The significance of relationships and differences for all the correlation coefficients, two-way analysis of variances, $F$ ratios, and $t$ ratios were assessed at the .05 level of significance.

Conclusions

According to the results obtained, positive relationships exist between family communication, self-concept, and academic achievement. Therefore, it may be concluded that family communication determines and influences adolescents' self-concept and academic achievement. These findings do support conclusions from the literature review that family communication, interaction, and parental interest to a great extent influence the self-concept and achievement of children (Bateson et al., 1969; Bienvenu, 1969; Coopersmith, 1967; Dietz, 1969; Goode, 1964; McClelland, 1961; Rosenberg, 1965; Satir, 1967; Shaw & Dutton, 1962).

From the results of the comparison of perceptions of parent-adolescent communication (Form A) by adolescents of high and low self-concept groups, it was revealed that there was a difference of perception between the groups. Thus, it can be concluded that
adolescents with a high self-concept perceived their communication with their parents as positive and functional, and adolescents with a low self-concept perceived their communication as less effective and more dysfunctional (Satir, 1967; Sporawski & Eubanks, 1976).

From the results, there was no evidence to show that sex interacting with the nature of communication had any effect on the self-concept and academic achievement of the adolescents. The findings of this research did not support the conclusions drawn by Chiam (1976), Ch'ng (1976), Dietz (1969), Haley (1969), and Heilbrun (1960), that the interaction between the variables sex of the adolescents and also the sex of the parents and the nature of the communication process affect the self-concept and, on the whole, the psychological development of the adolescents. Research done by Chiam (1976) and Ch'ng (1976) in Malaysia yielded findings that the differential parental treatment of the children persisted due to the sex of the children and resulted in differences in self-concept between boys and girls. This present research, however, did not support their research conclusions. With regard to the effects of the interaction between variables sex and parent-adolescent communication upon academic achievement, the results were not in concert with findings of research done by Brofenbrenner (1961), Christopher (1967), Ch'ng (1976), McClelland (1961), and Scanzioni (1966), who implied that the sex of the parents and the adolescents have some considerable meditative effects on the child-rearing and socialization processes that consequently affect the achievement behavior of the adolescents.
The results of the research also demonstrated that in both high and low self-concept groups, the perceptions of the adolescents and the parents on family communication were congruent.

These results, however, do not support the conclusions drawn by Bledsoe and Wiggins (1973), Cheek (1964), Dietz (1969), and Matteson (1973), whose research findings showed that adolescents with a low self-concept perceived their communication with their parents as less functional whereas their parents perceived otherwise. Adolescents with a high self-concept and their parents have similar positive perceptions of their communication with one another.

Implications and Recommendations

Several implications of importance to school counselors and other pupil personnel workers including form teachers, discipline teachers, school senior assistants and headmasters, academicians, and researchers in Malaysia might be drawn from the findings of this research.

Consideration for Family Background and Interaction

The key concepts to assist the school counselors and school personnel who deal with students face-to-face every working day should be positive interaction, relationship, and communication. It is already evidenced that communication and the skills that foster it are, to a large extent, elements transmitted by both the family and educational system. The counselors and teachers should consider both interpersonal and situational factors, including the current stresses
in the adolescent's life, social class, and cultural influences exerted by the immediate family members.

**Program Development**

The schools in Malaysia should incorporate Parent Effectiveness Training Programs (Gordon, 1970), Parent Education, and Communication Skills Programs in the school system as preventive and developmental approaches to the psychological and educational development of children. It is increasingly evident that, in the schools, the counselors and teachers only react to the student when psychological problems have developed and more often than not they fail to assist in solving the problem, let alone prevent it. The idea for family communication training will offer developmental assistance to parents rather than to attempt to provide help after a crisis has arisen with their children. These recommendations were noted from theorists in counseling and guidance (Cottingham, 1967; Meeks, 1963; Patterson, 1962) who called for much greater emphasis on consultation and developmental or preventive learning experience for parents and teachers in view of the significant influence they have on a child's feelings of self-worth. The school door should no longer be the barrier isolating parents from the child's educational development. The collaborative efforts of parents and teachers and other school personnel should be emphasized in enhancing the student's ability to function more effectively in school.
School As a Community Center

In response to the suggestion made by the Minister of Education, Datuk Abdullah Badawi, in his speech at the Malaysian Education Seminar in August 1984, schools should be used as community centers whereby the facilities in schools are extended to the community. The counselors and school personnel should extend services such as Family Counseling and Parent Encounter Groups to the parents in order to meet the unique needs of the parents of the students in Malaysia. The objectives of the Parent-Teacher Association should be revised to include this basic purpose of educating communities. Inasmuch as the family is a major factor in the transmission of communication skills, the school and the community as a whole should focus more attention in providing and aiding parents in facilitating communication within their families.

