ATTACHMENT AND DELINQUENCY:
A STUDY AMONG INCARCERATED JUVENILE IN MALAYSIA

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The aim of the study is to investigate the basic development of the Malay parent-child relationship and identify the behavioural and psychological aspects of incarcerated juveniles. Three types of attachments, namely mother attachment, father attachment and peer attachment were examined, along with family environment, individual behaviour, self-esteem, and religiosity in relation with delinquency. The thesis also aims to investigate the reasons for the incarcerated juveniles' involvement with delinquent activities. The studies of this thesis integrated both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Study One reported that incarcerated juveniles of the youth rehabilitation centre committed more than one offence each. They lacked parental supervision, participation in family activities, and intimate communication with their parents, and had experienced the lack of parental warmth. In Study Two, the participants reported that their relationships with their mothers and their fathers are almost similar and that it was hard to distinguish between the two in detail. The interviewees felt more comfortable disclosing personal information to their peers, having great propensity to feel connected to their peers, both physically and emotionally, especially in times of crisis. Study Three shows that no mother-child and father-child attachments were associated with delinquency. The attachment theory presented by Bowlby (1969, 1973, 1980) and the discussion on insecure parent-child attachments show no relationship between poor attachment and delinquency, as demonstrated in this thesis. By using simple linear regression analysis, 'cohesion', 'conflict', 'achievement orientation' and 'moral-religious emphasis' (sub-scales of family environment); 'insight', 'conformity' and 'considerateness' (sub-scales of individual behaviour); and religiosity were found to have significant associations with delinquency. Via the multiple regression analysis, this study found that the strong contributing factors towards delinquency came from the variables of religiosity, 'conflict', 'achievement orientation', 'moral-religious emphasis', 'insight', 'conformity', and 'considerateness'. In Study Four, the interviewees' spoke of a number of weaknesses of family environment and poor characteristics about their own behaviours and attitudes that contribute to delinquency. The interpretative process conducted on the raw data resulted in the development of the eight themes, that is, frustration, friend factors, problems with the family environment, weakness in religiosity, need to do 'it' for money, self-need, self-behavioural weaknesses, and revenge, illustrated the reasons for juveniles involvement in delinquent activities. In conclusion, the finding of this thesis, generally, observed that delinquent adolescents did not receive the parents support and emotional affection that the needed. They also experienced severe stress in their relationship with their parents. Thus, at this point, parents need to be educated about this fact so that they have a better understanding of the extent they should go in terms of trying to prevent their children from being involved in deviant behaviour.
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In the name of Allah, the Most Beneficent, Most Gracious, Most Merciful

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Introduction and Focus of the Thesis

Research on parental attachment has revealed parent-child relationships to be relevant to the safety of children (Paterson, Ewigman & Kivlahan, 1993) and the development of childhood antisocial behaviour and substance abuse (Dishion, Li, Spracklen, Brown & Haas, 1999). The foundation of parental attachment and management of behaviour is the quality of the parent-child relationship, and the relationship quality within the family is critical to children’s wellbeing and social development (Belsky & Nezworski, 1988). A positive parent-child relationship enhances the motivation of parents to monitor their child and to use healthy behavioural management practices. So, monitoring children’s activities is essential to establishing and maintaining a positive parent-child relationship. In the event that the parent-child relationship is undermined, child behavioural problems emerge (Patterson, 1986; Patterson & Dishion, 1988). Obviously, there is a long history of interest in the parental attachment construct within psychology, criminology and sociology, in conduct problems and juvenile delinquency (Loeber & Dishion, 1983; Dishion, & McMahon, 1998; Robert, Pettit, Bates & Dodge, 2003).

The topics of antisocial behaviour and delinquency have occupied researchers in psychology and criminology for several decades. Recent developmental theories suggest various pathways to delinquency in adolescence, including maladaptive interactions between child and parent (e.g., Patterson, 1986) and mimicking the antisocial behaviour of peers who have taken up adult-like behaviours such as smoking, drinking and staying out late (Moffitt, 1993). In addition, Taylor, McGue and Iacono (2000) have found that environmental factors play an important role in adolescent delinquency. Poor parental and family companionship contribute to the transmission of delinquency. An adolescent’s emotional and behavioural problems have a substantial and adverse impact on families, schools, neighbourhoods and the child’s own long-term wellbeing (Hwang & St. James-Robert, 1998). Furthermore, a growing body of prospective evidence indicates
that behavioural problems identified in childhood often remain (Campbell & Ewing, 1990), and that children characterised with serious disruptive or delinquent behaviours in adolescence often have a history of problems (Moffitt, 1990).

This thesis focuses on juvenile delinquency in Malaysia. The major aims of this study is to investigate the development of the Malay parent-child relationship and identify the behavioural and psychological aspects of incarcerated juveniles. Three types of attachments, namely mother attachment, father attachment and peer attachment will be examined, along with family environment, individual behaviour, self-esteem and religiosity towards delinquency. The primary focus of this thesis is to investigate and understand the relationship between three phenomena: attachment pattern; self-behavioural and psychological; and delinquency, with a view of dividing the study into four primary objectives.

Objectives of the Thesis
The first aim is to identify patterns of recorded family history and individual characteristics, and explore types of delinquent acts carried out by male and female juveniles.

The second aim is to examine the applicability of Bowlby’s (1969, 1982, 1988) attachment theory within a population of Malaysian juveniles from the Malay ethnic group. The focus is on the determinant factors (trust, communication, alienation) of attachment processes relating to the attachment figures of these juveniles, as well as their process of relationship building.

The third aim is to identify the predictors for delinquency in adolescents, and to explore the ways in which risk factors act together in putting juveniles at risk. In other words, this research would like to examine the way in which risk factors act together in putting juveniles at risk of exhibiting delinquency. Factors such as mother attachment, father attachment, peer attachment, family environment, self-behaviour, self-esteem, and religiosity are considered risk factors in understanding juvenile delinquency. The need to
investigate the attachment issue, individual behavioural and psychological aspects are salient, especially as there is a serious number of delinquent groups and activities in Malaysia (Social Welfare Department of Malaysia and United Nations Children’s Fund, 2002), though little is known regarding their behavioural and psychological domains.

The fourth aim is to investigate the reasons for the incarcerated juveniles’ involvement with delinquent activities. The findings of this study are based on interpretative analysis of the responses given by the interviewees.

The Need for a Study on Juvenile Delinquency in Malaysia

This thesis was inspired by the lack of detailed and comprehensive studies on delinquency among Malaysian youths and comparative research that distinguishes juvenile delinquency typology in Malaysia with that of other countries. The lack of decisive efforts in this area might be due to Malaysia having a very low percentage of incarcerated juveniles compared to Western countries, as well as having an overall low crime rate. According to international crime statistics from INTERPOL (International Police Force), as reported by the Royal Malaysian Police (Berita Bukit Aman, 2002), the crime rate in Malaysia is one of the lowest in the world, with an average of 730 cases for every 100,000 members of the population. This fact was supported by the Bureau of Consular Affairs, Washington DC (2003), stating that the overall crime rate in Malaysia is low. However, according to the Royal Malaysian Police (RMP), the crime rate in Malaysia is very much a cause for concern, especially considering the number of criminal cases involving youths. According to statistics reported by the RMP, a majority of criminal cases in Malaysia involved those aged less than 21 years (Berita Bukit Aman, 2002). Although the statistics showed a significant decrease in youth crime between the year 2000 and 2001 (a decrease of 1,805 incarcerated juveniles), the number of criminal cases in Malaysia involving juveniles is still considered worrisome. The drop in youth crime could possibly be due to earnest efforts by the Malaysian government, in general, and police operations, in particular, to reduce antisocial problems among youths. It is proposed that to gain a full understanding of juvenile delinquency, a whole array of personal and family characteristics should be explored. Additionally, it is advocated that
attachment issues and parenting practices should remain at the peak of any such investigation (Anderson, Holmes & Ostresh, 1999; Dembo, Shemwell, Guida, Schmeidler, Pacheco & Seeberger, 1998).

The Work of Attachment Theory: Parent-Child Relationships

The approach of attachment theory used in this thesis aims to examine the association of parent-child relationship with juvenile delinquency. It has been argued that the parent-child relationship serves as the basis for future relationships of the child. It is this first relationship that the child uses as a template to apply to future relationship experiences. In short, the quality of early relationships predicts later relationships, and the success of later relationships takes root in the context of the parent-child relationship (Scholte, 1990).

The parent and child as partners must accomplish two basic goals that serve as the foundation for healthy relationships with others in the future: (i) the establishment of a basic sense of trust in the world; and (ii) the allowance for emotional regulation – the expression of feelings, along with the underlying physiological patterning (Goldberg, 2000). When these two goals are successfully met, it is likely that the child will experience a satisfactory attachment relationship with his or her caregiver. However, failure to accomplish the goals of the parent-child relationship will result in an inadequate attachment relationship, placing the child on a pathway to relationship difficulties throughout life (Scholte, 1990; Karlsson & Skagerberg, 1999). For example, the absence of a basic sense of trust may prevent a child from leaving the caregiver’s side to explore the surrounding environment, thereby preventing opportunities for him or her to develop competence and learn about the world.

Experts suggest that the quality of the parent-child relationship is dependent on how well the ‘wholeness’ of the relationship is recognised. This refers to the ability with which the parent-child relationship organises roles and rules, and balances the positive and negative affectional/emotional qualities of the relationship (Karlsson et al., 1999; Thompson, 1999). A finely tuned caregiver-child dyad is characterised by mutual recognition and
response to one another’s needs. Child needs are determined, in part, by issues apparent at each developmental period (Solchany & Barnard, 2001). In an optimal caregiver-child relationship, the caregiver acknowledges the issues that accompany a given developmental period and provides the necessary, developmentally appropriate support and guidance to the child (Solchany et al., 2001; Barnard, 1997). Therefore, research about early relationship reveals the positive impact associated with healthy parent-child relationships. In addition, longitudinal studies suggest that these positive impacts have long-term effects on developmental outcomes (e.g., Fonagy, Steele & Steele, 1991a). With these facts in mind, it is imperative that research efforts in the study of parent-child relationships and juvenile delinquency be carried out. This effort, which collects samples of Malay juveniles, contributes some findings from the context of the Asian population, and furthermore tests the applicability of the attachment theory developed by Bowlby (1980, 1982) and Ainsworth and Bowlby (1991) on Asian culture.

Given the need for a theory that can assist in making sense and understanding the phenomenon of juvenile delinquency and family difficulties, why should attachment theory specifically prove so useful?

Attachment is an affectional bond, affecting long-lasting interpersonal relationships (Ainsworth, 1991). Bowlby’s (1969, 1980, 1982, 1988) work on attachment theory provides a framework to understand how attachment processes develop. The theory has the ability to clarify how the same underlying relational dynamics common to all people are shaped by social experiences, and how these dynamics produce different relationship styles. He indicates that children develop attachment bonds with their primary caregivers at a very early age. However, emotional and psychological disturbances may occur at any age despite strong attachment bonds to significant others.

It has been concluded by Bowlby (1982) that individuals at any age are better adjusted within their environments when they have confidence in the accessibility and responsiveness of their trusted others (e.g., parents, close friends, spouses and partners). According to Bowlby (1988), attachment can be inferred from a behavioural disposition
of seeking proximity to and/or contact with significant others, particularly under conditions of vulnerability such as fear, illness, stress, anxiety or emotional upsets. However, as individuals mature with age, the need for physical proximity will become less intense. This is normally replaced by symbolic communication (e.g., telephone calls, letters or e-mail messages), which will become increasingly effective in providing comfort (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987). Despite such age-related changes in attachment behaviour, the expectations of attachment figures based on earlier experiences are believed to persist and to influence the mode of relating to others (Bretherton, 1985). A secure attachment organisation should allow adolescents to process and integrate their experiences in social relationships more accurately and with greater sophistication (Cassidy, Kirsh, Scolton & Parke, 1996). This in turn should allow the adolescent to better read the subtle emotional cues in interactions with peers and adults so as to develop increasingly sophisticated social skills over time. In contrast, insecure adolescents are more likely to misperceive or defensively exclude information about attachment experiences. This in turn may lead to distorted judgments and negative expectations about others, i.e., expectations that have been strongly linked to problems in social functioning (Cassidy et al., 1996; Dodge, 1993). For insecure attachment adolescents, adolescent delinquency may be pursued as a crude form of attachment behaviour in that it calls out for parental attention. Delinquency may thus serve to heighten the intensity of interactions with attachment figures, albeit in an angry, dysfunctional manner (Allen, Moore, Kuperminc & Bell, 1998). Such dysfunctional attachment behaviour is a hallmark of the insecure organisation earlier in the lifespan (Cassidy & Berlin, 1994). Furthermore, for insecure attachment adolescents, adolescent delinquency may result from rejection of the norms of attachment figures (i.e., parents) and their efforts at behavioural control, given the tendency of insecure adolescents to minimise the important of attachment relationships (Allen, Moore & Kuperminc, 1997; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). Although in recent years, there has been a resurgence of interest in attachment theory and a renewed recognition of its particular relevance towards understanding children and adult relationships (e.g., Allen, Moore, Kuperminc & Bell, 1998; Anderson et al., 1999; Simons, Chao & Conger, 2001), very limited research has examined whether
the development of delinquent behaviour during adolescence may be related to adolescents’ attachment organisation.

Attachment theory as well offers a framework for understanding the consequences of relationships across time and within families. It uses a life-cycle and inter-generational approach (Fonagy et al., 1991a), relevant for understanding how children respond to different kinds of care-giving and how parents may replicate or attempt to resist replicating their own experiences of care-giving. The theory helps to explain the impact of lack of close family relationships (Bowlby, 1969, 1973, 1980), a significant part of the experience of many troubled children and families who come to the attention of social services departments. Attachment theory, as it has developed in the last two decades, provides a powerful framework for understanding the impact of abuse and neglect on children and the persistent impact of such early adversity on their subsequent relationships into adult life (Crittenden & Ainsworth, 1989; Smith, 1996).

