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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

There is rising concern that adolescents today are more exposed to increasing life stressors that affect their physical and psychosocial wellbeing. Many issues that concern adolescents' development have been raised, especially issues concerning barriers to achieving wellbeing such as economic hardship (Blewett, 2008; Brooks-Gunn & Duncan, 1997), disruptive family relationships (Wadsworth & Berger, 2006; Dashiff, DiMicco, Myers, & Sheppard, 2009) and school related issues (Mayberry, Espelage, & Koenig, 2009; Santor, Messervey, & Kusumakar, 1999). In response to the matters mentioned, this study was designed to; first, assess the reliability and validity of the new socioeconomic indicator (CAPSES), second examine the relationship among, SES, stressors, behavioral and finally, investigate the role of socioeconomic status as a determinant of psychological and behavioral outcomes among adolescents in high schools. In addition, mediating effects of parent stressors, peer stressors and teacher stressors on the relationship between socioeconomic status and emotional and behavioral outcomes were also examined.

1.2 Motivation of Study

Malaysia's adolescent population ages 10-19 years has grown to approximately 5.5 million in 2010, which is 19 percent of the total country's population (UNICEF, 2010). With a reasonably high adolescent population, there is a growing concern on the increasing

number of social problems among this age group (Hayward 2011, Low 2009, Tan et al 2012; Baharudin et al. 2011, Yee 2012, Mahmood 2008). As theorised by psychologist such as Eric Erikson, adolescence is a very confusing stage as older youths are more preoccupied with how the society views them, who they are, where they come from and what future lays ahead for them. In search of personal identities, youths take into account their environment and interactions with the environment. This interaction with the environment comes from a line of process that involves social institutions such as family, friends, school, work and neighborhood (Wyn and White, 1997).

Past studies have shown that there is an established link between SES, stress and psychosocial outcomes in adolescents, suggesting low SES adolescents are more exposed to stressful life events (Grzywacz et al. 2004). According to The Family Stress Model of Economic Hardship, economic strain increases the risk of emotional distress in a family and this is reflected in conflicts among parents and between parents and children (Prelow, Loukas, & Jordan-Green, 2007). Dashiff, DiMicco, Myers, and Sheppard (2009) supported this argument suggesting that youths are sensitive to the economic hardship and that parent-youth conflict can develop when communication between parent and child is dysfunctional.

Apart from family, school stressors such as academic pressure, peer pressure and teacher stressors affects adolescents' psychosocial wellbeing. Past studies have shown that academic requirements and teachers' expectations are major sources of stress among students (Liu, Cheng, Chen & Wu, 2009; Suldo, 2009). Similarly, in Malaysia, students' progress in school is mostly measured by the grades obtained in their examination and fulfilling the requirements of school workload given by teachers. So much emphasis is

given to their results that many are given extra classes after school to do well academically. To make it worst, teachers' authoritarian approach to discipline and learning are seen as a source of stress to students (Muhammed Sharif Mustaffa & Suria Abd Jamil, 2012). Peers are also an important social agent for adolescents in school, thus students with friends who are school dropouts or engaged in negative activities are more likely to be affected academically and behaviorally due to peer pressure, peer conformity and popularity (Barry, 2005; Demanet & Van Houtte, 2011).

Poor socioeconomic background of family is one of the reasons that cause maladaptive behavior among children (Abd Wahab, 2005; Burton, 2007; Dashiff et al., 2009; Wong, 2011a). Across board, current statistics have provided evidence that the rates of delinquency have increased and are a cause for concern. In the U.S., the national Youth Risk Behavior Survey report has revealed that 22.7 percent of ninth to twelfth grade students were either offered, sold or given an illegal drug by someone on school property while 4.6 percent of students used marijuana on school property one or more times (CDC, 2009). This worrisome trend is also apparent in Malaysia as juvenile delinquency has been on a rising trend as illustrated in Table 1.1. This statistics from the Welfare Department and the Royal Malaysian Police, Bukit Aman (Bernama, 2006; JASA, 2011) shows that crime involves youth as early as 7 years old and the crime rates increase concurrent with age.

Table 1.1: Juvenile involvements in criminal cases based on age in Malaysia

Year	**Ages 7-12**	**13-15**	**16-18**	**Total**
2002	113 (2.7%)	1265 (30.1%)	2822 (67.2%)	**4200**
2003	151 (2.8%)	1593 (29.2%)	3711 (68%)	**5455**
2004	149 (3%)	1356 (26.9%)	3531 (70.1%)	**5036**
2006	161 (2.7%)	1472 (24.5%)	4363 (72.8%)	**5996**
Total	**574 (2.8%)**	**5686 (27.5%)**	**14427 (69.7%)**	**20687**

Source: Bernama (2006) and JASA (2011)

According to the Department of Social Services, in the year 2010, a majority of delinquency acts were related to crime against properties and assets, in which 2,109 children were accused, followed by drug abuse with 1,014 children arrested, and crime against individuals involving 543 children (JKM, 2010). Youth issues in the country such as loitering ("lepak"), substance abuse, motorcycle racing ("rempit"), teenage pregnancy, unwanted newborns, sexually transmitted disease and HIV/Aids are among the few major issues that have been brought to attention by the media and published research. For example, on average there are about 2,500 illegitimate babies born every month (UKM, 2010). In addition, substance abuse related problems are one of the main reasons for youths to drop out from school (Sidhu, 2005) and 45.42 per cent of drug abuse cases identified between January to April 2006 were committed among children who dropped out from school at the age of 15 (UNICEF, 2008). These behavioral trends are prevalent in the poor socioeconomic status group (Sidhu, 2005).

Youths issues concerning mental health problems are also an important in Malaysia. In a recent pilot survey on Malaysian School Mental Health Project (2011), it was discovered that 17.1% of school children had symptoms suggestive of severe anxiety disorder, while 5.2% had severe depression symptoms and 4.8% experienced severe stress (Ang, 2011). According to the National Mental Health survey in 2006, depression is one of the major factors for suicide and suicidal ideation is highest among teenagers (DHRRA, 2009). The survey also suggested that symptoms of mental disorder in children between the ages 5-15 years is 20 percent, which is approximately 1.74 million children in Malaysia (Norhaniza, 2010) and its prevalence is higher in urban than rural areas. This finding is consistent with other countries, such as Australia. The Australian National Survey of Mental Health and Wellbeing revealed that adolescents with more emotional and behavioral problems reported significantly higher suicidal ideation (thoughts of committing suicide) and suicidal behavior. Overall, the report shows that 12 percent of adolescents reported on suicidal ideation (Sawyer, 2000).

1.3 Problem Statement

Socio-economic background such as occupation, education and income has been used widely as indicators of social status. These SES indicators work well when collecting data from adult population, but these data are least obtainable when it is used to measure the social status of adolescents. Adolescent's knowledge on their parents' SES is inadequate, thus many studies have reported 15-40 percent missing data in the surveys in which adolescents were asked to provide data of parents' income, education and occupation (Currie et al., 2008; Doku, Koivusilta, & Rimpela, 2010; Oakes & Rossi, 2003). As a result,

this hampers researchers to obtain more accurate data on adolescents' socioeconomic status.

In addition, previous studies have revealed that for adolescence study, indicators of health related social position can be approached from various perspectives of life and not only observe from parents socioeconomic status. Indicators should be sensitive enough to gauge health inequalities in adolescents (Koivusilta, Rimpela, & Kautiainen, 2006). With these issues at hand, numerous scholars have explored alternative measures to adolescent's SES to attain higher response rate from respondents and measure health inequalities in adolescents. For this study, Coleman's Social Theory (Coleman, 1988) is used as the underpinning for measuring SES, while the Capital as a function of Socioeconomic Status Model (CAPSES) by Oakes and Rossi (2003) enlightens the conceptual framework of this study. Through CAPSES, SES is seen as how much access to resources an individual can obtain from the environment and these resources are divided into material capital, human capital and social capital (Oakes & Rossi, 2003). Although material, human and social capital are seen as indicators of individual's social status, limited studies have examined this concept to measure adolescent's SES (Oakes & Rossi, 2003).

The present study also highlights the mediating effect of parent stressors, peer stressors and teacher stressors on the relation between SES and maladaptive behavior, respectively and depression. The literature on the mediating role of stressors, especially peer stressors and teacher stressors are very limited. Additionally, studies that incorporate multiple stressors, in this case, parent stressors, peer stressors and teacher stressors as mediators in a study is

scanty (Mulder, de Bruin, Schreurs, van Ameijden, & van Woerkum, 2011). Thus, this study has tested on the mediators to further understand their significance on the SES-psychosocial relationship of high school-goers in Kuala Lumpur.

Having highlighted many issues on youth studies in the local and international scene, this study narrows down its scope by focusing on areas pertaining to stressors, maladaptive behavior and depression and examine socioeconomic status as the determinant of these outcomes among the adolescents mentioned. More importantly, this study pursues the current issue of SES measurement in adolescents, which is a growing literature in the west and scarce in this region.

1.4 Research Objectives

Echoing the work of Oakes and Rossi (2003) and based on the Ecological perspective, Social Capital and Stress Theory, this study aimed at examining socioeconomic status (SES) and its effect on stressors, behavioral and psychological wellbeing in adolescents. In addition, stressors variables were examined as the mediating variables between SES-maladaptive behavior and SES-depression. To further elucidate the aims of this study, the following research objectives were created.

1. To assess the reliability and validity of the material capital, human capital, social capital as the CAPSES indicators.
2. To ascertain the relationship among CAPSES, stressors, behavior and depression.
3. To examine the role of stressors as the mediator in the relationship between CAPSES- behavior and CAPSES-depression.

1.5 Research Questions

To support the research objectives, research questions were formulated and listed below.

1. Does material capital, human capital and social capital significantly represent CAPSES as an indicator?
2. Is there a significant correlation between CAPSES and the conventional SES measures (parent's occupation and parent's structure)?
3. How do the conventional SES variables (parent's occupation and parental structure) and CAPSES inter-relate with stressors, depression and behavior?
4. Will parent stressors, teacher stressors and peer stressors mediate the relationship between CAPSES and depression and CAPSES and behavior?

1.6 Significance of the Study

This study offers a methodological as well as theoretical significance to the body of knowledge. In terms of theory, this study has employed Social Theory (Coleman, 1988) as the foundation for socioeconomic status indicator. In addition, the CAPSES model by Oakes and Rossi (2003) facilitated in the structure of the study's conceptual framework. In the past, socioeconomic indicators were mainly based on material resources, however CAPSES has added other variables such as social capital and human capital to capture the social complexities of socioeconomic status in adolescent population.

In terms of methodology significance, this study has explored the CAPSES relationship with stressors, psychological and behavioral outcomes. As this is the first attempt to relate

CAPSES with these outcomes in adolescents, the findings would enrich the literature on these socioeconomic variations in wellbeing.

Moreover, towards the end of the analyses, the respondents of this study were divided into four groups; the academic achievers and under-achievers and the low and high SES. Empirical studies that examined achievers and under-achievers in these aspects are limited in this region, especially in Malaysia. Past studies have compared the groups in various other aspects such as cognitive processing of knowledge (Lian, 1998), success in distance learning (Taplin, Yum, Jegede, Fan, & Chan, 2007), self-esteem and perception of teacher's behavior (Ismail & Majeed, 2011), personality and mental abilities (Safree & Dzulkifli, 2012), attitudes towards school (Alias & Alias, 2010) and strategies in reading Science in English (Shamsudin, 2009). Thus, the comparison of the high achievers and under-achievers would give some insights on the stressors, psychological and behavioral outcomes of students from these groups.

1.7 Scope of Study

This study targets Kuala Lumpur as the main area of study. Although there are 13 states of which each has its own urban areas, Kuala Lumpur was chosen because of its highest population density and the highest crime rate in the country (Sidhu, 2005).

The samples of respondents are confined to adolescents in co-educational national high schools. The total number of schools involved in this research was 25 out of 95 schools listed with the Department of Education Wilayah Persekutuan. The numbers of participants for the survey was 1,056, while the number of focus group discussion was eight groups.

The survey participants were obtained from 21 schools and the focus group data were collected from 4 other schools.

This study employed a cross-sectional research design which focuses on data collection at one point in time. This may affect the accuracy of data collected due to its short time frame. Data were collected from form four students (15-17 years of age) and not gathered from other sources such as parents and teachers in this study. Although feedback from parents and teachers on stressors and psychosocial wellbeing of the participants would have been beneficial, they were excluded to allow a more manageable administration of the study.

It is also worth noting that adolescents were the targeted group for this study because of the association between puberty and disruptions of emotions and behavior during this phase in life. A longitudinal study by Najman, Hayatbakhsh, Mcgee, and Bor (2009) found that aggression or misbehavior increased in advanced pubertal stage. This was consistent with an earlier study by Brooks-Gunn and Duncan (1997), which stated that the psychological and behavioral effects of economic hardship on children differ by stage of growth, thus limiting the generalisation of findings across all age groups. The inability to include children from other ages in this study may hamper the possibility of variations in emotional and behavioral outcomes across the board.

1.8 Operational Definitions

CAPSES – SES as a function of material capital, human capital and social capital (Oakes & Rossi, 2003).

Stressors – refers to stressful events (Moos & Moos, 1994). In this study, stressors were categorised as parent stressors, peer stressors and teacher stressors.

Depression – refers to "a feeling state or mood, a syndrome or a psychiatric diagnosis" (Kovacs, 2003). In this study, depression was represented by negative mood, negative self-esteem and ineffectiveness.

Maladaptive behavior – refers to socially incompetent, anti-social, aggressive behavior and misconduct in schools (Chang et al., 2004). In this study, maladaptive behavior was categorised as risky behavior and deviant behavior.

Risky behavior – refers to activities such as smoking, drinking, having sex and taking drugs (Gruber, 2009)

Deviant behavior – refers to behaviors that violates social norms (Clinard & Meier, 2010) such as stealing, vandalism, using foul languages to others and watching pornography, as used in this study.

Self-esteem – refers to "the extent to which one prizes, values, approves, or likes oneself" (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991). In this study self-esteem covers low self-esteem, self-dislike, feeling of being unloved.

Mood - refers to "emotional shifts in an individual's personal orientation..." (Larson, Csikszentmihalyi, & Graef, 1980) as cited in (K. T. Carlson, 2006). In this study, negative mood reflects feeling sad, feeling like crying, being bothered or upset by things.

Ineffectiveness – refers to behaviors negative evaluation of one's ability and school performance (Kovacs, 2003) such as feeling incompetent and inability to make things right.

Achievers – with a high school grade point average of 3.00 (for this study, five subjects were chosen and students in this category obtain minimum B for all subjects).

Under-achievers - with a high school grade point average of 1.7 (for this study, five subjects were chosen and students in this category obtain minimum C for all subjects).

1.9 Organisation of Chapters

This thesis contains six chapters. The current chapter begins with the general focus of this study by briefly stating the areas that are being examined. The motivation of study was also presented here, describing on the current issues that relates to the wellbeing of adolescents. Besides that, the problem statement was highlighted to provide specific reasons to why this study is necessary. The research objectives and the research questions that are central to this study were also presented. This chapter also explains the research scope as well as defines important terms used in this study.

In Chapter 2, the term socioeconomic status, CAPSES, stressors, maladaptive behavior and depression are further described and discussed. The reviews compared findings from previous studies that have used similar variables that are used in this study.

Subsequently, Chapter 3 focuses on the development of the theoretical framework for the current study. The gaps in the literature are highlighted in this chapter. Theories relating to the study were examined to strengthen the theoretical framework and the research model.

The research methodology is examined in Chapter 4. This chapter begins by describing the planning process that was in placed before the commencement of the data collection such as getting approvals from the Ministry of Education and discussions with heads of school and the research ethics. Consequently, the sampling procedures, the questionnaire survey design and focus group discussions were discussed in detail. The pilot study was also reported in this chapter. More importantly, the data collection process was discussed in detail. The final part of Chapter 4 described the reliability of the instruments used in the survey and the analyses used in the study.

Chapter 5 reports on the findings of the study. The findings from the questionnaires and focus group discussions were discussed in detail.

The final chapter, Chapter 6 summarizes the findings and discuss the results generated from the study. The chapter focused on the implications of study and limitations of the study. Suggestions for future research were put forward. This chapter ends with a conclusion for the study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE ON SES, STRESSORS AND PSYCHOSOCIAL WELLBEING

2.1 Background

Child development has been an area of interest for researchers and policy makers for many years. Many issues have been raised on poverty and economic hardship as one of the major barriers to achieving quality of life. The term poverty is commonly used to describe the lack of access to basic resources, however exclusion from participating in everyday activities also defines poverty (Payne, 2007). Previous studies have examined the effect of socioeconomic status (SES) on health development of adolescents and many have found that individuals with higher SES are generally healthier physically, psychologically, socially and academically than individuals in lower SES groups (Hanson & Chen, 2007; Heard, Gorman, & Kapinus, 2008; Soteriades & DiFranza, 2003).

This chapter provides linkages between SES, stressors, and behavioral and psychological wellbeing of adolescents in Malaysia. For ease of reading, this chapter is divided into seven sections. The first three sections provide a review of SES consisting of a review of its concepts, a brief history of SES indicators, issues concerning conventional SES measurements and the recent development of SES measurements. The fourth section focuses on stressors and its relationship with SES. Literature on psychological outcomes (depression and self-esteem) and their relationship with SES is included in the fifth section. The sixth section reviews behavioral outcomes and their relationship with SES. The chapter

concludes with an examination of the relationship between stressors and psychological and behavioral outcomes in addition to a discussion of the mediating role of stressors.

2.2 Concepts and History of SES Indicators

It has been consistently debated that there is a lack of theoretical definitions of SES (Fujishiro, Jun Xu, & Fang Gong, 2010; Oakes & Rossi, 2003). This is largely due to the fact that questions such as whether SES should be conceived as one-dimensional or multidimensional, or the mechanisms to obtain more insights on SES mechanisms continue to be contested. This is unfortunate given the need for a clear definition of SES because in the absence of such a definition, determining the dimensions of these concepts and their relationship with health outcomes remains an arduous and challenging task (Bollen, Glanville, & Stecklov, 2001).

Socioeconomic status (SES) is a multidimensional concept comprised of a person's social and economic standing. According to Hollingshead (1975), the underlying assumptions of social status within a given society exist due to an unequal social structure. Factors such as occupation and education are primary indicators of social status, as well as gender and marital status. The combination of these factors provide sufficient information of an individual's standing in a society (Hollingshead, 1975).

Although theories on social stratification emerged pre WWII, efforts to operationalize the concept came later in the U.S. and U.K. in the late 1940's. Social stratification was originally based on occupational structure, in which respondents were asked to rate 90 occupations on a five point scale (Oakes & Rossi, 2003). Only in the 1960's was educational attainment and income from jobs considered part of social status as it was held that educational attainment was important for entry into certain occupations (Nam & Powers, 1965). Thus occupation, education and income are related concepts in measuring social class (Currie, Elton, Todd, & Platt, 1997) and grew to become the most commonly used indicators to ascertain the SES of a given population. Along the way, other measures such as consumption-based measures were added to support conventional SES measures.

Although a useful indicator, an occupation and income indicator has its limitations in measuring SES. The following section reviews the limitations of the conventional SES indicators.

2.3 Current Definition of SES

Socioeconomic status refers to the resources available to parents to invest in healthy environments for their children, and promote knowledge and behavior that are important for their wellbeing (Heard et al., 2008). This study defines SES as an individual's social standing in society based on their access (realised or potential) to resources and status (Fujishiro et al., 2010; Krieger, Williams, & Moss, 1997; Oakes & Rossi, 2003). Here, resources refer to materials, social resources and assets (income, education, wealth), while status refers to rank within the established social hierarchy such as access to consumption

of goods, services and knowledge, which are linked to occupation, income and level of education (Fujishiro et al., 2010).

2.4 Issues Concerning Conventional SES Measurements

Although current conventional measures of SES have been well implemented, empirical evidence has shown that these conventional measures have its disadvantages. To begin with, SES indicators based on occupation are difficult to acquire as there are proportions of the population who are not in paid employment (Currie et al., 1997). Moreover, those involved in private or personal businesses find it difficult to categorize the occupation as the range of businesses is broad and indistinct. This complexity of using such a conventional indicator is also apparent when using income. Income comes from various sources such as investments, incentives and rentals, which are supplementary incomes.

Due to the complexity of occupation and income measures, these measures do not work efficiently as these data are less obtainable from children and adolescents when collecting their SES background. Many studies have reported missing data ranging from 15-40 percent in which adolescents were asked to provide data of parents' income, education and occupation (Currie et al., 2008; Doku et al., 2010; Oakes & Rossi, 2003).

With this issue at hand, researchers, especially in the field of public health, have attested to the need to capture more variations in social contexts such as networks and environment, besides the conventional indicators of occupational position, education or income (Heard et

al., 2008; Oakes & Rossi, 2003). In addition, previous studies have revealed that for the study of adolescents, indicators of social position can be approached from various perspectives of life and not only observed from parents' socioeconomic status so that these indicators are sufficiently sensitive to gauge health inequalities in adolescents (Boudreau & Poulin, 2009; Koivusilta et al., 2006).

As a result, in the past decade, numerous scholars have explored alternative measures in addition to the common parental SES indicators to attain a higher response rate from respondents and to accurately measure health inequalities in adolescents.

2.5 Recent Development of SES Measurements

Recent studies have underlined the importance of further evaluating the properties of SES measures as there may be other determining social and economic indicators that affect health and the wellbeing of adolescents (Boyce, Torsheim, Currie, & Zambon, 2006; Currie et al., 1997; Koivusilta et al., 2006; Oakes & Rossi, 2003). According to Koivusilta et al. (2006), indicators of health related to social position are complex and can be approached from various perspectives in order that these indicators are sufficiently sensitive to gauge health inequalities in adolescents. The notion that SES is multifaceted was also shown in Oakes and Rossi's work (2003) when they conceptualized SES as a function of material capital, human capital and social capital, so that these capital dimensions serve as a more relevant measure than the existing income, education and occupation measure.

Even for a related concept as deprivation and poverty, scholars in the field such as Townsend (1987) advocated that deprivation can be measured not only materially but also socially, while Sen (1992), as cited in Boyce et al. (2006), emphasized on capabilities and skills as ways to transform desired resources into goods and services that may help individuals to achieve wellbeing. This has created an upsurge of studies examining specific indicators that incorporate a wider approach to measuring SES such as material wealth or assets, human capital that encompass their skill and knowledge and social resources which deals with networking and relationships. Details of the most recent SES indicators are highlighted in the following sub-sections.

2.5.1 Alternate Measures to SES

i) Family Affluence Scale (FAS)

It was in the 1990's, alternate measures of non-occupational categories were formed and tested as a proxy to the conventional SES measure. Family Affluence Scale (FAS) I & II, which was an extension of Peter Townsend's (1987) work, was one of the earlier effort that shifted from the traditional occupation-based indicators to material and social resources as indicators of SES.

Townsend (1987), proposed that deprivation, which is "a state of observable and demonstrable disadvantage relative to the local community or society to which an individual, family or group belongs", can be categorized materially and socially. He emphasized that a person can have multiple forms of deprivation, sometimes direct and sometimes indirect and people experiencing deprivation are not necessarily poor. Between

the material and social deprivation, the latter, as represented by roles, relationships, functions and rights of individuals in a society, are more complex to measure and are not highly developed in the literature as compared to the material deprivation.

Townsend (1987) stressed that indicators of deprivation should be based on observed behavior and conditions rather than subjective perceptions or beliefs of people. However as pointed out by Townsend (1987), in terms of social deprivation, due to its unobserved state, it is difficult to separate fact from opinion during interviews or surveys, thus information given is based on trust. Therefore, though the social measure of deprivation needs to be acknowledged and measured, it tends to be poorly and inaccurately identified.

The Family Affluent Scale (FAS) was developed in the Health Behavior of School-Aged Children Study (HBSC) (Currie et al., 1997) to measure adolescents' health behaviors and lifestyles based on socioeconomic status of 4,079 Scottish school children aged 11-15 years. The study made several interesting and important findings that expanded on Townsend's work.

First, due to the age of respondents, collecting information on parental occupation was challenging, with incomplete information pertaining to parental occupation exceeding 20 percent. As there was a considerable number of missing data on parental occupation, Currie et al. (1997) looked into an alternative measure of SES that consists of material and social deprivation as suggested in Townsend (1987). Second, the study developed a non-

conventional based indicator of SES that uses multiple indicators covering adolescents' material and social resources. The items asked were straightforward and easy to recollect such as household telephone ownership, family possession of a car, sharing of bedroom, weekly spending money and family holiday during the past 12 months (Koivusilta et al., 2006; Morgan & Haglund, 2009). The results of the study showed almost all respondents were able to provide answers for the FAS items. Third, FAS items were seen as a useful proxy of parental occupation as both were correlated and when both combined, it had higher predictive power on health outcomes.

Although a valid measure of wealth and status, FAS has its limitations across culture. The use of car ownership may vary in countries, whereby cars are not relevant for everyday use especially in some rural areas that focus more on subsistence economy or even in developed countries with efficient public transport, such as Singapore. Sharing of bedroom may be related to culture, family size, age and gender of the children (Currie et al., 1997), while the holiday variable could indicate differences in durations and distances between cultures (Boyce 2006). This is supported by Lin (2011) in her study of 3,368 adolescents in Taiwan in which she reported a moderate internal reliability of the scale, Cronbach's alpha of 0.35 and low correlations between different FAS items. This suggests that the scale may not be best suited for Taiwanese adolescents. Hence, socioeconomic items should be culturally sensitive.

A more recent study by Morgan and Haglund (2009) on the effect of family affluence on self-reported health and substance use showed some inconsistencies between low and high SES adolescents. The study found that although adolescents from lower SES were reported to be in poorer health, no statistical difference was found in SES in terms of smoking. More interestingly, it was also found that higher SES adolescents were twice as likely to drink alcohol compared to their peers (Morgan & Haglund, 2009). The discrepancies in the results could be due to the FAS items used to measure SES.

ii) Material Affluence of Adolescents (MAS)

In a recent study by Doku et al. (2010), the Material Affluence of Adolescents (MAS) indicator was created to measure affluence in Ghana and its effect on adolescents' health. MAS, which also derived from the theory of deprivation (Townsend, 1987), proposed that SES is multidimensional, whereby it can measure different forms either physical, environmental or social states in every society. Doku et al. (2010) conceptualized deprivation as lack of physical or material things in terms of the goods and resources that are needed to uphold a decent standard of living as compared to what is available in the society. In constructing the MAS indicator, Doku and colleagues (2010) used items such as household assets and housing characteristics available at home such as television, computers, cars, house material and ownership, and parents' ownership of other properties.

The study, which compares the MAS indicator with conventional measures (parent's education level and occupation) found that both indicators were moderately associated and the effect of both indicators on health outcomes were similar in terms of strength and direction of the association. Their findings revealed that material deprivation had a negative effect on individual's health and stress due to unfit living conditions such as an unkempt home, limited space and inadequate household assets (Doku et al., 2010). Therefore, the study found consistent and significant associations between the diverse material wealth indicators and the traditional SES indicators.

Although a valid indicator, MAS was created based on the setting of the adolescents in Africa, hence items that measured SES were more concerned with basic needs and household assets that were well suited for the region. Thus, more items that reflect other material resources and social resources need to be added to measure SES among adolescents in other developing and developed countries.

Research Gap

Despite the recent development and valuable insights of FAS and MAS indicators, these studies did not tap into the social aspect of deprivation as suggested by Townsend (1987). Although FAS included some aspect of social deprivation which involves family functions and rights such as family holidays, other aspects of social deprivation which involves roles and relationships were still lacking.

iii) Capital as a Function of Socioeconomic Status (CAPSES)

The CAPSES indicator (Oakes & Rossi, 2003) was based on Coleman's Social Theory and emphasized on the importance of social capital in a social structure as a resource to obtain material and human capital. CAPSES is seen as another alternative measure of SES that would also measure the differences in health behavior outcomes found between groups of people. The main components of the CAPSES measure are human capital, material capital and social capital.

a) Human Capital

Human capital is described as skills and capabilities that individuals acquire to be able to perform in new ways (Coleman, 1990). Curran (2007) in her study of social capital and substance use by high school students used families' level of engagement in education and school-oriented activities as part of the human capital measure. Her study found that low level of engagement between parents and children contributed to the prediction of alcohol, tobacco, marijuana and other drug use in children. Although not a primary contributor to the substance use, human capital's influence is significant.

Children whose parents invest time and money in their education perform better in school (Barry, 2005). As found in a study by Osman Rani and Rasiah (2011) on perception of parents on school expenditures, educated parents and parents who are well-off tend to spend more on education. According to their findings, tuition fees were the second highest financial strain for parents with school going children in Malaysia, next to pocket money.

Parents of higher income group are able to provide better education to their children by engaging tutors privately for extra lessons. To certain parents, tuitions for school children not only helps children gain knowledge but also helps to occupy them with constructive activities (Bray & Kwok, 2003). With their time supervised and filled with activities, lesser time is available for non-constructive activities such as substance abuse and other negative behaviors (Curran, 2007).

One of the more popular measures of human capital for urban adolescents in Malaysia is knowledge acquired through extra classes after school such as classes for academic lessons and music. Tuition lessons have become a norm in Malaysia and countries within the Asian region (Bray & Kwok, 2003). It is especially popular among the middle to upper class in urban settings (Nath, 2008). Tuition lessons in Malaysia can take many forms where in most cases, parents engage private tutors after school to attend to their child's academic needs either on a one to one basis or in groups at private learning centers. There are also schools that provide revision classes after school hours within the school compound and payment is not normally required. However revision classes are provided only for students who are facing major national examinations, at different stages of primary and secondary school years; first exam being at standard six (12 years), subsequently form three (15 years) and the final exam is in form five (17 years).

For this study, tuition lessons is defined as payment based tutoring given to children based on subjects learned in school, given either privately or in commercial centers by tutors seeking financial gain (Bray & Kwok, 2003; Nath, 2008). Due to its significance and

impact on children's full-time schooling, tuition was used in this study to represent human capital. The number of tuition subjects a child takes indicates parent's level of income as parents who earn more spends more on tuitions (Foondun, 2002).

The current study also examines the number of years in pre-school and whether respondents take any music lessons as measures of human capital. Pre-school education is an important part of human capital as it prepares children in terms of their cognitive and socializing skill before entering year one. Malaysia has recently standardized its pre-school education policy under the Education Act 1996[1] and gives serious attention to proper development and guidelines to pre-school education such as the establishment of kindergartens, proper development of the curriculum and proper training of teachers. The Education Act 1996 maintains that all children between the ages of 4-6 years, regardless of their socioeconomic background and even those with special needs should be entitled for pre-school education to develop their social-emotional skills and cognitive skill.

Previous studies have shown that children who had exposure to pre-school had better cognitive and social skills as compared to those with no exposure to early education. Based on a longitudinal study carried out in the United Kingdom on Effective Pre-School Education (Sylva, Melhuish, Sammons, Siraj-Blatchford, & Taggart, 2004), over 3,000 children aged between 3-7 years were observed on the effect of duration and quality of pre-school education on the participant's reading and math skills and socializing skills. The study reported children who started early with their pre-school (2 -3 years of age) benefitted

[1] http://www.moe.gov.my/en/prasekolah

more in terms of their reading and math skills and to a certain extent their socializing skill than those who did not attend pre-school or attended later (Sylva et al., 2004).

Similar results were observed in Berlinski, Galiani, and Gertler (2009), in which they found that exposure to pre-primary school in Argentina had a significant positive effect on the performance of Spanish and Mathematics test scores in third grade and also on the non-cognitive behavioral skills. They further claimed that those who increased their attendance in pre-school by one year increased their third grade performance by 8 percent in the mean of the distribution of the test scores. In addition, those with longer duration in pre-school were more attentive, participative and disciplined (Berlinski et al., 2009).

Acquiring music skills is one of the ways to gain valuable human capital, as music stimulates brain development, thus influencing the cognitive skills of an individual (Yoon, 2000). In advanced countries such as Japan and Holland, music is central to the education system. Music was repeatedly found to benefit mathematics, language, arts skills and social skills such as discipline, value of cooperation and expression of emotions (Yoon, 2000).

However in Malaysia, music is significantly undervalued in education and generally perceived to be a form of entertainment (Shah, 2006). In the public schools, music curriculum in primary and secondary schools is very basic, involving choir and instrumental playing activities such as recorder and percussion and for some schools, brass bands (Shah, 2006). Those who want to receive a ‘well-rounded’ education and learn music

formally, would have to take private music lessons (Leong, 2008). Typically, these lessons are costly and children who attend the private lessons are from a certain socioeconomic group. Therefore, for this study, private music lessons are chosen to represent human capital dimension of the socioeconomic status variable.

b) Material Capital

Material capital is a form of resource that is observable and tangible such as money, investment and physical assets possessed by individuals (Coleman, 1990; Oakes & Rossi, 2003) . Material capital is closely related to socioeconomic position and the association of individuals' socioeconomic position to their possessions of material resources is evident in theories such as consumerism theory and middle-class delay of gratification hypothesis. According to consumerism theory, individuals with better education, higher occupational position and of middle to upper-middle income are cautious in their spending as they go for quality goods rather than quantity (Bourgeois & Barnes, 1979). This group of individuals also practice delayed gratification by planning their expenditures and avoiding impulsive buying (Bourgeois & Barnes, 1979; Wood, 1998). Additionally, the middle and upper income group would heavily invest in education. Comparatively, lower SES individuals are more spontaneous in spending to find immediate gratification and to emulate a "good life" (Wood, 1998). Thus, expenditure on education and educational materials are less for the lower SES individuals.

In sum, these theories highlighted that spending habits depended on SES. While middle and upper SES groups plan their spending, particularly in acquiring educational resources,

lower SES individuals tend to be more impulsive in terms of spending and spend less on educational resources. In view of the theories put forth on the relationship between SES and material resources, the current study proposes reading materials (newspaper, encyclopedia, storybooks and other educational books, comics and magazines), computer and pocket money for school to represent material capital.

Previous studies have shown that wealthier parents tend to give higher pocket money to children (Soteriades & DiFranza, 2003) and invest more in other educational materials such as computers and books (Osman Rani & Rasiah, 2011). Similar pattern was also apparent in a study of 5,300 French children aged 6 to 25 years (Barnet-Verzat & Wolff, 2002). In their study, Barnet-Verzat and Wolff compared children's socioeconomic position based on parental occupation, educational level and income against the amount of pocket money received, how frequent they received pocket money and how often they received gifts from parents. Their findings revealed that parents with higher level of education gave higher amounts of pocket money. Additionally, parents who were in professional and executive occupational groups gave pocket money more frequently than the other groups. It was also found that parents that earned higher incomes had a significant and positive effect on gift behavior.

However, past studies have shown a lack of consistency in the findings on the relationship between socioeconomic position and the quantity of pocket money given to children (West, Sweeting, Young, & Robins, 2006). Contrary to the above findings, other studies have shown that SES and pocket money had no significant association and to a certain extent the

relationship between the two were inversely related. Shahabudin, Lee, and Low (2012) compared different groups of parental occupation (non-skilled, skilled, clerical and managerial) with the amount of daily pocket money given to their children aged 15-17 years. The study found that there was no significant variation in the amount of pocket money given by the different groups of parents.