Future Research

The connection between school and family problems has been commented on in the very few studies done in Malaysia (Chiam, 1984; Chiam & Fatimah, 1982; Ch'ng, 1976; Esah, 1977; Ismail, 1982); however, relatively little research has been done to examine the pattern of communication and the quality of communication between parents and children. Further replications of this study should be undertaken to determine the specific nature of family communication and interaction that affect the adolescent personality development and behavior. The specific nature of communication mentioned here is concerning the
various styles of parenting, the differences prevailing among the different types of families in terms of socioeconomic status, culture, and ethnic background. The changing nature of family life with both parents working leaving the children to the care of the house helpers (or housemaids) should be an interesting area to research. Studies should be carried out to determine the differences in communication patterns, the quantity and quality of communication, and interaction among families with house helpers and those without house helpers. Spouses' communication and interactions and its effects on the children is also another important aspect to be studied in Malaysia. Studies carried out in America (Bienvenu, 1969; Matteson, 1974) found a significant relationship between the husband and wife relationship with that of children's adjustment and self-esteem.

The demographic variables such as race seems necessary to be analyzed for heterogeneous populations like Malaysia. It is recommended that it be analyzed to determine its relationship with parenting styles, family communication, self-concept, and academic achievement of schoolchildren.

Even though the interaction of the variables sex and the nature of communication did not appear to have effect on the self-concept and academic achievement of adolescents in this study, it is recommended that further studies need to be conducted which go beyond the scope of the present investigation. A study should be carried out to correlate the sex of the adolescents with their perception of communication and interactions with father and mother, respectively. This recommendation would be able to attest the contention that the
process of sexwise identification (Brofenbrenner, 1961; Chiam, 1976; Mowrer, 1950) has a significant influence on the communication process and subsequently in personality development of the children. Parental preference based on the sex of the children might also determine their communication pattern in the family.

Development of Instruments

In order to diagnose family problems and make suggestions that will increase parental competency for the sake of enhancing the students' academic progress, a counselor or the school personnel needs to develop more local instruments for measuring family communication and interactions. The constant effort of designing and applying standardized instruments will lead to the enrichment of the counseling field in Malaysia and would specifically increase the objectivity of counselors' assessment of human behavior.
APPENDICES
Appendix A

Application Letter to the Ministry of Education:
Requesting Permission to Do Research on
School Children in Secondary Schools
in Petaling Jaya
AIZAN MOHD YUSOF,
29, AU 3/14,
Medan Sri Keramat,
Ampang/Ulu Kelang,
KUALA LUMPUR.

18hb. November 1983

Pegawai Penyelidik,
Bahagian Perancang dan Penyelidikan Pelajaran,
Kementerian Pelajaran,
Bangunan Bank Pertanian,
KUALA LUMPUR. (Untuk Perhatian: Encik Mohd Hassan bin Abdul Rahman)

Tuan,

KEBENARAN MENJALANKAN PENYELIDIKAN DI SEKOlah-SEKOlah MENENGAH REndAH, PETALING JAYA, SELANGOR.

Saya adalah seorang penuntut di Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, USA yang sedang menjalani Kursus Counselor Education dan Supervision di peringkat Kedoktoran. Saya ingin memohon kelulusan tuan untuk saya menjalankan penyelidikan di Sekolah-sekolah Menengah Rendah di Petaling Jaya. Tajuk kajian saya ialah "The Influence of Family Communication on Adolescents Self-concept and Academic Achievement in Malaysia." Kependudukan yang akan dikaji adalah murid-murid Tingkatan Dua dan ibu-bapa mereka.