Secure attachment has been seen as a primary goal in the areas of psychology, counselling and social work practice, notably the world of family placement. It has been widely used in research and practice since Bowlby gave evidence to the Curtis Committee on Fostering in 1946 (Cairns, 2002; Schofield & Brown, 1999; Schofield, Beek, Sargent & Thoburn, 2000). Attachment theory also helps make sense of the links between the quality of family relationships and the quality of relationships with peers, partners and other people. At its simplest, attachment theory is most powerful in offering a framework for understanding the impact of the past on the present. As Bowlby (1951, p. 114) points out:

*Children are not slates from which the past can be rubbed by a duster or sponge, but human beings who carry their previous experiences with them and whose behaviour in the present is profoundly affected by what has gone before.*

Throughout the lifespan, people carry the impression of all that has gone before, and in all areas of our lives, but particularly so, in our close relationships. Experience in
relationships and the outcome from this atmosphere are therefore at the heart of much psychology and criminology assessment and planning (Schofield, 1998a).

In sum, the theory has proven to be extremely fertile ground for researchers and practitioners alike. It has helped in understanding how and why children or youths develop close relationships with their caregivers. It has also provided powerful frameworks for understanding what happens to the psychological development of children who do not experience satisfactory relationships and who suffer poor attachment experiences. Therefore, this thesis serves to use and test the applicability of attachment theory in investigating juvenile delinquency among Malaysian Malay youths.

Research Questions of the Thesis

The problems of juveniles often become the topic of social discussion not only in Malaysia but also in many other parts of the world. According to the statistics released by the Social Welfare Department of Malaysia (SWDM; JKM, 2002), the number of cases reported in Malaysia, involving juveniles, in various antisocial and delinquent activities within the last 5 years totalled about 25,815. Although the number has not reached levels commonly found in the West, it is a worry to the Malaysian government that the number will grow larger, if no prudent action is taken (The Star, May 2. 2002). Thus, SWDM created efforts on assisting the rehabilitation process of juveniles incarcerated in the YRC, and developed rehabilitation programs for adolescents outside the centre. The programs carried out by SWDM have proven that the government is serious and determined in its effort to battle the problem of delinquency among adolescents. However, these efforts have been carried out with little insight into the real underlying causes of the problems, plus the programs are superficial and may be regarded as temporary (Ghani & Wong, 2001).

This thesis has been designed to explore the underlying problems confronted by the incarcerated juveniles. It is based primarily on two strong assumptions, that is, (i) the existence of relationships between parental attachment and peer attachment (Cohn, Patterson & Christopoulos, 1991; Ganthimathi, 1998), family environment (Gorman-
Chapter 1

Smith, Tolan, Loeber & Henry, 1998), self-esteem (Mason, 2001), and religiosity (Johnson, Sung, Larson & Li, 2001) with delinquent behaviour, and (ii) that a strong parent-child relationship is vital in building a healthy personality and behaviour (Mokhtar, 1998).

The current studies are constructed based on the attachment theoretical approach, which is thought capable of explaining the problems of delinquency among juveniles. In addition, based on the constructs and assumptions developed by Bowlby (1969, 1982, 1988) and the underlying foundation of attachment theory provided by Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters and Walls (1978), the present study is designed to address the following research questions:

1. What factors affect the juveniles’ perceived mother, father and peer attachments?
2. Does a relationship exist between juveniles’ mother, father and peer attachments?
3. What are the factors that appear to contribute significantly towards juvenile delinquency (i.e. do variables such as mother attachment, father attachment, peer attachment, family environments, self-behaviour, self-esteem, or religiosity, impact the juveniles’ delinquent behaviours)?
4. What are the reasons for committing delinquent acts?

Structure of the Thesis

Chapter 2 presents a general overview of juvenile delinquency in Malaysia. The outline of Malaysia in general, government reports, perceptions on juvenile delinquency, as well as the legal system of juveniles in Malaysia are also presented.

Chapter 3 defines the meaning of juvenile delinquency and attachment. The focus of this review is to provide a theoretical statement of attachment and delinquency. Literature reviews on attachment that have been found to predict or show strong relationships with delinquent behaviours are discussed. Lastly, the phenomenon of attachment and delinquency within the Malaysian context is presented and discussed.
Chapter 4 presents a number of literature reviews on the other factors that link with attachment problems and delinquency. The review on peer attachment, self-esteem, religious belief with attachment and delinquency was presented.

Chapter 5 reports the findings of Study 1. This was an exploratory study, conducted to investigate the various characteristics of the background of juveniles, as reported in the official record. The data was obtained from the Social Welfare Department of Malaysia, the prison department, the police and from court reports. Four YRCs are involved, with each centre situated in different regions or states in Malaysia.

Chapter 6 reports the findings of Study 2. This study is interested in investigating the relationship between parental attachment and peer attachment amongst Malay juveniles in Malaysia. Specifically, this study aims to examine juveniles’ attachment patterns to their attachment figures (i.e., mothers and fathers). The study was conducted in two phases, examining the quality of mother attachment, father attachment and peer attachment among Malay incarcerated juveniles. One hundred and twenty juveniles (97 males; 23 females) participated in the first phase, and 14 juveniles (7 males; 7 females) participated in the second phase of the study. Phase One employed a cross-sectional quantitative design using a self-administered questionnaire, that is, the Inventory of Parental and Peer Attachment (IPPA; Armsden et al., 1987). Phase Two of the study employed a qualitative approach, involving interviews as the technique for data collection.

Chapter 7 reports the findings of Study 3. The study assessed the relationship between mother attachment, father attachment, peer attachment as well as other individual-related factors, with delinquency. The objective of the study was to investigate the high potential risk factors that contribute to delinquent activities. High school adolescents were used as a comparison group with the aim to examine the differences of attachment pattern and other individual behavioural and psychological factors. The study was based on 245 respondents; 145 delinquent institutional participants and 100 non-delinquent participants. Eight instruments were used for this study; Demographic data instrument,
Chapter 1

The Attachment Questionnaire (revised from Hazan & Shaver, 1987), the Inventory of Parental and Peer Attachment (Armsden et al., 1987), the Family Environment Scale (Moos, 1974), the Jesness Behaviour Checklist (Jesness, 1971), the Religiosity Questionnaire (Munawir & Luqman, 1995), the Global Self-esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965), and the Self-Reported Delinquency.

Chapter 8 reports the finding of Study 4. This study investigated the reasons for the incarcerated juveniles' involvement with delinquent activities. Fourteen Malays incarcerated juveniles participated in the study, involving interviews as the technique for data collection. Two types of material were used in this study. The first is, the Attachment Questionnaire (AQ). Participants were asked to complete the AQ in order to identify the attachment style of each juvenile. The second is, the 'interview protocol', used to gain as much information as possible on juvenile delinquency. Sixteen 'open-ended' questions were formulated, arranged and used in a logical sequence, and open to possible probes and prompts, which might follow the answers to each of the questions. Using the interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA; Smith, 1996; Smith, Jarman & Osborne, 1999) method, the interpretative process conducted on the raw data resulted in the development of the eight main themes, illustrated the reasons for juveniles involvement in delinquent activities.

Chapter 9 draws general discussion across the series of studies in the thesis. Discussion focuses on the attachment theory in explaining the phenomenon of juvenile delinquency in Malaysia. The chapter concludes with suggestions for future research that could be carried out to extend the findings, and to contribute both theoretically and practically by following-up the results of this thesis.
 CHAPTER 2

 JUVENILE DELINQUENCY IN MALAYSIA: AN OVERVIEW

Introduction
This chapter gives a general overview into juvenile delinquency in Malaysia. The information provides a clear picture of the delinquent activities of adolescents, the youth rehabilitation centre (YRC), and government reports on juvenile delinquency.

Despite its long tradition of social harmony and self-control, Malaysian government programmes established for the rehabilitation of adjudicated adolescents are now being overwhelmed with referrals (JKM, 2001). As in many Western countries, reports of teenagers committing violent acts abound in the Malaysian popular press, for example:

In the 10-year duration from 1992 to 2001, the crime rates for male and female youths have increased by 35 percent and 25 percent respectively. More than half of all crimes committed, including property offences, drug abuse, traffic offences and person offences, were by Malay youths (Berita Harian, July 12, 2002).

The police are worried about the increase in criminal cases among the youth in the country, the Deputy Director 1 in the Criminal Investigation Department, Bukit Aman said.... He added, 30 percent from 18,000 criminal cases reported throughout this year involved youths... (Berita Harian, December 30, 2002).

Consequently, this alarming growth rate in crime has prompted calls to give serious attention to youth delinquency and other related problems. The government has also realised the importance of improving delinquent prevention and treatment programmes (JKM, 2003) so that the true sources of youth problems can be identified and solved. The present study was conducted with the hope of identifying behavioural and psychological problems related to the manifestation and modification of antisocial disorders among Malaysian youths. In order to discover and understand juvenile problems in Malaysia, one has to trace their roots.
This chapter will commence by introducing Malaysia in general, followed by presenting the phenomenon of youth problems, and steps that have been taken by the Malaysian government in its effort to halt these problems from escalating.

**Malaysia in General**

Malaysia covers a total land area of 329,750 sq km and includes Peninsular Malaysia (131,587 sq km) and the Borneo states of Sarawak (124,967 sq km) and Sabah (72,500 sq km). In all, there are 14 states in Malaysia. All citizens of Malaysia are ‘Malaysians’; they comprise Malays, Chinese and Indians, as well as other ‘tribal’ groups, most of whom live in the East Malaysian states of Sabah and Sarawak.

The Population Census Statistics (2002) of Malaysia reported that the population of the country in the year 2001 stood at 23.80 million. In Malaysia, three major ethnic groups, namely the Malays (and other indigenous groups), the Chinese and the Indians make up roughly 66.1 %, 25.3 %, and 7.4 percent of the population respectively. The Malays and other indigenous groups are usually grouped under the umbrella term *bumiputra* – or ‘sons of the soil’. Generally, the Malaysian population grows by just under 2 percent per annum. It is, however, not equally distributed between the ethnic groups. Since 1970, the *bumiputra* population has increased by 53%. In the same period, the proportion of the Chinese population has declined by 36%, while the proportion of Indians has remained roughly the same.

Malays are invariably Muslims. Buddhism is the formal religion of most of Malaysia’s Chinese population, and the majority of Malaysia’s Indian population is Hindu, although there are also many Indian Muslims. There are various languages in Malaysia, namely Malay, Chinese, Tamil, and English. *Bahasa Melayu* (literally, ‘Malay Language’) – or to give the language its official title, *Bahasa Kebangsaan* (‘National Language’) – is an Austronesian language which has been the language of trade and commerce throughout the archipelago for centuries.
The oldest inhabitants of Malaysia are her tribal people. They account for about 5 percent of the total population, and represent the majority in Sarawak and Sabah. Although the tribal people of Malaysia prefer to be recognised by their individual tribes, peninsular Malaysia groups them under the term *Orang Asli* or "Original People." In Sarawak, the dominant tribal groups are the *Dayak*, who typically live in longhouses and are either *Iban* (Sea Dayak) or *Bidayuh* (Land Dayak). In Sabah, most tribes fall under the term *Kadazan*. The tribal people of Malaysia generally share a strong spiritual tie to the rainforest.

Cultures have been meeting and mixing in Malaysia since the very beginning of her history. More than fifteen hundred years ago, a Malay kingdom welcomed traders from China and India. Buddhism and Hinduism also came to Malaysia. A thousand years later, Arab traders arrived in Malacca and brought with them the principles and practices of Islam. Thus, Malaysia's cultural mosaic is marked by many different cultures, but several in particular have had especially lasting influence on the country. Chief among these is the ancient Malay culture, and the cultures of Malaysia's two most prominent trading partners throughout history, the Chinese, and the Indians. These three groups are joined by a dizzying array of indigenous tribes, many of which live in the forests and coastal areas of Borneo. Although each of these cultures has vigorously maintained its traditions and community structures, they have also blended together to create contemporary Malaysia's uniquely diverse heritage. Generally, Malaysia is dominated by Malays and this ethnic group has a special 'right' or privilege in Malaysia, particularly in education and politics.

**Malay and the “Social Ills”**

One of the greatest challenges faced by the Malaysian government is to eliminate what the Prime Minister has termed "social ills" (Simmon, 2000). For a country that has argued that 'Asian values' have permitted her to modernise without the social and moral degradation evident in the West, this is a sensitive subject. Research has revealed a surge in drug taking (particularly ecstasy), delinquency, illegitimate pregnancies, wife abuse, gangsterism and incest. Moreover, this research indicates that the problem is
predominantly concentrated among the Malays. Never one to shy away from a problem, however embarrassing, the Malaysia Prime Minister had bluntly pointed out:

"In terms of population breakdown, the Malays form 55 percent while the Chinese make up about 25 percent and Indians, 10 percent. But when comparing the social problems, the Malays accounted for 67 percent, while Chinese involvement is only 16 percent" (Simmon, 2000, p. 34).

Following this concern and rebuke, the state and federal governments were swift to introduce legislation to control this rash of so-called ills.

Background and Report of the Juvenile Problems in Malaysia

During the last twenty years, Malaysia has found itself in the middle of a fundamental, wide-ranging and accelerating process of transformation – economically, educationally, socially and politically. These changes have had a profound effect on many Malaysian families. Urbanisations, diminution of family networks, and working parents have changed its shape; individualism and secular pragmatism have altered its values (Everts, 1994). There is no doubt that these changes have brought benefits in the form of educational opportunities, personal freedom, increased wealth, and lifestyle options. Nevertheless, they have also come at a serious cost to both individuals and families. Evidence of this cost is reflected in increasing signs of personal stress in the population – anxiety, loneliness, depression and suicide, substance abuse, physical and sexual violence, sexual promiscuity, delinquency and crime (Ismail, 2000).