Similarly, West et al. (2006) in their study on Scottish adolescents, observed no significant difference between different SES group and the amount of pocket money given to the older children aged 15 years and above. Nevertheless, the relationship between SES and pocket money was inversed for the younger group between ages 11-14 years. Parents that earned lower incomes gave higher pocket money compared to parents in the higher income group. This situation occurs due to parenting practice and parental attitude to pocket money that influence the way pocket money is given to children. Kirkcaldy, Furnham, and Martin (2003) revealed that successful parents with high earnings tend to teach their offspring monetary value such as budgeting and saving. These parents also emphasize monetary reward systems that place rewards when children display good behavior or perform in school. On this point, Furnham (2001) suggested that SES and pocket money is weakly related and that parent's 'money smart' attitude influence pocket money.

Nonetheless, unlike the relationship between SES and pocket money, the relationship between SES and ownership of books appears to be more consistent. Studies have found that more affluent adolescents tend to own more books than the less affluent counterpart (Shahabudin et al., 2012; West et al., 2006). According to Shahabudin et al. (2012), parents

in the higher occupation category (managers and professional) invested more in educational materials, books and computer compared to the rest. This supports the findings of Koivusilta et al. (2006) that showed affluent and educated parents were more likely to spend money to invest in computers for their offspring.

The inclination to explore these items in the material capital component of SES is further supported as local research on poverty and schooling expenditures of 1,742 Form Four students in Malaysia found one in five parents felt financial strain to upkeep the schooling expenditure of their children (Osman Rani & Rasiah, 2011). It was also discovered that expenditure for children's pocket money was the highest as compared to other schooling expenditures.

c) Social Capital

Social capital refers to relationships among individuals that result in action (Coleman 1990). It has been established that as communication and social skills among individuals are developed and maintained, an individual's wellbeing will also be enhanced (Curran, 2007). As shown in the literature, social capital has a direct effect on wellbeing through social bonds between individuals and among groups in which trust, support, loyalty and security are formed (Bassani, 2007). The closer the networking between individuals, the higher the chances of obtaining resources (Bassani, 2007; Coleman, 1988).

Social capital in adolescents can be depicted particularly in the family and school environment. For example, a study conducted in Malaysia by Jalal and Sumari (2008) investigated the role of various family relationship dimensions on maladaptive behaviors in 286 adolescents from different socio-economic backgrounds. The study showed that poor family functioning leads to maladaptive behaviors among youth. Furthermore, adolescents with poor family functioning scored the lowest for affective responsiveness and affective involvement as parents were not involved with the activities of the children even though majority of mothers were housewives. This shows that emotional neglect was a major problem, thus poor family functioning effects the social capital of the adolescents.

It has also been suggested that not only does family functioning influence adolescent's behavior, but active parental involvement and support could result in better school achievement irrespective of the adolescent's SES background (Xin Ma, 2007; Yeung & Glauber, 2008) . This view was supported by Malecki and Demaray (2006) who examined the relationship between SES and grade point average (GPA) and found that parental social support played an important role in adolescent's academic achievement. Specifically, parental social support impacted lower SES adolescents than affluent adolescents. They further claimed that low SES adolescents have higher chances of achieving better grades if the parents are more involved and supportive.

Besides family functioning, involvement in extra-curricular activities in schools such as being a member of a school team or school club enhances social capital. Participation in these activities encourages bonding and strengthens interpersonal relationships with peers

and teachers. It also indicates that students are integrated in the school system, hence influencing their wellbeing in school. As Lan and Lanthier (2003) points out, students who alienate themselves from school activities are more likely to show deterioration in schoolwork and loose interest in studies.

The relationship with peers and teachers have been shown to influence adolescent's perception towards learning in school (Chen, 2005; O'Connor & McCartney, 2007). Barry (2005) found that students with friends and who engaged in negative activities and/or friends who dropped out from school performed poorly in their tests. However, Chen (2005) revealed that teacher support has a direct significant relationship with student performance in school and that teachers perform as a buffer to academic achievement when students receive less support from parents due to parent's lack of resources and limited education. Teachers are seen as role models and leaders in schools thus their influence plays an important role in developing students academically and socially (Adnan & Smith, 2001)

Research Gap

It has been noted that social resources are crucial in predicting social status but the measurement available is still incoherent (Townsend, 1987). Even until recently, Bassani (2006) pointed out that due to its intangible nature that involves social conditions of life such as roles, relationships, rights and functions, it is difficult to quantify social status, thus, quantitative measurements are bound to be inaccurate. The difficulties in measuring social

capital were also acknowledged by Oakes and Rossi (2003) and several limitations of the study were highlighted.

The study by Oakes and Rossi (2003) attempted to measure SES by integrating material capital, human capital and social capital, nevertheless the data collected (obtained from National Survey of Families and Households 1987-1988 and 1992-1994) was not specifically to measure CAPSES, thus the findings may not be optimal. Therefore, there is a need to form measures specifically for CAPSES as part of research vigor.

Moreover, Oakes and Rossi (2003) investigated on 3875 representative of adult samples in the U.S., however, to date, no attempt has been made to apply this approach in a developing country using an adolescent sample. Thus, this study endeavors to extend the model with a different population sample set in a developing country, using social capital components as highlighted by numerous scholars (Heard et al., 2008; Krieger et al., 1997; Oakes & Rossi, 2003).

2.6 Stressors

Adolescence is described as a transitional stage between childhood and adulthood and according to Erik Erikson (1950), at this stage adolescents face role confusion as they explore their boundaries in life. However, looking beyond the stages of development, adolescent behaviors and emotions are also associated with their demographic background, parental, school and other social and environmental factors (Wong, 2011a). A positive environment encourages health and wellbeing, while a negative environment produces stress that affects adolescent's emotions and behaviors. Generally, stress occurs when a person encounters:

a) Acute traumatic events such as natural and human disasters, victimization or physical violence.

b) Chronic strain and adversity such as economic hardship, chronic illness or neglect and accumulation of stressful life events.

c) Daily hassles such as rough transition in school, interpersonal conflict and excessive crowding or noise (Grant et al., 2003).

For this study, focus is given to stressful conditions related to socioeconomic status and daily hassles at home and in school. Family stressors encompass the relationship with parents, parental expectations on adolescent and the impact on SES on family stressors. School stressors deal with peer relationships and peer pressures. In addition, the relationship with teachers and teachers' expectations are also discussed.

2.6.1 Family Stressors

Parental support and interaction plays an important role in determining children's wellbeing. Children's development is at its best when they are part of a nurturing and loving family environment. When families are faced with high levels of stress or multiple stressors, this disrupts family functioning and children's general wellbeing (Barber, 1992; Prelow et al., 2007).

One of the causes of stress in adolescents is parental expectations and demands and this is particularly greater in the Asian children as compared to children in the Western countries. In the Asian culture, it is customary for children to assume the primary duty of respect and obedience to parents. Children have a moral obligation to do well academically, to perform effortful learning and succeed in any social advancement for family pride and material success (G. S. Leung, Yeung, & Wong, 2010). Attaining high academic results is an important means for children to repay their debt to their parents (H. Chen, 2012). Hence, children are more pressured to perform and failing to do so can affect their self-esteem and psychological distress (Bahrassa, Syed, Su, & Lee, 2011). Leung and colleagues' (2010) study on primary school children in Hong Kong and Chen's (2012) study on Chinese high school children in Mainland China support this view. A similar trend was observed for adolescents in Taiwan (Liu, Cheng, Chen, & Wu, 2009). This culture of pleasing parents among the Asian family is so strong that it is evident even among the Asian American students when compared to their counterparts of European descent (Bahrassa et al., 2011; H. Chen, 2012).

Contrary to these studies, other studies have highlighted there are advantages of having high expectations, particularly in school performance. For example, Suldo, Shaunessy, Thalji, Michalowski, and Shaffer (2009) suggested that high expectation does not necessarily lead to poor achievements, but instead predicted better grades because stress that comes from high expectations is beneficial to enhance performance. A recent study by Liu et al. (2009) on student performance acknowledged that parental high expectations on children significantly predicted successful academic achievements among students. Moreover, high expectations are a motivation factor for the students to achieve academic excellence. Students who had fewer achievements had lower educational expectations.

Parenting quality and style such as parental monitoring, interaction and support play a crucial role in fostering a positive relationship between parents and children. Over the years, scholars have identified four types of parenting styles; authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and neglectful (Alegre, 2011). Authoritative parenting style practices positive demands and control over children and their offspring have higher confidence and good social behavior. Children with authoritarian parents, face strong control and less affection, while permissive parenting exercises few demands and less control, while neglectful parenting practices little involvement and affection towards children (Alegre, 2011). These three parenting styles result in lower emotional wellbeing in children and can cause personality disorder and anxiety in children.

In Malaysia, emotional neglect is one of the major problems encountered by adolescents. A study by Jalal and Sumari (2008) on 286 high school students in Malaysia found that the students gave the lowest ratings for parental affective responsiveness and affective involvement. This shows that Malaysians parents are less focused on adolescents' needs and emotional support, thus seen as a major stressor that affect the adolescent's wellbeing.

Similarly, Bolger, DeLongis, Kessler, and Schilling (1989) observed that it is daily hassles such as interpersonal conflicts that lead to the onset of an individual's mood disturbance. It was also found that although the effects of interpersonal conflict with parents are stressful, it is even more distressing to have interpersonal conflict with non-family persons such as friends, colleagues and teachers due to a lack of intimacy in non-family relationships (Bolger et al., 1989). Hence, non-family relationships is an important area considered in this study.

a) Association between SES and Stressors, Psychological and Behavioral Outcomes

Literature has revealed that children from the lower SES face a higher risk of being involved with issues concerning substance abuse (Plybon & Kliewer, 2002; Sidhu, 2005), poor academic performance (Barry, 2005; Brooks-Gunn & Duncan, 1997; Ong, Chandran, Chen, & Poh, 2010), and behavioral and psychological problems (Abd Wahab, 2005; Dashiff et al., 2009; Vandenberg & Marsh, 2009; Wadsworth & Berger, 2006). More often than not, children who are faced with economic hardships tend to suffer emotional and behavioral problems more frequently than well-off children (Brooks-Gunn & Duncan, 1997).

A study conducted in Malaysia on juvenile delinquents has revealed that financial strain, family burden and overcrowded homes with insufficient number of rooms are some of the major reasons for youth to commit offenses such as bullying, fighting and stealing (Abd Wahab, 2005). It was shown that the majority of the juvenile delinquents belong to a household income of RM1000 and below and with a household structure of more than four siblings. A report from the Department of Social Welfare (JKM, 2010) has also shown that of those children who were accused for delinquent behaviors, the majority of them lived in a village type houses, low cost flats and terrace houses. The type of house indicates the social status of the adolescents, in which the data presented by Social Welfare Department confirms that these children come from the lower SES group.

Adolescent's perceptions of their parents' financial difficulties also have a direct effect on adolescent's mood states and wellbeing. This is not surprising because parents from the lower income group spend less time with their children as they work longer hours to support their family. Such a family encounters high levels of stress and anxiety (Wadsworth & Berger, 2006). As the family falls deeper into poverty, parents have no choice but to cut down on expenses and this results in conflict and affects the children emotionally and mentally (Bradshaw, Hoelscher, & Richardson, 2007). Dashiff et al. (2009) supported this argument about youth's sensitivity towards economic hardship and the effect of this hardship on their mood and stressful parent-youth relationship.

Correspondingly, Smylie et.al. (2006) observed that household income has a strong correlation with risk behaviors. They found that adolescents from higher household income

groups were significantly associated with lesser number of risk behaviors. This is supported by the findings of Brooks-Gunn and colleague (1997) on the relationship between poverty and socio-emotional wellbeing, in which they concurred that financially challenged youth show higher rates of disruptive behavior and psychological disturbance as compared to their non-poor peers. Similarly, Wadsworth et al. (2006) who examined the association between poverty related family stress and adolescents response and coping ability to stress found that stress results in internalization of problems in which youths become depressed and develop anxiety.

Besides predicting behavioral and emotional wellbeing of adolescents, SES has a significant effect on adolescents' cognitive and academic outcomes. Parental education, occupation and income have previously been found to be associated with children's achievements (Altschul, 2012; Anuar Zaini, Low, Wong, Fatimah, & Lim, 2005; Barry, 2005; OECD, 2004; Ong et al., 2010). Adolescents with lower SES have greater difficulty in having access to resources and this limitation often leads to additional stress that inevitably affects their academic achievements (Barry, 2005).

Altschul (2012) found a similar relationship between SES and academic success in adolescents but further explained that different aspects of SES have different effects on adolescents' academic performance. Altschul observed maternal education and occupation significantly predicted adolescents' academic performance, while paternal education and income did not have a significant effect on adolescent's academic achievements. This is

because mothers have a higher tendency to channel resources and contribute more towards their children human capital and social capital than fathers (Altschul, 2012).

Conversely, Hayes (2011) in his study on parent's school involvement, compared parents with different levels of SES and found that there is no difference in terms of parent school involvement and educational aspirations for their children. According to Baharudin, Krauss, Yacoob, and Tan (2011), family background is least related to anti-social behavior as they found that adolescent's SES, as reflected in the mother's income, has no association with anti-social behavior. Other factors such as parenting behaviors and family competency have been shown to significantly influence children's emotions and behavior. Generally, irrespective of SES background, parents have high expectations for their children to perform well in school, hence children feel pressured to do well in school.

Although overall parental style and expectations have a significant impact on adolescent behavior and emotional wellbeing, there have been suggestions that the distinct roles between fathers and mothers affect adolescents' behavior differently. Although mothers tend to allocate more resources towards children, have more time with children and develop a more stable maternal-child interaction, it is paternal support that is found to be significantly and negatively related to youth depression and delinquency in children (Bean, Barber, & Crane, 2006). This is due to the fact that fathers' support is not constant as they usually spend less time with children as compared to mothers. Therefore the more time they spend with children, the more valuable it is to the children, hence the probability of them being involved in anti-social behavior is lower (Bean et al., 2006).

Nevertheless, it was revealed that this association between paternal support and anti-social behavior is found among an African American sample and not found in other studies that samples European Americans. African Americans are the minority ethnic group in the United States and receive lower support from the community and schools, thus parental support is seen as an important aspect of child's wellbeing. Nonetheless, in general, maternal support still plays a crucial role in a child's development and wellbeing (Brooks-Gunn & Duncan, 1997) and acts as a mediator to the impact of economic hardship (Huston, McLoyd, & Coll, 1994).

2.6.2 Peer Stressors

Peer relationship is an important determinant of social behavior. Previous studies have shown that peer relationship has an enormous influence on adolescents at this stage than parents or teacher's influence (Mayberry et al., 2009; Shahabudin & Low, 2013). Peers are seen to have a positive as well as negative influence on adolescents because at this age, adolescents conform to peer pressure, peer conformity and popularity (Demanet & Van Houtte, 2011; Mayberry et al., 2009; Santor et al., 1999).

a) Association between Peer Stressors and School Performance

Adolescent's social environment such as relationship with peers is an important aspect that influences academic achievement. Peers are a significant social agent for adolescents in school, hence the type of peers they are friends with will affect the way they perceive learning in school. Barry (2005) found that students with friends who engaged in negative activities performed poorly in their tests. Additionally, Arulampalam (2008) in his study

on student performance in universities in Malaysia, found that student's truancy such as skipping classes is one of the major factors of poor academic performance among students. Therefore, these study show that students' personal effort to engage in academic activities is crucial in determining academic success (Chen, 2005).

In some studies, peer support rather than teacher's support has been seen to help improve academic grades of adolescents (Malecki & Demaray, 2006). However, Chen (2005) revealed that teacher's support is more effective as it has a direct significant relationship with student's academic performance and that teachers act as a buffer to academic achievement when students receive less support from parents.

b) Association between Peer Stressors and Psychological and Behavioral Outcomes

Past studies have shown that bonding with peers who are involved in disruptive behaviors will influence adolescents to behave the same way as they feel the need to conform to the group (Demanet & Van Houtte, 2011). Adolescents that conformed to peer influence are subjected to substance abuse, delinquency, sexual behavior and performed poorly in school (Santor et al., 1999). For example, in a recent study on school misconduct, Demanet and Van Houtte (2011) examined the association between peer relationship and misconduct and found that high peer relationship resulted in more disruptive behaviors especially when the adolescents perceive lack of support from the teachers and low sense of school belonging. As mentioned earlier, due to peer pressure, adolescents display minor acts of misconduct which is seen as peer norms (Santor et al. 1999).

Moreover, previous studies also revealed that peer stressors also affect behaviors differently in academic achievers and under-achievers. Due to high academic expectations, the achievers feel pressured to perform and compete with other students to get into a better school or college (Finch, McCreight, & McAleavy, 2010; Finn, 2012). This is also common in an exam-oriented culture such as Malaysia. Although pressured to compete and perform, achievers are less likely to be involved in risky behaviors, as peer stressors appear positive. Suldo et al. (2009) found similar findings in their study on high school students in the United States when high achieving students who were perceived to face higher stress than the other students had lesser symptoms of aggression and anxiety.

While peer influence is proven to be significant in previous studies (Cheung, 1997; Demanet & Van Houtte, 2011), in other studies, peer relationship was not significant in predicting adolescents' school performance. According to Chen (2005), the difference in culture could be one of the causes for the inconsistency in results. The Chinese culture is authoritarian in which children respect and listen more to the elders such as their parents and teachers, thus in a school environment where respect and obedience are inculcated, peer influence is less significant as compared to the influence of teachers and parents.

2.6.3 Teacher Stressors

A positive teacher-student relationship is important in enhancing students' commitment and performance academically and socially in school. In a recent study of teacher-student relationship on school achievement, O'Connor and McCartney (2007) compared this relationship among pre-school to elementary school children in ten different locations in the United States. Their findings indicated that higher quality teacher-student relationships predicted student's achievements in school. In addition, the results also revealed that as children move on to a higher level year in school, stress increases. This is because of the pressure of handling more students and the degree of teaching which makes interaction more instructional than relational, which often weakens the teacher-student relationship.

a) Association between Teacher Stressors and School Performance

In addition to the quality of relationship, teacher's personality is also important in creating or maintaining a good relationship with students. A study by Barone (2004) on secondary students in Malaysia indicated that students perceive good teachers to be knowledgeable in the teaching field, fair and are able to give praise whenever is due. Barone explained further that when students perceive teacher to be unjust and use unfriendly approach such as scolding and favoritism in class, this creates a gap in the relationship.

Studies have shown that students that commit to their schoolwork have a positive and direct effect in determining academic achievements (Chen, 2005). Hence when the student-teacher relationship is good, this affects students' engagement with their schoolwork and

ultimately influences their academic achievements. However, the teacher-student relationship deteriorates when teachers assert too much pressure on students to do well.

In her study of high school students in Hong Kong, Chen (2005) found that academic engagement mediates the relationship between parents and teachers support and academic achievements. This means parental and teacher support does not necessarily result in children achieving good academic results because according to Chen, it is children's own effort and commitment in their studies that assures academic achievement. Although Chen's findings did not show teacher's support as the main contributor of academic achievement, the personality of teachers and the quality of the student-teacher relationship can be one of the stressors that students face in school.

b) Association between Teacher Stressors Psychological and Behavioral Outcomes

Numerous studies have shown that a positive teacher-student relationship helps to counter various risks that involve behavioral problems overtime. Wang, Brinkworth, and Eccles (2013) revealed the teacher support acts as a moderator between parent-child conflict and misconduct as teacher's support alleviates adolescents from being more depressed and more involved in misconduct after sometime. On the other hand, a stressful teacher-student relationship has a significant effect on substance abuse in adolescents.

The effect of a stressful teacher-student relationship can be seen in the findings of Tam and Zhang (2012), in which they found that school stressors such as being treated unfairly by

teachers and expectations to perform well academically affects student emotions and results in aggressive behavior. Tam and Zhang (2012) added that in China, adolescent girls face a higher risk in developing aggressive behavior due to a mixture of academic pressure and teacher stressors. Leung, To, Hing Kwan. (2009) have shown similar findings through their survey conducted on 340 secondary students revealed students with school stressors in Hong Kong tend to release stressful emotions by bullying other students.

Correspondingly, Wang (2009) found similar results in her research on the seventh and eighth graders as the findings revealed that lack of teacher emotional support and teacher stressors predicted misconduct among the students. Hence there is a significant correlation and an inverse relationship between teacher's support and substance abuse among adolescents (Suldo et al. (2009). Teachers are seen as role models and leaders in school and their influence plays an important role in developing students not only academically but also socially (Adnan & Smith, 2001).

Research Gap

Many past studies have shown that family conflict leads to substance abuse such as consumption of alcohol, drug and behavioral problems. In addition, parent stressors have a significant impact on adolescent's psychosocial outcomes and results in higher depression and anxiety in adolescents (Adam & Chase-Lansdale, 2002; Baharudin et al., 2011; Moos & Moos, 1994). However, other studies such as Mayberry et al. (2009); (Muhammed Sharif Mustaffa & Suria Abd Jamil, 2012) and Shahabudin and Low (2013) revealed that peer stressors had a greater influence in adolescent's psychological and behavioral wellbeing.

For example, Muhammed Sharif Mustaffa and Suria Abd Jamil (2012) found that primary school students reported peer' influence as the main reason for truancy, followed by conflict with parents. The argument whether parent stressors or peer stressors have a bigger impact on adolescents is still debatable. Thus, the current study approached this matter by examining which stressor (parent, peers, or teacher) exert a greater impact on adolescent's psychological and behavioral wellbeing so that proper interventions and efforts can be suggested to promote adolescent's wellbeing.

Based on the literature review, it was noticed that previous researches have given little attention to the teacher-student relationship with regards to its impact on student's psychological and behavioral wellbeing. Rather, a wealth of studies were focused on the effect of this relationship on academic achievements but limited studies emphasized the impact on adolescent's psychological and behavioral outcomes.

In addition, a large body of literature, locally and internationally has shown the effect of socioeconomic status and stressors on adolescent's emotional and behavioral outcomes (Burton, 2007; Dashiff et al., 2009; Doku et al., 2010; Jalal & Sumari, 2008). However, these studies were more focused on adolescent population in general. Very few studies, particularly in this region, examine the effect of SES and stressors on psychosocial wellbeing in academic achievers and under-achievers. Thus, a comparison study is helpful to identify which group is more susceptible to stressors and whether the impact on the different groups is apparent so that proper intervention can be targeted for different groups of students.

Moreover, the relationship with parents, teachers and peers in terms of SES and the level of stress under a single framework is limited especially in this region. This study investigates these relationships to identify the type of stressors received by adolescents and links it to their social and psychological wellbeing. This adds to the empirical data and highlights possible cultural variations in different societies (Cheung, 1997).

2.7 Summary and Conclusion

Previous studies have shown various contributing factors such as socioeconomic background, family conflicts, peer pressure and teacher-student conflict can influence adolescents' emotional state and behavioral outcomes. Looking back at the literature, it is evident that more often than not, maladaptive behavior and depressive symptoms in youths are caused by a combination of factors rather than a sole factor (Foo, Tam, & Lee, 2012).

This literature review focused on issues concerning factors of SES and stressors and revealed how these factors are associated to psychological symptoms and misbehavior among adolescents. As proposed by Boudreau and Poulin (2009), SES measures are multidimensional and need to be explored further. In terms of SES indicators, studies should be more experimental by incorporating adolescent's material capital, human capital and social capital such as pocket money, computers, and tuition classes as part of SES indicator and not be restricted to only the income, education and occupation of parents. Currently, more studies have incorporated material and human capital as part of SES measures such as the Family Affluence Scale I and II and Material Affluence Scale but very few studies have ventured into incorporating social capital as part of an adolescent's

SES. Having both different and appropriate measures of SES would facilitate capturing the diversity of the socioeconomic background as there is no single measure that can cover the full outcome of status in children.

This literature review has also emphasized on the different types of stressors that adolescents' encounter and the effect of these stressors on their psychological and behavioral wellbeing. Most previous studies have observed parent stressors as being the most harmful to adolescent's wellbeing, however, recent literature has suggested that during adolescence, the relationship with peers and friends have a greater impact on adolescent's wellbeing. Thus, consideration should also be given to this peer-adolescent relationship as most studies show a negative peer influence is more detrimental to adolescent's psychological and behavioral wellbeing.

Moreover, the effect of the teacher-student relationship on psychological and behavioral wellbeing was also discussed in the literature review as past studies have awarded only a fleeting interest to this area. In the past, more focus was given to teacher's influence on student's academic performance. There are studies that argued that teacher stressors indirectly effect a student's psychological and behavioral wellbeing, while others have observed a direct effect. This study considers these arguments by examining the effect of teacher stressors on adolescent's psychological and behavioral wellbeing.

In sum, adolescents' susceptibility to various home and school stressors could have a long term effect on their psychological and behavioral wellbeing. As stress has been highlighted as one of the main contributors of adolescents' mental health and maladaptive behavior, it

is hoped that with proper intervention, stressful conditions can be dealt with and the wellbeing of our youth can be enhanced.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Background

The aim of this chapter is to present the theoretical framework and research model of this study. The link between SES and stressors and respectively psychological and behavioral outcomes, various social development theories, such as Ecological Systems Theory, Social Theory, Stage-Environment Fit Theory and Family Stress Model are elucidated and the CAPSES Model which is central to this study is presented.

The current chapter is organized as follows. First, the main theories and models that have been advanced in the literature are described. This is followed by some justifications of how the theories and models are linked to this study and the theoretical gaps. Subsequently, the conceptual framework of the study will be described.

3.2 Theories Underpinning the Study

There are many theories that are relevant for the topic of adolescent's socioeconomic background and its relationship to wellbeing. However, for this study, the Ecological Systems Theory provides a child development perspective that links the child to his/her environment. Other related development theories such as Social Theory, Stage-Environment Theory, Family Stress Model Theory and the Capital as a Function of Socioeconomic Status (CAPSES) Model describe the linkages between concepts and forms the framework of the study.

3.2.1 Ecological Systems Theory

The Ecological Systems Theory forms the overarching theoretical foundation of the study and emphasizes on interaction and influences between an individual and the environment. In Ecological Systems Theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1986, 1994), there are various levels of interaction between an individual and the surrounding. The most significant is the first level of interaction, the Microsystems, where children with their characteristics interact with people whom are closest to them and these people have the strongest influence on the child's development. In this context, parents have the nearest link to their children.

Subsequently, there is interaction between two or more settings involved in developing the person such as the child's school teachers and peers. This process is referred to as the Mesosystem (Bronfenbrenner, 1986). The experiences that the child has to go through will either include or exclude the child from the mainstream society and this in turn, affects his/her development.

With respect to this theory, it is assumed that relationships with parents, teachers and peers affect adolescents' emotions and behavior. Findings from Bahador, Rozumah and Leila (2009) have shown that parents exert a significant impact on their children, whereby children's behavioral problems could be reflected by their parents' behavior. In school, peers have the most influence on adolescents' emotions and behavior. Having relationship with peers who are negative could be a precipitating factor of maladaptive behavior. Likewise, having peers that are positive may result in positive behavior (Demanet & Van Houtte, 2011).

3.2.2 Social Theory

Central to this study, Social Theory (Coleman, 1988, 1990) proposes that social resources coupled with social relations affect the wellbeing of adolescents. Social theory emphasize on the networking between people and "the quality and quantity of social relations in a given population" (Curran, 2007; Harpham, Grant, & Thomas, 2002). The theory takes into account the ecological perspective, whereby relationships need to be built between individuals and among individuals such as the family, school, and community to create social capital (X. Chen, Stanton, Gong, Fang, & Li, 2009; Coleman, 1990).

Social capital is seen as the main aspect of Social Theory. As clearly pointed out by one of the social capital scholar Bassani (2007), social capital leverage on networking with different groups of people and by interacting with different groups, social resources are mobilised, thus strengthening individuals' wellbeing.

With networking and interaction being a crucial aspect of wellbeing, the Social Theory was employed in this study to measure SES. The Social Theory explains why social networking is a significant measure of adolescents' SES other than the common measure of material and human resources. Evidence has shown that good relations with parents would give the children access to parental support emotionally, financially and in terms of human capital. On the other hand, poor relations and lack of parental monitoring would result in low parental support and may elicit aggressive behavior in adolescents (L.K. Lee, Chen, Lee, & Jagmohni, 2007).

3.2.3 Stage-Environment Fit

The concept of stage-environment fit was advanced by Eccles et al. (1993) who proposed that at this stage, adolescents experience some negative psychological changes due to a mismatch between adolescents' development needs and opportunities that the social environment are able to provide. At this stage, adolescents desire autonomy in decision-making and some control over matters that concerns them. Hence, the environment that does not provide this opportunity could affect adolescents' self-esteem and motivation further resulting in misconduct.

This theory describes the association between adolescent development needs such as economic support, good relationships with family, peers, and teachers in school and their wellbeing. However if changes occur in the environment that affects their needs such as loss of financial security and conflicts with parents, peers or teachers, this may affect an adolescent's emotion and behavior negatively. The stage-environment fit may postulate a rational explanation for the relationship between SES and behavioral and emotional outcomes.

3.2.4 Family Stress Model of Economic Hardship

Economic hardship is determined by low income, increasing debts compared to assets and work instability. The Family Stress Model of Economic Hardship (Conger & Conger, 2002; Wadsworth & Compas, 2002) poses that economic hardship significantly cause stress on the parents which ultimately leads to relationship strain between parents and children. This theory has been highlighted in the literature and shown that there is a direct link between

poverty strain and psychological symptoms in adolescents (Wadsworth & Berger, 2006). Families facing poverty strain are exposed to family rifts and this may lead to behavioral and psychological distress.

Overall, this study examines the stress model from several angles, namely family socioeconomic status as an influence to stress and also parental and school relationships as stress factors that affect an adolescent's emotional and behavioral wellbeing. For example, Wadsworth et al. (2006) examined the association between poverty related family stress, adolescents response, and coping ability and found that stress results in internalization of problems in which youths become depressed and develop anxiety.

3.2.5 Capital as a Function of Socioeconomic Status (CAPSES) Model

The CAPSES Model is derived from Oakes and Rossi's (2003) pilot study to measure SES in various context; material and monetary goods, skills and capabilities and strength of social relationships and action (through interaction). SES is seen as a measure of access to resources and a function of material endowment (material capital), skills, ability, knowledge (human capital) and individuals networking with others and the status, power, trustworthiness and abilities of its members (social capital) (Oakes & Rossi, 2003). The model is based on Coleman's Social Theory (Coleman, 1988), which emphasizes on an individual's available resources and actions taken by individuals to take control over scarce resources. Resources can be in many forms. According to Oakes and Rossi (2003) and Coleman (1988, 1990), human, social and material capital indicate the status of individuals

in the social structure. Oakes and Rossi argued that the variations in adolescent life reflect their SES. As proposed by Oakes and Rossi (2003), SES is a function of capital;

SES = *f*(Material Capital, Human Capital, Social Capital).

The CAPSES model proposed by Oakes and Rossi (2003) facilitates the construction of the study's SES measure. Figure 3.1 shows items of the constructs material capital, human capital and social capital based on adult sampling in Oakes and Rossi's pilot study. The current study has adapted the model to suit school going adolescents. Hence, items that are used to reflect material, human and social capitals are adapted to this population sample.

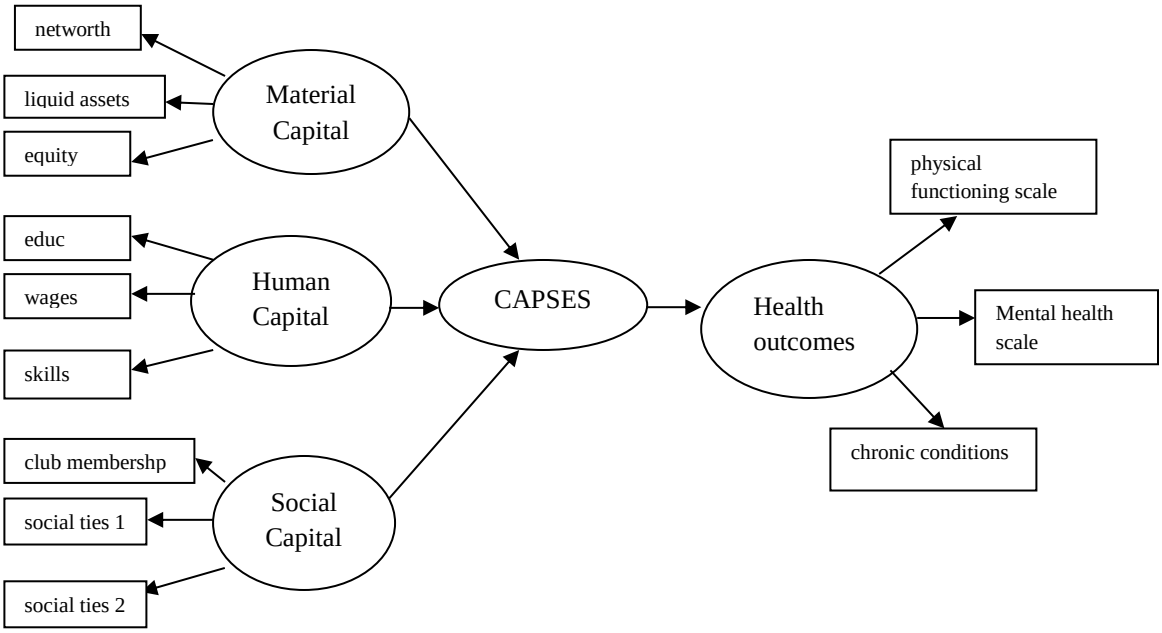

Figure 3.1: CAPSES model by Oakes & Rossi (2003)

3.4 Theoretical Gaps

Many conceptual and theoretical researches have been prepared on Social Theory (Colemen, 1988) and Social Capital Theory (Bassani, 2007) over the years, however empirical work on these theories are scant, especially those focusing on youths (Bassani, 2007). Bassani explained that the majority of the empirical work has been conducted by family scholars, thus empirical work is limited to family and less on multi-groups such as school or other youth organizations. Therefore, this study expands the theory by focusing on an adolescent population sample in a developing country.

In addition, various scholars such as Currie et al. (2008); Sen (2005); Townsend (1987) have recommended using subjective indicators to measure SES particularly in children. Coleman's Social Theory that emphasized on material capital, social capital and human capital has not been explored empirically to measure SES until it was conceptualized by Oakes and Rossi (2003) in their CAPSES Model. However Oakes and Rossi's CAPSES Model was based on an adult population sample, while the current work employed the CAPSES Model to gauge adolescent's SES.

3.5 Conceptual Framework

The theories highlighted earlier in this chapter and the CAPSES Model by Oakes and Rossi (2003) as seen in Figure 3.1, assist in the foundation of the current framework. The Social Theory (1988) and CAPSES Model (2003) streamline the socioeconomic part of the framework and relate it to psychological and behavioral outcomes, while the Stage-Environment Fit Theory (Eccles et al., 1993) and Family Stress Model (Conger & Conger, 2002) explains the role of family stressors and school stressors that results in negative

social behaviors in adolescent. The Ecological Theory acts as the grand theory of this framework as it relates individuals to their environment and by virtue of the interaction with the various levels of the environment, and creates positive or/and negative outcomes to the individuals. Figure 3.2 presents the conceptual framework based on the theories specified.