2. Bersamaan surat ini saya sertakan salinan surat pengesahan dari Jabatan Counseling dan Personnel di Western Michigan Universiti, Kalamazoo, USA.

3. Saya sangat-sangat berharap persetujuan dari pHak tuan.

4. Sekian, terima kasih.

Yang benar,

(AIZAN MOHD YUSOF)
Appendix B

Approval Letter From the Ministry of Education
Kawat: "PELAJARAN"

Surat Kita: KP(BPPP)/13/15/Jld.21/(1/4)

Surat Tuan:  

Puan Aizan bte. Mohd. Yusof,
29, AU 3/14,
Medan Sri Keramat,
Ampang, Ulu Kelang,
Kuala Lumpur.

Puan,

Kebenaran bagi Menjalankan Kajian ke Sekolah

Adalah dimaklumkan bahawa permohonan pihak puan untuk menjalankan kajian mengenai 'The Influence of Family Communication on Adolescents Self-Concept and Academic Achievement in Malaysia,' telah diluluskan.

2. Kelulusan ini adalah berdasarkan kepada hanya apa yang terkandung di dalam cadangan penyelidikan yang puan kemukakan ke Bahagian ini.

3. Puan juga dikehendaki menghantar senaskah kajian pihak puan ke bahagian ini sebaik saja selesai kelak.

Sekian.

BERKHIDMAT UNTUK NEGARA

Saya yang menurut perintah,

(MOHAMAD HASAN BIN ABDUL RAHMAN)

Bahagian Perancangan dan Penyelidikan Pelajaran,
B.P. Ketua Seksi Usaha,
Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia.

MH/zy...

(S. B. Sekolah Menengah Daerah

Menjalankan Kajian di Sekolah

Pengarah Pelajaran

Selangor, 2/1/84)
Appendix C

List of Secondary and Lower Secondary Schools in Petaling Jaya
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FILE: BIL</th>
<th>DITA</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>PUSAT KEJURUTERAAN MENYATU</th>
<th>JABATAN PENGURUSAN KOMPUTER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BFA8601 SM</td>
<td>PUNCHONG</td>
<td>SM</td>
<td>BATU 14, JLN PUCHONG</td>
<td>1560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFA8602 SM</td>
<td>SEA PORT</td>
<td>SM</td>
<td>SUNGAI WAY-SUBANG</td>
<td>2296</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFA8603 SM</td>
<td>SHAH ALAM</td>
<td>SM</td>
<td>JLN BUNGA MAWAR 2/5, SHAH ALAM</td>
<td>1660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFA8604 SMK</td>
<td>SUBANG JAYA</td>
<td>SM</td>
<td>SS 14/6 PETALING, SELANGOR</td>
<td>1409</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFA8605 SM</td>
<td>BUKIT GADING</td>
<td>SM</td>
<td>K. POS SG. EDICHI, SELANGOR</td>
<td>1309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFA8606 SM</td>
<td>SERI SFRDANG</td>
<td>SM</td>
<td>TAMAN SFR, SFRDANG</td>
<td>0540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFA8607 SM</td>
<td>KG. MAL</td>
<td>SM</td>
<td>JLN KLANG MAL</td>
<td>1005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFA8608 SM</td>
<td>DAMANSARA JAYA</td>
<td>SM</td>
<td>JLN SS 22/1, P. JAYA</td>
<td>0591</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFA8651 SM</td>
<td>ASSUNTA</td>
<td>SM</td>
<td>JLN CHANGGAI, P. JAYA</td>
<td>2136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFA8652 SM</td>
<td>(L) BKT BINTANG</td>
<td>SM</td>
<td>JLN UITBA, P. JAYA</td>
<td>1678</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFA8653 SM</td>
<td>KATHOLIK</td>
<td>SM</td>
<td>JLN 10/3, P. JAYA</td>
<td>1994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFA8654 SM</td>
<td>LA SALLE</td>
<td>SM</td>
<td>JLN CHANTIK, P. JAYA</td>
<td>1688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFA8655 SM</td>
<td>(P) SFR-AMAN</td>
<td>SM</td>
<td>JLN 14/45, P. JAYA</td>
<td>1940</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFA8656 SM</td>
<td>TAMAN S.E.A</td>
<td>SM</td>
<td>JLN 21/37, P. JAYA</td>
<td>2206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFA8657 SMK</td>
<td>SULTAN ABDUL-SAMAD</td>
<td>SM</td>
<td>JLN 12/13, P. JAYA</td>
<td>1825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFA8655 SM</td>
<td>PEREMPUNAN</td>
<td>SM</td>
<td>JLN 5/52, TAMAN PETALING</td>
<td>2173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BFA8659 SM</td>
<td>SERI-KEBANGAN</td>
<td>SM</td>
<td>K. POS. SFR-I KPMBANGAN</td>
<td>2205</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix D