Juvenile delinquency is rapidly becoming a serious menace in Malaysia. With progressive industrialisation of many parts of the country, this problem will soon assume the same proportions as in many western countries if the government and respective agencies do not pay serious attention and take immediate or drastic measures to curb its spread. This study is interested in the factors associated with youth delinquent activities. In Malaysia, the Social Welfare Department has the responsibility to implement government policy on welfare matters. Amongst the social welfare services are juvenile probation and parole, institution for delinquents, and child protection (Ismail, 2000).
Chapter 2

The Social Welfare Department of Malaysia (SWDM) (JKM, 2002) has listed statistics of indexed crime involving juveniles for the years 1999, 2000 and 2001. The data indicated a decrease in cases (for various categories of offences) amongst juveniles, from a total of 5,700 in 1999, to 5,284 in 2000, and 3,479 in 2001. The drop in the crime rate could possibly be due to efforts by the government and the police to reduce social problems among juveniles. Nonetheless, although the numbers have drastically been reduced, they are still considered high in absolute terms. In addition, the statistics listed by SWDM show that the majority of the cases involving juvenile offences were committed by male adolescents. Figure 1 shows the percentage of delinquent cases by year and gender.

![Figure 1: Number of Delinquent Cases According to Year and Gender](image)

The SWDM also listed the number of cases committed by juveniles by type of offence and gender (as presented in Table 1). The data shows that the majority of juveniles were involved in property offences, followed by personal offences and drug offences. The number of other cases of juvenile offences is also considered important. Table 1 shows that, in 1999, a total of 73 female juveniles were caught for property-related offences. For the same related offence, 85 females and 32 females were caught in 2000 and 2001 respectively. For offences relating to people, statistics for the years 1999, 2000 and 2001 show that female juveniles were also involved in crimes such as fighting and assault (JKM, 2002). Within those years, 19 females were involved. Although these numbers are small, they nevertheless indicate that the present Malaysian females are bold enough
Chapter 2

to commit offences normally associated with male juveniles. Thus, it is invaluable to investigate the problems faced by both genders in terms of their delinquent activities, as well as their social and psychological backgrounds. Therefore, one of the purposes of this study is to examine whether male and female juveniles have the same attachment pattern, behavioural characteristic, and reasons for committing offences.

Table 1:
Number of Incarcerated Juvenile According to Type of Offence and Gender

<table>
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<tr>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Properties offences</td>
<td>3,717</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>3,316</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>2,044</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person offences</td>
<td>493</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>457</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex offences</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breaking the Detention Ordinance</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug offences</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>421</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambling</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weapon/Fire arms</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traffic</td>
<td>423</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keeping weapon</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>239</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>5,555</strong></td>
<td><strong>145</strong></td>
<td><strong>5,121</strong></td>
<td><strong>163</strong></td>
<td><strong>3,376</strong></td>
<td><strong>103</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: M = Male; F = Female
Others include:
- Under the Fishing Acts
- Have no identity card.
- Intruder
- Keeping sex/lewd material as one’s property
- Run away from detention
- Under the Vehicle Acts
- Under the Corruption Acts
- Under the Telecom Acts
- Under the Poison Ordinance

The statistic reported by the SWDM (JKM, 2002) also indicates that among the ethnic groups in Malaysia, the Malays constitute the largest amount in delinquency. Table 2 summarises the data of incarcerated juveniles by ethnic group and gender.
Table 2:
Number of Incarcerated Juvenile According to Ethnic Group and Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Malay</td>
<td>3,689</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>3,331</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>2,228</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>816</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>844</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>518</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian</td>
<td>645</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>604</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>379</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Bumiputra</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5,555</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>5,121</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>3,376</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: M = Male; F = Female

Based on the statistics and information discussed, this thesis will focus on the Malay youth ethnic group. The rationale for choosing this race for the study is that the Malays not only form the largest population in Malaysia, but have the most number of inmates in the YRC, as compared to other ethnic groups. Although historically, the Malay ethnic group has emphasised the idea of cohesion and relational interdependency among family members (Suradi, 2000), the numbers and reports presented in the crime statistics (e.g., JKM, 2000) by the social welfare department portray the fact that there are various problems encountered by Malay youths which need to be identified, examined thoroughly and addressed.

**Crime, the Courts and Juvenile Courts Act, 1947 (Act 90)**

According to the law, anyone committing a crime has to pay a penalty. However, the individualisation of punishment entailed by the Malaysian government coincides with the philosophy of rehabilitation, which was implemented in 1947. Rehabilitation assumes that crime results from personal deficiencies or maladjustments. Attention is therefore focused on the criminal, rather than the crime. Rehabilitation is not an alternative to punishment, as laws imposed are aimed to deter first offences. Nevertheless, the law provides the occasion and means to help the individual adjust to society. The length of sentence may, however, be indeterminate, to allow time for change, while release may be dependent on ‘cure’, or the reduction in dangerous conduct, as judged by the school officer and ‘house teacher’ (Badrul, 1999).
For the purposes of this thesis, it is important to present the procedures on how the Malaysian government manages juvenile-related and delinquent activities. The significant focus is on the Juvenile Courts Act. In dealing with juvenile problems, the Juvenile Courts Act, 1947 (Act 90) is applicable in Malaysia. The Act is “an Act to provide for the care and protection of children and young persons and the establishment of Juvenile Courts”. Three important phrases as stated in the Act will be mentioned repeatedly in this thesis. The phrases are: (i) ‘Henry Gurney School’, which is a school under the direction and control of the Director General of Prisons and approved by the Minister for the education, training and detention of persons to be sent there in pursuance of this Act; (ii) ‘juvenile’, which is defined as a person who has attained the age of criminal responsibility prescribed in section 82 of the Penal Code and who is under the age of eighteen; and (iii) ‘approved school’, which is a school approved by the Minister for the education, training and detention of children and young persons to be sent there in pursuance of this Act and includes a camp set up for the care and protection of juveniles. Several sections under the Juvenile Courts Act, 1947 (Act 90) that are closely related to this thesis are presented in Appendix H.

Youth Rehabilitation Centre

In Malaysia, there are two types of rehabilitation institutions to locate incarcerated juveniles, that is, the Henry Gurney School and the Tunas Bakti School (in the Juvenile Courts Act 1947, the Tunas Bakti School is referred to as an ‘approved school’). Services are provided for youths between the ages of 10 to 18 years based on the Juvenile Courts Act 1947. In addition, there are 11 probation hostels in Malaysia to detain juveniles in transit to an approved school, on remand for the period stipulated by the court or for up to 12 months. As reported by SWDM (JKM, 2002), the admission to the YRC is the last resort. The management in each rehabilitation centre monitors the activities of these juveniles. This approved set-up is reflective of the Malaysian government’s commitment in giving serious consideration to issues related to juvenile wellbeing, and that to realise and understand the philosophy of the juvenile justice system is to focus on rehabilitation first, instead of merely handing out punishment.
Chapter 2

For the purpose of this research, the Director General of Prisons, Malaysia Prison Headquarters, had given his consent to conduct the study at the Telok Mas Henry Gurney School and at the Batu Gajah Henry Gurney School. In addition, the Social Welfare Department of Malaysia, Ministry of National Unity and Social Development had given its approval to conduct research at the Sungai Besi Tunas Bakti School, the Sungai Lereh Tunas Bakti School, and the Jerantut Tunas Bakti School.

i) Henry Gurney School

The historical roots of the Henry Gurney School can be traced to the administration of the Borstal System, which is the system implemented in England. To cater to current needs and local culture, the Borstal System was revamped. The Henry Gurney School was established under Section 38 of the Juvenile Court Act 1947. The objective of the school is to detain juveniles for any offence committed that are punishable by imprisonment.

The institution also has a right to detain those juveniles that are beyond parental control. In addition, the school assists in giving services to rehabilitate juveniles that have been found guilty by the court. The school is administrated and supervised under the Malaysian Prison Department. There are five Henry Gurney Schools in the country, three of which are located in Peninsular Malaysia, and one each in Sarawak and Sabah. In the current study, the Malaysian Prison Department has given permission to carry out the research at the Teluk Mas and the Batu Gajah Henry Gurney Schools. Both schools detain incarcerated juveniles aged between 14 and 18 years. Based on the Henry Gurney School Reports (2000), the institutions are mostly, and highly, populated by Malay Muslims, followed by the Indians and the Chinese. This ratio may arise due to the fact that the proportion of the Malay ethnic group is highest in Malaysia.

The officer responsible for supervising the inmates is known as a ‘house teacher’. His role is to provide guidance to the juveniles, in terms of discipline, and to take care of the safety and the welfare of the inmates. With regard to correspondence, inmates are only allowed to send a letter once a week to family members. There are, however, no limits on the number of letters that an inmate can receive. On visits, the inmates are allowed to
meet their family members once a fortnight, but each visit is confined to a forty-five minute session.

ii) Tunas Bakti School
There are eight Tunas Bakti Schools for the rehabilitation of juveniles who have committed offences, as well as for those who are beyond parental control. The target groups are juveniles who are involved in crime and uncontrollable cases, aged below 18 years. The settlement of male juveniles in this school is based on Section 12(1)(f) of the Juvenile Court Act, 1947 and Section 37 of the Juvenile Act, 1947, where detention is for a duration of three years. Female juveniles, on the other hand, come under the Juvenile Court Act, 1947, Section 12(1)(f) (Minor crime), and Section 37 (Beyond control). The objective of establishing the Tunas Bakti schools is to give protection and guidance to incarcerated juveniles, and aims to care, protect and guide juveniles by building character, and by developing positive attitudes and independence. The Tunas Bakti School provides a variety of services, facilities and activities for inmates, such as security, guidance and counselling, religious and moral aspects of education, recreation and sport, and vocational training (JKM, 2002). In the Tunas Bakti Schools selected for this research, the Malays had the highest ratio of inmates.

Review on Malaysian Juveniles
In Malaysia, the issues on children and youths have gained serious attention over the last 10 years. In this matter, the government had directed the Social Welfare Department of Malaysia, Ministry of National Unity and Social Development, to tackle the problem. Several efforts were made, for example, conducting research to identify the problems related to delinquent behaviours, giving talks on ‘healthy’ behaviour and on parenting skills, and developing several youth clubs for lively and profitable peer interaction. However, many of these efforts were not fully successful. This was evidenced from the report written in the Bulletin JKM (2002), which indicated that high percentage of juveniles released from rehabilitation institutions would either repeat the same crime, or commits a different crime, and will be re-sent to a YRC. The report added that the most significant reasons for this phenomenon were: (i) lack of sincere acceptance from parents
and family members, (ii) ineffective and uneasy home situations, (iii) opportunity to meet with previous friends, and (iv) the attitude of juveniles for seeking pleasure.

Realising the seriousness of the issue, the National Unity and Social Development Ministry attempted to adopt a less punitive stance in helping wayward youths. As stated by its Minister,

"'Humane approach' would be introduced at these centres which would focus on corrective and developmental programmes. ... We have to adjust our thinking to one that is more developmental, more caring and more loving and we also need to understand why they (the juveniles) had done what they did'. But, later on in her talk, she stressed that families and parents will be the best support groups to the juveniles (Star Metro, July 15, 2001).

The Planning Unit and Information System, SWDM (JKM, 2000) reported that Malay youths, as compared to others ethnic groups, recorded the highest numbers in overall juvenile crimes in the years 1998 to 2000. A Juvenile Welfare Committee (JWC) has been formed by the Ministry of National Unity and Social Development (MNUSD) under the Juvenile Courts Act, 1947 (Act 90), Subsection 43(2)(a)(vi). The objective of this committee is to encourage participation from the community to reduce and solve juvenile delinquent problems. According to reports written by SWDM, among the sources of moral illness of youths are the poor attitudes of their families and the community around them. Consequently, one of the important jobs of the JWC is to encourage the general community to deter crime and to eliminate moral illness among children and youths; help the welfare officer get appropriate adoptive parents for juveniles, provide work to enable them to hone their skills, supervise juveniles and visit them while they are in the YRC.

Some researches and reports published by MNUSD have emphasised that the delinquent problems of youths begin at home (JKM, 2000). Poor parental responsibility and weak family relationships create the feeling of stress and anxiety, such that these youths attempt to seek a 'way out' by involving themselves in unhealthy social environments. The lackadaisical attitude of parents and inattention given towards a child-friend relationship also expose the children to the risks of moral illness (JKM, 2001). Insufficient religious knowledge and weak religiosity were among the other factors that
are associated with youths involving themselves in antisocial activities. These reports emphasised that present family problems emanated from the lack of tolerance and attachment attitudes between parents and their children, as well as between the children and other family members. Although parents are primarily concerned with the financial issues of raising a family, the responsibility towards the morality and spirituality of family members should not be neglected (JKM, 2000), as the attachment among family members was extremely important for the children.

The involvement in sexual activities is a serious problem among unmarried Malaysian female youths (JKM, 2002). This phenomenon is not only against the Malaysian culture, but against the tenets of Islamic law. According to the reports written by Rumah Seri Puteri Cheras (one of the 'probation hostels'), from January to June 2000, forty-three juveniles were caught and detained in this institution. They were found guilty of committing vice offences under Section 7(2) of the Protection of Women and Girls Act, 1973. Of this number, 23 were Malays, and were college students. They either worked as a guest relations officer (GRO) or as a customer social partner. The majority were caught in ‘karaoke’ lounges and entertainment centres. Based on the reports obtained from the interview between the social worker and the juveniles, it was cited that the lack of parental awareness towards the children’s interest and needs, poor role modelling at home, and lack of religious practice in daily life were among the primary factors that led these youths to venture out and seek solace outside home. Additionally, the reports stated that youths, and Malay youths especially, engage in delinquent activities because they were gullible and easily influenced by the trappings of wealth, luxury and fancy modern lifestyles enjoyed by peers to support vice or sexual activities (JKM, 2002).

Concern has been shown by the Selangor Chief Minister over the phenomenon of juvenile delinquency (Bulletin JKM, 2002). During the state legislative assembly, the Chief Minister voiced out that youth problems that cannot be contained by parents or guardians was showing an increasing trend. Youths, especially girls, running away from home had become a serious problem. Various family problems, such as difficulties in family interaction and communications, spouse interaction, divorce and
home financial problems (JKM, 2001), as well as juvenile engagements in antisocial and unlawful activities, including vice were reported as the reasons why these girls left home (New Straits Times, August 9, 2001). The Chief Minister also expressed that another problem that needed to be checked was *bohsia* (Appendix F), sexual activity and drug abuse, especially the taking of ecstasy pills. In all these cases, the government said that parents and family factors would be put into high consideration. Thus, these important factors have to be studied carefully.