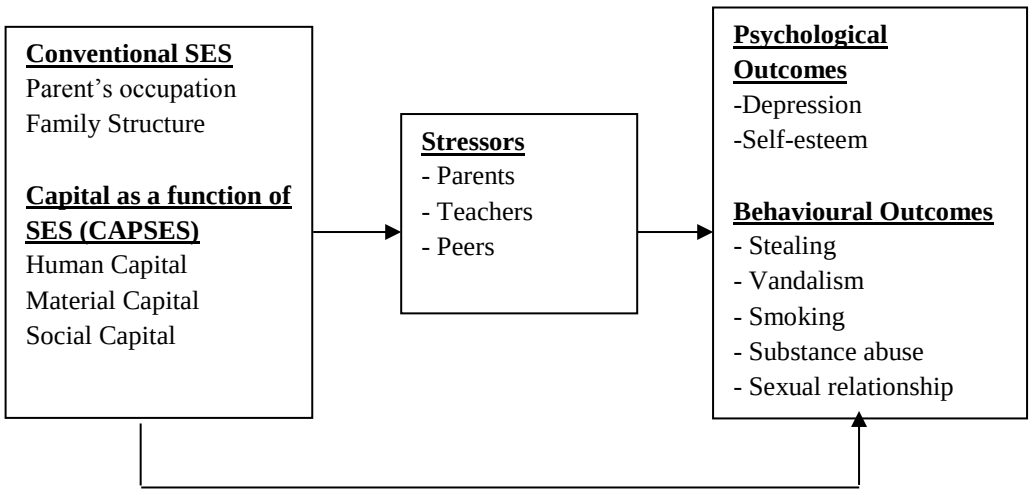

Figure 3.2: Current framework on the relationship between SES and stressors, psychological and behavioral outcomes

3.5.1 Socioeconomic Status (SES)

The framework suggests SES as one of the major determinants of health and wellbeing of adolescents. Those who are in a lower level SES are more likely to be more exposed to stressful situations, are emotionally affected by their environment and easily are influence to misbehave. Conventionally, SES is measured through income, occupation, education and to a certain extent family structure is also used as proxy to SES. However, more recently, material wealth such as assets, and human capital such as skill and knowledge were included to measure SES. With the CAPSES Model, besides the human and material capital, social capital is included as one of the variables that measures SES. The CAPSES indicator is compared to the traditional measures of SES to test its relationship and significance as an additional SES indicator to parental occupation and family structure.

3.5.2 Stressors

Stressors at home or in school are also crucial in determining adolescent's mental health and social behavior. In situations where adolescents face a stressful environment at home with the parents or teachers and peers in school, adolescents may face a higher risk of depression, may have higher discipline issues and perform poorly in school. The above argument may be a cause for concern as adolescents who are exposed to stressors from the environment, risk losing their health and future prospects. For this study, measures of stressors are based on strains in relationships such as fights or arguments with parents, peers and teachers, pressure from high expectations, parents too strict and controlling and strong competition with peers.

3.5.3 Psychological and Behavioral Outcomes

An adolescent's social environment is an important determinant of their behavior and psychological state. In general, negative social environment such as economic hardship, stressful relationships with parents and negative peer influence would have harmful effects on their psychological and behavioral state. The concept of adolescent wellbeing in this study is based on general depressive symptoms concerned with their mood, feeling loved, loneliness, image and self-esteem, and behavior such as aggressive behavior and risky behavior that are harmful to them or to others.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

4.1 Background

The purpose of this chapter is to describe and discuss the way the research has been designed and conducted in this study. This chapter has two main sections. The first section explains on the research design up to the data collection. This includes descriptions of the planning stage of the research, the sampling procedures, the pilot study, the questionnaire design, the data collection process and ethical consideration of the research. The second section contains testing of the reliability of instruments used (Cronbach's Alpha) and also description of statistical techniques used for analysis namely, correlation analysis, partial least squares (PLS) and multiple group analysis (MGA). The rationale behind the choice of the methods used is also highlighted in the two sections.

4.2 Research Design

This study is a cross-sectional study and consists of both quantitative and qualitative approach. The quantitative approach examined the impact of socioeconomic status on stressors, psychological and behavioral wellbeing of school going adolescents in Kuala Lumpur. The qualitative approach was employed to explore adolescent's perceptions of their family and school environment, support system and stressors.

The integration of both approaches are important as the quantitative methods require a survey covering a large sample and quantitative analysis will determine specific frequencies of relevant categories, while the qualitative approaches allow in-depth

investigation about issues and examines ideological mind-sets, themes, descriptions of situations, symbols and similar phenomena, while grounding such examinations to the data (Berg, 2004). The qualitative techniques were expected to give in-depth and insights to the research questions. Both methods are relevant to this research because data triangulation method is able to describe multiple data-collection techniques (Berg, 2004). For this study, focus group discussions were conducted to support the interpretation of quantitative data.

4.3 Planning Stage : Criteria and Process

As the unit of analysis of the study is school going adolescents in Form Four (Grade 11), schools within Kuala Lumpur were approached. The list of schools in Kuala Lumpur was obtained from the Department of Education, Kuala Lumpur. Several criteria were used for the selection of schools and they are; first, schools selected must be a public school. Second, the schools must be of mixture of race and gender. Based on a prior discussions with several heads of school, other students from Form Three (Grade 10) and Form Five (Grade 12) category could not be involved in this study as they were preparing for major national examinations, i.e., Penilaian Menengah Rendah (PMR) and Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia (SPM, equivalent to O-Level) which are normally held in October and November every year.

The ages 15-17 years would be the most appropriate age group sample of respondents as studies have determined that delinquency acts in Malaysia are highest in this age category (Sidhu, 2005), however due to this constraint, only Form Four students were involved.

Proper procedures were followed through before the fieldwork commenced. Most importantly approval from the Ministry of Education was obtained in December 2009. With the ministry's approval, the Department of Education Kuala Lumpur released a list of schools in Kuala Lumpur and schools background information. The schools in Kuala Lumpur were divided into three main zones, Sentul, Keramat and Pudu-Bangsar. As shown in Table 4.1, there were 50 schools in Pudu-Bangsar zone, 23 schools in Keramat and 22 schools in Sentul. Based on the inclusion criteria which were co-educational (mixed gender) and national schools, the numbers of schools were reduced further to 18 schools in Pudu-Bangsar zone, 12 schools in Keramat zone and 13 schools in Sentul.

Nevertheless, due to time constraint and limitation financial and human resources, a standard percentage of schools from each zones were applied to be able to manage the fieldwork. For a fair representation, 50 percent of schools were randomly selected from each zone and an additional 10 percent was factored in to reduce the impact of school dropouts. The largest number of schools came from the Pudu-Bangsar zone. Subsequently, the final numbers of schools were 10 schools from Pudu-Bangsar, 7 schools from Keramat and 8 schools from the Sentul zone. In total 25 schools from three main zones were approached for this study.

Table 4.1: Sampling procedure conducted on schools in Kuala Lumpur

Zones	Total no. of schools	No. of schools based on criteria	No. of schools for study based on 60% intake
Pudu-Bangsar	50	18	10
Keramat	23	12	7
Sentul	22	13	8
Total	**95**	**43**	**25**

4.4 The Population and Sampling Procedure

The unit of analysis for this study consists of individual youth in Form Four between ages 16-17 years from public schools in Kuala Lumpur. As mentioned earlier in the planning section on page 63, only Form Four students were selected for this study because Form Three and Form Five students were preparing for their national high school examinations. Besides this criterion, Kuala Lumpur was chosen as the study area because it is the highest urban populated area in Malaysia and has one of the highest crime rate in Malaysia (Royal Malaysia Police, 2013; Sidhu, 2005).

Based on Table 4.1, the sampling started with a random sampling of the 25 schools based on the 60 percent intake of schools from the total population of schools within the three zones. From each school, a cluster sampling was applied, where only two classes were chosen in each school, the achievers class and the under-achievers class. The classes were already segregated by the schools based on the students' academic performance in *Penilaian Menengah Rendah (PMR)* examination result which is a standardized national examination for Form Three (Grade 10) students in government schools. Figure 4.1 shows the sampling procedure.

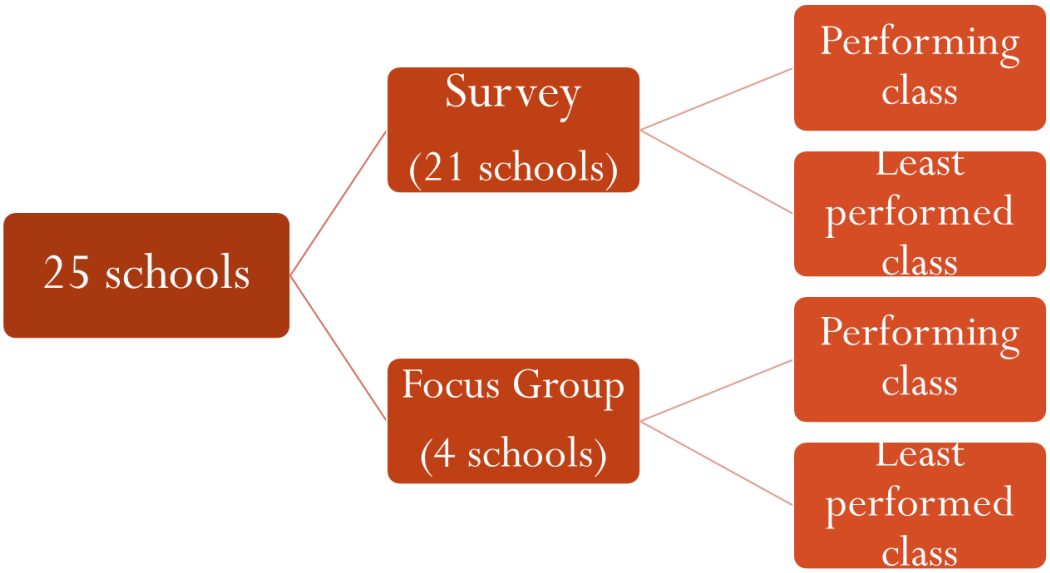

Figure 4.1: Sampling of schools

Therefore based on the selected 25 schools, 21 schools were approached for quantitative survey while the remainder four schools were approached for focus group discussion. The four schools were randomly selected from each zone. Pudu-Bangsar had two schools due to the area size, while Keramat and Sentul had one representative school for the focus group discussions.

As for the questionnaire survey, all students from the respective classes were invited to participate. In total a sample of 1084 students from 21 schools was approached for this study. The questionnaire survey was held in each school and in the respective classes. For the four schools involved with the focus group discussion, in each school, two classes were selected, the achievers and the under-achievers. In total, eight focus groups were chosen. Students for the focus group discussion were selected randomly using the class attendance.

In terms of the number of respondents, the study has a large sample as according to Roscoe's (1975) rule of for determining sample size (as cited in Sekaran (2005), for a population over 100,000, a sample size of 384 is adequate to be generalized to the population. In addition, Roscoe proposed a sample sizes less than 500 are appropriate for most research. Therefore the sample used for this study is adequate to be generalized to the population of students in Kuala Lumpur.

4.5 Pilot Study

In this survey, all of the survey questions were replicated and some modified from previous major studies in various parts of the world, including Malaysia. Although the questions were adapted and validated thoroughly by other researchers in the field (Cheung, 1997; Kovacs, 2003; Moos & Moos, 1994; Oakes & Rossi, 2003), a pilot study was conducted to check on the clarity, proper use of terms, the meaning and relevance of each statement.

After the construction of the questionnaire and focus group discussion guideline, a pilot study was conducted in one national school in Petaling Jaya. Pilot study is an important part of this study as it tests the relevancy of a questionnaire, i.e., the proper use of terms and clarity of the meaning. Babbie (2001) has emphasized that pre-testing is the surest way to detect any errors in the questionnaire. The school in Petaling Jaya was selected randomly for this purpose and the class was selected by the school's principal. Altogether a class of 28 students were invited to participate, however after the consent letter were distributed for participation, only 24 students participated in the questionnaire survey and later 10 students from the same group were chosen with their consent to be involved with the focus group discussion. Both the survey and discussion were conducted on the same day. All the

students from the class could read, hence their feedbacks on the questionnaire were noted and changes were made. The comments derived from the pilot study were considered and some further changes were made to arrive at the final version of the instrument.

4.6 Quantitative Approach

The quantitative approach was considered because this technique analyzes the mass group and provides significant information to answer the research hypotheses (Sekaran, 2005). For this study, a self-administered questionnaire was utilized to collect data from high school students in 21 schools and the administration of survey was performed in individual schools.

4.6.1 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire is divided into four sections, the first part consists of respondents demography and socioeconomic factor. The second part focus on respondents' stressful environment at home and in school and social resources obtained from this environment. Subsequently, the next section looks into respondents' psychological state using the Child Depression Inventory. The final section inquires about respondents' past experiences related to maladaptive behavior. The questionnaire was translated to the national language, Bahasa Malaysia and respondents spent approximately 40 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Besides the section on demography and socioeconomic factor, all other sections in the questionnaire used the Likert scale method to measure the responses to the items.

4.6.2 Measures Used in Questionnaires

In the questionnaire (Appendix D), Section A consists of respondents details on Socioeconomic Demography. Section B is on the adolescents' life stressors and social resources. Subsequently, Section C questions on child depression, final section comprise of adolescents' maladaptive behaviors (refer to Table 4.2).

Table 4.2: Instruments used in questionnaire

Section	Measure	Factors measured	No. of Items
A	**Demography & Socioeconomic Factor**	• **Gender & race** • **Number of siblings** • **Parental background** • **Living environment** • **Educational resources** • **School allowance** • **Member of school club / sports team** • **PMR examination results**	**31**
B	**Life Stressors & Social Resources Inventory (Moos, 1994)**	**Parents Stressors and Social Resources** **School Stressors & Social Resources**	**45**
C	**Child Depression Inventory (Kovacs, 1985)**	**Psychological: negative mood, ineffectiveness, anhedonia, negative self-esteem**	**10**
D	**Adolescent Deviant Behavior (Cheung, 1997)**	**Maladaptive behaviors**	**9**

a) Section A: Socioeconomic Background

This section of the questionnaire relates to the characteristics of respondents, home environment, activities performed in school and outside by respondents and previous national examination results. The items are intended to measure family background, their living status, activities and academic performance.

Socioeconomic in this study addresses the question on parental occupations. Parental occupations are based on open ended responses to a question of the primary profession or position. The employment positions were categorized according to Malaysia Standard Classification of Occupations 2008 (MASCO 2008, Appendix G), which classified occupations into, 1-Managers, 2-Professionals, 3-Technicians and Associate Professionals, 4-Clerical Support Workers, 5-Service and Sales Workers, 6-Skilled Agricultural, Forestry and Fishery Workers, 7-Craft and Related Trade Workers, 8-Plant and Machine-operators and Assemblers, 9-Elementary Occupations and 0- Armed Forces Occupations. However, due to very low responses in some of the occupational categories, the categories were combined further. Thus the final occupational classification used in this study was, 1-managers and professionals, 2-clerical and services, 3-skilled workers and 4-production and unskilled workers.

Moreover, since most mothers were unemployed and there were many missing values on parental occupations, occupational status of father and mother was combined, choosing only the highest occupational status for each couple as the parental indicator (Richter, Anja, & Saoirse, 2006). Respondents who failed to provide parental occupations were grouped in the ‘missing’ category.

In relation to the new indicator (CAPSES), Table 4.3 shows several questions that represent the indicator.

Table 4.3: CAPSES indicators and scales

Factors Measured	**Items /sample of questions**	**Scale**
1. Social capital		
• Adolescent- parents relationship (PSC)	"Does your father / mother respects your opinion?"	"0= never" to "4= often".
• Adolescent- teacher relationship (SSC)	"Can you count on your teachers to help you when you need it?"	"0= never" to "4= often".
• Adolescent's involvement in clubs in the school or community (CM)	"Are you a member of a team or club such as sports, choir, or others"	"0-No", "1-Yes".
2. Material capital (MC)	Daily pocket money for school	"1-RM1 to RM3", "2-RM4 to RM5", "3-RM6 and more
	Types of reading materials available at home	"0- no reading materials", "1-one type of reading material", "2-two to three types of reading materials", "3-four and more types of reading materials"
	Owns computer at home	"0-No", "1-Yes".

3. Human capital (HC)	No. of years in pre-school	"0-never attended", "1-one year", "2-two years", "3-three years and more"
	No. of subjects taken for tuition classes	"0-no tuition", "1- one to three subjects", "2-four to five subjects", "3- six or more subjects"
	Take any private music lessons	"0-No", "1-Yes".

Notes: RM = Ringgit Malaysia

As summarized by Table 4.3, Social capital was taken from the Social Resources Inventory as seen in Section B, Life Stressors & Social Resources Inventory (Moos & Moos, 1994). It is represented by positive relationship between adolescent and parents (PSC) such as adolescent's perceptions of parental support and adolescent and school relationship (SSC), such as teacher's support and expectations and adolescent's involvement in associations or clubs in the school or community (CM). PSC and SSC describes social resources received from parents and teachers, how it is used to manage adolescents' life stressors in their current life situation (Moos & Moos, 1994).

The Social Resources Scale reflects the support and empathy in relationships with mother and father. In total, the scale has 10 items with a reliability coefficient of 0.90 which indicates good internal consistency of the instrument, consistent with the original Social Resources Scale (Moos and Moos 1994). As the questionnaire was required to be in Bahasa Malaysia, all of the items in the scales were translated into Bahasa Malaysia by the

researcher and subsequently a back translation was done to English by a certified translator to compare with the original items. All translations were sent to the original author for authorization and amendments were made as required (Appendix F).

Material capital (MC) was measured by daily pocket money for school the types of reading materials available at home and if computer is available and in working condition at home, while human capital (HC) is measured by number of years in pre-school, number of subjects taken for tuition classes and whether respondents receive any private music lessons.

To form the CAPSES, all the capitals were combined by summing up the scores for material capital, human capital, parent social capital, teacher social capital, team / club member and subsequently the scores were divided into equal percentile which was referred to as low (0-25), middle (26-32) and high (33 and above) SES.

b) Section B: Life Stressors & Social Resources Inventory

In this section, the questionnaire was divided into stressors and social resources at home and in school. This section describes adolescents' life contexts and examines the social resources adolescents use to manage life stressors in adolescent's current life situation (Moos & Moos, 1994). The Parents and School Stressors and Social Resources scales uses a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 0= "never" to 4= "often".

For the Stressors scales, adolescents were asked if they had interpersonal problems at home with their mother and father. Similarly, adolescents were asked if they had interpersonal

problems in school with their teachers, counselors and problems with other students. Questions such as “Do you have arguments or fights with your mother?”, “Are any students at school critical or disapproving of you?” and “Do any of your teachers get angry or lose their temper with you?” As for the Social Resources scales, all questions reflected on the support and empathy in relationships with mother, father, teachers and with other students and includes questions such as “Can you count on your father to help you when you need it?” and “Do any of your teachers respect your opinion?” As the questionnaire was required to be in Bahasa Malaysia, all of the items in the scales were translated into Bahasa Malaysia by the researcher and subsequently a back translation was done to English by a certified translator to compare with the original items. All translations were sent to the author for authorization and amendments were made as required.

c) Section C: Child Depression Inventory

This section measures the extent and severity of depressive symptoms and the questionnaire can be used in children aged 7 to 17 (Kovacs, 2003). For this study, the Child Depression Inventory (CDI:S) short version was used to screen adolescents for possible symptoms and the scale contains 10 items using three levels of symptomatology (0-absence of symptom, 1-mild symptom, 2-definite symptom). This study used the translated version of the scale in Bahasa Malaysia that was available and easily obtainable from the author.

d) Section D: Adolescent Deviant Behavior

The next section of the questionnaire portrays questions related to various categories of delinquent behavior. Originally, this scale was developed by Hirschi (1969) and subsequently more delinquency acts were added by Cheung (1997) to suit the Asian

culture. Items added such as speaking foul language, having pre-marital sex and watching pornography that are not commonly reflected in studies conducted in the West were included as these acts are considered disgraceful in the Asian culture. The scale adapted from Cheung (1997) had only eight items, however for this study another item on the use of non-prescribed drugs such as morphine, ecstasy, ice and others were included to measure the frequency of drug abuse among adolescents in this sample. This item was important because of the rampant usage of drugs among school going children in Malaysia.

To verify on the validity of the scale with the additional item, a Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha was performed and the 9-items deviant scale has an alpha value of 0.7060, which indicates acceptable degree of reliability and internal consistency. Deleting any of the nine items would not yield a higher alpha value. The rating scale consists of a five point rating scale, "0=Not even once", "1=Once or twice", "2=Several times", "3=Quite a number of times" and "4=Many times".

Due to the sensitivity of the title of this section of the questionnaire, the term 'delinquency' was replaced by the word 'negative activities and behavior' among teenagers to avoid unnecessary connotation.

4.7 Qualitative Approach

The qualitative approach is beneficial as it helps to analyze and produce rounded understandings on the basis of rich, contextual and detailed data (Mason, 1996). It is also argued by Mason (1996) that this approach emphasized on holistic forms of analysis and explanation. However, having addressed the advantage of qualitative method, it is worth noting that qualitative approach is time consuming as it requires greater clarity of goals during design stages. Furthermore, collecting data based on the researcher's observations and interviews takes longer time that there is a need to engage more than one researcher to monitor and carryout the study and this in turn, will result in the increase in cost (Berg, 2004). Hence, due to the limitations of time and cost, this study employed focus group discussions, enabling data collection with a larger group of respondents in one seating. The focus group discussions were performed with an average of ten students per session and altogether, there were eight sessions conducted in the four respective schools.

4.7.1 Focus Group Discussion

The aim of the focus group discussion is to explore participant's views and opinions on stress among adolescents in Malaysia and the sources of stress and support for adolescents. To achieve this objective, four schools in Kuala Lumpur were involved and for each school, two classes were selected, the achievers class and under-achievers class.

The classification of achiever and under-achiever was based on the students' national examination results in Form 3 (Grade 11). Based on these results, the students were divided accordingly into their classes. For this study, the focus was to compare students who performed well academically and those who under-performed. Only the best class and the

lowest performing class were chosen. Thus stratified purposeful sampling was employed. Subsequently, 8 to 10 students from each class were selected randomly by using attendance list to attend the focus group sessions, bringing the total of 74 students altogether for four schools. According to Sekaran (2005), 8 to 10 members is sufficient for a focus group discussion with a moderator leading the discussions.

Each session held took approximately 50 minutes to 1 ½ hours and the discussions were held in either a meeting room or a counseling room in the respective schools. The participants were informed that the discussions will be tape recorded and only after they agreed on the recording method that the researcher started with the discussion. The participants came from various socioeconomic status, ethnicity and gender.

As the topics were discussed in groups, the questions were general and do not go into participant's personal details to avoid unnecessary embarrassment. Two persons were involved in organizing and conducting the focus group, the researcher who was the moderator and an assistant to organize the seating arrangement, distribute permission forms and tokens, handle the tape recorder and act as an observer by taking notes on important quotes and gestures from students. This method was used to support the main findings from the survey questionnaire and it is suitable approach as it can provide satisfactory and dependable data within a short period of time (Sekaran, 2005).

The researcher followed the "funnel structure", which participants were asked on general and broad questions in the beginning and later participants were asked more specific questions relating to stressors. The focus group guidelines consist of eight open-ended

questions and this was done to generate more responses from participants and obtain useful information that can help to further strengthen the questions on stressors. The focus group guideline is shown in Appendix E.

After each group discussion, the recordings were saved in the researcher's personal computer and within seven days the data from each school was transcribed by a hired assistant. The transcripts were checked again by the researcher against the recording made to check on the accuracy of transcriptions. Subsequently, the texts were read through and analyzed manually and the interpretations of the meaning of descriptions were personally performed by the researcher.

4.8 Data Collection Process

The present study is a cross sectional study, thus data obtained from both self-administered questionnaire survey and focus group discussions were collected in one shot over a period of a month (August 2nd to 25th, 2010).

For ease of data collection, three undergraduate students of different ethnicity (two Chinese and one Indian) were employed as research assistants to assist in administering and collection of the questionnaire. The assistants helped to explain the survey questions for students who could not comprehend Bahasa Malaysia and English well. Although the chosen schools were national schools in which Bahasa Malaysia was the formal language and English is used as the second language, there were some students who were weak in the two languages and needed assistance to understand the questions. In special cases, the

three assistants helped to explain the questionnaire in other languages such as Mandarin, Cantonese and Tamil.

To avoid bias in administering the questionnaire, the research assistants were called for a briefing prior to the fieldwork to explain the objectives of research, target respondents and the ethical aspects of conducting a research. It was explained to the assistants that in a special case which needs them to clarify questions to respondents, they were not allowed to impose their perceptions or opinions on the respondents. In difficult situations in which assistants need further guidance, the researcher was there to clarify matters further.

After the collection of data from the survey, the information from the data was keyed into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS v. 20) software from the 28th September to 23th December 2010. The data analysis period took a longer time (seven months) as the researcher had to learn a new software SmartPLS software version 2.0 to explain the relationships among multiple variables simultaneously.

For the focus group interview, discussions were headed by a moderator, while notes and comments were written by a trained research assistant. The participants were introduced to the moderator and research assistant and briefed on the objectives of discussion and permission forms were circulated to the group members for their participation. The participants were also informed that all their names will not be revealed in the discussion and they were informed that their comments were tape recorded, albeit all will remain confidential and not be released to anybody other than the research team.

For the focus group, transcribing was performed by a hired assistant a day after each focus group discussion, starting from the 12th August until the 2nd September 2010. After which the researcher took six more days to check on the transcriptions and fill in the missing statements based on the earlier recordings. The interpretation of descriptions from the texts was analyzed from the 9th to 25th September 2010.

4.9 Data Management and Preparation

Missing values in the conventional (parental occupation) and CAPSES indicators (material capital, human capital and social capital) were assessed to analyse the randomness of the missing data. To analyse the level of randomness of the missing data, an independent t-test was conducted to compare the parent stressors, peer stressors and teacher stressors' scores for two groups of respondents, employed parents group and missing data of occupations group. The t-test results showed no significant difference in means for respondents from parents with an occupation group and the missing data group on parent stressors ($t = 0.045$, $df = 1042$; $p = 0.96$), teacher stressors ($t = 0.320$, $df = 1042$; $p = 0.75$) and peer stressors ($t = 1.55$, $df = 1042$; $p = 0.123$). Thus the missing data was classified as missing at random (MAR). Due to the low percentage of missing data (<10%) and the insignificant difference between the two groups, missing values for the continuous data were replaced with the sample mean while the all available data approach (PAIRWISE option in SPSS) was used as part of the data imputation method (Hair et al 2006) for parent's occupation.

4.10 Ethical Aspects of the Study

Due to the nature of this research which deals with data collection from individuals, the researcher was careful to comply with the ethical standards encapsulated in the Helsinki Convention of Human Rights. Some of the fundamental principles of the Helsinki Declaration are; 1- individuals must be adequately informed on the aims, methods, institutional affiliation of the researcher, the potential benefits and risks of the study, 2- to honor individual's right to self-determination, the right to make informed decisions with regards to participation in research, 3- protect the confidentiality of personal information of research subject , 4- individual's welfare must take precedence over the interest of science and society, 5- when the participant is a minor, his/her consent should still be obtained if at all possible or allowance should be considered for surrogate consent by an individual acting in the subject's best interest (WHO, 2001).

The researcher has also submitted a full submission of detailed proposal, questionnaire and research plan were given to the Ministry of Education for review and to obtain permissions for research in public schools in Kuala Lumpur. As a sign of approval, the Ministry produced a letter that was shown to the Department of Education Kuala Lumpur and the potential schools targeted for the study. The school principals were then approached for further explanation on the subject and components of study and the methods used to conduct the study. Only upon approval, the researcher arranged an appropriate date for the survey to be conducted and with the approval of the school principals, passive parental consent letters were given to parents to inform them on the study.

The researcher's phone number was included in the letter and parents were informed to contact the researcher if there was any inquiries pertaining to the study and if they do not want to include their children in the study, they should inform the researcher within three days of receiving the letter. Since the target respondents are between 16-17 years of age, in which they can understand the impact of their participation, Masdon (2004) as cited in stated that the respondents' consents were more appropriate for the study than the parental consent (Sime, 2008). Thus, respondents gave written consent letters for their participation in the study. Prior to that, potential respondents were briefed on the objective of study, the confidentiality of their information and were asked to read through the questionnaire before giving out their consents.

Due to the nature of the study that looks into the subject of socioeconomic background, the questions posed did not directly ask them if they were poor or facing poverty, because according to Sime (2008) it is a sensitive issue and could affect their self-esteem as the respondents may not perceive themselves as being poor.

Finally, to reward their contribution in this study, respondents were given pens as a token of appreciation. According to Sime (2008), incentives or rewards as such should not pose any risk of compromising the findings.

4.11 Reliability and Validity of Instruments

Reliability of instruments is crucial as it indicates the quality of the measurement method, which is the internal consistency of the scale being used (Pallant, 2005). One of the most commonly used indicators of internal consistency in quantitative measurement is Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient. Table 4.9 displays the Alpha Coefficient for all the variables.

Table 4.4: Reliability Coefficients for Each Section of the Questions

Questionnaire	**No. of items**	**Cronbach's Alpha**
Section B: Life Stressors and Social Resources Inventory		
1. Parents Stressors	19	0.92
2. School Stressors	11	0.81
3. Parents Social Resources	10	0.93
4. School Social Resources	5	0.87
Section C: Child Depression Inventory	10	0.80
Section D: Deviant Behaviors	8	0.75

No. of cases = 1,044

As displayed in Table 4.4, the coefficient alpha for the dimension of Life Stressors and Social Resources exhibit impressively high coefficients between of 0.81 to 0.93. The Child Depression Inventory and Deviant Behaviors also has high coefficient values of 0.80 and 0.75 respectively. This argument is further supported by Pallant (2005), as she commented that with short scales (fewer than ten items), it is common to find quite low Cronbach

values. Given that the Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient scores were acceptable and the sample was adequate, the data was considered suitable for further analysis.

To establish validity of the instrument used in this study, the author performed content validity and construct validity. The content analysis was performed based on the feedback of respondents on the questionnaire during pilot study, which mainly focuses on the clarity, the meaning and relevance of each statement and the proper use of terms. The construct validity was performed during analysis using the SmartPLS software. This latest software enables Factor Analysis and Multivariate Analysis performed simultaneously. An in depth discussion on data analyses are reported in Chapter 5.

4.12 Tools of Analysis

The present study examines SES measures and its relationship with psychological and behavioral outcomes. Two statistical techniques were employed for the analysis; first, the descriptive and correlation analysis were generated using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS v. 20). Subsequently, to examine the relationships between study variables, to acquire model fit of the study and perform multi-group analysis, Partial Least Squares (PLS) statistical technique was employed using SmartPLS version 2.0. PLS is suitable for use as it combines aspects of factor analysis and multiple regression and explains the relationships among multiple variables simultaneously (J.F. Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010).

PLS was developed by Herman Wold in the 1970s derives from a family of structural equation modeling (SEM) technique which employs variance-based techniques. The PLS approach provides a general model which includes canonical correlation (correlations among variables), redundancy analysis, multiple regression, multivariate analysis of variance and principle components. The main objective of PLS is to capitalize on the explanation of variance in SEM's dependent constructs (Jörg Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009).

Compared to the other covariance-based SEM technique (CBSEM), PLS is rapidly gaining its popularity in Social Sciences due to its distinctive methodological features. One of the features is to maximize prediction rather than model fit which means it considers the proportion of variance of the dependent "construct" that is explained by the predictor "constructs." SEM on the other hand, is designed to maximize and then test the degree of consistency between model and data. Another distinct features of PLS is that this method can be used in situations where there the theory is weak, the available manifest variables or measures would likely not conform to a rigorously specified measurement model and where the model has complex relationships (Fornell & Cha, 1994). Unlike CBSEM which is based on strong theoretical information that empirically assess hypothesized model fits, PLS is most fitting when used for theory-building and in instances where both formative and reflective measures are present. PLS is also suitable when the sample sizes are small and when distributions are highly skewed (J.F. Hair et al., 2010). For these reasons, PLS approach has been labelled as 'soft modeling'.

PLS consists of two parts of assessments, first, the outer model assessment (measurement model) which examines the goodness of measure of constructs. The assessment which applies factor analysis is important to test the unidimensionality of the items of the indicators as well as to assess the factor loadings of indicators computed for latent factors.

Subsequently the inner model assessment (structural model), analyses the variance explanation of endogenous constructs, effect sizes and predictive relevance of a model (Jörg Henseler et al., 2009). The structural model assess the relationships among constructs in accordance to theoretical and logical reasoning by examining the path coefficient's directions and significance levels (Chin, 1998b). The path coefficients link the exogenous variables (constructs that predict other constructs) to the endogenous variables (constructs that are dependent variables in a causal relationship) (Götz, Liehr-Gobbers, & Krafft, 2010). The structural model also determines the explanatory power of the study model by calculating the endogenous constructs' determination coefficient (R^2) (Muthusamy, Quaddus, & Evans, 2010). The R^2 reflects the amount of variance explained by the model on the final endogenous variable thus providing information on the quality of the model.

Based on the explanation given, PLS method is used in this study because of three main reasons; first, there is a mixture of the reflective and formative measures in the study. The reflective measures, which is commonly used in CBSEM shows causal relationship from the construct (latent variable) to the indicators (manifest variables), while formative measures have causal relationship from the manifest variables to the latent variable. In reflective measurement model, the indicators should be highly correlated among each other

and the indicators reflect the variations in the latent variable (represented by loading scores). In formative measurement model, the latent variable is determined by weighted score across all representative indicator variables and the indicator variables are either independent of one another or has weak correlation among each other. Thus omitting one indicator could change the meaning of the variable (A. Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001).

Second, the distribution of scores for the dependent variables in this study is non-normal, thus PLS is better suited for multivariate analysis. Third, one of the objectives of this study is to measure SES using Social Theory and this concept is still novel and needs to be tested in terms of it reliability, validity and model fit. To date, there has only been one study by Oakes & Rossi (2003) who's work is based on this theory, thus PLS serves as a suitable technique for theory-development and prediction-oriented (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010).

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

5.1 Background

The present chapter reports and discusses the results obtained from the questionnaire survey and the focus group discussions as described in the methodology section (Chapter Four) of this thesis. The presentation of analysis begins with the data from the survey and substantiated by the findings from the focus group discussions.

Data collected for the survey was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20 and SmartPLS version 2.0. The data were analyzed in four distinct phases. First, descriptive data analysis was performed to determine the nature of sample. Then, the overall correlation of all SES dimensions was produced to identify the strength of the variables in the study. This is followed by a reliability and validity tests of the indicators in Measurement Model of the Partial Least Squares (PLS). Under this heading, the first research objective will be answered. Subsequently, the relationship between the latent variables, and the significance of the model estimation was performed in Structural Model of PLS to determine the model fit of the study. In the final analysis, a multiple-group comparison analysis (MGA) was carried out between lower and higher socio-economic groups and achiever and under-achievers groups to examine whether there is any significant difference in the relationship between the variables exist between the four groups. The analysis on structural model of PLS and the MGA will illustrate the remaining research objectives as mentioned in Chapter One.