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale
PLEASE NOTE:

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These consist of pages:

Appendix D Page 103

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Appendix E

Academic Self-Concept Scales: Performance Based and Reference Based
### Academic Self-Concept—Performance Based

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Always agree</th>
<th>Usually agree</th>
<th>Sometimes agree</th>
<th>Never agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I feel nervous when I have to speak in front of the class.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I feel upset over my school performance because I should do a better job.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. School is one place where my ideas are really respected.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I sometimes don't pay attention in school because subjects are too difficult.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. When I have something to contribute to a class discussion, it is usually important.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. If I keep doing my schoolwork as I am now, my future school years will be easy for me.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I get worried about tests and homework assignments.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I get the feeling that I never do well enough in my class assignments.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I don't feel very comfortable speaking in class.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I tried to get involved in most subjects taught in school.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I don't like to take part in class activities.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Knowing my past school grades, I can't expect to get the grades I want.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Academic Self-Concept—Performance Based (Continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How do you feel about the following statements?</th>
<th>Always agree</th>
<th>Usually agree</th>
<th>Sometimes agree</th>
<th>Never agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13. I am pleased with my school grades and wouldn't want to change them at all.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. At times, I get the feeling that I'm going to fail in school.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. If I want to, I can learn just about anything taught in school.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. I seem to learn school subjects very quickly.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. I'm proud of the work I am doing in school.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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## Academic Self-Concept—Reference Based

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How do you feel about the following statements?</th>
<th>Always agree</th>
<th>Usually agree</th>
<th>Sometimes agree</th>
<th>Never agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. My parents and teachers believe I can be an excellent student in any school I want to attend.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. I get the feeling that my parents expect too much from me in school.</td>
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<td>3. I get very upset about my grades because of what I think others will say about them.</td>
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<td>4. Even when I am satisfied with my grades, nobody else is.</td>
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<td>5. My friends think that I am not as smart as other students my age.</td>
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<td>6. I have many abilities that my teachers don't know about.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. When I talk to my friends about school-work, I usually have the best ideas.</td>
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<td>8. When I receive my report card, I enjoy showing it to as many people as I can.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. I'm embarrassed to tell my grades to other students my age.</td>
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<td>10. I can never please anybody with my school performance.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. Compared to other students my age, I don't think I am very smart.</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. Both students and teachers like my ideas.</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Agree Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13. My parents wish I could improve my schoolwork so that it is better</td>
<td>Always agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I am proud to tell my parents how I'm doing in school.</td>
<td>Usually agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Teachers simply expect too much from me in school.</td>
<td>Sometimes agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. My parents believe that I have the ability to do very well in high</td>
<td>Never agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. I'll be one of the top students in my class when I attend high school.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Appendix F

Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory--Form A
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These consist of pages:

Appendix F Pages 110-113
Appendix G

Guideline for Teacher-Trainees on
How to Conduct the Tests
Arahan-arahan yang patut di sampaikan kepada murid-murid:

1. Nyatakan bahawa mereka bukan menjalankan suatu ujian, mereka hanya di kehendaki menjawab sosialisidik.

2. Nyatakan tujuan-tujuan sosialisidik ini:
   Pertama, adalah untuk menentukan penilaian diri murid-murid berdasarkan kebolehan-kebolehan masing-masing, potensi-potensi dan juga prestasi akademik.
   Kedua, adalah untuk menyelidik tentang pandangan mereka terhadap cara perhubungan mereka dengan ibu-bapa.