To increase the parenting skills among parents, the NPFDB conducted a series of workshops on parental training around the country. The workshops stressed the effectiveness of family communication. The target group was focused to counsellors in government agencies and independent institution or groups, with the hope that these groups of people would contribute towards educating parents and the people around them. The effectiveness of disseminating information on parenting skills through this method, however, is questionable.

Apart from the efforts of parents and other family members to help a child overcome his or her problems, the role of the public or community members is also crucial. According to the PEMADAM (Malaysia Drug Rehabilitation Society) (2003) reports, the phenomenon of drug problems among youths was serious, with the number of abuses increasing every year. As of March 2002, about 3,965 youths have been caught for various offences related to drug abuse, and 70 percent of them were repeat offenders. Youths were also reported to be continually addicted to drugs because of certain negative attitudes or actions shown by other people, such as the refusal to accept them as a member of the community. Based on the increasing number of drug addicts among youths, the PEMADAM administration unit has put in a lot of effort to deter and battle drug crimes with the help of several parties, such as the Narcotic Department and the State Education Department. The cooperation and support of parents were also needed as PEMADAM believed that the parents themselves were the best observers and supporters in developing child behaviour and personality (PEMADAM, 2003).
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Based on the reports written by these relevant departments, that are accountable for public and social welfares, the character, role and responsibility of parents as leaders and educators at home are very crucial, in that they guided ‘healthy’ behaviour of the children. Upon a juvenile’s discharge from a YRC, parents need to welcome, accept and guide the juvenile towards rehabilitation. Government bodies, on the other hand, would serve as support in giving moral rehabilitation to youths who were caught and convicted. In sum, the reports provide very useful information to begin constructing further research on related issues. Using the reports written by the government agencies as a basis, the current study would like to make use of the attachment approach in examining delinquency problems in Malaysia, as well as observing other factors related to youth delinquent behaviour.
INTRODUCTION

This chapter imparts the definition of juvenile delinquency and attachment, and the justification for using the attachment theory as a basis for current research. The reviews on parental, familial and peer relationships with juvenile delinquent behaviours are presented. Reviews on mother-child and father-child attachments with child performance and behavioural problems are also indicated, as well as reviews on theoretical and empirical evidence against attachment theory.

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

'Delinquency' abstracted from the term 'delinquent' means juvenile misconduct that might be dealt with under the law (Friedlander, 1957). Juvenile delinquency, which can be defined as antisocial or criminal behaviour by children and adolescents (Morris, 1980) is a widespread societal problem that is threatening the wellbeing of families and communities throughout the country. This behaviour represents a complex reality, which cannot be explained by one single factor. Although it is generally assumed that the family plays an important role in an adolescent's development (Cashwell & Vacc, 1996), it is more difficult to document how familial role influences this development.

Juvenile delinquency is an ambiguous concept mingled with many different criteria, especially those concerning age, sex, race and nature of offence. Delinquent behaviour during adolescence is a social problem that is experienced in cultures around the world. A simple legal definition posits that:

*Delinquency is behaviour against the criminal code committed by an individual who has not reached adulthood as defined by ... law* (Bartol & Bartol, 1998).
In the broadest sense, juvenile delinquency means behaviour by non-adults that violates the formal norms. In a narrower sense, juvenile delinquency is any behaviour by those persons designated as non-adults that would make them subject to the juvenile court. Thus, officially, a person is not considered a juvenile delinquent unless he or she has been adjudicated as such. Nevertheless, the term delinquency has a plethora of definitions and meanings that cannot be accommodated by the one-sentence definition. Some definitions also encompass status offending, which is not behaviour against the criminal code per se but is prohibited only for juveniles (Wegener, Losel & Haisch, 1990). Similarly, the social definition of delinquency comprises a series of youthful behaviours deemed to be inappropriate (e.g., aggressive behaviour, truancy, drug abuse or petty theft). Furthermore, descriptive and diagnostic labels such as ‘antisocial’, ‘conduct disorder’, and ‘aggressive’ or ‘violent behaviour’ are [not] necessarily synonymous with legal definitions of delinquency but do comport with social delinquency classifications (Bartol et al., 1998). The term juvenile, however, has only one definition in Malaysia. It has accepted the common-law age minimum of 10 years, below which a child may not be held criminally responsible. With regard to the upper limits of the definition of juvenile, the Malaysian government has set this at 18 years (Juvenile Courts Act, 1947 [Act 90]). Certainly, the Children and Youth’s Bureau of the Malaysian Social Welfare Department defines delinquency in the following way:

*Juvenile delinquency cases are those referred to courts for acts defined in the statutes of the State as the violation of a state law or municipal ordinance by children or youths of juvenile court age, or for conduct so seriously antisocial as to interfere with the rights of others or to menace the welfare of the delinquent himself or of the community. This broad definition of delinquency includes conduct which violates the law only when committed by children, e.g., truancy, ungovernable behaviour, and running away from home (JKM, 1999).*

This official definition by SWDM is the one principally used in all Federal and State Government dealings. It is extensive enough to cover most of the definitions used for research on delinquency, and specific enough to be close to the legal definitions used in jurisdictions of Malaysia. Aside from the broad Malaysian concept of juvenile delinquency is the often elusive concept of the status offender. Status offenders are generally those who, if adults, would not be arrested for their acts. These include those
who run away from home, are incorrigibly disobedient, refuse to attend school, violate local curfew regulations, and commit similar acts prohibited only for the young (JKM, 1999). Perhaps one of the most disturbing aspects of this category of delinquency is that it means youths are often incarcerated for non-criminal behaviour: behaviour which may in fact be a normal and often necessary response to family and community situations.

In supporting this idea, Cavan and Ferdinand (1975) in their early study on antisocial behaviour have put high consideration towards non-legal definitions of delinquency. They had developed a definition appropriate for this category, that is, “any child who deviates from normal behaviour so as to endanger himself, his social career, or the community” (Cavan et al., 1975, p. 28). Perhaps the primary reason for the need of a non-legal definition is to focus on behaviour that is similar to the legal definition of delinquency and that can be operationalised for purposes of conducting research and developing theories. Thus, it can be seen that defining juvenile delinquency is often an exercise in relativity. How one defines it depends on the intended use of the definition and one’s point of reference. In this thesis, however, juvenile delinquency referred to is the definition approved by the Children and Youth’s Bureau of the Malaysian Social Welfare Department.

Delinquency seems to be more common during the mid-to-late adolescent years (Paternoster & Iovanni, 1989; Moffitt, 1993), and some delinquents continue their criminal activity into adulthood (Moffitt, 1993). According to Rice (2001), adolescence is a transition stage between childhood and adulthood and as a period of preparation and training for adult living reference. Since it comes between childhood and adulthood, adolescence provides researchers with an excellent point for looking backward and forward, that is studying how adolescent development reflects earlier life experiences and foretells adult outcomes. More than childhood, adolescence is the time when adult life paths are set in motion. Thus, adolescence is a unique period of life, worthy of study in its own right (Jaffe, 1998) especially with the phenomenon related to behavioural problems and risks in their life environment. In Malaysia, the interest in studying adolescent development emerged around the 1990s. Many of the studies were done by
researchers from tertiary education institutions and government agencies, focussing on motivation (e.g., Adibah, 2001), anxiety (e.g., Lilianna & Yusoff, 1999), depression (e.g., Lee, 2001), friendship (e.g., Goh, 2002) and self-concept (Nordinah & Zaid, 1999) of adolescents. Only a few studies were conducted on parent-child relationships (e.g., Dass, 1992) and adolescent behavioural problems (e.g., Dewi, 1999), however, the researches were not comprehensive. Yet, no study has been carried out to understand the importance of attachment and delinquency among adolescent offenders.

The questions of “Why do they commit crimes?”, and “How did they take their first step towards involving in delinquent activities?” are the important questions. To answer these questions, exploratory and extensive researches have to be done, especially in Malaysia, where the number of comprehensive studies on delinquency and crime through the eyes of psychology and criminology is very few, with a small scope of studies. Although researchers in the areas of criminology and psychology have conducted many studies to explore the issues associated with juvenile delinquency, particularly in North America and Europe (e.g., Dishion & Andrews, 1995; Hawkins, Catalona, & Miller, 1992; Jessor, Van Den Bos, Vanderry, Costa, & Turbin, 1995; O’Donnell, Hawkins, & Abbott, 1995), regardless of the advances in explaining the possible causes of juvenile delinquency, the problem of delinquency among adolescents remains a significant social problem.

Children who have suffered adverse relationships become teenagers and adults who are grossly over-represented in the criminal justice system (Karr-Morse & Wiley, 1997). This is not only a direct drain on resources, as it also signifies a large population who is not in a position to contribute to the wider society. Delinquent, antisocial and violent behaviours, frequently associated with no sense of either empathy or remorse, have been traced back to being on the receiving end of abuse and neglect during the first two years of life (de Zulueta, 1993). As de Zulueta (1993, p. 76) puts it, violence “is the manifestation of attachment behaviour gone wrong”. The ability to be mindful of another’s mind, and thus mind how people treat them, is derived from the children’s relationship with their caregiver (Phillips, 2000). It has been found that attachment problems in adolescence predict later criminal behaviour (Allen, Hauser & Borman-
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Spurrell, 1996), and an attachment-based study of prisoners with psychiatric disorders confirmed the hypothesis that:

"Criminality arises in the context of weak bonding with individuals and social institutions and the relatively ready dismissal of attachment objects. Criminal behaviour may be seen as a socially maladaptive form of resolving trauma and abuse... Violent acts are committed in place of experienced anger concerning neglect, rejection and maltreatment. Committing antisocial acts is facilitated by a non-reflective stance regarding the victim" (Fonagy, Target, Steele, Steele, Leigh, Levinson & Kennedy, 1997, p. 255).

Individual interventions with delinquent youths have yielded some positive results (Lipsey, Wilson & Cothen, 2000), however, these short-term effects have the potential to be sabotaged by significant others in the youth’s family system (Dembo, Shemwell, Guida, Schmeidler, Pacheco & Seeberger, 1998; Johnson & Johnson, 1999). Research has shown that treatments that focus on the family as a unit are more effective than individual treatments with delinquent youths (Morton & Ewald, 1987; Sexton & Alexander, 2000). However, in Malaysia, this approach of treatment has not been conducted seriously (JKM, 1999), moreover there is no finest method of doing it.

In sum, investigating the basic structure of the relationships and environments surrounding delinquent life is very meaningful in understanding their behaviours. Additionally, the findings of this study will give a lot of information to other researchers, as well as enhance knowledge to local researchers, especially in helping SWDM grasp and discover the problems of delinquency in Malaysia. Furthermore, the information presented in the thesis would assist SWDM or particular institutions in developing more productive programmes for inmates in youth rehabilitation centres.

Attachment Theory

The original attachment theory was developed by John Bowlby (1969, 1973, 1980) and aims to understand man’s early developmental origins, adult psychopathology and health (Bowlby, 1944, 1951). To Bowlby, attachment theory is “a way of conceptualising the propensity of human beings to make strong affectional bonds to particular others” (Bowlby, 1977, p. 201). It focuses on exploring individuals’ distress and personality
disturbance brought by inadequate maternal care during early childhood and the unwilling separations and losses of those children (Bowlby, 1977).

Bowlby’s (1969) attachment theory is principally concerned with the role that enduring affectional bonds (attachments) play in shaping the life course of individuals. Its quality is considered to be critical for the development of future interpersonal relationships and the capacity for intimate relationships in particular. It regards the propensity of human beings to make intimate emotional bonds with particular individuals as a basic component of human nature. This human characteristic is already present in germinal form in the neo-natal stage. It then continues through adult life into old age (Bowlby, 1988). According to Bowlby (1977), “attachment theory is a way of explaining the many forms of emotional distress and personality disturbances, to which unwilling separation and loss give rise” (p. 201). It also helps explain the implications of optimal and non-optimal social attachment for psychological wellbeing (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters & Walls, 1978; Bowlby, 1969, 1982; Lopez, 1995).

Bowlby (1988) suggests that during infancy and childhood, the attachment bonds are with primary caregivers who are relied on for protection, comfort and support. During a healthy adolescence and adult life, the bonds persist, but are complemented by new bonds. These bonds are developed through emotionally mediated communication that persists as a principal feature of intimate relationships throughout life. The capacity to develop and maintain intimate emotional bonding either with caregivers or with other individuals is regarded as a principal feature of effective personality functioning and mental health.

Bowlby (1988) posits that as a rule, a weaker and less experienced individual towards someone regarded as stronger or wiser displays care-seeking behaviour. A child or older individual in the care-seeking role keeps within range of the caregiver depending on the degree of closeness or of ready accessibility, hence the concept of attachment behaviour (Bowlby, 1988). He also suggests that the role of care-giving should be regarded as equally important. This role is played by parents or significant others and is
complementary to the attachment behaviour of care seekers. This is considered a basic component of human nature.

The ‘attachment system’ is one of the key constructs of Bowlby’s attachment theory. According to him, one’s attachment system is an organised behavioural system, which is an important and integral part of human nature. The goal of this homeostatic system is to regulate behaviour in order to obtain and to maintain proximity to one or a few preferred individuals, that is, the attachment figures, so as to ensure both physical and psychological safety and security. The system is activated when the child can no longer reach the attachment figure, or when the child feels threatened or fearful. Under these “separation” situations, the child displays attachment behaviour in order to re-establish contacts with the attachment figure and to obtain a greater sense of security. The system also functions continuously to provide the child with a ‘secure’ base from which confident exploration of the external world can take place (Ainsworth et al., 1978). The interactions between the child and the caregiver contribute to the formation of the child’s internal working model, which provides the growing child with the template for the construction of future relationships (Bowlby, 1973).