The focus group discussions aim to explore participants' perceptions of stressors in school and at home and its relationship with psychosocial outcomes. It highlights information pertaining to; types of stressors faced by respondents, respondents' support systems in times of need and the effect of stressors on behavior. Due to the structure of classes in the national schools that categorize classes according to students' academic performance, two categories of students were randomly selected, the first group from the high achieving class and the second group from the under achieving class. This was purposely done to observe variances between the two groups and to enhance the results obtained from the survey. The total number of students who agreed to participate in the discussions was 36 under-achievers and 38 achievers from 4 national schools in Kuala Lumpur.

5.2 Demographic Profile of Respondents

The analyses begin with the demographic profile of respondents and highlight the missing values in the parent's occupation and the CAPSES variables. The missing values are highlighted to show clearly that conventional measures are insufficient to capture adolescents' socioeconomic status.

5.2.1 Demographic Profile of Respondents

In this study, a total of 1,084 Form Four students were approached and briefed on the objectives of the research, of which 1,056 students agreed to participate, filled and returned the questionnaires (a response rate of 97.4%). However, only 1,044 of 1,056 questionnaires were used for analysis as it had an acceptable completion rate of more than 50 percent where valuable questions to this study were answered. This decision to exclude 12

questionnaires was in line with Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham (2006) to which they stated information with more than 50 percent left unanswered should be excluded for further analysis. The respondents comprised of 51.1% male against 48.9% of female respondents. In terms of ethnicity, majority were Malay (48%), followed by Chinese (42%), Indians (9.2%) and Sabahan/Sarawakian and others (0.7%). The composition of sample reflects the overall student population of the national schools in Peninsular Malaysia. The average age for the sample was 16.08 years (SD=0.309) which explains majority of the sample were 16 years old with the exception of several students who were at the age of 17 years, who were most probably held back a year due to disciplinary or academic issues in school. Majority of respondents (91%) were living with both parents, while 9% of respondents belonged to a single parent household. In terms of the number of siblings, the average in a family had 3 siblings per family (SD=1.533). The details of the demographic information are shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Socio-demography of respondents

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage	
Gender	Male	533	51.1	
	Female	511	48.9	
	Total	1044		
Ethinicity	Malay	503	48.2	
	Chinese	438	42.0	
	Indian	96	9.2	
	Bumiputra Sabah/Sarawak & others	7	0.7	
Parents	Both living together	951	91.0	
	Single parent	93	9.0	
	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Age (in years)	16.08	0.305	15	17
Siblings	3	1.533	0	8

Table 5.2: Parent's Occupation and Employment Type/Status

Variables	**N**	**Distribution (%)**
Parent's Occupation		
Managers & Professionals	244	23.4
Clerical & Services	516	49.4
Skilled	68	6.5
Production & Unskilled	73	7.0
Unemployed	48	4.6
Missing	95	9.1
Parents' labor market position	**N**	**%**
Both employed	365	35
One employed	629	60.2
None employed	48	4.6
Missing	2	0.2

Based on the information given in Table 5.2, majority of the respondents had only one parent employed (60.2%) and it is also found that the dominant job category for those employed was in the Clerical and Services (49.4%). As an indicator of socio-economic status, the job category held by parents provides some insights to the status of respondents. According to Max Weber's social stratification theory, there are four major social classes under capitalism; ranging from the dominant entrepreneurial, workers with credentials to the working class labourer (Breen). Based on that, this study categorized the social classes as the Clerical and Services and Skilled categories as the middle socioeconomic group, the upper socio-economic group would be in the Managers and Professionals category. Production and unskilled worker category are likely to be in the lower income group.

5.2.3 Respondents' Profile based on CAPSES

Several questions related to respondent's socioeconomic status were also asked to capture the new CAPSES measure. These questions were on respondents' average allowances per day (pocket money), if respondents had extra lessons outside school such as tuition and music lessons, available types of reading materials at home, available personal computer at home that is in working condition, if they were a member of any team or club in school and how many years of experience in pre-school. In addition, questions on respondent's relationship (support and empathy) with parents and teachers were asked to gather information on social capital. This and the questions stated earlier forms the new CAPSES measure.

Respondents' pocket money was found to be about RM4.07 per day (SD=3.321) with a minimum of RM1 to a maximum of RM20 a day. In terms of educational resources, on average respondents read two to three materials (SD=1.465) from the six reading materials listed in the questionnaire and taken two tuition subjects on average per person to aid their studies. As for music lessons, only 119 (11.4%) of respondents took music lessons and results for participation in school team or club showed 62.6% of 1044 respondents were engaged in these activities. The mean for parent's social resources (M=12.15, SD=4.83) is considerably high, while the mean for teacher's social resources (M=9.63, SD=4.85) suggest average range. The socioeconomic status (CAPSES) profile is described in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Respondents' Profile based on CAPSES

Computer	**N**	**%**		
Yes	809	77.5		
No	235	22.5		
Music lessons				
Yes	119	11.4		
No	925	88.6		
Member of a team/club				
Yes	654	62.6		
No	390	37.4		
Yrs. in pre-school			**Min (years)**	**Max (years)**
3 years or more	246	23.6	0	4
2 years	493	47.2		
1 year	253	24.2		
None	52	5.0		
Pocket money per day **			**Min (RM)**	**Max (RM)**
Q3 *(RM6 & above)**	154	14.8	0	20
Q2 *(RM4 to 5)**	369	35.3		
Q1 * (RM1 to 3)**	464	44.4		
None	57	5.5		
Reading materials	**N**	**%**	**Min**	**Max**
Four or more	257	24.6	1	6
Two to Three	435	41.7		
One	330	31.6		
None	22	2.1		
Tuition subjects	**N**	**%**	**Min**	**Max**
Six or more	116	11.1	1	12
Four to Five	198	19.0		
One to Three	262	25.1		
None	468	44.8		

	Mean	**SD**	**Min**	**Max**
Parent's social resources*	12.15	4.83	0	20
Teacher's social resources*	9.63	4.85	0	20

Notes: Items * were measured using 5-point Likert Scale (0-Never to 4-Often)

**USD1 = RM3; ***Q1 (lower quartile, 25%), Q2 (median), Q3 (upper quartile, 75%)

5.2.4 Respondents' Profile based on Stressors, Psychological and Behavioral Wellbeing

In this section, the mean and standard deviation for the stressors scale, depression scale and deviant/maladaptive behavior scale are shown based on the raw scores of 1,044 respondents. In addition, percentages of respondents who obtained below and above the mean scores for each scales are also highlighted.

Table 5.4: Stressors, Depression and Deviant Behaviors of Respondents

Variable	No. of Questions	Min	Max	Mean	S.D
Parents as stressors *	7	0	28	13.48	5.97
Teachers as stressors *	5	0	20	9.60	4.86
Peers as stressors*	6	0	24	10.23	4.76
Depression**	10	0	17	4.69	3.07
Deviant behaviors***	9	0	27	4.87	4.24

Note: Items * were measured using 5-point Likert Scale (0-Never to 4-Often), Items ** were measured using three levels of symptomatology (0-absence of symptom, 1-mild symptom, 2-definite symptom), Items *** were measured using 5-point rating scale (0-Not even once to 4-Many times)

Table 5.5: Percentages of Stressors, Depression and Deviant Behaviors based on Means

Variable	Percentages (%)		
	Below Mean	Mean	Above Mean
Parents as stressors	16.5	63.7	15.8
Teachers as stressors	14.8	67.3	17.9
Peers as stressors	10.3	75.9	13.8
Depression	12.5	75	12.5
Deviant behaviors	9.5	78.1	12.5

Examining Table 5.4 and Table 5.5, the mean for Parents Stressors is 13.48 (SD=5.97) and based on this value, it was found that 15.8% of the respondents scored above the mean which may indicate higher level of stress in the relationship with parents among these respondents. Subsequently, based on the mean for Teacher Stressors (M= 9.60, SD=4.86), it was found that 17.9% of the respondents scored teacher stressors higher than the mean, indicating stressful relationship between students and the teachers. Peer stressors had a mean of 10.23 (SD=4.76) and based on this value, 13.8% of respondents scored above the mean indicating stressful relationship with peers.

As for Depression, 12.5% of respondents scored above the mean (M=4.69, SD=3.07) which indicates the likelihood of these respondents encountering problem relating to depression. The mean score for Maladaptive/Deviant Behaviors (M=0.55, SD=0.486) indicates either respondents have performed only once or twice in a few of the nine behavioral items (Cheung, 1997). However 12.5% of the respondents scored above the mean which represents a more frequent occurrence of these behaviors in several of the behavioral items.

5.3 Correlation Analysis

According to Pallant (2011), correlation analysis is used to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables. Other than to observe the strengths and directions of variables, this analysis determines the interdependencies of variables. By observing the strength of the interdependencies, this could be one of the indications later in the multivariate analysis (PLS) stage to guide whether the constructs and indicators are reflective or formatives. Prior to this, multicollinearity test was performed to observe if there were multiple variables that explained one variable.

The intercorrelations among the study dimensions were obtained from the Spearman Rank Order Correlation and this correlation method was used because of the non-normality distribution of scores on the dependent variables. Following the guideline drawn from Pallant (2011) and Salkind (2000), the Correlation Coefficient (r) values from -1 to +1 and can be interpreted using indicators as stated below:

Correlation (r) between:	*0.80 to 1.0 (very strong)*
	0.60 to 0.79 (strong)
	0.40 to 0.59 (moderate)
	0.20 to 0.39 (weak)
	0.00 to 0.19 (very weak)

5.3.1 Multicollinearity in Correlation Analysis

It is worth to note that very high correlation coefficient exceeding 0.90 indicates the existence of multicollinearity (Hair et.al, 2006). Multicollinearity occurs when any variables effect can be explained by other variables in the analysis and this diminishes the effect of any single variable due to their interrelationships (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010). For this study, there was a multicollinearity issue between two variables, Teacher's Support and Teacher as Stressors ($r = .98$, $p < 0.001$) (refer to Appendix H). The degree of multicollinearity was assessed through the tolerance value which takes into account the amount of a variable unexplained by other independent variable (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010). A common cutoff value often used for tolerance value is .10. The two variables with multicollinearity produced a tolerance value of 0.032 which was lower than the cutoff value. As suggested by Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson (2010), one of the methods to remedy multicollinearity is by performing regression on principal components for the two variables to have a clear reflection of the variables as seen in Table 5.6. From the regression on principal components it was found that the factor on teacher's expectation on respondent in the Teacher as Stressors dimension had a cross loading and the factor was removed for further analysis.

Table 5.6: Rotated Factors and Factor Loadings of Teacher as Stressors and Teacher's Support

No.	Items	Factor Loading	
		Teacher Stressors	Teacher Support
1	Do you have arguments or fights with any of them?	.797	
2	Are any of them critical or disapproving of you?	.825	
3	Do any of them get on your nerves?	.870	
4	Do any of them get angry or lose her /his temper with you?	.844	
5	Do any of them expect too much of you or give you too much homework?	.468	.351
6	Can you count on any of them to help you when you need it?		.768
7	Do any of them cheer you up when you are sad or worried?		.799
8	Do you have fun, laugh or joke with any of them?		.797
9	Do any of them really understand how you feel about things?		.827
10	Do any of them respect your opinion?		.777
Eigenvalues		2.395	3.975
Percentage of variance		23.95	39.75
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin MSA		.861***	

5.3.2 Correlation between the Study Variables

Following the removal of multicollinearity, the results from correlation analysis revealed several significant correlations that are noteworthy. As depicted in Table 5.7, the highest degree of relationship is between peer stressors and parent stressors ($r = .65$, $p<.001$). It is assumed that if tension occurs with parents, the relationship with peers could be affected. Peer stressors were also strongly and significantly correlated with teacher stressors ($r =.62$, $p<.001$) which may mean that occurrence of stress with peers could create tension with teachers in the same way as stress with the teachers could negatively affect the relationship with peers. Parent stressors on the other hand had a moderate relationship with teacher stressors ($r = .55$, $p<.001$).

The correlation results also showed that teacher's support was positively correlated with parent stressors ($r = .351$, $p<.001$), peer stressors ($r = .383$, $p<.001$) and teacher stressors ($r = .208$, $p<.001$). This indicates that teacher's support may exacerbate situations further when adolescents are faced with stressful relationship with parents, a teacher or a peer. Teacher's support was also positively correlated with parent's support ($r = .351$, $p<.001$) and being actively involved in a club or team ($r = .217$, $p<.001$). This may mean, with teacher's support, adolescents are more likely to be an active member of a team and the support of a teacher is seen as more effective when adolescents receive support from parents.

Depression was inversely related and had a weak relationship with parent's support ($r = -.329$, $p<.001$) which may mean that lesser support received from parents could increase the likelihood of adolescents feeling depressed. Although there is significant relationship with other variables such as parent stressors ($r = .153$, $p<.001$), peer stressors ($r = .187$, $p<.001$), teacher stressors ($r = .151$, $p<.001$), maladaptive behavior ($r = .149$, $p<.001$) and teacher's support ($r = -.180$, $p<.001$), these correlations are very weak. Maladaptive behaviors also has a weak but significant correlation with teacher stressors ($r = .373$, $p<.001$), parents stressors ($r = .281$, $p<.001$) and peer stressors ($r = .274$, $p<.001$) which may mean stressful relationship with parents, peers and teachers could cause adolescents to react negatively by displaying behaviors that are disruptive.

Interestingly, allowance (pocket money) and parent's structure did not show any correlation or very weak if any, with all the variables in the study.

Table 5.7: Spearman Correlation Matrix for Variables Used in the Study

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.Siblings	1.000										
2.Parent's structure	.052	1.000									
3.Parent's occupat	-.060	.195**	1.000								
4.CAPSES	-.083**	.055	.189**	1.000							
5.Teacher stressors	-.024	.008	.071*	.708**	1.000						
6.Parents stressors	-.049	-.004	.121**	.220**	.380**	1.000					
7.Peer stressors	-.062*	-.021	.072*	.243**	.401**	.646**	1.000				
8.Negative esteem	-.050	-.050	-.058	-.294**	-.158**	.111**	.156**	1.000			
9.Negative mood	-.048	-.026	-.045	-.135**	-.043	.180**	.185**	.383**	1.000		
10.Risky behavior	.108**	-.073*	-.070*	-.088**	.013	.135**	.062*	.026	.012	1.000	
11.Deviant behavior	.051	.009	.051	-.019	.003	.278**	.293**	.095**	.032	.384**	1.000

Note: Correlation is significant at **p<0.01 *p<0.05 (2-tailed).

5.4 Effects of SES Dimensions on Psychosocial Outcomes using Partial Least Squares (PLS)

The objectives of the current analysis are to analyse the relationship between the conventional SES and CAPSES and to examine measures the effect of CAPSES on psychosocial and academic outcomes. Similar to the popular covariant based structural equation modelling (CBSEM), the two parts assessments in PLS which is the the outer model assessment (measurement model) examines the goodness of measure of constructs and subsequently the inner model assessment (structural model) analyses the variance explanation of endogenous constructs, effect sizes and predictive relevance of a model (Jörg Henseler et al., 2009). To reiterate, PLS is suitable for this study because it does not require normal distributed data and it is proficient in handling both reflective and formative constructs which is reflected in the current study framework (Adamantios Diamantopoulos, 2011). Furthermore, although this study is based on sound theoretical framework and based on a prior model by Oakes and Rossi (2003), this study extends the model by including new measures and structural paths. Thus, PLS is suitable because it confines the new measures and constructs by "connecting these constructs to its neighbouring constructs it is structurally connected to" (Chin, 2010).

5.5 Testing Measurement Model

The measurement model focuses on the reliability and validity of the model constructs. Internal consistency reliability can only be used to assess reflective measures as it looks at intercorrelations between indicators. The intercorrelations are assessed through Cronbach's Alpha or a more recent Reliable Composite. Cronbach's Alpha assumes that all indicators are equally reliable, thus underestimate the reliability of latent variables in PLS path models. The Reliable Composite is more suited for PLS path modeling as it prioritize indicators according to their reliability (Henseler et.al, 2009). Both Cronbach's Alpha and Reliable Composite should have value above 0.70 in early stages of research and values above 0.80 in more advanced stages of research to satisfy the reliability of measures (Nunally & Bernstein, 1994). Besides Composite Reliability, reliability of each indicator also referred to as loading is also assessed and the loading should be at least 0.5 and above.

As for validity, two types of assessments are performed, convergent validity and discriminant validity. Convergent validity indicates that a set of indicators belongs to a latent variable and in order to achieve sufficient convergence, the average variance extracted (AVE) should be at least 0.5 (Jörg Henseler et al., 2009). The discriminant validity on the other hand signifies that a latent variable may share it variance with other indicators in addition to its assigned indicators and to assess this, the Fornell-Larcker criterion and the cross-loadings are employed. The Fornell-Larcker criterion assesses validity on the construct level, while the cross-loadings examine on the indicator level. In Fornell-Larcker criterion, discrimanant validity is achieved when the AVE of each latent variable is higher than the squared correlations with any other latent variable. In the cross-

loadings, the loadings of assigned indicators are supposed to be higher than other cross-loadings to achieve discriminant validity (Jörg Henseler et al., 2009).

In contrast with reflective measurement models, reliability and validity assessments are not appropriate for formative measurement models because in principle the indicators are the ones that determine a latent variable and the indicators are independent of each other (no correlation or very weak correlation between indicators) (A. Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001). Thus, alternative approaches used to evaluate formative indicators are firstly based on theoretical rationale and literature and second, the presence of multicollinearity and third, assessment of the parameter and significance of a relationship between a formative construct and reflective construct.

For this study, three measurement models are created and analysed. The first model shows the significance of human capital, material capital, social capital indicators and the indicators of the conventional SES. The second model highlights the significance of the relationship between the new SES measures (CAPSES) and the conventional SES measure. These models assess the reliability and validity of the CAPSES variables and identify the relationship between CAPSES and the conventional SES. The third model is required to observe the reliability, validity and the significance of the stressors, depression and behavior measures used in this study.

5.5.1 Measurement Model 1: Significance of CAPSES and conventional SES indicators

It is worth noting that SES indicators in this study are observed as formative measures. As revealed in recent socioeconomic literature such as the work of Bollen et al. (2001) and A. Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer (2001), SES indicators such as employment type, education and salary forms SES, thus these measures are formative. In other words, the movement of one indicator does not necessarily change the magnitude of the other indicators. Based on this observation, the conventional SES indicators used in this study are seen as formative. In addition, human capital, material capital and team or club member are also seen as 'causing' SES, thus seen as formative measures. This is according to Oakes and Rossi's (2003) definition of human capital, material capital and social capital (as reflected by team or club membership) that emphasize on a combination of different items to form one construct. However, the decision to have parent's social capital (PSC) and teacher's social capital (SSC) indicators as reflective is based on the definition given by Coleman (1990) and Bassani (2007) that social capital is about relationship among individuals and social bond that has a direct effect on wellbeing of an individual. To assess the quality of this relationship, Moos and Moos (1994) developed a set of interrelated component indices and the indices are of reflective nature. The significance of the indicators of measurement model 1 is shown in Figure 5.1.

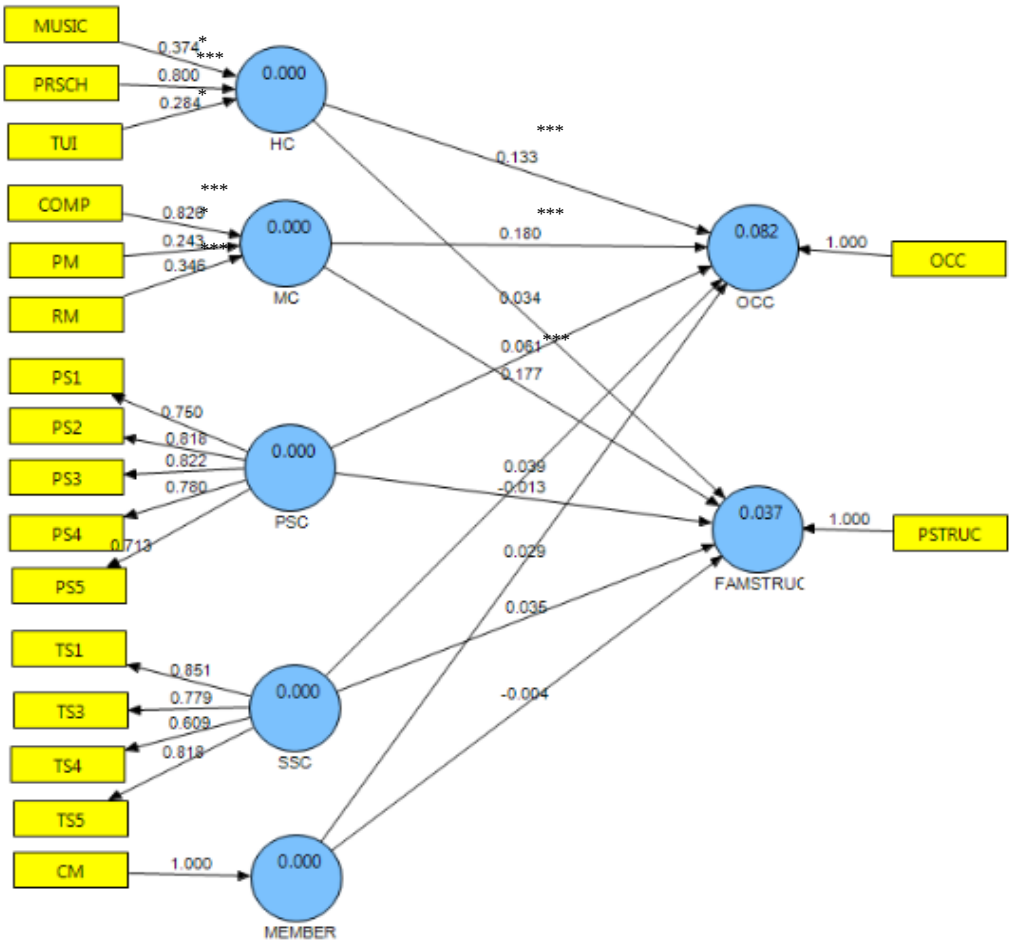

Figure 5.1: Measurement model for Human Capital, Material Capital, Social Capital and SES

Notes: **p<.001 **p<.01 *p<.05; MUSIC (music lessons), PRSCH (yrs. In preschool), TUI (tuition lessons), COMP (owns computer), PM (pocket money), RM (no. of reading materials), PS (parental support), TS (teachers support), CM (club/ school team member), OCC (parent's occupation), FAMSTRUC (family structure)

As depicted in Table 5.6, the item reliability for parent's social capital (PSC) and teacher's social capital (SSC) constructs have nine items and all loading values are above 0.6. However, one item, TS2 has been discarded from further analysis due to loadings below 0.5. According to (Joe F Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012), items loadings should be at least 0.5 for it to be significant. For internal consistency, the average variance expected

(AVE) and the composite reliability (CR) for parent's social capital and teacher's social capital constructs show results above 0.5 and 0.7 which is the recommended cut-off points (Nunally & Bernstein, 1994). Thus, the convergent validity of the reflective measures was established.

Four constructs comprising of nine items in the measurement model 1 are formative indicators. A collinearity test was conducted on all formative indicators and the VIF was below 1.18 which means the items are not correlated and do not measure the same underlying dimension. Table 5.8 exhibits the weights and significance level of the formative items. The results show significance for all items and although four of the indicators (music lessons, pocket money, reading material and tuition lessons) showed low outer loadings (below 0.5), the indicators were still acceptable and important as the weights were significant (Joe F Hair et al., 2012).

Table 5.8: Results of Weights and Significance for Material, Human and Social Capital constructs (Measurement Model 1)

Constructs	Measures	Items	Weights/ Loadings	AVE	CR	t-value	Outer Loadings
Human Capital (HC)	Formative	PRSCH	0.800			7.743***	0.829
		TUI	0.284			1.965*	0.564
		MUSIC	0.374			2.387*	0.441
Material Capital (MC)	Formative	COMP	0.826			11.794***	0.905
		PM	0.243			2.293*	0.484
		RM	0.346			3.349***	0.360
Parents Social Capital (PSC)	Reflective	PS1	0.750	0.605	0.884		
		PS2	0.818				
		PS3	0.822				
		PS4	0.780				
		PS5	0.713				
Teacher's Social Capital (SSC)	Reflective	TS1	0.851	0.593	0.851		
		TS3	0.779				
		TS4	0.609				
		TS5	0.818				
Team/Club Member (MEMBER)	Formative	CM	1				
Parent's Occupation (OCC)	Formative	OCC	1				
Family Structure (FAMSTRUC)	Formative	PSTRUC	1				

Note: ***p<.001 **p<.01 *p<.05

The reflective variables were also assessed to meet the discriminant validity criteria and the results are presented in Table 5.9 and Table 5.10. In Table 5.9, the squared correlation of latent variables and latent variables of the AVE's were computed and represented in bold. The results confirm validity as the AVE of each latent variable is higher than the squared correlation of other latent variable. In Table 5.10, the cross-loadings of Measurement Model 1 were performed to test on the validity. The results revealed all items fall within the respective latent variable thus establishing the discriminant validity.

Table 5.9: Squared correlation of latent variables and AVE of latent variables in Measurement Model 1

Constructs	1	2
1. Parent's Social Capital	**0.605**	
2. School Social Capital	0.153	**0.593**

Notes: the bold figures indicate the squared correlation

Table 5.10: Loadings and cross loadings of Social Capital Constructs

	Parents' Social Capital	**Teacher's Social Capital**
PS1	**0.750**	0.298
PS2	**0.818**	0.337
PS3	**0.822**	0.303
PS4	**0.780**	0.313
PS5	**0.713**	0.276
TS1	0.381	**0.851**
TS3	0.277	**0.779**
TS4	0.190	**0.609**
TS5	0.270	**0.818**

Note: PS= Parental Support; TS= Teachers' Support

The path coefficients between the capital variables (material, human, social) and the conventional SES (parent's occupation and parent's structure) as reflected in Figure 5.1 showed material capital as having the most significant link to parent's occupation (β = 0.180, $p < 0.001$) and parent's structure (β = 0.177, $p < 0.001$) as compared to the other capitals. Human capital was significantly related to parent's occupation (β = 0.133, $p < 0.001$) and not parent's structure, while social capital was not significantly related to both parent's occupation and parent's structure.

5.5.2 Summary

The measurement model that tested on the internal consistency of the 16 items of CAPSES showed satisfactory and significant loadings, weights, average variance expected and composite reliability. This finding thus answers the first objective of this study which was to establish the internal consistency of the CAPSES variables. In addition, material capital was found to be significantly related to both variables of conventional SES (parent's occupation and parent's structure) as compared to human and social capital.

5.5.3 Testing of the SES Dimensions (CAPSES and Conventional SES) - Measurement Model 2

In the initial assessment, Measurement Model 1, the indicators of human capital, material capital, social capital and the conventional SES indicators were tested for its reliability, validity and significance. This test is required because the subsequent models in the study utilized the indicators for further analysis. The following model, Measurement Model 2 carried out similar procedure as the first measurement model. The objective of the model is to examine the reliability of the variables and to assess whether there is a significant relationship between CAPSES and SES. If there is significance, this means that the CAPSES can be seen as a measure to SES. For this model, due to the formative nature of the indicators, only the weights and significance of indicators were examined based on the bootstrapping procedure. Furthermore, in this model, more focus is given to the significance of path between the new SES measures (CAPSES) and the conventional SES measure.

As depicted in Table 5.11, Measurement Model 2 specifies that all weights are significant except for Parent's Social Capital, Teacher's Social Capital and Team Member. Nevertheless, Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer (2001) and Freeze and Raschke (2007) explained formative indicators defines the construct thus omitting an indicator is discouraged as it will omit a part of the construct. Based on this recommendation, the indicators are not removed.

The path coefficient that explained the correlation between CAPSES and the conventional SES verifies that both constructs were strongly correlated. This assumption is based on Oakes and Rossi (2003) work which signifies significant correlation between the two constructs mean CAPSES indicators are concurrent with the indicators of conventional SES, therefore making CAPSES an alternative measure to the conventional SES. Figure 5.2 clearly shows a significant path coefficient between CAPSES and SES ($\beta = 0.364$, $p < 0.001$) confirming the relationship between the conventional SES and CAPSES.

Table 5.11: Weights for formative indicators - Measurement Model 2

Constructs	Items	Weights	t-value	Outer Loadings
CAPSES	Human Capital (HC)	0.500	6.452***	0.726
	Material Capital (MC)	0.661	9.002***	0.846
	Parent's Social Capital (PSC)	0.051	0.796	0.209
	Teacher's Social Capital (SSC)	0.150	1.905	0.242
	Team/ Club Member (Member)	0.084	1.262	0.361
SES	Parent's occupation (OCC)	1		
PROXY SES	Family Structure	1		

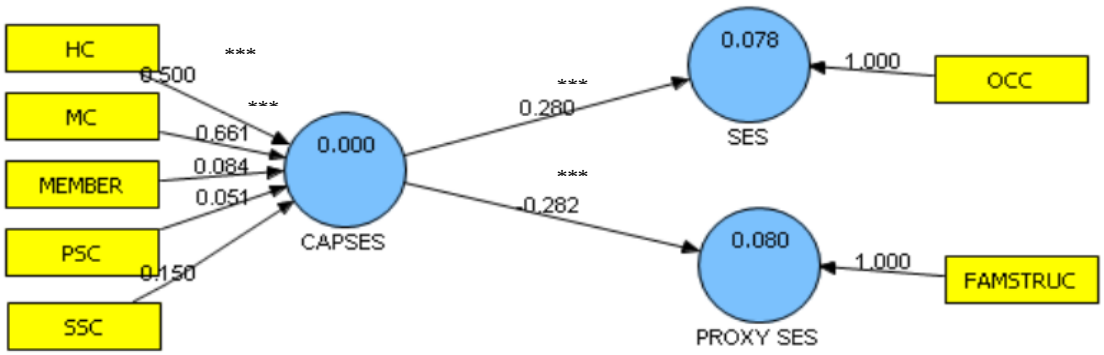

Figure 5.2: Measurement Model 2 on the relationship between CAPSES and SES

Notes: ***p<.001 **p<.01 *p<.05 (estimated by 1,000 bootstraps, two tailed t-test)

5.5.4 Summary

In this analysis, the path coefficient between CAPSES and the conventional SES variables were tested and the findings revealed a significant correlation between these variables. Thus this supports the first objective of this study.

5.5.5 Measurement Model 3: Assessment of all variables used in the study

In this model, the reliability, internal consistency and average variance extracted (AVE) assessment were conducted on the 26 reflective indicators in the model, while the 7 formative indicators are assessed based on the calculation of weights that specifies the importance of the formative indicators towards the formation of the corresponding latent variable (Muthusamy, Quaddus and Evans, 2010). The results are presented in Table 5.12. The table revealed the strength of the item loadings for the reflective indicators was well above 0.6 which was very significant (Freeze & Raschke, 2007). Five items (TST5, PEST5, PEST6, PST5 and PST7) with loadings below 0.6 were removed to maximize the measurement model's ability to fulfill the requirements of convergent validity (Muthusamy et al., 2010). The reflective indicators in each construct showed high correlations as the composite reliability (CR) were above 0.7 and the average variance extracted (AVE) were all above 0.5, thus establishing convergent validity.

The formative indicators such as the Human Capital, Parent's Social Capital, Teacher's Social Capital and team membership indicated weights that were highly significant in formation of CAPSES, however one indicator, Material Capital was not significant. However, as suggested by A. Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer (2001) and Freeze and Raschke (2007), omitting a formative indicator can change the definition of the construct that it is measuring, thus discarding the indicator is discouraged. Therefore this indicator was retained.

Table 5.12: Results of All Variables Used in the Study (Measurement Model 3)

Constructs	Measures	Items	Weights/ Loadings	AVE	CR	t-value	Outer Loadings
Deviant Behavior	Reflective	DEV1	0.665	0.501	0.800		
		DEV2	0.671				
		DEV7	0.771				
		DEV9	0.720				
Risky Behavior	Reflective	DEV4	0.691	0.550	0.785		
		DEV5	0.771				
		DEV8	0.761				
Negative Self-Esteem	Reflective	DP6	0.709	0.530	0.771		
		DP7	0.692				
		DP10	0.780				
Negative Mood	Reflective	DP1	0.762	0.533	0.774		
		DP2	0.749				
		DP9	0.677				
Parents Stressors (PST)	Reflective	PST1	0.806	0.648	0.902		
		PST2	0.803				
		PST3	0.847				
		PST4	0.842				
		PST6	0.720				
Peer Stressors (PEST)	Reflective	PEST1	0.811	0.658	0.885		
		PEST2	0.815				
		PEST3	0.814				
		PEST4	0.804				
Teacher Stressors (TST)	Reflective	TST1	0.828	0.712	0.908		
		TST2	0.839				
		TST3	0.868				
		TST4	0.840				
CAPSES	Formative	HC	0.365			3.612***	0.348
		MC	0.040			0.679	0.043
		PSC	-0.805			4.527***	-0.553
		SSC	0.807			4.564***	0.474
		MEMBER	-0.261			2.738***	-0.165
SES	Formative	OCC	1				
Proxy SES	Formative	FAMSTRUC	1				

Notes: ***p<.001 **p<.01 *p<.05 (estimated by 1,000 bootstraps, two tailed t-test)

The subsequent assessment, the discriminant validity determines that the reflective indicators of a construct were not represented by other constructs. As depicted in Table 5.13, the indicators of each construct loads highly on the corresponding construct.

Table 5.13: Loadings and cross loadings of the Measurement Model 3

	Deviant Behavior	**Risky Behavior**	**Negative Esteem**	**Negative Mood**	**Parents Stressors**	**Peer Stressors**	**Teacher Stressors**
DEV1	**0.665**	0.199	0.090	0.043	0.180	0.207	0.238
DEV2	**0.671**	0.224	0.107	0.087	0.169	0.195	0.254
DEV7	**0.771**	0.285	0.070	0.042	0.261	0.313	0.310
DEV9	**0.720**	0.311	0.094	0.056	0.156	0.187	0.267
DEV4	0.325	**0.691**	0.031	-0.010	0.106	0.068	0.186
DEV5	0.203	**0.771**	0.094	0.141	0.071	0.093	0.192
DEV8	0.289	**0.761**	0.043	0.075	0.124	0.127	0.216
DP6	0.071	0.029	**0.709**	0.320	0.115	0.123	0.104
DP7	0.083	0.054	**0.692**	0.261	0.177	0.152	0.157
DP10	0.113	0.080	**0.780**	0.331	0.100	0.167	0.106
DP1	0.086	0.069	0.336	**0.762**	0.169	0.144	0.104
DP2	0.051	0.054	0.266	**0.749**	0.199	0.180	0.134
DP9	0.035	0.097	0.318	**0.677**	0.151	0.103	0.051
PST1	0.220	0.114	0.141	0.202	**0.806**	0.487	0.466
PST2	0.237	0.111	0.113	0.191	**0.803**	0.465	0.461
PST3	0.202	0.069	0.201	0.224	**0.847**	0.504	0.467
PST4	0.244	0.129	0.121	0.180	**0.842**	0.506	0.460
PST6	0.209	0.122	0.127	0.158	**0.720**	0.406	0.417
PEST1	0.311	0.197	0.156	0.123	0.480	**0.811**	0.537
PEST2	0.271	0.082	0.184	0.173	0.495	**0.815**	0.499
PEST3	0.241	0.079	0.155	0.183	0.460	**0.814**	0.481
PEST4	0.226	0.055	0.166	0.165	0.477	**0.804**	0.477
TST1	0.343	0.294	0.167	0.117	0.494	0.524	**0.828**
TST2	0.294	0.130	0.130	0.120	0.452	0.513	**0.839**
TST3	0.319	0.203	0.160	0.144	0.489	0.527	**0.868**
TST4	0.324	0.212	0.101	0.072	0.468	0.514	**0.840**

In Table 5.14, the squared correlation of the latent variables was calculated to observe its values. The results revealed the AVE of constructs (in bold) were larger than its correlation with other constructs thus confirming the discriminant validity of the constructs.