4. Tegaskan supaya murid-murid jawab semua soalan dalam tiap-tiap bahagian sosialisidik ini.

5. Menjawab sosialisidik ini akan mengambil masa selama 60 minit (1 jam).

Appendix H

Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory—Form P
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These consist of pages:

Appendix H

Pages 117-119
Appendix I

Cover Letter to the Parents
Alzan Mohd Yusof,
135, Jalan SS 14/1
Subang Jaya,
Talipon: 533517.

Kepada:

__________________________
__________________________
__________________________

Tuan/Puan,

Penyelidikan mengenai Hubungan IBUBAPA DAN REMAJA di Petaling Jaya.

Saya seperti nama di atas adalah seorang penuntut Ijazah Kedoktoran dalam bidang Bimbingan dan Kerjaya di Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, Michigan, Amerika Syarikat. Saya sedang menjalankan penyelidikan mengenai 'Hubungan Ibubapa dan Remaja' untuk dissertasi kedoktoran saya. Kawasan penyelidikan yang dipilih adalah Petaling Jaya dan sukacita dimaklumkan keluarga tuan/puan adalah terpilih di dalam contoh penyelidikan saya.


4. Saya merayu sekali lagi kerjasama pihak tuan/puan supaya menjawab soal selidik yang dimaksudkan dimana tiadanya kerjasama tuan, tidaklah dapat saya menjayakan, penyelidikan saya ini. Sesudah dijawab soal selidik tadi, harap hantarkan segera kepada saya dengan sampul surat bersetem yang disertakan.

5. Sekian. Ucapan ribuan terima kasih dari saya.

Yang benar,

(AIZAN MOHD YUSOF)
General Information

Circle whether you are the Mother or the Father of the teen-age son or daughter on whom this study is being made. Mother Father

Husband's/ Wife's age _____ Length of present marriage _____
Your age _____ Wife's age _____ Length of present marriage _____

Marital status (Check one):
_____ Married _____ Separated _____ Divorced _____ Widowed

If separated or divorced, how long has it been? ________________

Religion _________________________

Your children: Ages of boys _______________ Girls _______________

Age of son/daughter on whom this form was completed ________________

YOUR OCCUPATION ______________________________________________________

HUSBAND'S/WIFE'S OCCUPATION _________________________________________

Draw a circle around the number of years of schooling your husband/ wife completed.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 1 2 3 4 1 2 3 4

Grade school High school College Other ___________________

How much schooling have you had? _______________________________________

Your income (Tick [✓] only one):

$2,001 and above _____
$1,001-$2,000 _______
$501-$1,000 _______
$500 and below _______

Your spouse's income (✓ only one):

$2,001 and above _____
$1,001-$2,000 _______
$501-$1,000 _______
$500 and below _______
Appendix K

Translated Versions of Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, Academic Self-Concept Scales, and Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory-Form A
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These consist of pages:

Appendix K Pages 125-136
Appendix L

Translated Versions of Parent-Adolescent Communication Inventory—Form P
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These consist of pages:

Appendix L Pages 138-143
Appendix M

The Translated Version of the General Information Sheet
MAKLUMAT AM

1. Nama: ____________________________________________

2. Nama Anak Remaja: _________________________________________

3. Bulatkan sama ada anda adalah ibu atau bapa kepada remaja yang terlibat dalam kajian ini:
   - [ ] IBU
   - [ ] BAPA

4. Umur Anda: __________ Umur ___________ Tempoh perkahwinan Suami/ Isteri Sekarang: ___________
   - [ ] I
   - [ ] J

5. Taraf Perkahwinan (Tanda √ pada salah satu):
   - [ ] Berkahwin
   - [ ] Berpisah
   - [ ] Bercerai
   - [ ] Duda/Balu (bercerai mati)

6. Kalau berpisah atau bercerai, sudah berapa lama?

7. Bilangan Anak-anak anda: __________________________________________
   - [ ] Umur anak-anak lelaki: 1. __________ 2. __________ 3. __________
   - [ ] Umur anak-anak perempuan: 1. __________ 2. __________ 3. __________

8. Ugama Anda: _____________________________________

9. Pekerjaan Anda: ________________________________________.

10. Pekerjaan suami/isteri anda: ______________________________.

11. Pendapatan Anda (Tandakan √ pada salah satu):
   - [ ] $500 ke bawah
   - [ ] $501 - $1,000
   - [ ] $1,001 - $2,000
   - [ ] $2,001 - ke atas