Bowlby (1973) stated that the internal working model functions to maintain a coherent worldview and self-image for the child. It includes memories of attachment-related experiences, beliefs, expectations and attitudes about relationship. For instance, based on the child’s interaction with his mother, he may see himself as worthy of attention and love or considers himself as undeserving of care and affection. The working model also provides strategies for the child to achieve the attachment goals and to manage anxiety associated with separation from the caregiver. Once established, the internal working model is actively self-perpetuating. It influences perception of incoming information and affects one’s social behaviour. It creates a tendency for an individual to both select and create an environment that confirms the existing beliefs (Collins & Read, 1993). The internal working model developed in childhood will persist in adulthood and form the basis of emotional regulation within close relationships. It provides an important foundation for one’s future personality development.
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For years, Bowlby (1969, 1982) and Ainsworth et al. (1978) have suggested that the child’s relationship with the mother serves as the prototype for future relationships. Healthy parent-child attachment is critical for the individual’s social and emotional development. In recent literature, there has been a trend to extend the definition of attachment beyond the mother-child dyad, to include any significant relationship throughout the life span (Blain, Thompson & Whiffen, 1993). With this ‘new’ definition, the attachment theory has particularly important implications for adolescents. Developmentally, adolescence is a period during which individuals explore and initiate relationships. One of the primary tasks of adolescence is to learn to develop close, supportive and intimate relationships outside the family (Garcia-Preto, 1988). For example, Collins and Read (1990) found that college students who were comfortable feeling close to others, and who were able to depend on others (characteristics of secure attachment), reported greater satisfaction with the level of social support they received.

In recent years, the ideas of Bowlby and Ainsworth have become so widely accepted that “research and theory related to the human affectional system have been dominated by the attachment paradigm, and thus, have yet to be studied adequately ... which they must” (MacDonald, 1992, p. 764). In his article, MacDonald discussed three key reasons for needing to make this research distinction: (i) positive feelings of affection seem to result from a different biological system than do emotions that are central to attachment research, such as fear, distress and anxiety; (ii) attachment occurs even in the face of abusive behaviour by the caregiver; (iii) gender differences play a very instrumental role in social relationships throughout life... but there are no sexual differences involved in security of attachment, however (p. 765). This consideration suggests the need to develop a conceptualisation of touch and affection that is independent of an attachment, yet will explore the apparent relationship between these two phenomena.

Gove and Crutchfield (1982) found that attachment between parent and child was one of the strongest inhibitors of adolescent delinquency. Gove and Crutchfield’s findings support the earlier theoretical work conducted by Hirschi (1969). Hirschi suggested three reasons in defence of this hypothesis. First, attached children spend more time with their
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parents, leaving limited opportunity for delinquent action. Second, parents are more “psychologically present”, even in their physical absence, forcing the child to ask, “What will my parents think?” (Hirschi, 1969, p.90). Third, the child is used to sharing his or her life with parents because of former intimate communication, which in turn will enhance and increase the likelihood of future communication. Ultimately, the child cares what the parent thinks because there is mutual love and respect. In addition, Sroufe and Fleeson (1988) have suggested that early secure attachment provides a learning experience through which individuals internalise relationships. This representation of relations is then carried forward to influence expectations and attitudes of self and others. Thus, they concluded that early parenting experiences exert a significant influence on later social interactions and relationships. Such findings provide support for Bowlby’s (1969) notions of the importance for early attachment. They also support the hypothesis that failure to attach has negative consequences on the development of social competence Hinde (1987).

Parkes and Stevenson-Hinde (1982), likewise, perceives attachment as having two major dimensions: (i) the cognitive-affectional dimension of attachment, defined as the underlying quality of affection towards attachment figures; and (ii) the behavioural dimension of attachment, defined as the utilisation of these figures for support and proximity. As cognitive capacities increase, attachment behaviour is guided by cognitively based working models of attachment figures. These working models are cognitive schemas of the expectations that individuals have on their attachment figures (e.g., the accessibility of the caregivers in times of crisis). These two dimensions, the cognitive-affectional and behavioural could be expected to be correlated (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987). Armsden and colleague perceive the attachment construct in terms of three factors: (i) trust, (ii) communication, and (iii) alienation. All these three factors contribute to the quality of attachment, either positively or negatively (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Bowlby, 1988).
i. Trust

Trust is a pervasive attitude that infers an experience of goodness as well as confidence in the sameness and continuity of the other (Erikson, 1968). Trust also increases security in relationships (Larzelere & Huston, 1980). When two people do not trust each other, they will be more hesitant to share their feelings and dreams. According to Erikson, in many ways trust is parallel to attachment. Both are determined from early infancy and are greatly influenced by the quality of the mother-child relationship and the maternal sensitivity to the child’s needs.

Holmes and Rempel (1985) suggest that trust is a representation of abstract expectations that subsumes a variety of more specific beliefs and feelings. For most people, the expectations relevant to trust are centred around the attitudes of individuals towards attachment figures and their relational experiences. According to Armsden and associate (Armsden et al., 1987), trust is a felt security in the knowledge that attachment figures understand and are responsive to individuals’ emotional needs. To earn trust, both caregivers and care seekers must be motivated to moderate their own self-interests. The willingness to sacrifice self-interest is critical in the development of trust, and thus, the success of the relationship. Erikson (1950) describes this as “basic trust”, a willingness to let attachment figures “go” emotionally, physically and psychologically, and doing it without undue anxiety or rage. Moreover, trust can also be defined as “felt security”, perceived by children or adolescents as provided by their attachment figures. It can be manifested by the show of understanding, respect and responsiveness from caregivers to the adolescents’ needs, desires and perceptions. Trust can be considered as the basic foundation for the attachment process. It promotes self-disclosure and is an integral process in relationship building. The higher the level of trust between individuals and their attachment figures, the stronger the attachment bond. Trust also helps in building a very strong secure base, which is needed by individuals in exploring new environments.

ii. Communication

Communication is the way individuals relate to others. It is a continuous, irreversible and transitional process. This process involves communicators who occupy different but
overlapping environments. They are simultaneously senders and receivers of messages, many of which are distorted by physical and psychological noise (Adler, Rosenfeld & Towne, 1992). Good communication between care seekers and caregivers is essential in the attachment process. It helps in developing trust and the feeling of trustworthiness between the two individuals during their period of interaction. In the current study, communication is defined as the perceived verbal and non-verbal communicating activities that take place between adolescents and their attachment figures. The communication can take place as a result of direct contacts between the care seekers and their significant others. It can also be as symbolic communication that does not involve direct contact.

iii. Alienation
At any point in a relationship (e.g., parent-child, child-peer relationships) there is a possibility that trust is lost and effective communication becomes impossible. This could be due to some overt or covert behaviour that is very disruptive to the relationship. It could also be due to feelings of dissatisfaction directed towards significant others due to a very stressful life situation. This scenario normally triggers unpleasant circumstances that involve anger, hatred and confusion leading to feelings of isolation and alienation. In this thesis, alienation is defined as feelings of intense anger and detachment from attachment figures. These feelings can be triggered by the absence or inaccessibility of attachment figures in times of crisis. Alienation begets other negative responses. Once the feeling of alienation is triggered, it will affect the ability of the care seekers to communicate with their attachment figures. This in turn will destabilise the feeling of trust and bring discomfort to the feelings of security and protection that have developed between caregivers and care seekers.

Attachment Theory and Individual Perception Process
According to the attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969/1982, 1980, 1988), models of self and others are constructed largely out of social relationship experiences, beginning in infancy. Through repeated interactions, infants form expectations about how their caregivers are likely to behave towards them in the future, and especially whether they can expect to be
treated in a sensitive and loving manner. Initially, the expectations are relevant only for the specific relationships from which they were derived. However, as subsequent relationship experiences are incorporated, they gradually develop into a model of self as loveable or not and a model of others as dependable and trustworthy or not. In theory, as these general self-other models become more firmly established, they begin to exert a pervasive influence on the social perception and behaviour of individuals. Importantly, the effects are hypothesised to extend beyond the realm of attachment per se to include the broader context of social relating.

Numerous studies have documented individual differences in working models of attachment (e.g., Baldwin, 1995; Baldwin, Fehr, Keedian, Seidel & Thomson, 1993; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Bartholomew & Shaver, 1998; Collins & Feeney, 2000; Collins & Read, 1990; Shaver, Collins & Clarke, 1996). In general, individuals with secure working models have greater feelings of self-worth and more social confidence; they tend to perceive others as generally trustworthy and dependable and they are comfortable with intimacy and inter-personal closeness. Compared to those with secure models, individuals with insecure-ambivalent models express a strong desire for social acceptance but doubt their own value and worry excessively about abandonment, and those with insecure-avoidant models tend to view others as undependable and untrustworthy and express fears of and/or aversion to intimacy and social closeness.

Research has also identified links between working models of attachment and social functioning. Secure individuals tend to have better perspective-taking skills, higher relationship satisfaction, and lower break-up rates (e.g., Carnelley, Peitromonaco & Jaffe, 1994; Collins et al., 1990; Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994; Simpson, 1990). And, their relationships are characterised by better communication and more mutual support and trust (e.g., Brennan & Shaver, 1995; Collins, 1996; Collins et al., 1990; Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Kobak & Sceery, 1988). Individuals who are insecure-ambivalent report entering into relationships relatively quickly, falling in love frequently (Hazan et al., 1987), and being prone to engage in prematurely high levels of self-disclosure (Mikulincer & Nachshon, 1991; Mikulincer & Orbach, 1995). However, they describe their
relationships as unsatisfying and lacking in trust (Collins et al., 1990) and are described by their partners as obsessive, over-controlling, excessively jealous, and emotionally unstable. Insecure-avoidant individuals tend to display relatively low levels of self-disclosure and emotional investment in their relationships (Brennan et al., 1995; Mikulincer et al., 1995) and are viewed by their partners as hostile, rejecting, and emotionally distant. In sum, it has been empirically established that working models of attachment are associated with differences in perceptions and behaviour in social relationships. However, little is known about the processes by which such social perceptions are formed. These processes are not only of theoretical interest but are also important with respect to their influence on the initiation and maintenance of interpersonal relationships.

A person whose primary attachment strategy results in anxiety forms insecure attachment relationships and his or her communication about attachment reflects the person's secondary strategies of de-activation or hyper-activation (Kobak, Sudler & Gamble, 1991). Anxious avoidant children may have had mothers who were unresponsive to their negative emotional signals (Goldberg, Mackay-Soroko & Rochester, 1994). These mothers also may have inhibited their own expression of negative emotions (Izard, Haynes, Chisholm & Baak, 1991). When avoidant attachment individuals are asked about their own life experiences, they usually show a lack of recall about childhood, and/or defensively devalue the importance of attachment relationships (Main & Goldwyn, 1998). These qualities of discourse are viewed as attempts to minimise the anxiety that is associated with the attachment experience. There is ample evidence for the suppression of negative affect on the part of avoidant individuals (Cassidy, 1994). However, the result might or might not be different for children or youths who have been involved in delinquency. Waters, Wippman and Sroufe (1979), for instance, found that avoidant children were less likely than secure children to spontaneously smile at their mothers, and other people too.
Child-Parent Relationships and Attachment Patterns

Attachment theory, developed by John Bowlby, has provided a framework for studies on both the immediate and long-term effects of early relationship experiences on the developing child (Siegal, 1999). The process over the first two years appears to be similar across different cultures (Kagan, Kearsley & Zelazo, 1978). However, although it has been shown that most children will become attached by the second half of their first year of life, it is interesting that the nature and quality of this relationship differs greatly from child to child. Some infants are especially relaxed and secure in the presence of their caregiver, other seem more anxious and uncertain (Pendry, 2000). The question to this condition is: How do we classify different attachment behaviours and how do we measure them accurately? This question was answered by Ainsworth et al. (1978), who developed a measure to study the factors that influence attachment and its impact on later development. It is assumed that children have developed an attachment with their parents (caretaker) if they show distress when separated from the caretakers. In addition to the similarities of attachment across cultures, Gardiner, Mutter and Kosmitzki (1998) remarked that there are also differences. Parent-child interactions and relationships are influenced by the environment in which they take place.

Attachment theory offers a broad and far-reaching view of human function (Fonagy, 2001) and the use of attachment theory to understand individual differences were greatly enhanced by the work of Mary Ainsworth. The involvement of Ainsworth in Bowlby’s research group altered the course of the study of attachment by bringing to it experimental research methodologies and other refined concepts related to the disturbed attachment children experienced (Ainsworth et al., 1978). Studies have shown that most children will become attached by the second half of their first year of life, and it is interesting that the nature and quality of this relationship differs greatly from child to child (Waters et al., 1979). Some infants are especially relaxed and secure in the presence of their caregiver, other seem more anxious and uncertain. The question is this: How do we classify different attachment behaviors and how do we measure them accurately? This question was answered by Ainsworth et al. (1978), who developed a measure to study the factors that influence attachment and its impact on later
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devolution. Ainsworth extended Bowlby's theory by focusing on the nature of the attachment relationship by emphasising the quality of the carer-child relationship. Ainsworth believes "that the behaviour of the caregiver in the early years of the infants life can predict the type of relationship that this caregiver - child dyad will have later on" (Cowie, 1994, p.14).

Ainsworth devised a way of measuring the quality of an infant's attachment to its caregiver known as the 'Strange Situation', which was a procedure to assess differences in infants' reactions to a series of separations and reunions with their mothers (Arcus, 1998). As for the empirical evidence, before the infants' behavior was assessed in the Strange Situation, researchers closely observed mothers and children in their homes, paying careful attention to each mother's style of responding to her infant in a number of fundamental areas: feeding, crying, cuddling, eye contact, and smiling. At twelve months, the infant and his/her mother were taken to the lab and the infant was observed as the infant was separated from his/her mother, as well as upon the mother's return.