Table 5.14: Squared correlation of latent variables and AVE of latent variables in Measurement Model 3

Constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Deviant Behavior	**0.501**						
2. Risky Behavior	0.130	**0.550**					
3. Negative Self-Esteem	0.016	0.006	**0.530**				
4. Negative Mood	0.006	0.010	0.175	**0.533**			
5. Parents as Stressors	0.076	0.018	0.031	0.057	**0.648**		
6. Peer as Stressors	0.106	0.017	0.042	0.039	0.348	**0.658**	
7. Teacher as Stressors	0.144	0.071	0.028	0.018	0.319	0.380	**0.712**

5.6 The Relationship between Constructs of Study – the Structural Model

The structural model assess the relationships among constructs by examining the path coefficient's directions and significance levels (Chin, 1998b). The path coefficients link the exogenous variables (constructs that predict other constructs) to the endogenous variables (constructs that are dependent variables in a causal relationship) (Götz et al., 2010). The structural model also determines the explanatory power of the study model by calculating the endogenous constructs' determination coefficient (R^2) (Muthusamy et al., 2010). The R^2 reflects the amount of variance explained by the model on the final endogenous variable thus providing information on the quality of the model. According to Chin (1998b), R^2 values that are 0.19 and below are weak, R^2 value of 0.33 to 0.66 is moderate and values of 0.67 and above is substantial.

The values serve as a guideline for researchers; however as proposed by Falk and Miller (1992) as cited in Muthusamy, Quaddus and Evan (2010), R^2 should be at least 0.10. Figure 5.3 shows the structural model of the study and revealed that all R^2 values were above this requirement except for negative self-esteem (0.076), negative mood (0.073) and risky behavior (0.093). The low R^2 for these endogenous variables implied that socioeconomic status and the stressors factors had minimal influence on the behavioral and emotional outcomes of adolescents and that there were other factors that had larger impact on this relationship. The R^2 for teacher stressors and peer stressors which was 0.320 and 0.467 respectively, suggest that the model fitted these variables moderately. The remaining value which is R^2 for parent stressors was low (0.10) but acceptable suggesting other factors that were not included in this study may have higher influence on these variables. To determine

which exogenous variables have significant effects on the endogenous variable, the path coefficients were examined.

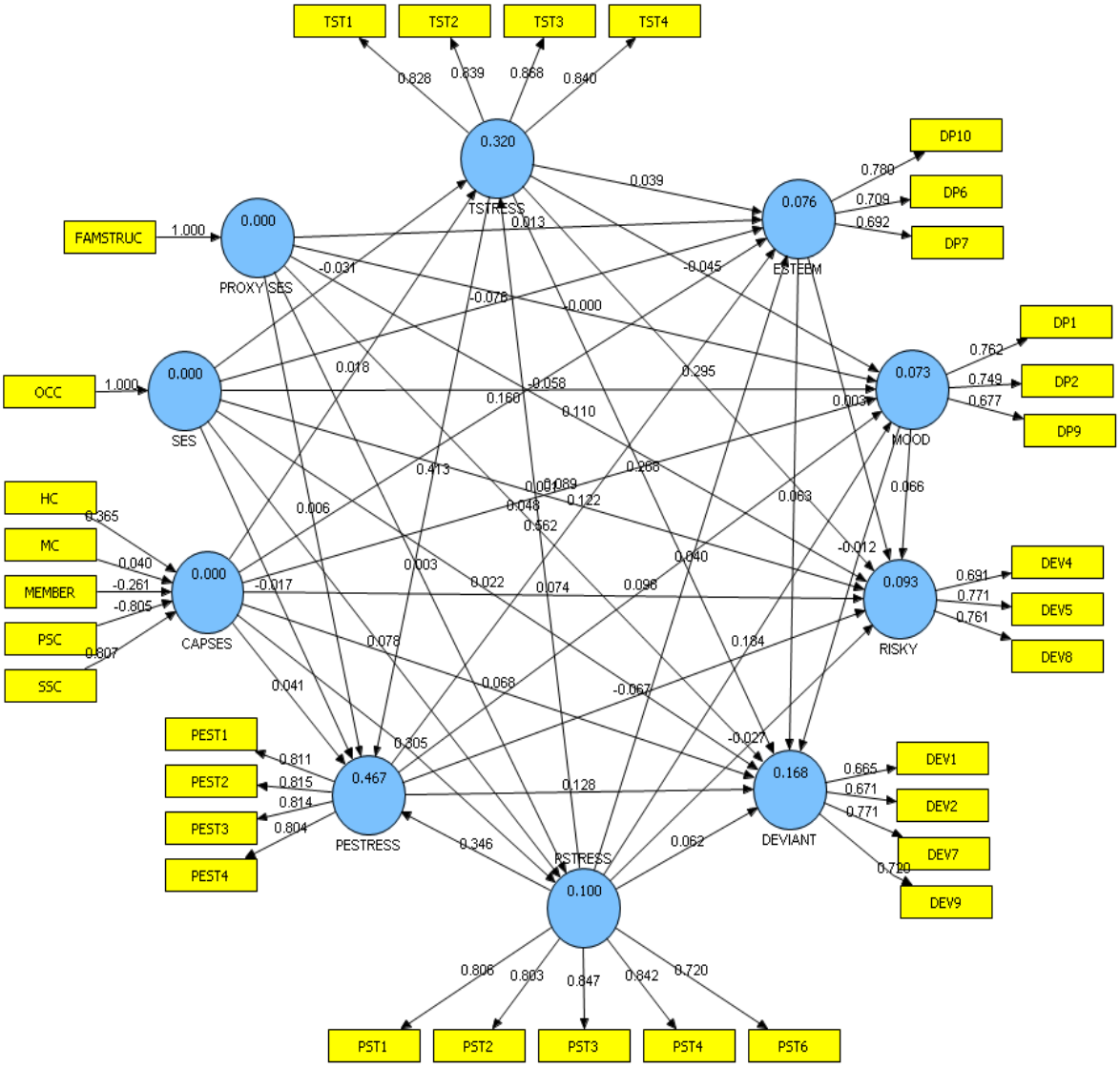

Figure 5.3: Structural model of the study

Notes: PROXY SES= family/parental structure; SES= parent's occupation; CAPSES= material, human and social capital; PESTRESS= peer stressors; PSTRESS= parent stressors; TSTRESS= teacher stressors; ESTEEM- neg. self-esteem; MOOD= neg. mood; RISKY= risky behavior; DEVIANT= deviant behavior.

5.6.1 The Significance of Relationships between CAPSES, Stressors, Psychological and Behavioral Outcomes

The significance of the path coefficients can be seen in Table 5.15. Depression, which was represented by negative self-esteem and negative mood were both significantly affected by peer stressors; negative self-esteem ($\beta = 0.122$, $p<0.01$), negative mood ($\beta = 0.098$, $p<0.05$). This suggests stressful relationship with peers could have a negative impact on adolescent's emotional state. Additionally, parent stressors had a substantial influence on adolescent's negative mood ($\beta = 0.184$, $p<0.001$). It was also found that socioeconomic status which was represented by parent's occupation had a significant impact on adolescent's self-esteem ($\beta = -0.076$, $p<0.05$). This indicates adolescents with parents in a low-positioned job are more likely to have lower self-esteem as compared to those with parents in high-positioned jobs.

Risky behavior and deviant behavior which defined the variable maladaptive behavior were substantially influenced by teacher stressors; ($\beta =0.295$, $p<0.001$) and ($\beta =0.268$, $p<0.001$) respectively. This interesting findings show that next to parents, teachers have an important role to safeguard students from any act of misbehavior. Peer stressors also had a significant impact on deviant behavior ($\beta =0.128$, $p<0.01$), while parent's structure had a considerable influence on risky behavior ($\beta = 0.110$, $p<0.01$). This indicates that adolescents from a single parent household are more likely to be involved in risky behavior.

Two factors were identified to have a significant effect on parent stressors and these factors are CAPSES ($\beta = 0.305$, $p<0.001$) and parent's occupation ($\beta = 0.078$, $p<0.05$). It is interesting to mention that both findings suggest that adolescents with higher socioeconomic background had more stressful relationship with parents. In addition, it was also found that parent stressors had a substantial impact on teacher stressors ($\beta = 0.562$, $p<0.001$) and peer stressors ($\beta = 0.346$, $p<0.001$). The results suggest parents have great influence over adolescents thus stressful relationship with parents may disrupt adolescents' emotions and their relationship with others. It was also interesting to find that teacher stressors had a significant impact on peer stressors ($\beta = 0.413$, $p<0.001$).

Surprisingly, CAPSES were not significantly related to deviant behaviors, risky behaviors, negative self-esteem and negative mood. This was also seen in the SES which was represented by parent's occupation, nonetheless only negative self-esteem was seen as significantly related to parent's occupation. Proxy SES which was represented by parent's structure had significant effect only on risky behavior. The findings also revealed no significant relationship between negative self-esteem and deviant and risky behaviors. Similarly, no significance was found on the relationship between negative mood and deviant and risky behaviors.

Table 5.15: Significance of Path Coefficients

Latent Variables	Beta	STDEV	T Statistics
CAPSES - DEVIANT	-0.068	0.037	1.846
CAPSES - RISKY	0.074	0.046	1.600
CAPSES – NEG ESTEEM	0.160	0.092	1.738
CAPSES – NEG MOOD	0.089	0.054	1.642
CAPSES – PSTRESS	0.305	0.052	5.926***
CAPSES – PESTRESS	0.041	0.052	1.443
CAPSES – TSTRESS	0.018	0.023	0.782
SES – DEVIANT	0.022	0.022	0.970
SES – RISKY	0.001	0.018	0.038
SES – NEG ESTEEM	-0.076	0.032	2.399*
SES – NEG MOOD	-0.058	0.032	1.846
SES – PSTRESS	0.078	0.031	2.511*
SES – PESTRESS	-0.017	0.017	1.008
SES - TSTRESS	-0.031	0.021	1.511
PROXY SES - DEVIANT	0.048	0.026	1.866
PROXY SES - RISKY	0.110	0.038	2.914**
PROXY SES – PSTRESS	0.003	0.019	0.138
PROXY SES - PESTRESS	0.006	0.016	0.399
PROXY SES – NEG ESTEEM	0.013	0.024	0.563
PROXY SES – NEG MOOD	0.000	0.021	0.023
PSTRESS - DEVIANT	0.062	0.038	1.612
PSTRESS -RISKY	-0.027	0.034	0.800
PSTRESS – NEG ESTEEM	0.040	0.039	1.029
PSTRESS – NEG MOOD	0.184	0.046	3.972***
PSTRESS - PESTRESS	0.346	0.031	11.252***
PSTRESS - TSTRESS	0.562	0.025	22.433***
PESTRESS - DEVIANT	0.128	0.041	3.117**
PESTRESS - RISKY	-0.067	0.041	1.647
PESTRESS – NEG ESTEEM	0.122	0.045	2.679**
PESTRESS – NEG MOOD	0.098	0.048	2.032*
TSTRESS - DEVIANT	0.268	0.049	5.514***
TSTRESS - RISKY	0.295	0.043	6.936***
TSTRESS – NEG ESTEEM	0.039	0.035	1.129
TSTRESS – NEG MOOD	-0.045	0.036	1.239
TSTRESS - PESTRESS	0.413	0.029	14.067***
NEG ESTEEM – DEVIANT	0.063	0.032	1.930
NEG ESTEEM – RISKY	0.003	0.022	0.144
NEG MOOD – DEVIANT	-0.012	0.022	0.528
NEG MOOD – RISKY	0.066	0.041	1.614

Notes: n= 1,044 ***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05 (estimated by 1,000 bootstraps, two tailed t-test)

To examine the indirect effects in the model, a mediation test was performed based on step-by-step procedure by Baron and Kenny (1986) and using Partial Least Squares method. The objective is to examine the path coefficients between the independent variable (CAPSES) and the dependent variables (self-esteem, mood, risky and deviant behaviors). Then the relationship between the proposed mediators (peer and parent stressors) with the CAPSES and the dependent variables. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), the relationships between the independent variable and mediator variable must be significant, mediator variable and dependent variables must be significant and the independent variable and dependent variable must also be significant before continuing with the mediation test (Baron & Kenny, 1986). The results of the direct relationship between CAPSES, stressors and the psychosocial outcomes are presented in Appendix I. Teacher stressors were not tested for mediation because it had at least one insignificant relationship, in this case with negative self-esteem and negative mood, thus in this context, it was not considered as a mediator. Table 5.16 describes the summary of the direct relationship between independent and dependent variables and the changes in the relationships after the mediators were introduced.

The Sobel test was used to test on the significance of the mediating effect of parent stressors and peer stressors in the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The results indicate the direct relationship between CAPSES and negative self-esteem was reduced when the peer stressors variable was introduced ($\beta = -0.362$, $p<0.05$). This effect was also seen in the relationship between CAPSES and negative mood when the direct relationship were reduced significantly when parent stressors ($\beta = -0.300$, $p<0.001$) and peer stressors ($\beta = -0.195$, $p<0.05$) were introduced. Assessment was made to examine

if there was full or partial mediation. Based on the suggested method by Baron and Kenny (1986), the results showed partial mediation.

Table 5.16: The direct relationships and the mediation effects

Path	Direct relationship	Mediator	z-Value
CAPSES→ neg. self-esteem	-0.376***	Peer stressors	2.339*
CAPSES→ neg. mood	-0.201***	Peer stressors	2.137*
CAPSES→ neg. mood	-0.201***	Parent stressors	4.057***

Notes: n= 1,044 ***p<.001, **p<.01, *p<.05 (estimated by 1,000 bootstraps, two tailed t-test)

5.6.2 The Effect Size for Stressors Variables, Psychological and Behavioral Variables

To determine which exogenous variables (CAPSES and stressor variables) have substantial influence and how much influence on the endogenous variables (negative self-esteem, negative mood, risky behavior, deviant behavior, stressor variables), the change in the determination coefficients (R^2 change) are calculated by estimating the structural model twice, once with the exogenous variable (R^2incl) and once without (R^2excl) to obtain the effect size. According to Cohen (1988), to estimate the R^2 change, values of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 indicate weak, medium and large effect (as cited in Tenenhaus, Vinzi, Chatelin, and Lauro (2005). The effect size is calculated as follows:

Effect size: $f^2 = \frac{R^2\text{incl} - R^2\text{excl}}{1 - R^2\text{incl}}$

The test on effect size was performed for all endogenous variables, however only results that shows significant effect size are presented in Table 5.17.

Table 5.17: Relative explanatory power (Effect Size)

Construct	**R^2 included**	**R^2 excluded**	**Effect size (f^2)**
CAPSES – Neg. Esteem	0.076	0.054	0.024
CAPSES – Parents Stress	0.100	0.008	0.102
Parents Stress – Neg. Mood	0.073	0.055	0.020
Parents Stress – Teacher Stress	0.320	0.036	0.418
Parents Stress – Peer Stress	0.467	0.392	0.141
Teacher Stress – Risky Bvior	0.093	0.045	0.053
Teacher Stress – Deviant Bvior	0.168	0.131	0.044

The results of effect size as depicted in Table 5.17 suggests parents stressors as the main explanatory factor in terms of incremental variance explained in the dependent variables (teacher stressors and peer stressors), followed by CAPSES which had a considerable effect size in explaining parents stressors. The other relationships that are shown in Table 5.16, indicated weak effect size.

5.6.3 The Predictive Relevance of the Study Model

In the subsequent analysis, the structural model's predictive validity is put to test through the "blindfolding" procedure (Q^2) as proposed by Geisser (1975) and Stone (1974) (cited in Urbach and Ahlemann (2010)). This procedure discards some data from the sample and assumes the data as missing, after which the model reproduce its own observed values and parameter estimates to replace the missing data.

There are two types of Q^2, the cross-validated communality (H^2) and cross-validates redundancy (F^2). The difference between both Q^2 is H^2 measures the capacity of the path model to predict the manifest variables through measurement model while F^2 measures the capacity of the path model to predict the endogenous manifest variables indirectly using structural relation (Tenenhaus et al., 2005). According to Fornell and Cha (1994), Q^2 greater than zero means the model has predictive relevance and any value lower than zero lacks predictive relevance. The Q^2 values of 0.02, 0.15 and 0.35 indicate small, medium and large predictive relevance (Cohen, 1988, as cited in Tenenhaus et al. (2005)). The predictive relevance values in Table 5.18 reveal all values are above the requirement level with peer stressors having the largest predictive relevance, followed by teacher stressors and CAPSES. The rest of the manifest variables had small predictive relevance.

Table 5.18: Communality and Redundancy

Construct	R^2	Communality (H^2)	Redundancy (F^2)
CAPSES		0.143	0.143
SES		1	1
Proxy to SES		1	1
Deviant Behavior	0.168	0.502	0.081
Risky Behavior	0.093	0.549	0.051
Negative Self-Esteem	0.076	0.531	0.051
Negative Mood	0.073	0.532	0.037
Parents Stressors	0.100	0.654	0.046
Teacher Stressors	0.320	0.708	0.206
Peer Stressors	0.467	0.660	0.305

5.6.4 Summary

All thirty nine relationships were simultaneously regressed to gauge the structural relationship between variables of the study. In total, there were ten relationships that were

significant. The results depicted the stressor variables namely parent, teacher and peer stressors were significantly related to negative self-esteem, negative mood, risky behavior and deviant behavior.

To reiterate the findings, parent stressors significantly affected peer stressors and teacher stressors and negative mood, while peer stressors had significant impact on negative mood, negative self-esteem and deviant behavior. Moreover, teacher stressors were found to have significant influence on deviant behavior, risky behavior and peer stressors. It is notable that of all the significant relationships mentioned, only the relationship between parent stressors and teacher stressors had a large enough effect size, while parent stressors and peer stressors as well as CAPSES and parent stressors had about medium effect size. The rest of the relationship highlighted had only small effect size.

The model was also tested for a mediation effect and it was found that peer stressors was a mediator between CAPSES and negative self-esteem and CAPSES and negative mood, while parent stressors mediated the relationship between CAPSES and negative mood. In terms of the predictive relevance of the model, overall, the study model showed acceptable predictive relevance.

5.6.5 The Multiple Group Analysis for Low and High SES Groups and Achievers and Under-Achievers Groups

Based on the findings above, CAPSES was shown to be the least related to the psychosocial outcomes (risky, deviant behaviors, negative-self-esteem and negative mood) of respondents of this study as compared to two other SES indicators (parent's occupation and parental structure). Two possible reasons may explain this scenario. First, the variances between the low and high SES respondents are too small. Second, there is an assumption that the population of this study is heterogeneous, and the SES groups may be further divided into other sub-sample, in this case, achievers and under-achievers group of respondents. Hence, to explore these possibilities, the multiple group analysis (MGA) was performed.

The MGA is conducted based on the assumption that the sample population is heterogeneous with different groups and different population parameters (J. Henseler, 2012). As suggested by Sarstedt, Henseler, and Ringle (2011), assuming population homogeneity when performing PLS modeling can lead to bias in results. For this study, the MGA was performed in response to identify if there were any differences between the low and high SES group of students and achiever and under-achiever group of students in the parent stressors, teacher stressors, peer stressors, negative self-esteem, negative mood, risky and deviant behaviors. By comparing these groups, it further aids in the understanding of the behaviors and emotions of specific groups within the population.

To reiterate, the population sample was divided into four groups the lower SES, higher SES students and the achievers and under-achievers students as presented in Table 5.19. To form the SES group, the scores for material capital, human capital, parent social capital, teacher social capital, team / club member from the CAPSES were combined and subsequently the scores were divided into equal percentile which was referred to as low (0-25), middle (26-32) and high (33 and above) SES. As for the achievers and under-achievers, the groups were identified based on the category of the classes the students were in. The classes which were already segregated by the schools based on the academic performance of students in *Penilaian Menengah Rendah (PMR)* (a standard national exam for Form Three students (15 years old) in national schools) were used as guidance to divide the students into the achievers and under-achievers group (detailed explanation in sample is described in Chapter 4 of the Methodology).

For each group PLS path model is estimated and subjected to bootstrap analysis. The bootstrap analysis uses 5000 samples and number of cases according to the each group's sample size (Low SES= 336; High SES= 708; Achiever= 517; Under-Achiever= 527). The results of path coefficients and the significance of paths are depicted in Table 5.19.

Table 5.19: Path Coefficients for Low and High SES Group and Achievers and Under-Achievers Group

Latent Variables	Low SES	High SES	Achievers	Under-Achievers
CAPSES -> DEVIANT BEH	n.a	n.a	-0.076	-0.045
CAPSES -> NEG. ESTEEM	n.a	n.a	-0.301**	0.017
CAPSES -> NEG. MOOD	n.a	n.a	-0.123	0.084
CAPSES-> PEERSTRES	n.a	n.a	-0.030	0.117*
CAPSES -> PARENTSTRES	n.a	n.a	-0.326*	0.351***
CAPSES -> RISKY BEH	n.a	n.a	0.009	0.095
CAPSES -> TEACHERSTRES	n.a	n.a	0.050	0.089*
NEG. ESTEEM -> DEVIANT BEH	0.002	0.062	0.035	0.029
NEG. ESTEEM -> RISKY BEH	0.012	0.022	-0.038	0.009
NEG. MOOD -> DEVIANT BEH	-0.022	-0.013	-0.009	-0.019
NEG. MOOD -> RISKY BEH	0.029	0.087	0.137*	0.055
PEERSTRES-> DEVIANT BEH	0.138*	0.123*	0.158*	0.097
PEERSTRES -> NEG. ESTEEM	0.157*	0.168**	0.220**	0.071
PEERSTRES -> NEG. MOOD	0.129	0.119	0.175*	0.025
PEERSTRES -> RISKY BEH	0.025	-0.112*	-0.119	-0.018
PARENTSTRES -> DEVIANT BEH	0.098	0.024	0.022	0.078
PARENTSTRES -> NEG. ESTEEM	0.110	0.088	0.025	0.071
PARENTSTRES -> NEG. MOOD	0.307***	0.164**	0.198**	0.165*
PARENTSTRES -> PEERSTRES	0.304***	0.375***	0.343***	0.300***
PARENTSTRES -> RISKY BEH	-0.097	0.015	-0.007	0.036
PARENTSTRES -> TEACHERSTRES	0.591***	0.549***	0.642***	0.505***
TEACHERSTRES -> DEVIANT BEH	0.231**	0.291***	0.296***	0.240***
TEACHERSTRES -> NEG. ESTEEM	0.098	0.007	0.025	0.035
TEACHERSTRES -> NEG. MOOD	-0.078	-0.039	-0.072	-0.046
TEACHERSTRES -> PEERSTRES	0.398***	0.427***	0.473***	0.363***
TEACHERSTRES -> RISKY BEH	0.300***	0.321***	0.267***	0.277***

Notes: ***p<.001 **p<.01 *p<.05 (estimated by 5,000 bootstraps, two tailed t-test), n.a (not applicable)

An assessment of the path coefficients reveals several differences between the student groups. To begin with, the low and high SES groups were compared and a difference was found in the path coefficients between peer stressors and risky behavior. In the high SES group, peer stressors had a considerable influence on risky behavior (β= -0.112, $p<0.05$), which means higher stressful relationship with peers could reduce the likelihood for adolescents to commit risky behavior. This relationship did not show any significance in the low SES group.

It is noteworthy that for both SES groups, several path coefficients were significant in these groups. For example, irrespective of the SES, peer stressors had a significant effect on deviant behavior (high SES, $\beta = 0.123$, $p<0.05$; low SES, $\beta = 0.138$, $p<0.05$) and negative self-esteem (high SES, $\beta = 0.168$, $p<0.01$; low SES, $\beta = 0.157$, $p<0.05$). In addition, parent stressors had a significant influence on negative mood (high SES, $\beta = 0.164$, $p<0.01$; low SES, $\beta = 0.307$, $p<0.001$) and peer stressors (high SES, $\beta = 0.375$, $p<0.001$; low SES, $\beta = 0.304$, $p<0.001$). It was also found that teacher stressors had a significant impact on deviant behaviors (high SES, $\beta = 0.291$, $p<0.001$; low SES, $\beta = 0.231$, $p<0.01$), peer stressors (high SES, $\beta = 0.427$, $p<0.001$; low SES, $\beta = 0.398$, $p<0.001$) and risky behavior (high SES, $\beta = 0.321$, $p<0.001$; low SES, $\beta = 0.300$, $p<0.001$).

Subsequently, the achievers and under-achievers groups were assessed on the differences in path coefficients of the relationship between the study variables. The results in Table 5.19 show eight differences in path coefficients between the two groups.

CAPSES and Negative Self-Esteem. For the achievers group, CAPSES had a significant and inverse effect on negative self-esteem ($\beta = -0.301$, $p<0.01$). In other words, students who were achievers with high socioeconomic status (CAPSES) had low negative self-esteem and those with low CAPSES had higher negative self-esteem. The relationship between CAPSES and negative self-esteem were not significant in the under-achievers group.

CAPSES and Peer Stressors. This relationship was significant in the under-achievers group ($\beta = 0.117$, $p<0.05$). The relationship suggests the under-achievers who were in the higher socioeconomic (CAPSES) category were more likely to have stressful relationship

with their peers, while those in the lower CAPSES category had low peer stressors. However, the CAPSES influence on peer stressors had no significance in the achievers group.

CAPSES and Parent Stressors. The results from this relationship showed both groups, the achievers and under-achievers' path coefficients between CAPSES and parent stressors were significant, however the difference was CAPSES had a significant and inverse relationship with parent stressors in the achievers group ($\beta = -0.326$, $p<0.05$). On the other hand, CAPSES had a positive and significant relationship with parent stressors in the under-achievers group ($\beta = 0.351$, $p<0.001$). This suggests adolescents who were achievers face more parent stressors if they were in lower CAPSES category while those who were in higher CAPSES category face lesser parent stressors. Whereas for the under-achievers, those who were in the higher CAPSES category, had higher parent stressors and those in the lower CAPSES category had lesser parent stressors.

CAPSES and Teacher Stressors. This relationship was only significant in the under-achievers group ($\beta = 0.089$, $p<0.05$) and not significant in the achievers group. The findings imply those students who were under-achievers and in the high CAPSES category had higher teacher stressors, while the students in the low CAPSES category had lower stressful relationship with teachers.

Negative Mood and Risky Behavior. The relationship between negative mood and risky behavior is significant in the achievers group ($\beta = 0.137$, $p<0.05$) but not significant in the under-achievers group. This means students who were achievers and with higher negative mood were more likely to be involved in risky behavior. Furthermore those achievers with lower negative mood were less likely to perform risky behavior.

Peer Stressors and Deviant Behavior. For the achievers group, the relationship between peer stressors and deviant behavior was significant ($\beta = 0.158$, $p<0.05$), whereas this relationship was not significant among the under-achievers. The results suggest when the achievers face higher stressful relationship with peers, the possibility of them performing deviant behavior increases.

Peer Stressors and Negative Self-Esteem. This relationship is only significant in the achievers group ($\beta = 0.220$, $p<0.01$) and not significant in the under-achievers group. Achievers with higher peer stressors had higher negative self-esteem whereas those with lower peer stressors were less likely to face negative self-esteem.

Peer Stressors and Negative Mood. The effect of peer stressors on negative mood was significant in the achievers group ($\beta = 0.175$, $p<0.05$) but the relationship was not significant in the under-achievers group. The results indicate higher stressful relationship with peers could exacerbate achievers' negative mood. Moreover, those with lower peer stressors faced lesser negative mood.

Other than the differences in relationships between the achievers and under-achievers, there were also similarities in terms of significance in several of the relationships. For instance, for both groups, parent stressors had a significant effect on negative mood (achievers, $\beta = 0.198$, $p<0.01$; under-achievers, $\beta = 0.165$, $p<0.05$), peer stressors (achievers, $\beta = 0.343$, $p<0.001$; under-achievers, $\beta = 0.300$, $p<0.001$) and teacher stressors (achievers, $\beta = 0.642$, $p<0.001$; under-achievers, $\beta = 0.505$, $p<0.001$). It was also found that teacher stressors had a significant influence on deviant behavior (achievers, $\beta = 0.296$, $p<0.001$; under-achievers, $\beta = 0.240$, $p<0.001$), peer stressors (achievers, $\beta = 0.473$, $p<0.001$; under-achievers, $\beta =$

0.363, $p<0.001$) and risky behavior (achievers, $\beta= 0.267$, $p<0.001$; under-achievers, $\beta= 0.277$, $p<0.001$).

5.6.6 The Population Parameter between the Multiple Groups (MGA)

While path coefficients reveal the significance of relationships between the groups on the study variables, it is more useful to identify whether the probability of one group has a larger population parameter than the other group. Thus, PLS-MGA is performed in order to address this issue using Henseler's (2007) approach. This approach is most suitable for this study as it does not rely on distributional assumptions and uses bootstrap estimates to evaluate robustness of different group parameter estimates (Sarstedt et al., 2011), distinct from other MGA techniques such as the parametric approach and permutation-based approach.

To further elaborate, Henseler's (2007) approach calculates each centered bootstrap estimates of the second group and compares it with each centered bootstrap estimates of the first group across all the bootstrap samples. The number of positive differences divided by the total number of comparisons reflects the probability that the second group's population parameter is greater than the first group (Sarstedt et al., 2011). Henseler (2012) and Hair et.al (2011) proposed at least 5000 bootstrap samples is required to perform this multi-group analysis (Jörg Henseler et al., 2009). Table 5.20 shows the differences in four comparisons of path coefficient estimates (Low SES vs. High SES and Achiever vs. Under-Achievers) and presents the results of multi-group comparisons test between the SES groups.

Table 5.20: Test Results of Multi-group analysis between Low and High SES and Achievers and Under-Achievers

Relationship	**p-value (one-sided)**	
	Low/High SES	**Achievers/Under-Achievers**
CAPSES -> NEG. ESTEEM	n.a	0.038
CAPSES-> PEERSTRES	n.a	0.008
CAPSES -> PARENTSTRES	n.a	0.025
CAPSES -> TEACHERSTRES	n.a	0.260
NEG. MOOD -> RISKY BEH	n.a	0.847
PEERSTRES-> DEVIANT BEH	n.a	0.763
PEERSTRES -> NEG. ESTEEM	n.a	0.945
PEERSTRES -> NEG. MOOD	n.a	0.952
PEERSTRES > RISKY BEH	0.947	n.a

Notes: n= Low SES= 336; High SES= 708; Achiever= 517; Under-Achiever= 527 (Estimated by 5,000 bootstraps, one tailed t-test), n.a. = not applicable

The results disclose three relationships that showed parameter probabilities that the under-achievers group has a larger population parameter than the achievers group. The relationship showed the parameter difference were between CAPSES and negative self-esteem ($\alpha = 0.05$), CAPSES and peer stressors ($\alpha = 0.01$) and CAPSES and parent stressors ($\alpha = 0.05$).

5.6.7 Summary

With regard to the differences between the SES groups (low SES vs. high SES), it was found that for these groups, there was only one significant difference in the relationship between peer stressors and risky behavior, whereby the relationship was significant in the high SES group. However, a closer assessment from the multiple group analysis (MGA) in Table 5.20 revealed peer stressors was not a stronger predictor of risky behavior in high SES group of students than for students in low SES group.

The findings for the achievers and under-achievers group offered several interesting outcomes. Among the eight significant relationships between the variables mentioned in the two groups (as mentioned in Section 5.6.6), only three relationships were found to have probabilities that the under-achievers have larger population parameters than the achievers. The relationships were between CAPSES and negative self-esteem, CAPSES and peer stressors and CAPSES and parent stressors.

5.7 Findings from Focus Group Discussions

The group discussions are based on eight groups of respondents from four high schools in Kuala Lumpur, i.e., S.I, S.P, D.I.Y, Y.L. For each school, two groups of students were selected based on their class category which was achievers class (top performing) and the under-achievers class (low performing). In total, there were 74 respondents involved in the focus group discussions. Due to confidentiality, all the names of schools and respondents involved are not revealed. Table 5.21 displays the information of the respondents' background according to their name code and the school they belong to.

The respondents comprised of 52.2% male against 47.8% of female respondents. In terms of ethnicity, majority were Malay (51%), followed by Chinese (45%) and Indians (4%).. The average age for the sample was 16.05 years (SD=0.306).

Table 5.21: Information on the respondents' background

S.I High School		**S.P High School**		**D.I.Y High School**		**Y.L High School**	
S	**A**	**S**	**A**	**S**	**A**	**S**	**A**
SI-S1	SI-A1	SP-S1	SP-A1	DIY-S1	DIY-A1	YL-S1	YL-A1
SI-S2	SI-A2	SP-S	SP-A2	DIY-S2	DIY-A2	YL-S2	YL-A2
SI-S3	SI-A3	SP-S3	SP-A3	DIY-S3	DIY-A3	YL-S3	YL-A3
SI-S4	SI-A4	SP-S4	SP-A4	DIY-S4	DIY-A4	YL-S4	YL-A4
SI-S5	SI-A5	SP-S5	SP-A5	DIY-S5	DIY-A5	YL-S5	YL-A5
SI-S6	SI-A6	SP-S6	SP-A6	DIY-S6	DIY-A6	YL-S6	YL-A6
SI-S7	SI-A7	SP-S7	SP-A7	DIY-S7	DIY-A7	YL-S7	YL-A7
SI-S8	SI-A8	SP-S8	SP-A8	DIY-S8	DIY-A8	YL-S8	YL-A8
SI-S9	SI-A9	SP-S9		DIY-S9		YL-S9	YL-A9
SI-S10	SI-A10	SP-S10					YL-A10
10	**10**	**10**	**8**	**9**	**8**	**9**	**10**

Note: S= Achiever category; A= Under-achiever category

The findings are divided into three sections. The first section provides information on the type of stressors faced by respondents. Section two presents information on the support systems that respondents rely on when faced with difficulties. Finally, respondents' perception of stressors that lead to maladaptive behavior is discussed in section three. As the discussions were mainly conducted in Bahasa Malaysia, the responses, as highlighted in the form of vignettes, were translated into English for ease of reading.