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12. Pendapatan suami/isteri anda (Tanda ✓ pada salah satu):
   a. $500 ke bawah __________________
   b. $501 - $1,000 __________________
   c. $1,001 - $2,000 ____________________________________
   d. $2,001 ke atas __________________

13. Bulatkan bilangan tahun persekolahan anda:
   Sekolah Rendah  Sekolah Menengah  Kolej
   1 2 3 4 5 6 1 2 3 4 5 6 1 2 3 4
   Universiti
   1 2 3 4 5 6

14. Kelulusan anda: _________________________________

15. Bulatkan bilangan tahun persekolahan suami/isteri anda:
   Sekolah Rendah  Sekolah Menengah  Kolej
   1 2 3 4 5 6 1 2 3 4 5 6 1 2 3 4
   Universiti
   1 2 3 4 5 6

16. Kelulusan suami/isteri anda : ________________________________.
Appendix N

Information on Petaling Jaya and the Educational System in Malaysia
Petaling Jaya

Thirty years ago Petaling Jaya was only a resettlement village developed primarily to accommodate the squatters from Kuala Lumpur. Today Petaling Jaya is one of the most developed and modern towns in Malaysia.

Popularly known as P.J., the town has a population of about 250,000 people in an area of about 144 sq. ms. Petaling Jaya is situated in Kelang Valley—the most developed area in Malaysia. The residents of Petaling Jaya enjoy a high standard of living and statistics have shown that the average monthly per capita income is $1,443, which is the highest for the country.

Petaling Jaya is an industrial center and this is evident by the number of factories found within its boundary. They manufacture a wide range of products like tires, cigarettes, plastic goods, metal products, building materials, paints, soaps, detergents, sweets, toothpaste, cooking oil, soft drinks, milk products, canned food, cables, paper products, electrical goods and appliances, and numerous other products for local consumption and export. These numerous factories, large commercial complexes, and modern houses reflect its progress and befitting the name "Jaya," which means "success."

Facilities for education in Petaling Jaya are among the best in the country and they range from kindergartens to institutions of higher learning. To date Petaling Jaya has 23 primary schools, 17 secondary schools, and 9 institutions of higher learning, providing education at tertiary level.
Petaling Jaya has a population of about 250,000 of various races, mainly Malays, Chinese, and Indians. More than 50% of the population are employed in the factories and business enterprises.

Malaysian Educational System

The structure of formal education in Malaysia is a 6-3-2-2. This structure represents the primary, lower and upper secondary, and preuniversity levels, respectively. The age of entry at the primary level is 6+. Education at the tertiary level, both in the academic and professional fields, is mainly provided by the universities, colleges, and institutes. The length of courses that are offered by the five local universities range from 3 to 6 years, while in the colleges and institutes they range from 2 to 3 years. Chart 1 represents the structure of formal education system as described.

The medium of instruction at all levels of education—from primary to university—is Bahasa Malaysia with English as an important second language. Bahasa Malaysia is a compulsory subject to be passed in all examinations for promotion to higher levels of education. Every child has the chance to be in school for 9 years, from Standard 1 to Form III through automatic promotion. Most primary and secondary schools have morning and afternoon sessions to cope with the ever-increasing number of school-going children.

Primary Education

All children start schooling at the age of 6+ in Standard 1 until they are 11+ in Standard 6. Education is free at the primary
### Structure of Formal Education

#### Expected Ages as at 1st January

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>ISCED Level 1</th>
<th>ISCED Level 2</th>
<th>ISCED Level 3</th>
<th>ISCED Level 4</th>
<th>ISCED Level 5</th>
<th>ISCED Level 6</th>
<th>ISCED Level 7</th>
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#### ISCED (International Standard Classification of Education)

- **ISCED Level 1**: Universal Education
- **ISCED Level 2**: Comprehensive Schools
- **ISCED Level 3**: Lower Secondary (ISCED 5a)
- **ISCED Level 4**: Upper Secondary (ISCED 5b)
- **ISCED Level 5**: Teacher Training Certificate
- **ISCED Level 6**: First Degrees
- **ISCED Level 7**: Higher Degrees