The concept of insecure attachment was elaborated by Ainsworth on the basis of experimental work (laboratory procedure) with children of 12-24 months (Ainsworth et al., 1978). The procedure consists of the eight episodes (Connell & Goldsmith, 1982; Ainsworth et al., 1978). Ainsworth found that while the majority of the mother-infant interactions involved comfort and security, some were tense and conflicted. Ainsworth also found evidence that suggested the patterns of interactions between mothers and their infants were related to the level of responsiveness that the mothers showed their infants. According to Arcus (1998), when administering the 'Strange Situation', the researcher takes a mother and child of approximately one year old into an unfamiliar room with toys. There is a series of separations and reunions where the mother and child are first alone in the room and then the researcher enters, and after a few minutes, the mother leaves. A few minutes later, the mother returns and the researcher observes the child's reaction to this return. Ainsworth noted three distinct patterns in the babies' reactions. One group of infants protested and cried on separation, but when the mother returned, they greeted her with pleasure and were easy to console. She labeled this group securely
attached. The second group of infants was characterized by a lack of distress during parental separation, and avoidance of the parent upon return. This group was called insecurely attached, and avoidant. The third group was labeled ambivalent or anxiously attached, and tended to be clingy from the beginning and afraid to explore the room. They became terribly anxious upon separation, yet displayed angry and resistive behavior upon the parent's return.

Briefly, by using ‘Strange Situation’ method, Ainsworth stated that mothers who are emotionally available, sensitive and supportive during their child's first year are likely to have a child who develops a secure attachment. A caregiver who is rejecting is likely to have a child develops an avoidant attachment and a carer who is inconsistent is likely to have a child who develops a resistant attachment. Like Bowlby, Ainsworth claimed that attachment between infant and one or more specific caregivers was universal and had biological roots, and the main emphasis is on the quality of care. However, this evidence did not have support cross culturally (Arcus, 1998).

In designing this study, Ainsworth and her colleagues reasoned that if attachment had developed well, infants and toddlers should use their parents as a secure base from which to explore their environments. In addition, when a parent leaves the room for a brief period of time, the child should show separation anxiety, and an unfamiliar adult should be less comforting than the parent. This concept has been supported by studies that measure infants' reactions in the Strange Situation, which closely resemble their use of the parent as a secure base and their response to the separation in the home environment (Blanchard & Main, 1979). The Strange Situation has been widely acclaimed because it seems to enable researchers to identify and measure the security of infant attachment. Furthermore, individual differences in attachment security seem related to prior patterns of infant-parent interaction, a finding that is consistent with the common belief that children's social relationships are shaped by their earliest social experiences.

Ainsworth and her colleagues (Ainsworth et al., 1978) pointed out that the quality of attachment depends on the history of interaction between the infant and the caregiver.
Secure attachment develops when the caregiver is sensitive to the needs of the child and responds in a warm and affectionate way. Children with secure attachments tend to view themselves positively and expect their relationships with other people to be mutually enjoyable. They display reciprocity in their interpersonal relationships. They acquire a sense of self-worth, which facilitates the development of effective interpersonal skills and forms the basis for formation of love relationships in adulthood. They usually have more friends and are confident in displaying their affection for and empathy towards others. For secure children, the caregiver’s high-quality mothering enabled the child to form an internal working model of the self as trustworthy and competent, and a model of others as responsive and dependable. Researchers have found them showing more positive effect in social situations, having few emotional problems and being more resistant to stress (Sroufe, 1983) and the chances of them engaging in antisocial behaviours are lower (Gardiner & Grossman, 1990).

Secure attachment is a protective factor, conferring confidence and adaptability, although not a total guarantee of future mental health, and without this emotional resource neither the child nor the adult will feel free to make the most of their life’s possibilities. Research makes it clear that:

“In general, secure children show more concentrated exploration of novel stimuli and more focussed attention during tasks. Secure attachment provides the best-known psychological pre-condition for tension-free playful exploration” (Grossmann, Grossmann & Zimmermann, 1999, p. 781).

Thompson (1999) has summarised that securely attached children show greater enthusiasm, compliance and positive affect (and less frustration and aggression) during shared tasks with their mothers, as well as affective sharing and compliance during free play with their mothers. Securely attached children tend to maintain more harmonious relations with parents in the growing years. Overall, attachment provides firm and trustworthy emotional feelings for children.

The securely attached child, moreover, is said to be able to use the attachment figure as a secure base (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Bowlby, 1969) that can be relied on and returned to
in times of stress. That liberating experience of a secure base, a core concept in attachment theory, over time becomes internalised through a process of mental representation as the child matures, so that the physical presence of the caregiver becomes less necessary as the child moves through childhood and adolescence years. At the time of stress, however, the child will continue to need access to his or her secure basic attachment figure. Because of the significance of mental representations, the formation of a secure attachment relies also on the quality of the child’s thinking. As Howe and Fearnley (1999) put it, “felt security can therefore be experienced by the use of the growing capacity to mentalise”. The child’s emerging ability to think about his/her own mind and the minds of others, a form of meta-cognition, has come to be called the ‘reflective function’ or ‘mind-mindedness’. It has been shown to be associated with secure attachment, being a key feature of sensitive care giving (Fonagy, 1996, 1999, 2001). The ability of the caregivers to think, to reflect on their own feelings and the feelings of others, as well as to help the child do likewise enables the child to regulate emotions and become a more effective operator in the social world (Howe, Brandon, Hining & Schofield, 1999). Understanding that people have thoughts and feelings that differ from one another is a necessary part of negotiating relationships inside and outside the family.

Children with problems related to insecure attachment begin to soak up lawful resources from early on, when ‘externalising’ behaviour (aggression, non-compliance, negative and immature behaviours, etc.) demands a response (Speltz, Greenberg & De Klyen, 1990). This is probably the largest group of children that the Social Welfare department, Special Education and the Child and Adolescent Mental Health Service are expected to deal with. The social and economic costs of these types of disorders are staggering (Greenberg, De Klyer, Speltz & Endriga, 1997; JKM, 2000).

Ambivalent attachment stems from the infant’s experience of inconsistent parenting when the child is never quite sure if his or her expressions of anxiety and distress will be suitably attended to. Furthermore, anxious-ambivalent infants experience caregivers as inconsistently responsive and helpful when needed, promoting a working model of self as
uncertain and fearful, and a model of others as potentially affirming yet unreliable (Lopez, 1995). There is a lack of consistent nurturing and protection from the parent that makes it hard for the infant to feel that exploring the world is a safe option. Thus the child has a low threshold for distress, but no confidence that comfort will be forthcoming. When upset, he or she tries to get close to the caregiver, but only to become angry and resist contact. This pattern can be carried into adulthood and there reveals itself in relationship difficulties where there is either a withdrawal from others or a compulsion to be dependent (Karen, 1994). A longitudinal study found that adolescents diagnosed with anxiety disorders were significantly more likely to have had resistant attachments with their parents when they were young (Warren, Huston, Egeland & Sroufe, 1997).

The avoidant attachment, on the other hand, is the presumed product of early experiences in which the efforts of children to solicit the protection and support of the caregivers are consistently rebuffed or rejected. These conditions give rise to an internal working model of self as essentially alone and unwanted, and a model of others as rejecting and deactivated. Bowlby (1962, 1982) believed that attachment patterns would result in an undesirable developmental outcome, from compulsive self-sufficiency to chronic delinquency and antisocial behaviour.

Caregivers of avoidant attached children are often found to be detached, rejecting, lacking in emotional expression and unresponsive to their children's needs (Ainsworth et al., 1978). They direct their hostility and criticism to their children, and they display general rigidity and compulsiveness in their interaction with their children. In response to their rejecting caregivers, children divert their attention away from them in order to avoid anxiety-related to emotional rejection. Children with an avoidant pattern of attachment are often found to display a range of maladaptive social behaviours in their childhood. In the laboratory research conducted by Ainsworth et al. (1978), the avoidant infants did not respond to the friendly overtures by their mothers in the strange situation. At home, unprovoked anger was often expressed inappropriately towards their caretakers (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Main & Weston, 1982). At later ages, these children exhibited disturbed social behaviour, including unprovoked aggression, lack of responsiveness to
friendly overtures and lack of reciprocity in relationships with peers (Lieberman, 1977). In a study conducted by Sroufe, Fox and Pancake (1983), pre-school children previously classified as avoidant were rated by teachers as dependent but emotionally distant, socially withdrawn, and overly hostile. They attempted to contact their teachers indirectly, but their contact-seeking behaviour decreased in stressful conditions or when contacts were initiated by others. These children's behaviour suggested distrust of others and failure to conform to social norms of reciprocity. Their social behaviour led to social rejection from others, which might further confirm their internal working model.

Ambivalent and avoidant attachment styles clearly posit an insecure attachment pattern (e.g., Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991). Children with this insecure attachment style tend to be attention-seeking, impulsive, tensed, passive and helpless (Alexandar, 1992; Karen, 1994). In summary, Ainsworth et al. (1978) and Bowlby (1982) posit that attachment is a disposition to seek contact and proximity with a specific individual, usually a primary caregiver. This proximity-seeking behaviour emerges during a very stressful period. According to Rice and Whaley (1994), parents who are emotionally and physically available to their children during stressful or challenging experiences will facilitate the development of a secure attachment bond. Parents who are always unavailable will foster the development of insecure attachment bonds.

Briefly, the above discussions seem to present that the Strange Situation has been widely acclaimed because it seems to enable researchers to identify and measure the security of infant attachment. Furthermore, individual differences in attachment security seem related to prior patterns of infant-parent interaction, a finding that is consistent with the common belief that children's social relationships are shaped by their earliest social experiences. However, there is a variety of reasons why researchers should look at the results of Ainsworth et al.'s (1978) longitudinal study with caution (Pendry, 2000). According to Pendry (2000), the sample of participants (26 infant-mother pairs) was small compared to the number of variables. A sample of 26 infants is simply too small to be divided up into 3 groups and 7 subgroups. As commented by Pendry (2000), it seems that the researchers easily could have overanalysed trivial differences among the infants.
and, as a result, too many subgroups were created. Furthermore, by using Strange
Situation experiment, Ainsworth and her colleagues argued that children enter day care
attachments are like to be insecure. But some researchers (e.g., Clarke-Stewart, 1989)
put on comment that it is important to validate the behaviour patterns observed in the
Strange Situation for infants whose mothers work using other assessment procedures.
This is important for one thing, because Strange Situation may not be psychologically
equivalent for infants of working and non-workings mothers. The validity of the Strange
Situation procedure depends on creating a situation in which infants feel moderately
stressed and therefore display proximity-seeking behaviour to the object of their
attachment. The Strange Situation may not be equally stressful for the infants of working
and non-working mothers (Clarke-Stewart, 1989). Consider the features that make up the
Strange Situation, the infant plays with someone else’s toys in a room that is not his or
her own; the infant is left by this mother with a woman who is a stranger; the infant plays
with and is comforted by that women in the mother’s absence; the mother returns to pick
the infant up. Although at least some infants of non-working mothers undoubtedly have
had experiences like these before their assessment in the Strange Situation, infants of
working mothers are more likely to have had them regularly and routinely and, therefore,
to be more accustomed to them. Thus, any of these elements of familiarity could affect
infants’ behaviour in the Strange Situation. Although strong evidence that infants’ whose
mothers work find the Strange Situation less stressful has not yet been collected, there are
hints that this may be the case (Clarke-Stewart, 1989). Furthermore, researchers have
found that in the Strange Situation, infants who have been in day care, compared with
infants who have not, are less wary initially. They are less likely to resist contact with
the stranger and less likely to seek proximity and contact with the mother (Hock, 1980;
cited in Clarke-Stewart, 1989); are less disturbed by the mother’s absence (they are less
likely to search for the mother and more likely to play comfortably with the toys after the
mother has left the room) (Doyle & Somers, 1978; Jacobson & Wille, 1984; cited in
Clarke-Stewart, 1989); and are less likely to seek proximity and contact with the mother
on her return (Goossens, 1987). As a result, as commented by Clarke-Stewart (1989), it
is important to assess infants’ attachment using procedures that are not biased by
differential familiarity and potentially differential stressfulness.
Another issue Clarke-Stewart (1989) mentioned was in interpreting the differences between infants of working and non-working mothers in the Strange Situation concerns the meaning of attachment itself. In theory, an attachment is a relationship; it is not a global personality trait. If the children of working mothers are more insecure with them, this does not necessarily mean that these children are emotionally insecure in general. Thus, Clarke-Stewart (1989) stressed that, before labelling the infants of working mothers emotionally insecure, we need to assess their emotional health in a range of situations and with a variety of partners. Several evidence show that day-care infants are not emotionally disturbed in general, besides some infants of working mothers were coded as insecure in the Strange Situation have been found to perform better than the infants of non-working mothers on a variety of other tasks (Strayer & Moss, 1987; Vaughn, Deane & Waters, 1985; cited in Clarke-Stewart, 1989). Taken together, these findings seem to suggest that day-care infants are not more anxious, insecure, or emotionally disturbed overall as revealed by Ainsworth and colleagues (1978).

Moreover, although cross-cultural comparability of the Strange Situation has been questioned (LeVine & Miller, 1990; Takahashi, 1990), findings from numerous studies in Europe, Asia, Africa, the Middle East and North America demonstrate that attachment patterns occur in a wide variety of cultures (Lamb, Pleck, Charnov & Levine, 1987; Miyake, Chen & Campos, 1985). Ainsworth (1991) mentioned that affectional bonds seem to be species-characteristic because they seem to occur universally among all cultures, and are likely to have evolved because they forwarded some vital survival function. Thus, this study will make use of the fundamental attachment theory by Ainsworth and Bowlby to identify the relationship between juveniles and parental characteristics in the context of attachment and delinquent behaviours. Simultaneously, the current study will probe the relationship of juvenile delinquency with parental and peer attachments, family environment and other individual-related factors.

**Interpersonal Relations: Mother-child vs. Father-child**

In a growing number of recent studies, the study of attachment focused on parents, that is, both mother and father. Examining the mother-child attachment and father-child
attachment separately, however, is presumed important in order to verify that these two types of attachments have an important link between them (Simons, Whitbeck, Beaman & Conger, 1994; Harris & Marmer, 1996).

A number of literature reviews can be seen in numerous empirical studies. In the meta-analysis by Fox, Kimmerly and Schafer (1991), it was found that the two models are dependent on each other, that is, the type of insecurity for each of the two is equivalent. Fox and colleagues proposed three explanations for their findings: (i) this high degree of similarity points to the fact that by the use of strange situations, the working model of the infant is revealed; (ii) this high degree of similarity is due to the attachment history, that is, the family environment that the infant reared within and similar rearing practices provided by both mother and father; and (iii) this high degree of concordance is affected by infants' temperament.