5.7.1 Section One: Type of Stressors

To some extent, there were differences in the type of stressors reported by both achievers and under-achievers. As expected, all of the achievers reported academic workload and examinations as their main source of stress. The achievers reported high stress particularly nearing examination time. For instance student SI-S4 stated:

"Most of the time I worry about my studies. Form four subjects are tougher…."

Additionally, student DIY-S1 noted:

"I feel the pressure as SPM is near…I need to prepare from now to do well in the exams."

The second most important stressors for the achievers were parent and peer stressors. It was reported that parent stressors derived from conflict between both parents, parents being too strict and controlling, parents having high expectations on respondents and also parents showing favoritism towards the other siblings. Student SP-S6 claimed:

"Parents…they always misconstrue situations. It's not that I do anything wrong. They try to control everything."

Student YL-S3 supports this and further added:

"I get stressed thinking about my studies. My parents' expectations are high, so I have to study hard."

Peer stressors were felt because of the need to be popular and to be recognized as a member of the popular group in school. Teacher stressors were the least rated by the achievers. As student DIY-S2 commented:

"I get stressed also because of friends in school. I see another gang of students which are more popular and I want to be popular too. So we behave like them to get the popularity."

On the other hand, the under-achievers rated parent stressors as the most significant source of stress for them. Parents were seen as a source of stress because of the lack of attention given by parents, lack of understanding on how respondents feel, the feeling of incompetence and loneliness because parents are always away. Student SP-A3 noted:

"Usually, being at home is stressful because parents don't spend enough time with us. My mum is always busy and my father is always away. So I'm alone at home and feel lonely."

In addition to that statement, student SI-A5 commented:

"My parents don't understand my feelings. Whatever I do is wrong. For example if I do housework, my mum will not be satisfied. So, when I get scolded, I release my tension by going out with friends."

Next to parent stressors are peer stressors. Peers were perceived as a bad influence for them. DIY-A8 said:

"Friends like to talk behind my back and like to tease. I don't like that. That makes me upset."

Student YL-A5 further added:

"Sometimes friends are bad influence. They will teach you to do things and you do it."

Similarly, student SP-A8 commented:

"Peer influence tends to make us try things that are not good."

Very few under-achievers reported academic workload or studying for exams as a source of stress. Interestingly, the under-achievers added more stressors in the list, such as part-time work stressors and stress with siblings.

5.7.2 Section Two: Sources of Support Systems

Majority of the achievers would turn to peers and mothers when they are faced with difficult situations. Several others would keep the problems to themselves and resolve it themselves. Aspect of religion such as prayers was also mentioned by a few respondents. However seeing counselors were the last resort as they feel that counselors are not trustworthy to keep their discussions private. Moreover, counselors are more focused in organizing academic programs for the students than focusing on the students' behaviors.

Student SI-S6 commented that peers are good support system. He said:

"When I have problems, I would turn to my friends. They understand my feelings better."

While student SP-S1claimed mothers are also a good support system. She commented:

"My mother wants the best for me so I would seek for her advice."

Student YL-S7 mentioned:

"I don't like telling others about my problems because it is pointless. I would rather pray."

The ineffectiveness of school counseling was mentioned by DIY-S4. He commented:

"The counselors in my school are not good enough because they don't keep the discussions private and they concentrate more on how to get students produce good results and make the school popular."

As for the under-achievers, parents are chosen as their most important support system, while peers came second. Siblings and girlfriend/boyfriend were also mentioned as their support system and like the previous group, counselors were rated the last option as they feel counselors are insensitive during sessions and do not keep the discussion confidential.

Student YL-A2 said:

"When I have problems, I speak to my parents because I feel they know us best."

Contrary to student YL-A2, student SP-A5 stated:

"I would tell my friends about my problems because they are always there, while parents are not always available."

5.7.3 Section Three: Causes of Maladaptive Behaviors

For both groups, the achievers and under-achievers, peer influence appeared as the main source of maladaptive behaviors. Parents were also seen as an important source of the behaviors. Additionally, curiosity was also highlighted as an important determinant of maladaptive behavior. Student DIY-S7 commented:

"Peers know how to persuade others to do negative things. When they do things, the other peers are curious to try. Like smoking or drugs, after a while, they will get hooked."

In addition, student SP-A1 stated:

"Arguments and fights among parents are very stressful for us. So to release tension, many would spend more time with friends, smoke and take drugs."

The under-achievers also mentioned other factors such as desperation for money and power and lack of knowledge and education. Student SI-A1 said:

"I've heard peers in school bully weaker students by taking their money and normally these bullies belong to a stronger group."

5.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the statistical findings and also the results obtained from the focus group discussions. Based on the three main objectives of the study, statistical analyses on the survey data were performed using correlation, partial least squares and Henseler's approach to multiple group analysis.

The findings from this chapter revealed that the CAPSES variables which consist of material capital, human capital and social capital were valid measures of CAPSES. Of the three capitals, material capital had significant relationship with the conventional SES measures (parent's occupation and parent's structure) followed by human capital. Social capital did not have a significant relationship with the conventional SES as a single indicator but when combined with the other capitals variables as a form of CAPSES, there was a significant correlation between CAPSES and the conventional SES measures. Hence, CAPSES too could represent socioeconomic status as an alternative measure for adolescent population in this study. Thus the first objective which examined the detail measures of CAPSES and its association with the conventional SES measures was answered.

Once the CAPSES was seen to be a reliable and valid indicator of SES, it was then used in the model to see its effect on the other variables (stressor variables, negative mood, negative self-esteem, deviant and risky behavior). It was found that CAPSES had a direct effect only on parent stressors and indirect effect on negative self-esteem and negative mood. Parent stressors, peer stressors and teacher stressors emerged as having more significant relationships with negative mood and negative self-esteem, deviant and risky behaviors than CAPSES and the other conventional SES indicators, namely parent's occupation and parent structure. This was clearly shown when the test on effect size showed the largest effect size was on the relationship between parent stressors and teacher stressors, followed by parent stressors and peer stressors and third, the relationship between CAPSES and parent stressors which had about medium effect size. These findings

responded to the second objective which ascertained the relationship between the study variables.

It appeared that an indirect effect was present when peer stressors was included as the mediator between CAPSES and negative self-esteem and negative mood, while parent stressors mediated the relationship between CAPSES and negative mood. These findings responded to objectives three which determined the role of parent stressors and peer stressors as the mediating variables.

Based on the assumption that the sample population of this study is heterogeneous, the sample was divided into four groups, low SES, high SES, achievers and under-achievers to find the differences in the relationship between the study variables in each category (low SES vs. high SES, achievers vs. under-achievers). It was found that in the high SES group, peer stressors was significant and inversely related to risky behavior, however this relationship was not significant in the low SES group. Nonetheless further test on this relationship difference using MGA revealed the high SES and low SES group had no difference in the population parameter.

Next analysis that compared the achievers and under-achievers group was performed. For the under-achievers group, CAPSES appeared to have a more distinct role as for this group, CAPSES had a significant effect on peer stressors, parent stressors and teacher stressors compared to the achievers group. It was found that in the under-achievers, as CAPSES

increase so does the parent, peer and teacher stressors and as CAPSES decrease so does the parent, peer and teacher stressors. Although the statistical findings did not capture the relationship between peer stressors and psychosocial outcomes, it is noteworthy to highlight that peer influence were important source of maladaptive behaviors as mentioned in the focus group sessions.

For the achievers group, peer stressors seemed to have significant influence on risky behavior, deviant behavior, negative mood and negative self-esteem. This was supported by the group discussion results. The increase in peer stressors would increase the chances of them to be involved in these behaviors and negative emotions. It was also found that the relationship between CAPSES and parent stressors and CAPSES and negative self-esteem were also significant in the achievers group. Similarly, the focus group results had also highlighted the important role of parent stressors. It was found that the increase in CAPSES would lessen the parent stressors and negative self-esteem, while the decrease in CAPSES would raise the parent stressors and negative self-esteem in the achievers. Nevertheless, the differences between the achievers and under-achievers were particularly notable in the relationship between CAPSES and negative self-esteem, CAPSES and peer stressors and CAPSES and parent stressors whereby the achievers group had a large population parameter than the under-achievers group.

Hence, the MGA established that the influence of CAPSES can be seen when the population is divided into heterogeneous groups which add to a more conclusive findings for this study.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Background

In the previous chapter, the results of the statistical analyses and focus group discussions were presented. There were four main parts of the analyses. The first part focused on validating the measures, the second part emphasized the relationship between the study variables, the third part highlighted the mediational path between the exogenous variables (CAPSES) and endogenous variables (negative self-esteem, mood, risky and deviant behaviors) and in the fourth part, the divided sample populations (low SES vs. high SES and achievers vs. under-achievers) were analyzed to determine the relationship between the study variables.

The current chapter discusses the quantitative findings with some additional findings from the focus group interview. The justifications of the findings are duly presented with the support from the literature. The chapter begins with a recap on the findings based on the three objectives and ends with a conclusion that highlights the major issues found in the current study. This includes the theoretical and practical implications of the findings, limitations of the research, and recommendations for future research.

6.2 Recapitulation of the Study

Malaysia has a reasonably high adolescent population aged between 10-19 years (approximately 5.5 million in 2010) and with this sizeable number, there is a growing concern on the increasing number of social problems such as substance abuse (Baharudin et al., 2011; Foo et al., 2012; Mohamed, Marican, Elias, & Don, 2008), violence related behavior (L.K. Lee et al., 2007), pre-marital sex and teenage pregnancy (Hayward, 2011; Low, 2009; Tan et al., 2012) and mental health problems (Foo et al., 2012; L.K. Lee et al., 2007; Norhaniza, 2010; Tan et al., 2012; Yahaya, Momtaz, Othman, Sulaiman, & Mat, 2012. Generally, socioeconomic background, peer pressure and inability to deal with stress either at home or in school were the major reasons for adolescents to be involved in these behaviours {Tan, 2012 #338)(Foo et al., 2012; L. K. Lee et al., 2007; Tan et al., 2012).

Due to these on-going issues among adolescents, concerned parties such as the policy makers, researchers and the media have taken steps to create awareness and provide intervention programs to overcome these problems among adolescents. Hence, numerous policies and programs such as The National Adolescent Health Plan of Action (2005) and Bullying Prevention Programs (2007 – current) were formulated by various government agencies and non-profit organizations to address social problems among adolescents. From here, this study sought to determine adolescents' emotional and behavioral issues by examining their socioeconomic factors and stressors at home and in school.

This study addresses three major objectives, the first being to assess the internal consistency of CAPSES' variables used to measure the socioeconomic status of adolescents. This objective seeks to establish a new socioeconomic status indicator that encompasses adolescents' human capital, material capital and social capital as a measure of adolescent's socioeconomic status. The second objective is to ascertain the relationship among CAPSES, stressor variables, maladaptive behavior and depression. The third objective is to determine the mediating role of parent stressors, peer stressors and teacher stressors in the relationship between CAPSES-depression and CAPSES-maladaptive behavior. In addition to the three major objectives, this study further investigated the effect of CAPSES on stressors and the psychosocial outcomes by dividing the study population into four groups, namely low SES and high SES and academic achievers and under-achievers. It was assumed that the sample population was heterogeneous and by separating the groups, more conclusive findings can be established.

6.2.1 CAPSES as an alternative measure to Socioeconomic Status

Socioeconomic status has been highly associated with individual's wellbeing. Thus there is a need for a diverse and accurate measure of SES to gauge an individual's social and economic standing in a specific population and culture (Boudreau & Poulin, 2009; Boyce et al., 2006). Notwithstanding the fact that education, income and occupation are important determinants of affluence, this information is often difficult to obtain especially in adolescents. Hauser (1994) in his commentary paper strongly suggested against obtaining parent's or family's income from adolescents due to the high non-response issue and the fact that income is difficult to measure because it varies according to household composition and remuneration from other sources. The non-response in SES surveys

among the adolescent population has been highlighted in numerous studies such as Boudreau and Poulin (2009); Doku et al. (2010); Shahabudin et al. (2012) in which their surveys showed between 8 to 19 percent of missing data on parent's education level, occupation and income.

Furthermore, Hauser (1994) also commented that even a combination of parent's income, educational attainment and occupation could not describe the social and economic resources of a child; hence, other substitute questions need to be added for greater information on a child's social and economic standing. Boyce, Torsheim, Currie & Zambon (2006) added that measures of SES should be culturally sensitive, thus appropriate items that are customary to a country should be used to determine the SES of the country's population. Recognizing the need for a population and culturally appropriate SES measure, this study formed several items to measure SES based on the Social Theory proposed by Coleman (1988) and the preliminary work of Oakes and Rossi (2003) that conceptualized and operationalized CAPSES.

Based on the notion that having accumulated resources in various forms reflected individual's status, Oakes and Rossi (2003) proposed material capital, human capital and social capital to form CAPSES. The CAPSES was found as a functional measure of SES as it was significantly correlated with other established SES indicators such as the conventional measures (education and income) and other composite SES measures such as Occupational Status Score (OSS) and Household Prestige Scores (HHP). The results from this study support the findings of Oakes and Rossi (2003) as the CAPSES variables were

found to be significantly correlated with parent's occupation and parent's structure, which are the conventional measures of SES. This indicates that CAPSES moved congruently with the other SES measures thus CAPSES was used to predict adolescent's wellbeing.

Moreover, it is important to highlight that similar to the findings of Oakes and Rossi (2003), material capital in this study showed more significance on the conventional SES, followed by human capital and subsequently social capital. The social capital variables (parent's social capital, teacher's social capital and club / team member) used in this study did not significantly predict the conventional SES construct, but when combined with human capital and material capital as the CAPSES construct (as seen in Figure 5.2), had a predictive power on the conventional SES constructs. This shows that material capital and human capital had the most influence, while social capital had the least influence in contributing to the predictive power of the conventional SES constructs. Nonetheless, social capital was included to add value to the CAPSES model and to explore CAPSES relationships with stressors and psychosocial wellbeing of adolescents in this study.

It is also notable that material capital is a more highly developed indicator for wealth status and widely used in the literature. Material capital has been used in scales such as the Family Affluence Scale (FAS) I, II and III to measure adolescent's status in many different ways such as number of vehicles, bedroom, holidays, computers, telephones and spending money (Boudreau & Poulin, 2009; Chin, 2010; Currie et al., 1997; Currie et al., 2008), the Home Affluence Scale (HASC) that measures affluence with items like housing tenure, car and computer ownership (Wardle, Robb & Johnson, 2002) and the Material Affluence

Scale (MAS) that consist of questions on household assets, housing characteristics and ownership of other assets as a measure of wealth (Doku, Koivusilta, Rimpela, 2010). In sum, the above studies found consistent and significant associations between the diverse material wealth indicators and the traditional SES indicators.

However, Schnohr et al. (2008) cautioned scholars to be careful in selecting the material wealth items as the items perform differently in different culture and country settings as well as different age groups as found in their analysis of cross-national study on 32 countries in Europe, USA and Canada. The authors gave examples of how the prices of cars and houses are dependent on country's economic and political standing and how older children are more likely to have their own bedroom, independent of family wealth. Therefore, the CAPSES measure which adds other dimensions of capital to material capital enriched the SES measures.

6.2.2 The Relationship between CAPSES, Stressors, Depression and Maladaptive Behavior

The Ecological Systems Theory by Bronfenbrenner (1986) suggests that parent's socioeconomic status is one of the basic ways to gauge how a family is formed, the patterns of child rearing, and the conditions of the child's wellbeing. Although family is given the primary importance, this theory also highlights other significant members of the community such as peers and teachers that affects the behavior and wellbeing of the child. It is through social networking with parents, teachers and peers that adolescents gain resources or conversely lack resources. Whether resources are gained or lost, or adolescents are deprived of it, this eventually affects their wellbeing. To address the importance of socioeconomic status and the influence of stress on adolescent's wellbeing, this section is further divided into six subsections.

6.2.2.1 The Influence of Socioeconomic Variables on Parent, Teacher and Peer Stressors

There is a well-established link between SES and stress as previous studies found low SES groups are more exposed to stressful life events (Grzywacz et al. 2004). Previous studies have suggested that adolescents from a low SES background face higher stress due to financial constraints and lack of quality time spent with parents as parents devote long hours to work to support the family (Yeung & Glauber, 2008). However the findings in the current study found differing outcomes as CAPSES and the conventional SES (as indicated by parent's occupation) was found to have a positive and significant effect on parent stressors. This means, the increase of socioeconomic status predicted higher stressful

relationship with parents, while the decrease of socioeconomic status predicted lower stressful relationship with parents.

Consistent with the current findings, several studies have attested that adolescents that belong to high a SES background are confronted with family conflicts due to parent's expectations on them to perform well in school (Luthar & Latendresse, 2005). In a recent study of the effect of educational expectations and achievement on Taiwanese secondary students, Liu et al. (2009) reported that students having good academic results need to maintain expectations to do well in school and these high expectations are a motivation factor for them to achieve academic excellence. However the effects of meeting these expectations are stressful on most students (Finch et al., 2010). Pears, Kim, Capaldi, Kerr, and Fisher (2013) observed in their study that fathers with higher income were able to provide better education prospects and more educational resources to their children and in return they expect the children to perform in school, academically and socially. In the Asian culture, children are expected to reciprocate as part of their obligation to uphold the family's honor and parental aspirations. Meeting these parental expectations is important to gain self-esteem and acknowledgement from parents and if expectations are unmet, children might encounter stress and other undesirable outcomes such as depression and engaging in risky behavior (Huan, See, Ang, & Har, 2008; Khairani, Norazua, & Zaiton, 2007). To exacerbate the matter, due to their high economic status, parents are less keen to look into the problems of their children as this reflects failure on their part in maintaining good family processes (Luthar & Latendresse, 2005).

The current findings contradict previous literature as past studies revealed families confronted with economic strain have higher family conflicts as parents spend less time with children and are less involved in their daily activities due to long working hours (Prelow et al., 2007). These challenges create stressful relationships with parents (Wadsworth & Berger, 2006).

The current findings have also found low SES adolescents have low parent stressors. Parents with low SES are less educated, hence these parents have lower expectations for the children to perform well academically (Ray, 2000). Moreover, problems of financial constraints compels adolescents to work part-time after school to increase economic resources in the family, thus adolescents are seen as self-sufficient by parents (Ray, 2009). Past studies have also shown that with low SES families, particularly in developing countries, the family is large with more siblings and extended family members such as grandparents thus providing adolescents with the extra support as a substitute to parent's support (Ngai, Ngai, Cheung, & To, 2008).

Nonetheless, other studies such as Hayes (2011) opined that socioeconomic status is not a strong predictor of parent's involvement in children's home and school environment. He further explained that parents from both low and high SES, particularly parents with higher levels of education, had high expectations for their children to do well in school and socially. Lai Kwok and Shek (2010) added that irrespective of parents' SES background, the more important determinant is parental qualities such as consistent parent-adolescent communication that influence adolescent's perception on parents' support and social

resources. Similarly, Bendayan, Blanca, Fernández-Baena, Escobar, and Victoria Trianes (2013) stated that it is the parental style and mother's affection that determines adolescent's low level of stress.

Moreover, McAuley and Layte (2012) established that social class showed no variation in stressful situations, however it was the type of family structure (a single parent household) and higher lifestyle deprivation that predicted adolescent's family stressors. Other studies have noted that parental practices are more complex in a single parent household as compared to two parent household and adolescents that belong in a single parent structure are more exposed to stress (Baharudin et.al 2007; Ngai et al., 2008).

However, contrary to findings on the influence of family structure on adolescent's stress, this study did not find parent's structure (proxy SES) to affect parent's stressors in adolescents. This is because in this culture, in a situation where a child is being brought up by a single parent, it is common to find other support systems being offered from family members and other adults to provide supervision to the child (Boudreau & Poulin, 2009).

As for the relationship between SES and peer and teacher stressors, the correlations from this study showed significant relationship between socioeconomic status dimensions (parent's occupation and CAPSES) and peer and teacher stressors. These results are supported by previous research, as it has been reported that teacher stressors are perceived higher among the high SES students as these students are expected to perform in school due to the socioeconomic advantages (Koivusilta et al., 2006). Similarly, peer stressors are seemingly more in the high SES adolescents as there is constant pressure to perform in

school and to compete with the rest of students to achieve good grades (Finch et al., 2010). According to Taragar (2009), socioeconomic status is seen as part of peer pressure among high school students in India as she revealed 24.7 percent of students in her study worry about having lower standard of living as compared to their peers, thus further exposing them to stress.

Nonetheless, from the PLS analysis, it was found that socioeconomic status did not significantly predict peer stressors and teacher stressors. These results may be due to the indirect relationship between socioeconomic status and peer stressors, a premise supported by Elias and Haynes (2008) findings that the effects of socioeconomic status on peer stressors are mediated through social-emotional competence. For the less advantaged students such as the low-income students, social-emotional competence skills are useful to facilitate social interaction with their peers thus result in peer acceptance (Elias & Haynes, 2008). This was also supported by other studies that suggested factors such as poor social skills and lacking social integration have a direct and significant impact on peer stressors (Rodkin, Farmer, Pearl, & Acker, 2006; Wölfer, Bull, & Scheithauer, 2012). Furthermore, according to MacDonald and Marsh (2004) socioeconomic status is not a veritable predictor of peer stressors, instead the pressure to be popular and to feel accepted by peers were more important factors that influenced peer stressors. Peers are seen to have a positive as well as negative influence on adolescents and as a result adolescents conform to peer pressure, peer conformity and popularity (Demanet and Van Houtte, 2011).

As for SES and teacher stressors, the relationship was not found to be significant in this study. According to Intan Hashimah (2007), irrespective of students' socioeconomic background, a teacher's function is to provide support for school related matters. Teacher-student conflicts exist in schools but it is largely due to teacher's response towards students in class, such as favoritism towards performing students and unfair treatment such as scolding in class and getting unfair grades in examination to students with discipline problems (Barone, 2004). Thus, students' SES should not be associated with teacher stressors.

6.2.2.2 The Influence of Socioeconomic Variables on Risky and Deviant Behaviors and the Mediating Role of Stressors

There is a mixture of findings between SES and risky and deviant behaviors. Interestingly, the behavioral outcomes of adolescents depended on how their SES is measures. Among the three SES measures, only parent's structure had a significant impact on risky behavior while CAPSES and parent's occupation did not have a significant effect on these behaviors.

To support the notion that SES is related to adolescents' risky and deviant behaviors, previous research suggested that those living with single parents had higher chances of being involved in risky behavior such as smoking, substance abuse and sexual activities. Adolescents raised in single-headed households lack parental support in terms of emotional support, educational support and financial support and this is evident in children living with single mothers in this culture (Baharudin et al., 2011; Lai Kah Lee, Chen, Lee, & Kaur, 2006; Wong, 2011b). Past studies have also shown that adolescents from low income

families are more inclined to be involved in disciplinary problems in school, sexual activities, smoking and drunkenness because children were forced to work to lessen family burden and for some, children were denied of education (Arulampalam et al., 2008; Foo et al., 2012; Hanson & Chen, 2007; Petras, Masyn, Buckley, Ialongo, & Kellam, 2011; Tan et al., 2012). In these situations, children are more exposed to socializing with the wrong companion and involved in risky activities (Foo et al., 2012).

Conversely, several other studies have shown that SES does not have a direct relationship with adolescents' behavioral outcomes. There are other factors that are more crucial in predicting behavioral problems in adolescents. For example, Vandenberg and Marsh (2009) showed that children's exposure to traumatic abuse was seen as a significant determinant of negative behavioral outcomes. A study by Eamon and Mulder (2005) posited that inconsistent parenting practices or conflicts in family relationships act as a mediator between socioeconomic status and behavior problems in youth. Their study of behavioral outcomes among the Latino youth revealed that conflicts between parents and youth caused adolescents to exhibit problem behavior. In Malaysia, a study by Jalal and Sumari (2008) has shown that parental style such as harsh discipline and lack of bonding were pertinent factors that affect a youth's problematic behavior and this trend was more apparent in lower socioeconomic families.

6.2.2.3 The Influence of Socioeconomic Variables on Negative Self-Esteem and Negative Mood and the Mediating Role of Stressors

In general, socioeconomic status indicates a person's status in a society, therefore the increase in SES would elevate self-esteem. Equally, individuals may suffer from low self-esteem if they are in the lower SES. The current study examined the relationship between three dimensions of SES (parent's occupation, CAPSES and parent's structure) and its effect on negative self-esteem.

The present study found that of the three SES dimensions, only parent's occupation had a significant and inverse relationship with negative self-esteem. This means, adolescents with parents in the higher level of occupation face lesser negative self-esteem as compared to those with parents in the lower level occupation. Other studies have suggested that adolescents with lower SES are more likely to face low self-esteem because of social stigmatization or stereotyping that can cause them to perceive social rejection in the school setting (Kraus, Piff, Mendoza-Denton, Rheinschmidt, & Keltner, 2012; Spencer & Castano, 2007).

However, CAPSES and parental structure did not significantly affect adolescent's self-esteem in this study. Scholars such as Tartakovsky (2010) reported SES (as represented by parent's structure) had no influence on adolescent's psychological wellbeing, instead it was social support received from family, friends and teachers that were more significant. Similarly, Jablonska et al. (2012); Parker (2004) suggested factors such as school performance and peer relationship network have more impact on adolescents' self-esteem since adolescents tend to spend most hours in school than at home.

There are two explanations that suggest the difference in findings between the three SES dimensions and self-esteem. First, CAPSES is a multi-dimensional indicator and unlike parent's occupation which is a single indicator, CAPSES takes into consideration human, material and social aspects that may have more complexity in capturing self-esteem. Thus depending on the SES indicator, different dimensions of SES give different outcomes on adolescent's wellbeing. This effect was attested to by Richter and colleagues (2006) when they observed opposite findings between parent's occupation and family affluence (a proxy of SES) in predicting risky behavior among adolescence. Secondly, according to Twenge and Campbell (2002), the relationship between SES and self-esteem is moderated by factors such as age and gender, thus findings between SES and self-esteem would differ based on the moderator factors.

While there is extensive literature on the relationship between SES and self-esteem, current literature has shown limited empirical research on the direct association between SES and negative moods. The current study suggests that there is no association between SES (as represented by CAPSES, parental occupation, parental structure) and negative mood. Consistent with the current findings, Kraus M., Adler N., and Chen (2013) reported that SES (represented by parental income and education) had no impact on negative mood. On this point, prior research showed more empirical evidence that negative mood is a stronger predictor of health related factors such as depression (De Boo & Spiering, 2010), stress (Bolger et al., 1989), dieting (Jacka et al., 2010) and in relationships such as parent-adolescent relationship (Piko & Balázs, 2012).

Nonetheless a few studies such as Costello, Swendsen, Rose, and Dierker (2008) and McLaughlin, Costello, Leblanc, Sampson, and Kessler (2012) did find adolescent's SES, whether measured by parent's occupation or based on adolescent's perception of their rank in social hierarchy, is associated with an adolescent's depressed mood. Hence, the current findings has to some extent added to the current knowledge that SES had no direct effect on negative mood and further investigated the possibility of an indirect relationship between SES and negative mood.

6.2.2.4 The Impact of Stressors on Negative Self-Esteem and Negative Mood

The current study found that parent stressors had a significant effect on negative mood, while peer stressors had a significant influence on negative mood and negative self-esteem. According to Roberts, Roberts, and Chan (2009), there are multiple stressors that can influence an adolescent's mood disorder, but the strongest predictor found in their study was still family stressors. The association between peer stressors and negative mood and self-esteem is comparable to previous findings made by Sidhu (2005) and Uba, Yaacob, and Juhari (2009) that found high levels of peer stressors captured in bullying and victimization was found to have high influence on adolescents' depression.

It was also found that parent stressors had significant relationships with teacher stressors and peer stressors. There are two justifications for this finding. First, parents acts as a schema that assists adolescents to interpret their relationship with others that are close to them such as teachers and peers (Parker, 2004). Therefore, if adolescents experience non-supportive and stressful relationship with parents, adolescents might be more apprehensive with the relationship with others. Another possible explanation suggested by Chung, Flook,

and Fuligni (2011) is that conflicts with parents may result in a spillover effect with peers and other adults. According to these scholars, the spillover effect works both ways, as peer conflicts could also affect the relationship with parents. However, the spillover effect from the conflict with parents has a greater impact as adolescents reported more peer conflict on days arguments occur with parents.

This explanation may be relevant for the association between teacher stressors and peer stressors too. As shown in the current results, teacher stressors had a significant effect on peer stressors. Teachers' influence has a large impact on students, thus arguments or a stressful relationship with teachers may lead to emotional upsurge with peers and other students (Leung, To, Hing Kwan., 2009).

6.2.2.5 The Impact of Stressors on Risky and Deviant Behaviors

It is an interesting observation that teacher stressors were significantly related to risky and deviant behaviors of students. Teachers are seen as role models and leaders in school and their influence plays an important role in developing students not only academically but also socially (Adnan & Smith, 2001). Findings resonates from Barone (2004) indicated that teachers are seen as "moral agents" in which students listens to when they are faced with moral dilemma. Therefore lack of support from the teachers may result in misconduct among the students (Wang, 2009). In addition, teacher favoritism, discrimination toward students and pressure from teacher's expectations may result in aggressive behavior in students (Leung, To, Hing Kwan., 2009; Tam & Zhang, 2012). Hence, as found in these studies, the current study concur

that teacher stressors have a significant influence on adolescent's disruptive behavior.

The current findings also showed that peer stressors had a significant effect on adolescent's deviant behavior. According to Demanet and Van Houtte (2011), bonding with peers who are involved in disruptive behaviors will influence adolescents to behave the same way, as they feel the need to conform to the group. Adolescents conformed to peer influence are subjected to substance abuse, delinquency, sexual behavior and performed poorly in school (Santor et al., 1999).

6.2.2.6 The Effect of Negative Self-Esteem and Negative Mood on Risky and Deviant Behaviors

Past empirical work has proposed that personal attributes such as self-esteem contributes to deviant behaviors in adolescents (L.K. Lee et al., 2007; Maznah Baba, 2007; Muhammed Sharif Mustaffa & Suria Abd Jamil, 2012). However, the findings of this study did not find negative self-esteem and mood to have a significant on risky and deviant behaviors. According to Grant et al. (2003), it is plausible that the internalizing symptoms emerge almost instantly when faced with stressors but it takes time to be accumulated to have effect on externalizing behaviors, in which a longitudinal study would be more effective.

6.2.3 The Mediating Role of Parental Stressors and Peer Stressors on Risky and Deviant Behaviors

As pointed out in the earlier sections, past studies have suggested that parenting practices and parent-child bonding are important determinants of problem behavior among adolescents. In addition, peer stressors is seen as having a direct impact on deviant behaviors. This is supported by prior research that suggested adolescents spends more time with peers thus negative peer bonding would affect them to behave poorly (Demanet & Van Houtte, 2011; Shahabudin & Low, 2013).

However the present study did not find parent stressors and peer stressors to mediate the relationship between CAPSES and risky and deviant behaviors. According to Foo and colleagues (2012), in cases related to risky and deviant behaviors, it is usually a combination of factors that influence adolescents to behave poorly instead of a single factor.

6.2.4 The Mediating Role of Parental Stressors and Peer Stressors on Negative Self-Esteem and Negative Mood

Consistent with the notion that indirect relationships exist between SES and negative mood, the study found that peer stressors and parent stressors had a mediating effect in the relationship between CAPSES and negative mood. The findings are in line with Miller and Taylor (2012) results as they found that family related stressors fully mediated SES disparities in depressive symptoms such as mood. They also revealed that a poor relationship between adolescent and parents increases the risk of depressive symptoms, therefore establishing the impact of family stressors either directly or indirectly on an adolescent's depressive symptoms. Similarly, an earlier research by Hammack, Robinson, Crawford, and Li (2004) found a strong relationship in the proposed mediational pathway between poverty and depressed mood.

This study has also revealed that peer stressors mediated the relationship between socioeconomic status and negative self-esteem. It has been argued that in a school setting, adolescents in the lower class are more likely to perceive social rejection and threats from peers (Kraus et al., 2012). As a result, they experience psychological distress and wellbeing (Langhout, Drake, & Rosselli, 2009) and increase in negative emotions (McLaughlin et al., 2012). This is evident in other studies that showed lower-class adolescents find difficulties in integrating in the school community due to peer conformity (Barone, 2004; Demanet and Van Houtte, 2012; Shahabudin & Low, 2013; Taragar, 2009).

6.2.5 The Difference between Low and High SES Adolescents in the relationship between Stressors, Depression and Maladaptive Behavior

Past researches have shown that socioeconomic disparities influence individual's broader social environment (Eamon & Mulder, 2005; Smith & Ashiabi, 2007; Wong, 2011a). Based on the CAPSES measure, the findings of this study suggested that the difference between low and high SES adolescents was apparent in the relationship between peer stressors and risky behavior. It appeared that for the high SES adolescents, peer stressors were positive, as the increase in peer stressors resulted in decrease in risk behaviors. However peer stressors has little relevance in influencing low SES adolescents to be involved in risky behavior. Low SES students are exposed to multiple environmental stressors such as poor neighborhood, weak social support systems, economic hardship and poor academic performance. Hence, these stressors have more influence over adolescent's risky behavior (Smith & Ashiabi, 2007; Suldo et al., 2009; Swanson, Valiente, & Lemery-Chalfant, 2012).

6.2.6 The Difference between Achievers and Under-Achievers in the relationship between CAPSES, Stressors, Depression and Maladaptive Behavior

Stressors have been shown to affect students with better grades than with poorer grades as the expectations of them to perform well academically are higher (Liu et al., 2009; Suldo et al., 2009). The current findings suggest parental aspiration, in particular a mother's aspiration and teacher's expectations of the students are crucial in influencing the way adolescents behave and perceive their school environment (Zhang, Kao, & Hannum, 2007). Consistent with these studies, the findings of this study showed students who were achievers seemed to be more affected by stressors than the under-achievers. Table 6.1 summarizes the findings on the relationship between CAPSES, stressors, negative self-

esteem, negative mood, risky and deviant behaviors for the achievers and under-achievers students.

Table 6.1: The difference between achievers and under-achievers for CAPSES, stressors, negative self-esteem and mood, risky and deviant behaviors

	High Achievers	Under-achieverss
High CAPSES	• Low negative self-esteem • Low parent stressors	• High parent stressors • High teacher stressors • High peer stressors
Low CAPSES	• High negative self-esteem • High parent stressors	• Low parent stressors • Low teacher stressors • Low peer stressors
High Peer Stressors	• High deviant behavior • High negative self-esteem • High negative mood	n.s
Low Peer Stressors	• Low deviant behavior • Low negative self-esteem • Low negative mood	n.s
High Negative Mood	• High risky behavior	n.s
Low Negative Mood	• Low risky behavior	n.s

Notes: n.s = not significant

The findings from Table 6.1 indicate that achievers and the under-achiever are distinctive when the groups are compared according to CAPSES, peer stressors and negative mood. The following discussions are based on this table.

i) High CAPSES and High Achievers

As expected, the association between achievers and high SES resulted in low negative self-esteem and low parent stressors. In other words, it is highly likely that adolescents who possess a combination of wealth and good academic performance have higher self-esteem and good relationship with parents. Due to economic advantage, adolescents are given a head start such as a good pre-school education, educational supplements and other extra-curriculum activities that could enhance their human capital. On this point, Smyth (2008) has documented on the effect of private tuition on academic performance in Ireland and discovered that majority of students who are involved in private tuitions had good academic performance and high aspirations, had parents with tertiary education and parents working in higher professional category. Conversely, Bray and Kwok (2003) has also shown similar findings for students in Hong Kong. Hence, higher SES and academic achievers are more likely to have lower stress and higher self-esteem as they are more equipped with resources to assist them with their daily activities.

ii) Low CAPSES and Under-Achievers

It appears that adolescents with a low SES background and poor academic achievement are less affected by stressors from parents, teachers and peers. This could be due to lowered expectations given to these adolescents because of their inability to perform academically and their limited financial resources (De Civita, Pagani, Vitaro, & Tremblay, 2004). Kang (2007) pointed out that it is possible that parents, particularly from the lower economic group with a higher number of children, tend to invest less in education for children with

poor academic performance. Parents earning lower incomes would have to weigh the cost of educational investment to avoid the burden on household budgets (Bray & Kwok, 2003).