#### Notes
- **ISCED Levels 1 to 4**: Arts and Science Schools
- **ISCED Levels 5 and 6**: Vocational Schools
- **ISCED Level 7**: Higher Degrees (e.g., Ph.D., M.A., M.Sc.)
- **ISCED Level 8**: Diploma (Awarded from Colleges, Polytechnics and Universities)

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level. Promotion is automatic during the 6 years of primary schooling although the children have to sit for two government examinations at Standard 3 and Standard 6 to assess their ability. Common syllabi and timetables are used in all primary schools so that all pupils follow the same courses. Besides the language subjects, others include history, geography, science, arithmetic, arts and crafts, health education and physical education, and Islamic religious knowledge (compulsory for Muslim pupils only). Apart from the subjects mentioned, pupils in Standard 1 to Standard 3 are exposed to local studies, while pupils in Standard 4 to Standard 6 are taught civics. Enrollment rate in the primary school is very high. In 1980, 2,006,748 attended primary schools.

Secondary Education

On the completion of their primary education at the age of 11+, pupils undergo automatic promotion for another 3 years, that is from Form I to Form III (Grades 7 to 9). In 1980, a total of 809,663 children ranging from 12 to 14 attended the lower secondary education. A comprehensive type of education is provided at this lower secondary level. In addition to the academic subjects taught at this level, elective subjects of a prevocational nature such as industrial arts, home science, agricultural science, and commerce are offered. Pupils are allowed to choose one of these subjects. The main objective is to expose them to a practical experience by following one of the electives rather than train them to become skilled workers. At the end of Form III (Grade 9), the pupils sit for a common
examination called the Lower Certificate of Education (LCE). The Lower Certificate of Education result provides the basis for selection of qualified pupils into Form IV (Grade 10) at the upper secondary level. The pupils are then channeled into various streams, namely, science, arts, technical, or vocational. In the 1979/80 session, the total number of pupils who were promoted from the lower to the upper secondary level was 129,220. After Form IV, the students are promoted to Form V the following year. At the end of the 2 years, they sit for the Malaysian Certificate of Examinations (MCE). Pupils who do well in the MCE enter into a 2-year Form VI education, at the end of which they take the Higher School Certificate (HSC) examination. This certificate is a requisite for admission to universities both local and overseas. It is also a qualification for appointment to certain jobs in the government and the private sector.

**Examination**

The Ministry of Education conducts examinations: (a) as a means to carry out remedial work, (b) as an instrument to make decisions, and (c) as a motivation.

Remedial work is carried out when the student weaknesses had been discovered through Standard 3 Diagnostic Test and Standard 5 Assessment Examination. The Standard 3 Diagnostic Test assesses the pupils' competence in the three Rs. The Standard 5 Assessment Examination evaluates the pupils' achievement in specific subjects, such as Bahasa Malaysia, arithmetic, science, and local studies.
Examination also serves as a decision-making instrument. The Lower Certificate Education (LCE) examination results are used for placement of students at the upper secondary forms according to their inclination for science, arts, vocational, or technical studies. The LCE results are also used to evaluate the progress and development of education in lower secondary level. They are also used by the ministry for other supervision purposes.

Students sit for the Malaysian Certificate of Education (MCE) at the end of their Form V studies. The results of this examination are used for selecting students for further studies in local institutions such as Form VI and preuniversity classes, colleges, and polytechnics, or abroad. The results also serve as a qualification to secure jobs in the public or private sector. An equivalent to the MCE is the Malaysian Certificate of Vocational Education for students in vocational schools. These are terminal achievement certificates.

The examination for the Higher School Certificate (HSC) forms basis for selecting candidates into teacher-training colleges, university-colleges, and universities. The results of this examination are also used for securing jobs either in the public or the private sector.

The examinations also serve as a motivating factor in education. Every school conducts its own test and examination to assess the progress of student learning. These tests and examinations are usually recorded in the pupil's report books and confidential cards. Parents are usually informed of the student progress as a follow-up of these tests and examinations.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


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Miller, S., & Nunally, E. (1970). A family development program of communication training for engaged couples: A preliminary report to the family and children's service of Minneapolis and the family study center at the University of Minnesota (Grant No.


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