Another support for similarity came from Genuis and Oddone (1996) study, wherein they found that father attachment was significantly related to mother attachment. Studies done by Ijzendoorn, Sagi and Lambermon (1992), Braungart-Rieker, Courtney and Garwood (1999), and Verschueren and Marcoen (1999) discovered a significant similarity between maternal and paternal attachment models. However, contrary to these findings, Main and Weston (1981) and Lamb, Frodi, Hwang, Frodi and Frodi (1983) found no significant relationship between infant-mother and infant-father attachment in terms of security. This remains true also for another study having German infants (age 12 – 18 months) as its subjects (Grossmann, Grossmann, Huber & Wartner, 1981). These opposing findings can be attributed to the use of small sample sizes. Bridges, Connell and Belsky (1988) have queried that if attachment quality is a matter of relationship history, there should be differences between mother attachment quality and father attachment quality. Bridges and colleagues say that previous research shows these two models are independent. A same argument can be seen in Wartner, Grossmann, Fremmer-Bombik and Suess (1994). Furthermore, there are also differences in the quality of the time spent with children by the mother and by the father. Mothers spend time on child-rearing activities, while fathers spend time on play (Lamb, 1986). This situation opens up the possibility that the
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relationships with mother and father shape distinct components of interpersonal skills alongside common ones (Bridges et al., 1988). Verschuren and colleague (Verschuren et al., 1999), in the same tone, discovered that mother attachment model better predicted a child’s positivity of self while the child’s internalising problems was better predicted by the father attachment model. They found a significant relationship between the father attachment model and a child’s competence in social interaction. However, according to the explanation of Bridges and colleagues (Bridges et al., 1988), a consistent point was found to be emotionality (a component of attachment-related behaviours shown by infant) common to strange situation behaviours for both mothers and fathers. It was detected that the crying behaviour with the father predicted behaviours with strangers more than the same behaviour with the mother. Nevertheless, intensity of crying was found to be consistent in strange situations with mother and father (Bridges et al., 1988).

Study on child-mother and child-father attachments by Verschueren and associate (Verschuren et al., 1999) for children’s representation of self and their socio-emotional competence shows that the relative predictive power of child-mother and child-father attachments differed according to the domain of child function that was assessed. More specifically, it was found that the child’s positivity of self was better predicted by the quality of the child-mother attachment representation than by the quality of the child-father attachment representation. In contrast, the child’s anxiety/withdrawal behavioural problems were better predicted by the quality of the child-father attachment representation than by the quality of the child-mother attachment representation. With regard to the joint effects of child-mother and child-father attachments, it was found that a secure attachment to one parent could compensate for or buffer against an insecure attachment to the other parent. However, the buffering effect was not complete.

Positive parent-child relationships have also been identified as a preventive factor for delinquent behaviour. Supportive relationship by parents (Jensen, 1972) and positive evaluation by the mothers (Blackburn, 1993) reduces the impact of risk factors by restricting opportunities for juvenile contact with delinquents, and at the same time reinforcing commitment to conformity. Whereas high parent-child conflict (Cernkovich
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& Giordano, 1987) and conflicting father-son relationships (Hanson, Hanggeler, Haefele & Rodick, 1984; Clark & Sheilds, 1997) predicts the child's involvement in crime. The general qualities in parent-child interaction displayed in families of delinquents are that, they are less warm, are more hostile, have more negative expectations of each other, and are less likely to reach agreements (Hetherington, Stanley-Hagan & Anderson, 1989). However, considering that the research of mother-child and father-child relationships to the development of child conduct disorders is very limited, great caution should be taken not to construe current research as blaming mothers or fathers for child behavioural problems. Therefore, in this thesis, the author is interested to identify and examine the relationship between mother-child and father-child attachment pattern amongst delinquent juvenile.

Theoretical and Empirical Arguments against Attachment Theory

Bowlby’s attachment theory somehow has been critique by several researchers. According to Rutter (1981), for example, Bowlby’s attachment approach has shown that delinquency and an inability to care for others does not result from early separation per se, but may develop in association with variety of adverse factors. It seems rather that any apparent adverse effects on the child are due to the train of difficult experiences that may follow separation, for example, being taken into care, or the pattern of chronic adverse experiences that may have preceded it, i.e. abuse or marital discord (Rutter, 1981).

Infants have become attached to familiar people who have responded to their need for physical care and stimulation by the second half of the first year. How this attachment develops has been a topic of intense theoretical debate (Rutter, 1987). Theories that attempt to explain attachment are abundant but scientifically verifiable explanations have been elusive. According to Bowlby’s attachment theory (Bowlby, 1946), children who are deprived of maternal care during a critical phase of their emotional development will suffer irreversible damage. This theory, however, has been criticised. For example, a critique of the maternal deprivation was put forward by Rutter (1972; as cited by Eysenck and Flanagan, 2000), who pointed out that Bowlby had assumed that all experiences of
deprivation were the same whereas in fact there are some quite key differences. Rutter (1981) said that the concept of 'deprivation' was misleading because there was an important difference between being separated from loved ones (deprivation) and never having formed a relation with anyone in the first place (privation). Rutter felt that deprivation may not have irreversible consequences whereas privation might have.

Many of Bowlby's juvenile delinquents had experienced several changes of home and of principle caregiver during their early childhood. Rutter (1981) argued that it was important to distinguish between different constellations of early experience because they are associated with different outcomes. His main criticism of Bowlby was that he had muddled together various kinds of separation and the fact that Bowlby stated that deprivation was the cause of long-term difficulties. Rutter (1981) suggested that it might simply appear to be deprivation that was causing later difficulties.

Rutter also emphasized that in most cases, the damage comes from 'lack' or 'distortion' of care rather than any form of 'loss' as claimed by Bowlby (Rutter, 1972). Furthermore, according to Rutter (1981), the syndrome of acute distress among children is probably due in part to a disruption of the bonding process (not necessarily with the mother as indicated by Bowlby); development retardation and intellectual impairment are both a consequence of privation of perceptual and linguistic experience; dwarfish is usually due to nutritional privation; enuresis is sometimes a result of stressful experiences in the first five years; delinquency follows family discord; and psychopathy may be the end-product of a failure to develop bonds or attachments in the first three years of life. Rutter, in addition, suggested that the different elements in a child's early life experiences play quite different parts in the development process, so that the end-results of an insufficiency or distortion of each are equally dissimilar (Rutter, 1981).

A further point of departure from Bowlby's views concerns the supposedly special importance of the mother. He has argued that the child is innately monotropic and that the bond with the mother (or mother-surrogate) is different in kind from the bonds developed with others. Rutter (1972) was disagreed of this point and seems not to
support that view. According to Rutter, two issues are involved. First, he suggested that the chief bond is especially important because of its greater strength, but most children develop bonds with several people and it appears likely that these bonds are basically similar. Second, the ‘mother’ or ‘mother-surrogate’ is the person to whom the child is necessarily most attached. Of course, according to Rutter, in most families, the mother has most to do with the young child and as a consequence she is usually the person with whom the strongest bond is formed. But, it should be appreciated that the chief bond need not be with a biological parent, the chief caretaker, and/or a female (Rutter, 1981). Furthermore, it seems to be incorrect to regard the person with whom there is the main bond as necessarily and generally the most important person in the child’s life. That person will be most important for some things but not for others. For some aspects of development, the same-sexed parent seems to have a special role, for some the person plays and talks most with the child and for others the person who feeds the child. The father, the mother, brothers and sisters, friends, school-teachers and others all have an impact on development, but their influence and importance differs for different aspects of development (Rutter, 1972). Rutter (1981), furthermore, emphasised that the studies into the development of antisocial behaviour in children show the important of family relationships. Discord, tension, and lack of affection in the home all appear to increase the likelihood of the children showing disorders of conduct. This effect is not one particularly associated with influences in early childhood and it serves to emphasize the important of life experiences in middle childhood for some aspects of development.

According to Tizard (1991), Bowlby’s claims about the long-term effects of the security or otherwise of early attachment on adult personality and relationships remain speculative. Methodologically, as highlight by Tizard, the issue is extremely difficult to study since for the great majority of children and environment, the people caring for them, and the child’s own temperament remain fairly constant. It may be this constancy rather than the influence of early experiences, which accounts for continuities in the child’s behaviour. In another study, Campos, Barrett, Lamb, Goldsmith and Steinberg (1983) report that the major changes in family circumstances, for example, the father’s unemployment or parents’ divorce, are associated with changes in the security of
attachment. Quinton and Rutter (1985), in addition, were able to show that personality and parenting difficulties among women could be related to events occurring after early childhood, starting with whether their experiences at school had been positive, and extending to the supportiveness or otherwise of their husbands and the number of socioeconomic stresses under which they were currently living. It was not the case that the later events had been inexorably set in motion by events in the early years. These and similar findings suggest that although early adverse experience often does have a marked influence on development, positive experiences occurring at least as late as early adulthood can lead to improvements in functioning. Equally, such evidence as there is suggests that unfortunately a secure early childhood is not an insurance against later psychological damage. According to Brown and Harris (1978), loss of a parent during adolescent, for example, seems to predispose towards depression, irrespective of the early circumstances.

Another implicit perception amongst psychologist with Bowlby's view was concerned of father-infant relationship. According to Bowlby's observation, fathers are of little significance in the early years. Yet, it seems very obvious that considering the mother-child dyad in isolation is false, that is, even in a small nuclear family, other family members play key roles in the child's life, as may friends and neighbours. So far as fathers are concerned, it is well established that they are important attachment figures for most young children, and may be the child's most preferred person, despite the fact that fathers generally spend much less time than mothers with the infant (Kotelchuk, 1988). In the 'Strange Situation', some babies have been found to be securely attached to their fathers, but not to their mothers. The intensity of the infant's attachment to his/her father seems to depend on a complex of factors, including the father's sensitivity to the baby's signals, his playfulness with the baby, and the amount of time he spends in face-to-face interaction with the baby (Chibucos & Kail, 1991). At a later age, research has shown that if one parent is emotionally unstable, the presence of a stable parent seems to a large extent to 'buffer' the children from adverse effects (Rutter, 1979).
As to sibling relationships, in the past, they have mainly been viewed in a negative light by psychologists, if they were considered at all. Some earlier psychologists, such as Adler, believed that sibling rivalry was a major influence on development. But throughout the Bowlby theory, sibling relationships received even less attention from attachment perspective than father-child relationships. It is only since the 1980s that detailed studies of how young siblings interact have appeared, most of them based on observations made in the children’s homes. Parents, alternatively, are often astonished at the large differences in personality and behavioural styles between their own children (van Ijzendoorn, Moran, Belsky, Pederson, Bakermans-Kranenburg & Kneppers, 2000). Behavioural genetic research has shown that these unexpected differences between biologically related siblings can be ascribed to unique aspects of the child-rearing context for each of the siblings within the same family (Plomin, 1994; Rowe, 1993). For example, the younger sibling is uniquely exposed to the interactions between the older sibling and the parents (Dunn, 1993).

As proposed by Dunn (1993), her study suggests that siblings play a complex and important role in each others’ development, a role in which rivalry in only one component amongst many. According to one of the earlier study on sibling relationship conducted by Lawson and Ingle (1974), throughout the first year of life, interactions between infant and older sibling become increasingly. Children were found to spend almost as much time interacting with their older siblings as with their mothers, and far more time than with their fathers (Lawson et al., 1974). These interactions are an important learning resource for the infant (Dunn & Kendrick, 1992). Around these studies, Dunn points out that the special feature of sibling relationships is the variety of roles that they encompass. Older siblings are at different times teachers, familiar playmates, aggressors, comforters, and protectors. Like parent-child relationship, Dunn (1993) suggested that sibling relationships tend to be highly charged with emotions, and siblings tend to be markedly ambivalent to each others. Yet, several researchers who have observed in the home have found that unfriendly and hostile encounters between siblings tend to be considerably outnumbered at all ages by friendly and affectionate behaviour (Abramovitch, Corter & Londo, 1990). In observation on sibling relationships,
Dunn and colleague (1992) emphasised that there is no doubt that siblings are usually attached to each others, and display the same attachment behaviour, although at a lower intensity, that they do to their parents. This attachment develops during the first year of life: infants as young as 8 months may cry when their siblings leave the room and greet their return with pleasure. By the age of 14 months, many children go to their older sibling for comfort, and from the age of 2½, an older sibling can comfort a younger effectively, and be used by them as a ‘secure base’ (Dunn et al., 1992)

Ethological theory, on the other hand, also reveal on attachment, concerned with the adaptive, or survival, value of behaviour and its evolutionary history (Hinde, 1989). According to the ethological view, babies are biologically prepared to contribute actively to establish a bond with their caregivers, which promote the chances for their individual genes to survive. Ethologists believe that children's behaviours can be best understood in terms of their adaptive value, and seek a full understanding of the entire organism-environment system, including physical, social, and cultural aspects (Hinde, 1989).