Interestingly, the groups that produced a mixture of findings are the achievers with low SES and the under-achievers with high SES. The following discussions emphasize on these groups.

iii) Low CAPSES and High Achievers

The findings of this study suggest, even among the achievers, negative self-esteem and parent stressors were high because of their low SES background. For these achievers, academic performance is tied to parental aspirations, with good academic performance results in higher parental aspirations (Zhang et al, 2007). However, due to low economic background, the achievers face higher stress and negative self-esteem as parents might not have the ability to provide high quality support systems due to their lack of knowledge and lack of financial resources (Chen, 2005). Academic achievers are expected to perform in school and cope with the pressure to perform in examinations and schoolwork, but if they are in the low SES category, the pressure is higher as they need to compete with well-off achievers who receive extra help through private tuition (Foondun, 2002; Kang, 2007).

Moreover, low SES achievers are under pressure to perform as education is seen as a means to obtain better job opportunities and a better life in the future. This is particularly true in the Asian culture which emphasizes on academic success, effort, self-improvement and to

have access to tertiary education which in the long run leads to a good career path (Liu et al., 2009).

iv) High CAPSES and Under-Achievers

The under-achievers with high SES in this study are shown to have high parent stressors, teacher stressors and peer stressors. Two possible explanations are apparent. First, the upper SES adolescents receive more financial and material support as parents could afford to invest in educational resources such as tuition, computers and books to help them with their studies (Bray & Kwok, 2003; Koivusilta et al., 2006). Thus, the expectations on them are higher as parents are able to provide material wealth and have the ability to invest in adolescent's education. Therefore the inability to achieve the good academic performance may create stressful situations with parents and negative self-esteem in adolescents (Koivusilta et al., 2006). This supports the Conservation of Resources Theory that attests when individuals invest to attain resources but the expected outcomes are insufficient, this will result in stress (Hobfoll, 2001).

A second explanation suggests parents in the upper socioeconomic status generally have higher aspirations for the children as they are able to monitor and assist adolescents with their schoolwork because of their higher educational attainment (Chen, 2005; Park, 2007). Past research has also shown that adolescents encounter more stress and low self-perception when parents interfere by showing interest to help and be involved in adolescents academic progress only after they show poor examination results (Chen, 2005). This is consistent with McNeal (1999) hypothesis that proposed parents generally adopt a reactive strategy

when adolescents show poor academic performance. To the under-achievers, parent's intervention could lead to more discipline in schoolwork, parental control and less entertainment such as watching television.

v) Peer Stressors and High Achievers

This study found that peer stressors have a significant influence on achievers causing high deviant behavior, high negative self-esteem and high negative mood among these adolescents. The report from the focus group discussion suggested that one of the reasons for peer stressors to occur is that these adolescents felt the pressure to be popular and be a member of this elite group in school. Consistent with the current finding, Intan Hashimah (2007) found that high achieving students in her study reported more problems because they lack social skills as they put less effort in social aspect and more focused on studying. Therefore, they have more relationship problems with peers in school. Similarly, Brady, Dolcini, Harper, and Pollack (2009) and Suldo and colleagues (2008) found that peer pressure from risk taking peers causes adolescents to be involved in high level of deviant behavior.

Furthermore, this study has found that a negative mood in adolescent achievers increases the chance performing risky behaviors. Contrary to this finding, Finn (2012) reported that students with lower grades and lower classroom participation were more likely to perform risky behavior such as the use of substance abuse. This is due to their feeling of frustration, as they perceive the lack of support from the school that led them to perform risky behaviors (Finn, 2012). Two possible explanations could be highlighted for the differing

results in the current study. First, students who are achievers face more stress in school due to higher expectations from parents and school to upkeep their level of performance. The next possible reason could be due to feeling bored and unchallenged by schoolwork as the achievers are usually advance in their work and knowledge.

vi) Peer Stressors and Under-Achievers

The current study revealed that the under-achievers did not have significant associations with peer stressors and negative mood as seen in the achievers group. This point was also raised in the focus group discussions when respondents reported peer stressors as secondary to parent stressors. To the under-achievers, parent stressors were more significant than any other stressors.

According to Shreemathi S. Mayya and Roff (2004) and Xin Ma (2007), academic under-achievers have lower self-perception, low perception of teachers and school environment as compared to the academic achievers. Due to these low expectations of self and the environment, adolescents might feel unconcerned or less affected by perceptions of others about them.

6.3 Contributions

Several substantive contributions were observed from the literature pertaining to socioeconomic status and wellbeing while carrying out this research. In general, the study has contributed to increase the understanding of contemporary concept of socioeconomic

status, home and school stressors, negative self-esteem, negative mood, risky and deviant behaviors in adolescents. The strengths of the study includes (i) the large number of adolescent respondents from urban schools, (ii) empirical data based on adolescent perceptions from a mixture of questionnaire survey and focus group discussion methods and (iii) the ability to calculate indirect estimates for the mediational pathway. In particular, the implications of this study are mentioned in the following sub-sections.

6.3.1 Theoretical Implications

This study has employed several major theories of human development and provides empirical support for the conceptual framework developed by Oakes and Rossi (2003) to examine the role of socioeconomic status and the consequences on stress and psychosocial wellbeing of adolescents in Malaysia. In particular, the Social Theory and Stress Theory are worth of mention.

There are several ways in which the present study has expanded on past research using these theories and model. First, this study explored a conceptual framework that incorporates material capital, human capital and social capital to represent socioeconomic status and associate it to stressors and psychosocial wellbeing in adolescents. The Social Capital by Coleman (1988) and the CAPSES model developed by Oakes and Rossi (2003) were explored and tested in this study to provide empirical support for their conceptual framework by extending it to adolescent sample in a developing country setting using variables that reflected this age group. The findings suggest that the multi-dimensional aspect of this CAPSES made it possible to measure the social complexities that are present in adolescents.

Second, this study has expanded the concept of Social Theory by examining adolescent's social capital by relating adolescents to other individuals such as school teachers and peers besides the family to acquire better understanding of their psychosocial wellbeing outside the family setting. As Bassani (2007) aptly points out, previous researches have examined social capital in only one group which is the family and this has hampered the development of social capital theory.

Moreover, numerous studies have examined family SES, and the peer group and teacher-student relationship as separate domains but limited research has investigated their effects together (West et al., 2006). The present study has attempted to bridge this gap by demonstrating the link between SES and these school based stressors.

In addition, the findings of this study has expanded the understanding of stress in adolescents by suggesting parent stressors and peer stressors have more influence on adolescent's negative self-esteem and negative mood than socioeconomic status as measured by CAPSES. Hence, the study provides empirical support for the role of peer stressors and parent stressors as mediators for the study model.

Finally, the study model which builds on the Stress Theory found that when incongruence occurs between person and environment, this will create stress and other adverse effects on behavior. In this case, the findings have shown that high achieving adolescents with a low SES background are more susceptible to negative self-esteem and parent stressors, while

low achievers with high SES backgrounds are vulnerable to parents, teacher and peer stressors. Therefore, the findings complement the Person-Environment Fit Theory.

6.3.2 Practical Implications

The results of this study offer several suggestions particularly to educators in Malaysian national high schools. The findings suggest that teachers have a significant influence on student behavior in school. Students aged 7-17 years in Malaysia spend a quarter of their time in school (Ministry of Education, 2012) which makes relationships with teachers and peers as important as the relationship with parents.

Past studies have shown that a positive teacher-student relationship is pivotal to engage students to improve commitment and resilience in learning, cultivate social skills development and reduce absenteeism (Barone, 2004; Buyse, Verschueren, Verachtert, & Van Damme, 2009; Demanet & Van Houtte, 2011). Thus, teachers need to play multiple roles in their position not only as an educator, but also as counselors who guide students socially and emotionally in order to use knowledge to make personal decisions. As Barone (2004) points out, teachers that are authoritarian creates a gap and dampens trust in the teacher-student relationship. This situation coupled with a rigid school climate could lead to indiscipline among students. This is evident in the focus group discussion findings in which majority of the respondents highlighted that they view the teachers and school counselors as untrustworthy and that they will not approach the teachers or counselors to communicate on their problems.

Moreover, for a positive teacher-student relationship, teachers should also show respect to students by refraining from shouting or cornering students and use sincere praise and positive comments to gain students' respect. Hence, teachers need to re-look at their roles and perhaps show more interest in developing students with low socioeconomic background, poor discipline and weak academic performance.

The second suggestion would be assigning a reliable peer helper to students who need extra help in coping with schoolwork and guidance in coping with peer pressure. Peers are easier to approach and understand the situations faced by students because of the similar level of thinking. Therefore, with proper training programs to specially selected students, they will be able to help other students facing these problems. A similar program titled 'The UNICEF Safe School Program'[2], in partnership with the of Ministry of Education and Help University was initiated in 2011 targeting several schools within the Klang Valley, have successfully coached teachers, administrative staff and students on social skills and problem solving skills on how to deal with school stressors such as bullying. It has been shown that with peer-to-peer coaching skills, students are empowered to use the right intervention technique and at the same time lend a hand to teachers. This strategy of assigning a peer helper is particularly helpful for teachers in the Malaysian national school to cope with the large number of students (more than 35 students) per class. Thus, more programs such as the safe school program should be made available to all schools throughout Malaysia.

[2] http://www.unicef.org/malaysia/reallives_5050.html, 19th August, 2014.

The third suggestion looks into creating classroom rules together with students, a strategy suggested by the National Disability Coordination Officer Program, Australia[3] to encourage positive classroom environment. This will enable students to commit to the rules that they create with the teacher to avoid or lessen unsolicited behaviors in class such as fighting, not doing work in class or poor attendance.

6.3.3 Policy Implications

Based on the findings of this study, it appears that school stressors and parent stressors are significant determinants of adolescents' psychosocial wellbeing. Since school stressors are pertinent to this study, suggestions on policy implications will be based on the present Malaysian education policy.

Currently, the Malaysian education system is going through a transformation phase based on the recent Malaysian Education Blueprint (2013-2025). In a nutshell, the policy undertakes strategies that allows decentralization of programs from district level and schools are given autonomy over budget and management of the school, improve on the leadership and up-skilling of teachers through mentoring and rewards system, changing assessment method of students from examination to higher order learning, integrating parents and community involvement in the schooling system and giving financial aid to students from lower income families (Ministry of Education, 2012).

[3] http://www.ndco.stepscs.net.au/documents/NDC-Implications and Strategies for the Inclusive Classroom- A resource for Teachers.pdf, 21st May 2013.

With these macro perspectives at hand, there is a need to develop a micro approach focusing on internal programs that emphasize on strengthening psychosocial wellbeing of the school community, in particular, students and teachers. As this study examines students' stressors, self-esteem, mood, and behavioral outcomes, the programs highlighted below are tailored to managing these aspects.

i) School-based programs

It is necessary for schools to create a supportive climate for students, particularly for under-achieving students, in order that they may develop a positive association with learning, good social skills with peers and teachers, and increase their sense of belonging in school. Programs should target strengthening student-teacher relationship, school-parent partnership and positive peer relationship to prevent negative emotional and behavioral outcomes among students.

a) Peer support program

Programs that emphasize on peer support such as the 'buddy program' is an effective strategy that has been implemented in the New South Wales public schools aiming at reducing peer pressure by improving students' self-confidence and self-esteem. The influence of peer pressure has been established in this study and several other studies in the past, thus a stronger call for schools in Malaysia to implement a peer support program such as the 'buddy program' to develop better communication between all members of the school community such as students (older and younger group), teachers and parents. With this 'buddy program', peer pressure, truancy and violence can be reduced by teaming up the older students with the younger ones for support. The program also helps break down

perception of inequalities due to socioeconomic status, gender or ethnicity. In addition, the program helps to train students as mediators to resolve peer conflicts as part of intervention strategy.

Students in Malaysia are burdened with a heavy workload, large number of students in a class and endure four examinations in a year on top of other pressures that they may find outside of school. Thus, students need to feel a sense of belonging and support from the school environment to develop their social skills and to be more engaged in learning. This can be achieved by a having good school environment that emphasizes more on human values in the teacher-student relationship and the relationship with peers.

b) Strengthening teacher-student relationship program

In Malaysia, it is common to find gaps in a teacher-student relationship as respect is considered an important aspect of the relationship and interaction is formal (Barone, 2004). Hence, to close this gap, teachers need to take the first step to build relationship with students in order to encourage open communication and participative learning in class.

Programs such as Teacher-Student Relationships (TSRs)[4] are shown to be effective in certain states in the USA to enhance teacher-student relationships, hence improving student participation and appropriate behavior in the classroom and improvement in grades. TSRs are particularly effective for at risk students. For this program, teachers are encouraged to make an effort to know more about their students, communicate often with students face-to-face and also connected electronically. For students with emotional and behavioral problems, weakly interaction with teachers, monthly calls to students at home, works as an

[4] http://www.apa.org/education/k12/relationships.aspx, 18th August, 2014.

intervention strategy to manage stress, reduce truancy, enhance their learning capacity and at the same time create a supportive and trusted environment that students can depend on.

By having similar programs in Malaysia, students will perceive teachers as more approachable, responsive and at the same time maintain a mutual respect with each other. Eventually, this will help to reduce stress in the teacher-student relationship and other school stressors.

c) Coaching and mentoring teachers program

Teachers' ability to handle students depends on their personality, personal experience dealing with children and mental state. Situations could be overwhelming when teachers have to deal with stress from workload, difficult students and at times difficult parents. Thus, teachers need extra support from school leaders and administrative staff to deal with these matters efficiently. Support such as mentoring by heads of school, administrative staff or school counselors could assist teachers in dealing with difficult situations. With the right methods in place, teachers are able to work effectively by having open communication with students and educating them effectively.

d) School-parent partnership program

Implementing school-parent partnership is beneficial for students and teachers because parents are able to contribute new ideas and feedback to the school administrators. With the partnership program, parents are able to develop closer ties with key school administrators and teachers in order to address any concerns that they may have regarding their children's progress. The current school system in Malaysia does encourage parent participation,

however it is limited to the quarterly parent-teacher discussion to assess student progress, the formal parents and teachers gathering, yearly school sports event, yearly invitations for religious prayers in school and for special cases like students with disciplinary problem.

Alternatively, other school-parent partnership programs such as School Learning Support Program (SLSP)[5] implemented by the New South Wales Department of Education is distinctive as it encourage parents to be involved not only in formal meetings but also informal meet-ups with staff by creating drop-in time, by organizing parent workshops led by staff, up-to-date information on school events, exam schedule, latest news such as new hiring, student achievements in the school website, and setup chat rooms in the school's website. This type of program is practical for working parents as SLSP programs encourages regular use of school's website and provide guidance to parents for home parental assistance that promotes positive support in terms of developing children's self-esteem and self-belief through schoolwork. With this school-parent connection, students will gain as parents learn how to deal with children's progress with the help of school staff, hence will lessen the pressure of parental expectations on the child.

e) Personal and guidance counseling program

As highlighted by Norhaniza (2010), symptoms of mental disorder are prevalent among children in Malaysia of which the prevalence in the urban areas are higher than the rural. This study supports the findings of Norhaniza (2010) as it was found the stress from home and peers resulted in negative self-esteem and negative mood. To counter this problem, the school administrators and counselors should create preventive programs that emphasize more on reducing risk factors and building resilience. It should be a priority for schools to

[5] http://www.worklinks.com.au/files/positively_engaging_parents.pdf, 18th August, 2014.

publicize the expected behaviors in school, rules and regulations and discipline plans in school.

It is also important that the existing school counselors take a precautionary step to screen students who are at risk of stress or for a more severe case, students at risk could be referred to relevant authorities so that proper intervention program could be implemented for these students. All these efforts could help students cope with stress and subsequently improve their overall wellbeing.

Furthermore, there is a need to place at least two trained counselors in each school for students to have easy access to these counselors. As found in this study, student trust in counsellors is paramount as many students highlighted issues concerning trustworthiness, sensitivity during sessions and confidentiality during focus group discussions. These issues were the main reasons for students avoiding counseling services in school.

ii) After school care and supervision

The after-school programs aim at enriching low SES adolescents with additional skills while keeping them away from unproductive activities that could be harmful to them. Program activities that include sports, music and homework help are beneficial as they enhances their learning opportunities and encourage positive interpersonal relationships among peers in a supervised environment. With the extra activities, under-achieving adolescents are able to develop talents for their future. In addition, the extra hours spent doing such activities will cut down on other activities such as watching television, playing

video games and loitering in shopping malls. Moreover, the after school programs will not only benefit the adolescents and parents, but also the community because the period spent after school between two o'clock to eight o'clock is said to be the time when juvenile crime and violence are most likely to occur (Fight Crime/ Invest in Kids, 1997, as cited in Sarampote, Bassett, and Winsler (2004)). With after school programs, there is higher likelihood of adolescents being occupied with extra activities and less chance of them spending time hanging out.

This program could be conducted at the school ground or nearby community centers, while the staff and transportation could be deployed by education departments at the district level. The under-achieving Malaysian adolescents would benefit most from such after-school programs as they will receive proper guidance from trained personnel and most importantly, they will be surrounded with a positive environment that will help them to develop further.

6.4 Limitations of the Study

As this is the first attempt in using this model in adolescent sampling population, this study is not without its limitations. Owing to the constraints in carrying out this research, the surveys were conducted in schools in Kuala Lumpur. Additionally, only Form Four students (Grade 11) were selected as they were not subjected to major national examinations as students in Form Three and Form Five. The respondents did not include non-school goers in other urban and rural areas. Hence, due to the reasons provided, it is difficult to generalize the findings to different settings. Moreover, the nature of a self-reporting survey has its drawback as there is a likelihood that respondents could under report or over report their responses. Thus, the study would have benefitted from employing multiple sources of informants such as parents and teachers. However, the authors had taken necessary steps to inform participants that their response will be kept strictly confidential in the hope that they will give their honest response to the survey. Student participation was voluntary, thus those students who did not participate were probably the ones in the lower SES and could be valuable in providing input on the subject matter.

Second, the current model suggests the amount variances explained by the model for negative self-esteem, negative mood, risky behavior and deviant behavior are weak. Due to the nature of the study, which employed a cross-sectional approach, it was difficult to determine the causal direction of these relationships. Hence a longitudinal design approach would be more accurate in examining the causal relations among variables.

Third, it is also important to address that this study only utilized parent's occupation as the conventional measure of SES which limits some of the findings of this study. Perhaps by adding parent's education, the comparison between the conventional SES and CAPSES on stressors would carry more weight and a better comparison can be made between both SES dimensions. As suggested by Grzywacz et al. (2004), using parent's education attainment as the benchmark is most appropriate for the adolescent population as it is more comparable across men and women, single and married than occupation and income. Moreover, parent's education attainment often received a more complete response than occupation and income.

Fourth, the present study did not control other demographic data that may influence stressors, behavioral and emotional outcomes such as gender, the number of siblings and other forms of family structure such as adoptive parents and stepparents. Studies have shown that there is an association between gender-specific associations between family stressors and internalizing and externalizing behaviors (Grant et al., 2004; Mey, 2010; Sherman, Duarte, & Verdeli, 2011) and family size (larger the family size is associated to lesser parental resources) (Kirkcaldy et al., 2003). In terms of family structure, Heard, Gorman and Kapinus (2008) attest to different family structures influencing the social support given to adolescents. Thus, future research should consider separating family structure to gauge family influence accurately.

Fifth, in determining the socioeconomic status of adolescents (low and high SES), CAPSES were calculated as a composite measure in which the components of CAPSES (material,

human and social capital) were weighted evenly, whilst some of the studies in the literature have given more weight to material and human capital than social capital. However, this study maintains that social capital should receive the same weight as the rest due to its importance in gaining social resources. As proposed by Bassani (2007) and (Coleman, 1990), social capital is crucial because it is through social networking with others that individuals gain knowledge and material resources.

6.5 Suggestions for Future Research

In the previous section, limitations of this study were addressed. Due to these limitations, it is only appropriate that suggestions are forwarded for future research. The recommendations are as follows:

The empirical data of this research was based on adolescents' point of view as a source of information. To obtain a more accurate and holistic data on adolescents, it is recommended that future research should gather data from multiple informants such as parents, teachers and peers to examine social relationships and stressors in adolescents. This will enhance the robustness of the study methods.

The findings of this study were based on schools in the city of Kuala Lumpur. Future research could extend this research to other cities in Malaysia to obtain more conclusive findings on the urban adolescent population with regards to the association between SES, stressors and psychological and behavioral wellbeing. Furthermore, research could also be

extended to rural areas to examine if there is a difference between adolescent's psychological and behavioral wellbeing in the urban and rural areas.

This research employed the cross-sectional approach to investigate the relationship between SES, stressors and psychosocial wellbeing. Nonetheless, it is highly recommended that future research consider the longitudinal design approach to gain in-depth knowledge on the causal relations among variables. Furthermore, a longitudinal study would help explain human behaviors, perceptions and other environmental factors that are foreseen to change over time.

It is important to highlight that social capital, which is one of the component of CAPSES, was based on questions relating to support and empathy in the parents-adolescent and teacher-adolescent relationship. According to Coleman (1988, 1990), trust and loyalty is an important area to examine, and future studies may include these variables in the relationship between adolescents and parents, teachers and peers.

The role of paternal support is important to protect adolescents from being involved in externalizing behaviors (Bean et al., 2006). This shows that fathers, instead of playing the supportive role need to step up as the leading person and work closely with mothers to monitor their children for a more conducive and nurturing environment. It is suggested that this study can be extended by adding in the different roles of parental stressors between mothers and fathers on adolescent's psychosocial outcomes. In addition, future research

should also investigate the effect of biological parents and stepparents on adolescent's psychosocial wellbeing to gauge family influence accurately. As Heard and colleagues (2008) point out, different family structure influence the social support given to adolescents.

Prior research has also found that gender and ethnicity have a significant influence on adolescent's stressors and psychosocial wellbeing (G. A. Carlson & Grant, 2008; Grant et al., 2004; Smith & Ashiabi, 2007). Future studies should look into studying the role of gender and ethnicity on wellbeing to better understand the impact it has on the adolescents in Malaysia.

6.6 Conclusion

This study examined the relation between socioeconomic status and stressors and psychosocial wellbeing in a school sample of Malaysian adolescents. The literature suggests that socioeconomic status is a significant determinant of adolescent's wellbeing, however it is challenging to accurately predict the influence of SES has on adolescent's wellbeing, simply because SES has been measured in numerous ways and this has resulted in different health outcomes. In addition, there are many other factors other than economic factors that affect adolescents' wellbeing and this is more obvious in the low SES adolescents (Bradley & Corwyn, 2002).

The findings from this study have contributed to the literature on socioeconomic variations in wellbeing in three ways. First, by developing a socioeconomic indicator that encompasses various perspectives (material, human and social capital) to gauge health inequalities in adolescents. Next, by including parent stressors, teacher stressors and peer stressors to gauge the wellbeing of adolescents in addition to SES. Finally, by creating achiever and under-achiever group of adolescents based on the sample population to assess for variations that exist between the two groups.

The study found that SES was not the main determinant of adolescents' wellbeing; instead, parent stressors, peer stressors and teacher stressors exerted a greater influence on wellbeing. In addition, different stressors affected wellbeing differently. For example, parent stressors affected adolescents' psychological wellbeing (self-esteem, mood) and teacher and peer stressors impacted the behavioral outcomes (risky and deviant behaviors), while peer stressors significantly influenced both psychological and behavioral outcomes. A closer look at the variations between the achiever and under-achiever adolescents reveal peer stressors had more influence on the achievers and not the under-achievers. This indicates that achievers are more susceptible to stress, as they need to continuously compete with peers to attain good academic achievements as well as meeting the expectations of parents and teachers. Hence, this study represents a stronger call for school efforts to focus not only on the non-achieving students, but also achieving students to lessen the effect of stress on them as well as adopting a school culture that not only emphasize on academic results but also looks at humanitarian values and human relations.

The findings from this study have shown that stress has is one of the main contributors to adolescents' mental health and maladaptive behavior. Thus, it is hoped that with proper intervention, stressful conditions can be dealt with and the wellbeing of our youth can be enhanced.

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APPENDIX A – PERMISSION LETTER TO EDUCATION DEPARTMENT, KUALA LUMPUR

Pegawai Pendaftar,
Bahagian Pendaftar Sekolah,
Jabatan Pelajaran Wilayah Persekutuan Kuala Lumpur,
Persiaran Duta, Off Jalan Duta,
50604 Kuala Lumpur. 20 Januari 2010.

Melalui: 1) Penyelia
Prof. Madya Dr. Sulochana Nair _____

Tuan / Puan,

Keizinan Menjalani Kajian Di Sekolah-Sekolah Menengah Di Sekitar Wilayah Persekutuan

Merujuk perkara di atas, saya penuntut siswazah (PhD) telah merancang untuk mengendalikan kajian ke atas pelajar di sekolah menengah (Tingkatan 4) di sekitar kawasan Wilayah Persekutuan. Kajian ini yang bertajuk 'Psychosocial Dimensions of Poverty' mengkaji kesan faktor sosio-ekonomi dan faktor persekitaran pelajar ke atas tahap psikologi, kelakuan serta pencapaian akedemik mereka. Pelajar-pelajar akan diberi kertas soal selidik dan soalan-soalan akan dibacakan oleh saya serta pembantu penyelidik.

2. Penyelidikan ini amat penting untuk mengenal pasti faktor kemungkinan yang menyebabkan kesan mental dan kelakuan di kalangan remaja dan pencapaian akademik / intelektual. Dengan tumpuan dan hasil penyelidikan ini, diharap dapat membantu negara menghasilkan generasi muda yang cemerlang dan berjaya di masa hadapan.

3. Untuk makluman tuan/puan, saya telah pun mendapat kelulusan daripada Kementerian Pelajaran Malaysia untuk mengendalikan kajian ini (sila lihat pada lampiran). Oleh yang demikian besarlah harapan saya agar tuan/puan dapat memberikan keizinan untuk kajian ini dijalankan pada bulan Mac sehingga bulan Julai 2010.

Sekian untuk tindakan dan makluman tuan/puan. Atas kerjasama tuan/puan, saya dahului dengan ucapan ribuan terima kasih.

Yang menjalankan tugas,

_____

(SHARIFAH MUHAIRAH SHAHABUDIN)
Penuntut PhD
Fakulti Ekonomi dan Pentadbiran
Universiti Malaya
h/p: 012-6912700; email: muhairah@hotmail.com

APPENDIX B - PARENTAL CONSENT FORM

Research on factors that influence social wellbeing and academic achievements of students in Klang Valley

Dear Parents:

Your child's school has been selected to be part of a research study on the effect of school and home environments on students' performance in school and overall behavior on the _____. The researcher is interested in learning about your child's social, emotional and physical wellbeing and his / her views on dealing with stressful environment. This important information will greatly assist parents, teachers, counselors and psychologists in their search to know more about how to help teenagers have satisfying and positive experience at home and in school.

The participation in this research includes:

1. A questionnaire survey (filling out approximately 40 minutes) OR
2. Group interview at the school which will be audiotape recorded (only selected students)
3. Look into students' school record and report card

*The time used for research will not interrupt students' lessons for main subjects

Following the standard guidelines, this study has been approved by the Ministry of Education, Wilayah Persekutuan Department of Education and the school. Your child's participation in this study is voluntary and his / her responses to the questionnaire will be kept confidential. Your child's responses will not be presented in school. The only individuals who will have access to the survey are the persons involved in this research. If at any time you wish to withdraw your child from the study, he / she will be allowed to do so without penalty. If you do not wish your child to participate in the survey, please call the person responsible for the study, Muhairah Shahabudin to inform her that your child is not taking part in the survey.

Should you require further clarification about this study, please contact any of the following persons:

1-Muhairah Shahabudin
PhD student
Faculty of Economics & Administration
University Malaya
012-6912700

2-Dr. Sulochana Nair
Supervisor
Faculty of Economics & Administration
University Malaya
03-79673766

3-Prof. Low Wah Yun
Supervisor
Faculty of Medicine
University Malaya
03-79675729

Thank you.

APPENDIX C - STUDENT PERMISSION FORM

Research on social wellbeing and academic achievements of students in Klang Valley

Dear Students:

Your school has been selected to be part of a research study on the effect of school and home environments on students' performance in school and overall behavior. The researcher is interested in learning about your social, emotional and physical wellbeing and your views on dealing with stressful environment. This important information will greatly assist parents, teachers, counselors and psychologists in their search to know more about how to help teenagers have satisfying and positive experience at home and in school.

The participation in this research includes:

1. A questionnaire survey
2. A possible interview at the school which will be audiotape recorded (only selected students)
3. Look into students' school record and report card

Please remember that your participation in this study is voluntary and your responses to the questionnaire will be kept confidential. Students' responses will not be presented in school or to parents. The only individuals who will have access to the survey are the persons involved in this research. If you do not wish to participate in the survey, please check the box "NO" below, then sign this form and return it to the research administrator in your class.

Should you require further clarification about this study, please contact any of the following persons:

1-Muhairah Shahabudin	**2-Dr. Sulochana Nair**	**3-Prof. Low Wah Yun**
PhD student	Supervisor	Supervisor
Faculty of Economics & Administration	Faculty of Economics & Administration	Faculty of Medicine
University Malaya	University Malaya	University Malaya
012-6912700	03-79673766	03-79675729

Student's name: _____ Class:_____

School: _____

☐ NO, I do not want to take part in this survey

Student's signature: _____ Date: _____

Phone number: _____

APPENDIX D1 – QUESTIONNAIRE IN MALAY

KAJIAN MENGENAI FAKTOR-FAKTOR YANG MEMPENGARUHI KEADAAN SOSIAL SERTA PENCAPAIAN AKADEMIK PELAJAR-PELAJAR DI KUALA LUMPUR, 2010

UNTUK KEGUNAAN PEJABAT:

NAMA PENTADBIR : _____

TARIKH : _____

MASA BERMULA : _____

MASA BERAKHIR : _____

DISEMAK OLEH : _____

FAKULTI EKONOMI DAN PENTADBIRAN
UNIVERSITI MALAYA

TOPIK: FAKTOR-FAKTOR YANG MEMPENGARUHI KEADAAN SOSIAL SERTA PENCAPAIAN AKADEMIK PELAJAR-PELAJAR DI KUALA LUMPUR.

Pelajar sekalian:

Sekolah anda telah dipilih untuk mengambil bahagian dalam suatu kajian mengenai kesan persekitaran di rumah dan di sekolah terhadap pencapaian pelajar di sekolah serta kelakuan keseluruhan. Saya berminat untuk mengetahui kesihatan sosial, emosi dan fizikal anda serta pendapat anda tentang cara-cara menangani keadaan sekeliling yang penuh tekanan.

Soal selidik ini akan mengambil masa kira-kira 40 minit dan bukanlah sebahagian daripada kurikulum sekolah dan tidak akan mempengaruhi keputusan akademik anda. Sebagai peringatan, nama dan jawapan anda akan dirahsiakan dan tidak akan didedahkan kepada pihak sekolah atau ibubapa. Mereka yang akan dapat melihat soal selidik ini hanyalah mereka yang terlibat dalam kajian ini.

Jika anda memerlukan keterangan lanjut tentang soal selidik ini, sila kemukakan soalan anda kepada pihak pentadbir berkenaan. Setelah melengkapkan soal selidik ini, sila tunggu di tempat duduk anda sehingga soal selidik anda disemak dan dikumpul oleh pihak pentadbir.

Terima kasih atas penyertaan anda.

SULIT

Bahagian A – Latar Belakang Sosio-Ekonomi

Sila jawab soalan dengan mengisi di tempat kosong atau bulatkan di jawapan yang sesuai.

1 Nama Sekolah:

1 SMK Desa Perdana	2 SMK Desa Petaling	3 SMK Seri Saujana
4 SMK Taman Tun Dr Ismail	5 SMK Vivekananda	6 SMK Seri Pantai
7 SMK Miharja	8 SMK Seri Mutiara	9 SMK Cochrane Perkasa
10 SMK Dato' Lokman	11 SMK Taman Maluri	12 SMK Yaacob Latif
13 SMK Seri Sentosa	14 SMK Dato' Onn	15 SMK Bandar Tun Razak

2 Jenis Kelas: 1-Sains 2-Sastera

3 Jantina: 1-Lelaki 2-Perempuan

4 Umur _____

5 Bangsa: 1-Melayu 2-Cina 3-India (termasuk Punjabi, Sri Lanka)
4-Sarawakian / Sabahan 5-- Lain-lain (sila nyatakan:_____)

6 Agama: 1-Islam 2-Kristian 3-Hindu

4-Buddha 5-Confucious/Tao 6-Sikh

7-Lain-lain (sila nyatakan: _____)

7 Sila catitkan gred keputusan PMR anda untuk subjek-subjek tersenarai:

Keputusan PMR	**Gred**
a) Bahasa Malaysia	
b) Bahasa Inggeris	
c) Matematik	
d) Sains	
e) Geografi	
f) Sejarah	

8 Adakah anda menerima biasiswa dari kerajaan untuk pembiayaan sekolah?

1-Ya 2-Tidak

9 Adakah anda pelajar Tingkatan 4 yang baru berpindah dari sekolah lain?

1-Ya 2-Tidak

10 Keluarga terdiri daripada: 1-Ibu & bapa 2-Bapa sahaja

3-Ibu sahaja 4-Penjaga

5-Lain-lain, sila nyatakan:_____

11 Jumlah adik-beradik yang tinggal di rumah: _____

12 Berapa banyakkah bilik tidur terdapat di rumah anda?

_____ bilik

13 Adakah anda mempunyai ruang belajar untuk membuat kerja sekolah atau ulangkaji?
(*Ruang belajar tidak semestinya mempunyai ruang yang besar. Ruang belajar juga boleh diletakkan di saty sudut rumah. Memadai dengan sebuah meja dan kerusi belajar)*

1- Ya 2- Tidak

14 Adakah anda mempunyai komputer (yang masih boleh digunakan) di rumah?

1- Ya 2- Tidak

15 Pernahkah anda menggunakan komputer untuk faedah pembelajaran?

1- Ya 2- Tidak

16 Adakah anda mempunyai televisyen di rumah?

1- Ya 2- Tidak (*sila ke soalan 18*)

17 Adakah masa-masa yang tertentu yang dibenarkan untuk menonton televisyen?

1- Ya 2- Tidak

18 Adakah ibubapa anda bekerja? a-Bapa: 1-Ya 2-Tidak

Jika Ya, sila nyatakan pekerjaan bapa: _____

b-Ibu 1-Ya 2-Tidak

Jika Ya, sila nyatakan pekerjaan ibu: _____

19 Berapa kerapkah anda bersarapan pagi?

1- Hari-hari 2- Kadang-kadang 3- Tidak pernah

20 Jika tidak pernah, mengapakah anda tidak bersarapan pagi?

1- Tidak cukup masa
2- Tiada wang / tidak mampu
3- Tidak berminat
4- Lain-lain, sila nyatakan _____

21 Selalunya, adakah anda membawa bekalan makanan dari rumah?

1-Ya 2-Tidak

22 Adakah anda diberi wang belanja untuk ke sekolah?

1-Ya 2-Tidak (*sila ke soalan 25 dan seterusnya)*

23 Berapakah anggaran jumlah wang perbelanjaan harian / mingguan / bulanan sekolah yang diberikan oleh ibubapa/penjaga? ***(Sila pilih salah satu)***

RM_____sehari atau RM_____seminggu atau

RM_____sebulan

24 Selalunya, adakah wang perbelanjaan yang diterima mencukupi untuk perbelanjaan makanan?

1-Ya 2-Tidak

25 Pernahkah anda ke sekolah Tadika?

1-Ya 2- Tidak (*sila ke soalan 27*)

26 Berapa lamakah anda belajar di Tadika?

1-Satu tahun 2- Dua tahun 3- Tiga tahun 4- Lebih dari tiga tahun

27 Pernahkah anda pergi ke kelas tuisyen?

1- Ya 2- Tidak (*sila ke soalan 29)*

28 Apakah subjek yang diambil untuk tuisyen pada tahun ini?

Subjek: _____

29 Apakah jenis bahan bacaan yang anda baca di rumah?
(Anda dibenarkan untuk menjawab lebih dari satu jenis bahan bacaan)

1- Surat khabar 2- Majalah

3- Buku cerita 4- Buku agama

5- Komik 6- Jenis Ensiklopedia

7- Lain-lain, sila nyatakan _____

30 Adakah rumah anda berdekatan dengan perpustakaan awam?

1- Ya 2- Tidak *(sila ke soalan 32)*

31 Pernahkan anda pergi ke perpustakaan awam tersebut?
(Sila anggarkan kekerapan ke perpustakaan)

1- Tidak pernah
2- Jarang-jarang (setahun sekali)
3- Kadang-kadang (sebulan sekali)
4- Selalu (> semiggu sekali)

32 Apakah aktiviti-aktiviti yang anda lakukan selepas waktu persekolahan?
(Jangan menghadkan jawapan anda kepada jawapan yang tertera sahaja)

1- Tuisyen
2- Latihan musik (piano, guitar, choir, dll)
3- Bersukan (bolasepak, taekwando, dll)
4- Berlepak dengan rakan di kompleks
5- Bekerja sambilan
6- Lain-lain:_____
(Sila nyatakan)

33 Apakah aktiviti-aktiviti yang anda lakukan pada hari minggu (Sabtu dan Ahad)?
(Jangan menghadkan jawapan anda kepada jawapan yang tertera sahaja)

1- Tuisyen
2- Latihan musik (piano, guitar, choir, dll)
3- Bersukan (bolasepak, taekwando, dll)
4- Berlepak dengan rakan di kompleks
5- Bekerja sambilan
6- Lain-lain:_____
(Sila nyatakan)

Bahagian B – Senarai Inventori Tekanan Hidup dan Sumber Sosial

Soalan berikut adalah berkaitan dengan **ibu atau ibu tiri anda serta bapa atau bapa tiri anda**. Jika anda mempunyai kedua-dua ibu (atau ibu tiri) dan bapa (atau bapa tiri), sila jawab soalan yang telah disediakan. Jika anda tiada ibu/ibu tiri atau bapa/bapa tiri, tuliskan N/A di bahagian tajuk "ibu/ibu tiri" atau "bapa/bapa tiri" dan terus ke soalan 24. Sila isikan jawapan anda tentang ibu/ibu tiri dan bapa/bapa tiri di tempat kosong yang disediakan..

Dalam tahun yang lalu:

		Ibu / Ibu Tiri	**Bapa / Bapa Tiri**
1	Adakah hubungan anda dengan _____ bertambah teruk?	1-Ya 2-Tidak	1-Ya 2-Tidak
2	Adakah _____anda mengalami kemalangan atau kecederaan?	1-Ya 2-Tidak	1-Ya 2-Tidak
3	Adakah _____ anda dimasukkan ke wad hospital atas sebarang alasan?	1-Ya 2-Tidak	1-Ya 2-Tidak
4a	Adakah _____ anda kehilangan pekerjaannya?	1-Ya 2-Tidak (sila ke soalan 5a	1-Ya 2-Tidak (sila ke soalan 5a)
4b	Adakah _____ anda telah bekerja semula sejak kehilangan pekerjaannya?	1-Ya 2-Tidak	1-Ya 2-Tidak
5a	Adakah _____ anda mempunyai sebarang penyakit atau masalah, seperti kanser, penyakit jantung, lenguh sendi, tekanan darah tinggi, kesukaran untuk bernafas yang teruk , batuk yang berterusan, diabetes, berasa sangat letih, atau selesema yang kerap? (Jangan menghadkan jawapan anda kepada penyakit yang tertera di atas sahaja).	1-Ya 2-Tidak (sila ke soalan 6a	1-Ya 2-Tidak (sila ke soalan 6a)
5b	Jika Y Adakah ia berlaku pada tahun lalu?	1-Ya 2-Tidak	1-Ya 2-Tidak
6a	Adakah _____ anda mempunyai masalah emosi atau perlakuan, seperti berasa sangat sedih atau murung, mengambil alkohol atau dadah yang berlebihan, serta mempunyai masalah dengan undang-undang? (Jangan menghadkan jawapan anda kepada penyakit yang tertera di atas sahaja).	1-Ya 2-Tidak (sila ke soalan 8)	1-Ya 2-Tidak (sila ke Soalan 8)
6b	Jika Ya: Adakah ia berlaku pada tahun lalu?	1-Ya 2-Tidak	1-Ya 2-Tidak
7	Adakah _____ anda telah sembuh daripada penyakit atau masalah emosi?	1-Ya 2-Tidak	1-Ya 2-Tidak
8	Adakah hubungan anda dengan_____anda tela	1-Ya 2-Tidak	1-Ya 2-Tidak

	bertambah baik?		

Sila bulatkan di jawapan yang sesuai mengikut skala yang diberi.

Definasi skala: ***Jarang (kurang daripada 2 kali setahun)***
Kadang kali (beberapa kali setahun)
Kerap (sekali atau dua kali sebulan)
Selalu (setiap minggu)

Apabila anda meluangkan masa dengan _____ anda, berapa kerap:

		Ibu / ibu tiri	**Bapa / Bapa tiri**
9	Anda bertengkar atau berlawan dengannya	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu
10	Dia mengkritik anda atau tidak bersetuju dengan anda?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu
11	Dia membuatkan anda marah?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu
12	Dia naik marah atau memarahi anda?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu
13	Dia menaruh harapan yang terlalu tinggi k atas anda?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap

		5 Selalu	5 Selalu
		Ibu / ibu tiri	**Bapa / Bapa tiri**
14	Dia terlampau tegas, tidak membenarkan anda melakukan apa yang diingini?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu
15	Dia terlalu menekankan untuk berjaya dalam bidang akademik, sukan atau hobi?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu
16	Anda boleh mengharapkan bantuan daripadanya apabila anda memerlukannya?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu
17	Dia menceriakan anda apabila anda sedih atau resah?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu
18	Anda berasa seronok, ketawa atau bergura dengannya?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu
19	Dia memahami perasaan anda secara keseluruhannya?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu

		Ibu / ibu tiri	**Bapa / Bapa tiri**
20	Adakah dia menghormati keputusan anda?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu

Berikut adalah soalan tentang **sekolah dan aktiviti di sekolah** anda. Aktiviti di luar sekolah seperti aktiviti dengan rakan yang lain atau kelab dan persatuan di luar sekolah **tidak** diambil kira.

Dalam 12 bulan yang lalu:

21	Adakah anda telah cuba menyertai kelab atau pasukan sekolah, tetapi tidak berjaya?	1-Ya 2-Tidak
22	Adakah anda terlibat dengan masalah disiplin di sekolah (contoh: kerana melanggar peraturan sekolah seperti bergaduh/ tidak buat kerja sekolah/ ponteng dan lain-lain?	1-Ya 2-Tidak
23	Adakah anda pernah digantung sekolah?	1-Ya 2-Tidak
24	Adakah anda ditangguh / tidak dapat naik kelas selama setahun d sekolah?	1-Ya 2-Tidak
25	Adakah rakan sekolah anda mengasingkan anda?	1-Ya 2-Tidak
26	Adakah anda berpindah ke sekolah yang lebih teruk?	1-Ya 2-Tidak
27	Adakah anda menjadi ahli pasukan atau kelab (sukan, koir, dan lain-lain)?	1-Ya 2-Tidak
28	Adakah anda telah mendapat anugerah untuk pencapaian sekolah	1-Ya 2-Tidak
29	Adakah anda didorong / dipengaruhi oleh seorang guru yang baik	1-Ya 2-Tidak
30	Adakah anda berpindah ke sekolah yang lebih baik?	1-Ya 2-Tidak
31	Adakah anda berjaya menjadi sebahagian daripada kumpulan rakan-rakan di sekolah seperti yang anda inginkan (contoh: berkawan dengan kumpulan yang terkenal di sekolah dan lain-lain)?	1-Ya 2-Tidak

Berikut adalah soalan berkenaan **pelajar lain** di sekolah.

Sila bulatkan di jawapan yang sesuai mengikut skala yang diberi.

Berapa kerapkah:

32	Anda bertengkar atau bergaduh dengan pelajar di sekolah?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu
33	Pelajar di sekolah mengkritik anda atau tidak bersetuju dengan anda?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu
34	Pelajar di sekolah membuatkan anda marah?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu
35	Pelajar di sekolah naik marah atau memarahi anda?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu
36	Pelajar di sekolah menaruh harapan yang terlalu tinggi ke atas anda?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu
37	Anda merasai tekanan yang tinggi untuk bersaing dengan pelajar-pelajar lain di sekolah?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu

Berikut adalah soalan-soalan tentang **guru, jurulatih dan kaunselor** sekolah anda.
Jika anda tiada tidak berurusan dengan jurulatih / kaunselor, tuliskan N/A di bahagian tajuk "jurulatih" atau "kaunselor" dan jawab soalan yang berkenaan sahaja berdasarkan skala yang diberikan

Berapa kerapkah:

		Guru	**Jurulatih**	**Kaunselor**
38	Anda bertengkar atau berlawan dengan mereka?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu
39	Mereka mengkritik anda atau tidak bersetuju dengan anda?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu
40	Mereka membuatkan anda marah?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu
41	Mereka naik marah atau memarahi anda?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu
42	Mereka menaruh harapan yang terlalu tinggi ke atas anda atau member anda kerja rumah terlalu banyak?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu
43	Anda boleh mengharapkan bantuan daripada mereka apabila anda memerlukannya?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu

44	Mereka menceriakan anda apabila anda sedih atau resah?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu
45	Anda berasa seronok, ketawa atau bergurau dengan mereka?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu
46	Mereka memahami perasaan anda secara keseluruhannya?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu
47	Adakah mereka menghormati keputusan anda?	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu	1 Tidak pernah 2 Jarang 3 Kadang kali 4 Kerap 5 Selalu

Bahagian C – Perasaan & Emosi

Pilih ayat yang menggambarkan dengan tepat keadaan anda dalam masa DUA MINGGU YANG LEPAS.

Sila tandakan pada kotak di sebelah jawapan anda.

1. ☐ Sekali-sekala saya rasa sedih. ☐ Kerapkali saya rasa sedih. ☐ Saya rasa sedih sepanjang masa. ☐ Saya tidak pernah berasa sedih	2. ☐ Ada perkara yang mengganggu saya sepanjang masa. ☐ Kerapkali ada perkara yang mengganggu saya. ☐ Sekali-sekala ada perkara yang mengganggu saya.
3. ☐ Tidak ada apa yang akan menjadi untuk saya. ☐ Saya tidak pasti samada ada perkara yang akan menjadi untuk saya. ☐ Banyak perkara akan menjadi untuk saya.	4. ☐ Saya kelihatan O.K. ☐ Ada beberapa perkara tidak elok tentang rupa saya. ☐ Rupa saya hodoh.
5. ☐ Saya lakukan hampir semua perkara dengan baik . ☐ Saya lakukan banyak perkara salah. ☐ Saya lakukan kesemua perkara salah.	6. ☐ Saya tidak rasa keseorangan. ☐ Kerap kali saya rasa keseorangan. ☐ Saya rasa keseorangan sepanjang masa. .
7. ☐ Saya benci diri saya. ☐ Saya tidak suka diri saya. ☐ Saya suka diri saya .	8. ☐ Saya ada ramai kawan. ☐ Saya ada beberapa orang kawan tetapi mahukan ramai lagi. ☐ Saya tidak ada kawan.
9. ☐ Saya rasa hendak menangis setiap hari. ☐ Saya rasa hendak menangis pada banyak hari. ☐ Saya rasa hendak menangis sekali-sekala . ☐ Saya tidak pernah rasa hendak menangis	10. ☐ Tidak ada siapa yang benar-benar sayang pada saya . ☐ Saya tidak pasti kalau ada orang yang sayang pada saya. ☐ Saya pasti ada orang yang sayang pada saya.

Bahagian D – Perilaku Remaja

Berikut merupakan satu senarai aktiviti-aktiviti negatif yang anda mungkin terlibat dalam atau di luar kawasan sekolah.

Sila nyatakan jawapan anda kepada setiap kenyataan berikut dengan membulatkan SATU nombor dalam skala yang disediakan.

Dalam tahun yang lalu, berapa kerap anda lakukan yang demikian?

1	Mengambil barang milik orang lain	0 Tidak pernah 1 Sekali atau dua 2 Beberapa kali 3 Kerap 4 Banyak kali
2	Sengaja merosakkan barang yang berharga	0 Tidak pernah 1 Sekali atau dua 2 Beberapa kali 3 Kerap 4 Banyak kali
3	Berlawan dengan menggunakan senjata (contoh: pisau, cota, kayu, dll)	0 Tidak pernah 1 Sekali atau dua 2 Beberapa kali 3 Kerap 4 Banyak kali
4	Merokok	0 Tidak pernah 1 Sekali atau dua 2 Beberapa kali 3 Kerap 4 Banyak kali

5	Mengambil dadah - pelbagai jenis dadah selain daripada yang ditentukan oleh doktor. (Contoh: ganja, gam, ecstasy, ice, crack, fit, fizzies, dollies, morfin, opium, dll)	0 Tidak pernah 1 Sekali atau dua 2 Beberapa kali 3 Kerap 4 Banyak kali
6	Meminum arak / alkohol	0 Tidak pernah 1 Sekali atau dua 2 Beberapa kali 3 Kerap 4 Banyak kali
7	Mencarut (kata-kata yang tidak baik seperti sial, anak haram, bitch, fuck, dll)	0 Tidak pernah 1 Sekali atau dua 2 Beberapa kali 3 Kerap 4 Banyak kali
8	Mengadakan hubungan seksual dengan seseorang yang berlainan jantina	0 Tidak pernah 1 Sekali atau dua 2 Beberapa kali 3 Kerap 4 Banyak kali
9	Membaca atau melihat bahan lucah daripada majalah, vcd, internet, MMS, SMS)	0 Tidak pernah 1 Sekali atau dua 2 Beberapa kali 3 Kerap 4 Banyak kali

TERIMA KASIH ATAS KERJASAMA ANDA

APPENDIX D2 – QUESTIONNAIRE IN ENGLISH (SECTION A WHICH IS IN MALAY IS EXCLUDED)

TOPIC: FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE SOCIAL WELLBEING AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENTS OF STUDENTS IN KUALA LUMPUR.

Dear Students:

Your school has been selected to be part of a research study on the effect of school and home environments on students' performance in school and overall behavior. I am interested in learning about your social, emotional and physical wellbeing and your views on dealing with stressful environment.

This survey will take approximately 40 minutes and is not part of the school curriculum and does not affect your academic results in school.

Please remember that your responses to the questionnaire will be kept anonymous and confidential and will not be presented in school or to parents. The only individuals who will have access to the survey are the persons involved in this research.

If you need further clarification about the survey please ask the survey administrator in-charge. After completing the survey, please wait at your seat until your questionnaire has been checked and collected by the administrator.

Thank you for your participation.

Section B – Life Stressors and Social Resources Inventory (Moos & Moos, 1994)

The following questions ask about your mother or stepmother and your father or stepfather. If you have both a mother or stepmother and a father or stepfather, please answer the questions
provided.
If you do not have a mother/stepmother or a father/stepfather, **write N/A** in the in first column under the heading Mother/ Stepmother or Father/Stepfather. Please fill in your answer about your mother/stepmother and father/stepfather in the margins allocated.

In the last year:

		Mother/Stepmother	Father/Stepfather
1	Has your relationship with your _____changed for the worse?	1-Yes 2-No	1-Yes 2-No
2	Has your _____had a serious accident or injury?	1-Yes 2-No	1-Yes 2-No
3	Was your _____hospitalized for any reason?	1-Yes 2-No	1-Yes 2-No
4	Has your _____lost her / his job?	1-Yes 2-No	1-Yes 2-No
5	Does your _____ have any medical conditions or ailments, such as cancer, heart trouble, arthritis, high blood pressure, severe shortness of breath, constant coughing, diabetes, feeling very tired, or frequent colds? (Do not limit your answer to the problems listed above)	1-Yes 2-No	1-Yes 2-No
6	If Yes: Did it begin in the last year?	1-Yes 2-No	1-Yes 2-No

7	Does your _____ have any problems with emotions or behavior, such as feeling very sad or depressed, drinking too much alcohol, drug abuse or trouble with the law? (Do not limit your answer to the problems listed above).	1-Yes 2-No	1-Yes 2-No
8	If Yes: Did it begin in the last year?	1-Yes 2-No	1-Yes 2-No
9	Has your relationship with your _____changed for the better?	1-Yes 2-No	1-Yes 2-No
10	Has your _____ recovered from an illness or emotional problems?	1-Yes 2-No	1-Yes 2-No
11	Has your _____ gone back to work after being unemployed?	1-Yes 2-No	1-Yes 2-No

Please indicate your answer with each statement, by circling one of the numbers using the scale provided.

When you spend time with your _____, how often:

		Mother/Stepmother	Father/Stepfather
12	Do you have arguments or fights with him/her?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often

13	Is she /he critical or disapproving of you?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often
14	Does she/he get on your nerve?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often
15	Does she/he get angry or lose her /his temper with you?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often
16	Does she/he expect too much of you?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often

17	Is she/he too strict with you, not letting you do what you want?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often
18	Does she/he put too much pressure to do well in school, sports or hobbies?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often
19	Can you count on her/him to help you when you need it?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often
20	Does she/he cheer you up when you are sad or worried?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often

21	Do you have fun, laugh or joke with her/him?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often
22	Does she/he really understand how you feel about things?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often
23	Does she/he respect your opinion?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often

Here are some questions about your school and school activities. Do not include activities with friends, clubs or organizations outside of school.

In the last 12 months:

24	Did you try out for a team or club, but did not make it?	1-Yes	2-No
25	Did you get into trouble at school?	1-Yes	2-No
26	Were you suspended from school?	1-Yes	2-No
27	Were you held back a year in school?	1-Yes	2-No
28	Did friends at school befriended you?	1-Yes	2-No
29	Did you change to a worse school?	1-Yes	2-No
30	Did you make a team or club (sports, choir, etc)?	1-Yes	2-No
31	Did you get an award for a school achievement?	1-Yes	2-No
32	Did a really good teacher influence you?	1-Yes	2-No
33	Did you change to a better school?	1-Yes	2-No
34	Did you get into the school group (such as popular group in school) you wanted to be with?	1-Yes	2-No

Here are some questions about other students at school.

Please indicate your answer with each statement, by circling one of the numbers using the scale provided.

How often:

35	Do you have arguments or fights with any students at school?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often
36	Are any students at school critical or disapproving of you?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often
37	Do any students at school get on your nerves?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often
38	Do any students at school get angry or lose their temper with you?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often

39	Do any students at school expect too much of you?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often
40	Is there too much pressure to compete with other students at school?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often

Here are some questions about your teachers, coaches and counselors at school.

Please indicate your answer with each statement, by circling one of the numbers using the scale provided.

How often:

41	Do you have arguments or fights with any of them?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often

42	Are any them critical or disapproving of you?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often
43	Do any of them get on your nerves?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often
44	Do any of them get angry or lose their temper with you?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often
45	Do any of them expect too much of you or give you too much homework?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often

46	Can you count on any of them to help you when you need it?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often
47	Do any of them cheer you up when you are sad or worried?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often
48	Do you have fun, laugh or joke with any of them?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often
49	Do any of them really understand how you feel about things?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often

50	Do any of them respect your opinion?	1 Never 2 Seldom 3 Sometimes 4 Fairly Often 5 Often

Section C –Child Depression Inventory (Kovacs, 1985)

For each box, pick the one statement that describes you best for the LAST TWO WEEKS:

1. ☐ I am sad once in a while. ☐ I am sad many times. ☐ I am sad all the time.	2. ☐ Things bother me all the time. ☐ Things bother me many times. ☐ Things bother me once in a while.
3. ☐ Nothing will ever work out for me. ☐ I am not sure if things will work out for me. ☐ Things will work out for me O.K.	4. ☐ I look O.K.. ☐ There are some bad things about my look. ☐ I look ugly.
5. ☐ I do most things O.K. ☐ I do many things wrong. ☐ I do everything wrong.	6. ☐ I do not feel alone. ☐ I feel alone many times. ☐ I feel alone all the time.

7. ☐ I hate myself. ☐ I do not like myself. ☐ I like myself.	8. ☐ I have plenty of friends. ☐ I have some friends, but I wish I had more. ☐ I don't have any friends.
9. ☐ I feel like crying some days. ☐ I feel like crying once in a while. ☐ I never feel like crying.	10. ☐ Nobody loves me. ☐ I am not sure anybody loves me. ☐ I am sure that someone loves me.

Section D – Adolescent Deviant Behavior (Cheung, 1997)

Here is a list of negative activities that you may be involved in school or outside school compound

Please indicate your answer with each statement, by circling one of the numbers using the scale provided.

In the past year, how often did you do the following?

1	Taking things that did not belong to you	0 Not even once 1 Once or twice 2 Several times 3 Quite a number of times 4 Many times
2	Banging up or destroying things of some value on purpose	0 Not even once 1 Once or twice 2 Several times 3 Quite a number of times 4 Many times
3	Fighting with someone with a weapon	0 Not even once 1 Once or twice 2 Several times 3 Quite a number of times 4 Many times
4	Smoking cigarette	0 Not even once 1 Once or twice 2 Several times 3 Quite a number of times 4 Many times

5	Taking drugs (any type of drugs **other than** those prescribed by medical practitioners)	0 Not even once 1 Once or twice 2 Several times 3 Quite a number of times 4 Many times
6	Getting drunk	0 Not even once 1 Once or twice 2 Several times 3 Quite a number of times 4 Many times
7	Speaking foul language	0 Not even once 1 Once or twice 2 Several times 3 Quite a number of times 4 Many times
8	Having sexual contact with someone of the opposite sex	0 Not even once 1 Once or twice 2 Several times 3 Quite a number of times 4 Many times

9	Reading/watching pornography	0 Not even once 1 Once or twice 2 Several times 3 Quite a number of times 4 Many times

APPENDIX E - FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW GUIDELINE

PART 1: INTRODUCTION (5 minutes)

FACILITATOR:

a. Thanks and appreciation for taking time to attend

1. Introduce myself & observer (nama, nama penuntut, universiti)
2. Ask participants nickname so it's easier to call them during Q&A

b. Objective of the focus group

Tujuan saya mengadakan temuduga ini adalah untuk mendapat maklumat yang lebih mendalam tentang isu-isu remaja masa kini dan kaitanya dengan masalah keluarga dan di sekolah. Saya berharap anda semua dapat memberi pandangan mengenai tingkah laku yang dikategorikan sebagai masalah remaja dan punca yang menyebabkan masalah ini berlanjutan.

c. Ground rules

1. Temuduga ini akan mengambil masa lebih kurang 1 jam, bergantung kepada perbincangan.

3. Semua maklumat yang anda berikan tidak akan dikemukakan pada mana-mana pihak samada pihak sekolah atau ibubapa. Nama anda tidak akan disebut pada mana-mana pihak dan tidak akan ditulis di dalam kertas kerja saya.
4. Anda boleh tarik diri pada bila-bila masa sahaja jika perlu.
5. Tiada jawapan yang salah dalam menjawab soalan-soalan yang dikemukakan. Semua jawapan adalah dari sudut pandangan anda dan semua mesti menghormati pandangan masing-masing yang berbeza.
6. Sila minta keterangan yang lebih lanjut jika ada soalan yang anda tidak faham.
7. Saya akan merekodkan komen-komen yang diberikan menggunakan pita rakaman supaya maklumat tepat dan lengkap.
8. Ada apa-apa soalan atau keterangan yang anda perlukan lagi?

PART 2: QUESTIONS

1. How many of you read the newspaper or serve the internet to read about news on the current happenings in Malaysia or the world? Can I see a show of hand?

Berapa ramaikan di kalangan anda yang membaca suratkhabar atau melayari internet untuk membaca berita tentang isu-isu hangat yang terjadi di Malaysia atau dunia? Bolehkah angkat tangan?

2. How many have noticed stories or news on teenage problems? Do you think it is a big issue in Malaysia?

Berapa ramai yang terbaca berita atau cerita tentang masalah-masalah yang dihadapi oleh remaja zaman sekarang? Apakah pandangan anda tentang isu remaja ini?

3. What does social problem mean to you? What do you think it means?
Pada pandangan anda, apakah ertinya masalah sosial? Boleh anda terangkan apa yang anda faham tentang maksudnya?

4. There is a lot of news on social problems among youths nowadays. Can you tell me some of the behaviors that can be categorized as a problem, whether it is at home, in school or in your neighbourhood. (Probe: probably you have heard stories from your colleagues or seen this behavior for yourself).
Ada banyak berita tentang masalah-masalah sosial di kalangan remaja zaman sekarang. Bolehkah anda ceritakan beberapa perilaku yang boleh dikategorikan sebagai masalah, samada perilaku itu di rumah, di sekolah atau di kawan perumah anda.

5. In your opinion, what do you think are the reasons that lead to social problems among teenagers?
Apakah punca-punca yang menyebabkan ,masalah sosial di kalangan remaja?

6. When you are faced with problems, who do you normally turn to for support and help?
Apabila anda mempunyai masalah, siapakah yang selalunya anda akan bertemu untuk mendapat pertolongan?

7. Do you think that these social problems among teenagers can be solved? How?
Pada pendapat anda, bolehkah masalah-masalah sosial di kalangan remaja dapat diatasi? Bagaimana?

8. Before I end this interview, I would like to know if any of you would like to give a final comment or suggest any information on the issue of social problems that I may have missed out during the interview.
Sebelum saya mengakhiri temuduga ini, saya ingin tahu samada anda ingin memberi komen tentang isu sosial remaja ini. Mungkin ada isu yang patut saya tanya, tetapi tidak disebut?

PART 3: CONCLUSION (5minutes)

Terima kasih sekali lagi kerana menyertai temu duga ini. Banyak maklumat yang telah saya perolehi daripada anda semua. Sekiranya anda mempunyai soalan atau ingin mengetahui lebih lanjut tentang tajuk ini, sila telefon saya di pejabat saya di Universiti Malaya yang bernombor 03-79673729. Sebagai tanda terima kasih, saya ingin menyampaikan hadiah kepada semua yang menyertai temuduga ini.

APPENDIX F - PERMISSION FOR THE USE OF ADAPTED LISRES-Y SCALE

From: Vicki McFadden
Sent: Wednesday, November 10, 2010 1:52 PM
To: 'muhairah shahabudin'
Subject: RE: Agr: LISRES-Y 106 items (Bahasa/English) -- Translate

Hi Muhairah,

I am writing to let you know we have approved the back-translation (from Bahasa to English) of the items from the LISRES-Y. Please consider this email as our written authorization to proceed with reproduction of up to 600 copies of the Bahasa LISRES-Y per the terms of our agreement dated January 26, 2009.

Please forward a copy of the final translation (only the Bahasa version) to me for our files, which contains the required PAR Credit Line per paragraph (1) as follows:

"Adapted and reproduced by special permission of the Publisher, Psychological Assessment Resources, Inc., 16204 North Florida Avenue, Lutz, Florida 33549, from the Life Stressors and Social Resources Inventory by Rudolf H. Moos, PhD, Copyright 1986, 1994, by Psychological Assessment Resources, Inc. (PAR). Further reproduction is prohibited without permission of PAR."

If you have any questions, please let me know. I look forward to receiving the final translation.

Best Regards,

Vicki McFadden

Permissions Specialist

APPENDIX G

MASCO 08
Structure of Classification

The occupational classification structure has four main levels, namely, major groups, sub-major groups, minor groups and small unit groups tabulated as follows:

Major Group (1-digit)	**Sub-major Groups (2-digit)**	**Minor Groups (3-digit)**	**Unit Groups (4-digit)**	**Small Unit Groups (5-digit)**
1 Managers	4	11	37	232
2 Professionals	7	35	119	1,127
3 Technicians and Associate Professionals	5	21	89	696
4 Clerical Support Workers	4	8	29	391
5 Service and Sales Workers	4	13	41	309
6 Skilled Agricultural, Forestry and Fishery Workers	3	9	20	137
7 Craft and Related Trades Workers	5	14	66	524
8 Plant and Machine-operators and Assemblers	3	16	46	639
9 Elementary Occupations	6	11	36	200
0 Armed Forces Occupations	3	6	6	55
10	**44**	**144**	**489**	**4,310**

APPENDIX H - CORRELATION OF THE STUDY VARIABLES

	siblings	family structure	parent's occupation	music	pre-school	team/club member	computer	reading material	pocket money	tuition	parents support	teacher support	teacher stress	parent stress	peer stress	Mis-beh
Siblings	1															
Family structure	-.044	1														
Parent's occupation	-.060	-.192**	1													
Music	-.071*	-.048	.132**	1												
Pre-school	-.140**	-.059	.177**	.099**	1											
Team/club member	-.063*	-.041	.128**	.115**	.085*	1										
Computer	-.114**	-.158**	.231**	.128**	.277*	.210**	1									
Reading material	-.027	-.090**	.124**	.114**	.050	.189**	.135**	1								
Pocket money	-.130**	-.045	.109**	.039	.075*	.024	.174**	.015	1							
Tuition	-.156**	-.045	.079*	.121**	.137**	.102**	.171**	.063*	.038	1						
Parents support	-.003	-.011	.123**	.137**	-.028	.205**	.043	.192**	.020	.025	1					
Teacher support	-.032	-.017	.076*	.067*	-.021	.217**	-.009	.114**	.092**	.051	.351**	1				
Teacher stress	-.024	-.011	.071*	.065*	-.029	.202**	-.019	.104**	-.090**	.043	.346**	**.983****	1			
Parent stress	-.049	.008	.121**	.073*	.026	.038	.043	.075*	.012	.083**	.038	.357**	.380**	1		
Peer stress	-.062*	.023	.072*	.050	.019	.092*	.032	.026	.044	.096*	.056	.383**	.401**	.646**	1	
Mis-behavior	.055	.032	.028	-.007	-.002	-.023	.017	-.043	.141**	.004	-.090**	-.027	-.020	.281**	.274**	1

APPENDIX I - DIRECT RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INDEPENDENT, DEPENDENT AND MEDIATING VARIABLES

Path Coefficients IV-DV (Mean, STDEV, T-Values)

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	Standard Error (STERR)	T Statistics (|O/STERR|)
CAPSES -> DEVIANT	-0.076	-0.078	0.045	0.045	1.708
CAPSES -> ESTEEM	-0.376	-0.380	0.028	0.028	13.339***
CAPSES -> MOOD	-0.201	-0.207	0.032	0.032	6.280***
CAPSES -> RISKY	-0.070	-0.077	0.042	0.042	1.641
FAMSTRUC -> DEVIANT	0.098	0.097	0.044	0.044	2.218*
FAMSTRUC -> ESTEEM	0.021	0.021	0.031	0.031	0.675
FAMSTRUCS -> MOOD	-0.006	-0.006	0.036	0.036	0.165
FAMSTRUC -> RISKY	0.126	0.130	0.038	0.038	3.290***
OCC -> DEVIANT	0.013	0.018	0.051	0.051	0.251
OCC -> ESTEEM	-0.040	-0.040	0.029	0.029	1.409
OCC -> MOOD	-0.025	-0.026	0.033	0.033	0.761
OCC -> RISKY	0.003	0.006	0.032	0.032	0.096

Path Coefficients IV-MV (Mean, STDEV, T-Values)

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	Standard Error (STERR)	T Statistics (|O/STERR|)
CAPSES -> PESTRESS	0.269	0.274	0.029	0.029	9.335***
CAPSES -> PSTRESS	0.336	0.341	0.029	0.029	11.756***
CAPSES -> TSTRESS	0.204	0.210	0.033	0.033	6.144***
FAMSTRUC -> PESTRESS	0.038	0.037	0.032	0.032	1.187
FAMSTRUC -> PSTRESS	0.008	0.008	0.032	0.032	0.265
OCC -> PESTRESS	0.005	0.005	0.031	0.031	0.153
OCC -> PSTRESS	0.061	0.061	0.030	0.030	2.000*
OCC -> TSTRESS	0.000	0.000	0.029	0.029	0.003

Path Coefficients MV-DV (Mean, STDEV, T-Values)

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	Standard Error (STERR)	T Statistics (|O/STERR|)
PESTRESS -> DEVIANT	0.132	0.130	0.041	0.041	3.223**
PESTRESS -> ESTEEM	0.124	0.130	0.051	0.051	2.450*
PESTRESS -> MOOD	0.106	0.110	0.048	0.048	2.194*
PESTRESS -> RISKY	-0.053	-0.054	0.045	0.045	1.174
PSTRESS -> DEVIANT	0.043	0.044	0.039	0.039	1.095
PSTRESS -> ESTEEM	0.082	0.084	0.047	0.047	1.745
PSTRESS -> MOOD	0.200	0.203	0.046	0.046	4.394***
PSTRESS -> RISKY	-0.004	-0.005	0.044	0.044	0.101
TSTRESS -> DEVIANT	0.275	0.279	0.048	0.048	5.789***
TSTRESS -> ESTEEM	0.050	0.047	0.050	0.050	1.000
TSTRESS -> MOOD	-0.042	-0.044	0.048	0.048	0.860
TSTRESS -> RISKY	0.305	0.307	0.042	0.042	7.255***