Although ethology emphasizes the genetic and biological roots of development, learning is also considered important because it lends flexibility and adaptiveness to behaviour (Grossmann, 1985). According to Plomin (1992), heredity seems to have the strongest influence on physiological functions such as sleep and feeding patterns and the infant's level of excitability. By following babies throughout their first eight years of life, Kagan (1989) has found one personality trait, shyness, that appears to be linked to biological differences. About one infant in ten seems subdued and restrained in new situations, and three quarters of these infants go on to become shy and inhibited children. Their shyness seems related to physiology; extremely shy children have an abnormally low stress threshold so that during the mildest stress their heart rate, muscle tension, and hormonal levels differ from those of other children. A genetic basis to shyness has also appeared in twin and adoption studies (Plomin et al., 1988). One could argue that Kagan's findings indicate that children's inborn temperament is partly responsible for the way babies respond in the Strange Situation. Babies who are irritable and fearful may simply react to the brief separation with intense anxiety even though the parent may have consistently displayed very responsive behavior and care to the baby throughout its life. Research
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shows that children who possess a disposition to stress in early infancy are prone to
develop insecure attachment later (Seifer et al., 1996; Vaugh et al., 1992). Some
evidence has show that tendencies toward delinquency may be inherited, although shred
family influences may include both environmental and genetic influences (Rowe,

Furthermore, in another perspective, it could be argued that attachment development is
not determined by the nature and quality of the infant-caregiver relationship per se but
instead by the infant's temperament (Goossens & Van Ijzendoorn, 1990). Studies have
shown that most securely attached infants develop particular distinctly different
attachment bonds with each parent and the infants' varied caregivers (Goossens et al.,
1990; Alati, Najman, Kinner, Mamun & O’Callaghan, 2004). One could argue that if
temperament were the overriding factor in establishing attachment quality, it would
expect attachment classification to be more constant across caregivers than it is. This
should have led to the establishment of a similar attachment classification for all
caregivers, but studies do not support this (e.g., Goossens et al., 1990). However, this is
not to say that temperament has no effect on the establishment of attachment security.
Given that attachment security describes the interpersonal relationship between infant and
caregivers, Seifer and Schiller (1995) said that one could easily see that personality traits
and temperament play an active role in the dynamics of establishing this relationship.
When a mother's capacity to perform healthy attachment to the child is limited by her
own personality or stressful conditions, then infants with difficult temperament or
problem behaviours are at risk for developing attachment insecurity (Seifer et al., 1995).
According to Rice (1996), it is true that certain behaviour characteristics, such as
temperament, are genetically influenced, so that a child may have a predisposition to
behave poorly. If the parents do not know how to cope, psychological disturbance in the
adolescent may result.

In conclusion of these reviews, the evidence briefly summarised above suggests that
young children are unlikely to suffer psychological damage if their mothers go out, for
example to work, although they may suffer initial distress. Indeed, according to Tizard
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(1991), children will benefit from the greater variety of social contacts outside the family. Young children can and do become attached to those who look after them, as well as other children. Further, if the child's relationship with the mother is less good, some researchers suggest that other long-standing relationships, for example with the father or siblings, may serve as an important protective factor. In addition, because of these children different personalities, temperament styles, heredity upbringing, skills and relationship with others, could contribute something different to their enjoyment and enrich their development (Tizard, 1991). According to Tizard, children may be resilient, but some environments stimulate development more than others, and they need the security of attachment to familiar people, who are responsive to their needs (Tizard, 1991). After all, despite the criticized of level against how attachment theory has constructed, they have been widely used (see for example, Edelstein, Alexander, Shaver, Schaaf, Quas, Lovas & Goodman, 2004; Duemmler & Kobak, 2001; Kobak, 2002), and is also provide a basis of many policies and political discourses relating to juvenile delinquency in Malaysia. Therefore, this study will test some of the tenet of the theory in the context of juvenile delinquency.

The Link between Poor Parental Attachment and Juvenile Delinquency

There are numerous environmental and individual factors that shape the likelihood of an adolescent's involvement in problematic behaviours and crime (Aber, Gephart, Brooks-Gunn & Connell, 1997; Jessor, Van Den Bos, Van der Ryn, Costa & Turbin, 1995). These factors have included drug use (e.g., Dembo, Williams, Schmeidler, Wish, Getreu & Berry 1991; Elliott et al. 1989), schooling and academic performance (Maguin & Loeber 1996), family influences (Loeber & Stouthamer-Loeber 1986), and peer influence (e.g., Nee 1993). However, the most important factors are family factors, especially factors associated with parenting behaviour and styles. Parents, being one of the factors, can increase the probability of delinquency and other problematic behaviours among their children because they serve as the primary socialisation context for children (Simons, Johnson, Conger & Elder, 1998; Patterson, Reid & Dishion, 1992). Parental attachment and parental supervision during childhood, as measured by home visitor impressions, were among the better predictors of male adolescent delinquency across several classic
delinquency studies (Loeber & Dishion, 1983; Loeber & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1986). In fact, a constellation of family factors relevant to parental monitoring (i.e., family disorganisation and poor parental supervision) consistently provided the best predictions of problematic behaviour in adolescents, even in comparison with problematic behaviour in childhood.

Poor attachment children are significantly more likely to be aggressive, disruptive and antisocial. Disruption of attachment during the crucial first three years can lead to what has been called "affectionless psychopathy", the inability to form meaningful emotional relationships, coupled with chronic anger, poor impulse control, and a lack of remorse (Anderson, Holmes & Ostresh, 1999; Leas & Mellor, 2000). Furthermore, attachment disorder affects many aspect of a child’s functioning. A child may display some combination of the behaviour (oppositional and defiant, impulsive, destructive, lie and steal, aggressive and abusive, hyperactive, self-destructive, cruel to animals, irresponsible, fire setting); emotions (intense anger and temper, sad, depressed and hopeless, moody, fearful and anxious [although often hidden], irritable, inappropriate emotional reactions); thoughts (negative beliefs about self, relationships, and life in general ["negative working model"], lack of cause-and-effect thinking, attention and learning problems); relationships (lacks trust, controlling ["bossy"], manipulative, does not give or receive genuine affection and love, indiscriminately affectionate with strangers, unstable peer relationships, blames others for own mistakes or problems, victimizes others/victimized); physical (poor hygiene, tactiley defensive, enuresis and encopresis, accident prone, high pain tolerance, genetic predispositions (e.g., depression, hyperactivity); and moral or spiritual (lack of faith, compassion, remorse, meaning and other prosocial values, identification with evil and the dark side of life) primary symptoms (Levy & Orlans, 1998). In addition, these children are unable to give and receive love and affection, constantly defy rules and authority, are physically and emotionally abusive to people, and create ongoing stress and turmoil in the family and society (Hanson et al., 1984).
Parenting practices, as well, have been associated with, and related to, numerous behavioural problems in childhood and adolescence, such as early criminality, conduct disorder and delinquency. These behavioural problems have been heavily researched, with findings indicating that the aforementioned behaviours are linked to adult criminal activity (e.g., Olds, Pettit, Robinson, Henderson, Eckenrode, Kitzman, Cole & Powers, 1998; Kazdin, 1995). Frick, Christian and Wootton (1999) found harsh punishment practices to be associated with the onset of conduct problems in middle childhood, and inappropriate parental supervision of behaviour being moderately predictive of problematic behaviour between the ages of 9 and 17 years. The absence of responsible parenting has also been found to be related to aversive behaviour (Dumas & Wahler, 1985) and offensive behaviour (Kolvin, Miller, Fleeting & Kolvin, 1988). Parent rejection, in addition, has been shown to be one of the strongest predictor of conduct problems and important factors leading to delinquency (Bynum & Thompson, 1992; Klein, Forehand, Armistead & Long, 1997). Other research showed that factors like a lack of affection for the child by parents (Edwards, 1996; Gluek & Gluek, 1950), parental coldness and rejection (Edwards, 1996; Rutter, 1971) and parental passivity and neglect (Edwards, 1996) all confirm the view that the unhealthy parent-child relationship has a prominent impact on juvenile delinquency.

Likewise, exposure to parental violence and bad disciplinary practices has been outlined as salient features of problematic children. Kazdin (1995) notes that parents of children with conduct disorders often have lax, harsh or inconsistent punishment strategies. Furthermore, Fergusson and Horwood (1998) have found that exposure to paternal violence is a mitigating factor in the development of conduct disorder and early criminal behaviour. Patterson (1986) postulates that ineffective and coercive parental discipline do not attribute to the effective management of the aggressive behaviour of the child, but on the contrary, they increase the frequency of this behaviour, which is theorised as being neither person- nor situation-specific.

Patterson and Stouthamer-Loeber (1984) found that as children approached adolescence, more of their time was spent in unsupervised activities. Individual differences in the
attachment practices of parents correlated with levels of antisocial behaviour in boys. Patterson and Dishion (1985) used structural equation modelling to test a model for the impact of poor parental supervision on delinquent behaviour. Parent-child relationship was found to have both a direct and an indirect effect on delinquent behaviour. Dishion, Patterson, Stoolmiller and Skinner (1991) found poor parental supervision to be a significant factor in the development of children of a deviant peer network in early adolescence, after controlling for prior levels of peer rejection and antisocial behaviour.

Clearly, an effective attachment between parent and child is very vital. It gives positive effect in many aspects of the child's development. Developmental psychologists have shown that strong affectional ties between adolescents and their parents tend to reduce adolescent deviance, meanwhile educational researchers have shown that adolescents with positive feelings towards their school are less likely to be deviant (Dornbusch, Erikson, Laird & Wong, 2001). Likewise, within the family, a mutual attachment between adolescent and parent insulates the adolescent from substance abuse, delinquency and violent behaviours (e.g., Allen, Moore & Kuperminc, 1997; Brook, Whiteman, Finch & Cohen, 1998). Dishion and Loeber (1985) found that the lack of parent-child relationship was both directly and indirectly correlated with the abuse of alcohol and marijuana by young adolescents. In a subsequent study, parental supervision was associated with children’s drug sampling as early as 9 or 10 years of age (Dishion, Reid & Patterson, 1988). Programmatic studies by Chilcoat, Dishion and Anthony (1995) have extended these findings in several important ways. They have provided a replication of the relationship between children’s report of supervision rules and early drug experimentation at ages 9 and 10, using logistic regression techniques that included only new initiations. Working with a multi-ethnic urban sample, Chilcoat and Anthony (1996) documented that poor supervision was prognostic of early initiations through late childhood. In general, the relationship between supervision and early drug experimentation held across neighbourhoods and ethnic groups. Parental supervision did not vary significantly by ethnic status; it did, however, vary as a function of the child’s gender. Girls are supervised more than boys, a finding consistent across several studies (Dishion, Li, Spracklen, Brown & Haas, 1999).
Various research also show that the structure of the family, the actual relationships and interaction patterns within the family are the key variables causally related to delinquency. In Malaysia, the case is difficult to prove from psychological perspectives, as there is no thorough study indicating the actual factors that may be associated with the delinquent behaviour of juveniles. However, it is assumed that attachment to family is important, in relation to social bond. A large number of studies have been undertaken to identify the features of family life, which appear most closely linked to the emergence of delinquent behaviour, and most likely to inhibit the formation of close family attachments (e.g., Rohan & Zanna, 1996; Ganthimathi, 1998). A few studies also found that positive parent-child relationships increase the success of parents at using communication and behaviour to model and reinforce values (Clark, & Worthington, 1990; Rohan et al., 1996) and discourage children’s attachment to deviant peers and involvement in problematic behaviours (Johnson & Pandina, 1991).

Gecas and Seff (1990) found a lack of parental support to be associated with negative socialisation outcomes for adolescents, that is, delinquency, deviance, low self-esteem, drug abuse and other problematic behaviours. Barnes and Farrell (1992), accordingly, reported that parental support is an important predictor of adolescent outcomes. They likened support to praise, encouragement, physical affection, and any other acts that would indicate to the child that he or she is accepted and loved. High parental support was a key socialisation factor in the prevention of adolescent deviant behaviour.

"Parental support is one of the most robust variables in the socialisation literature. It is positively related to cognitive development, conformity to adult standards, moral behaviour, internal locus of control, self-esteem, instrumental competence and academic achievement of children and adolescents... general label 'social competence'. The greater the amount of parental support, the greater the amount of children’s social competence" (Gecas et al., 1990, p. 947).

These findings are consistent with other parental socialisation literature (Baumrind, 1994).

Longitudinal evidence from many studies suggests that hostile or rejecting parenting and lack of parental supervision is associated with children’s later antisocial behaviour and
delinquency. In more than two decades of research, Patterson and colleagues have proposed and developed supportive evidence for a model of how parenting behaviour can lead to antisocial behaviour in children. They suggest that parents of antisocial children first reinforce commonplace, low-level aversive behaviours such as non-compliance, teasing or tantrums. Then, as the child learns to respond to aversive acts through aversive counter-attacks, increasingly severe coercive interchanges occur (Patterson et al., 1992). Interventions involving parent training to reduce such coercive interactions have decreased antisocial behaviour up to 4.5 years after treatment (Baum & Forehand, 1981). Thus, if harsh or poor parenting can lead to antisocial behaviour, one would expect that nurturing parenting might protect against the development of such behaviour. There is evidence that a good relationship with one parent, marked by warmth and the absence of severe criticism, can have a substantial protective effect against the development of later antisocial behaviour (Werner & Smith, 1992).

Parenting style and the effectiveness of learned child management skills, likewise, play an important role in what a child learns. Parents who have not acquired effective parenting skills have a greater tendency to lack confidence and self-efficacy, to be more critical and punitive, to lose their temper and resort more readily to physical punishment, to be more permissive, erratic and inconsistent, to have difficulties tracking and monitoring children’s behaviour, and to be more likely to reinforce poor behaviour whilst ignoring or punishing pro-social behaviour (Sansbury & Wahler, 1992; Webster-Stratton, 1992).

Since Bowlby’s original work on juvenile delinquents (Bowlby, 1944), there has been considerable speculation concerning the role of attachment in disturbances of conduct (Atkinson & Zucker, 1997; Fonagy, Steele, Steele & Target, 1997; Greenberg, 1999). Insecure attachment may simply indicate inadequacies of parenting of the kind often noted in this group. Alternatively, it may pre-dispose children to transactional experiences that are immediately generating conduct problems (Shaw, Owens, Vondra, Keenan & Winslow, 1996). Most probably, attachment processes are intimately involved in the development of specific psychological functions or mechanisms that are key in the
organisation of appropriate behaviour. Thus, attachment difficulties may specifically create problems in affect regulation and social cognitive skills, which are known to be dysfunctional ingroups with conduct problems.

Mental processing deficiencies and biases are present early on and have been shown to predict the course and outcome of pre-school disturbance of conduct (e.g., Weiss, Dodge, Bates & Pettit, 1992). Not surprisingly, these children have considerable difficulties in the playground and peer rejection can quickly ensue (Kupersmidt, Coie & Dodge, 1990). Rejected children tend to forge alliances with other children who are similar to them and with whom they share an interest in deviant activities (Dishion, Andrews & Crosby, 1995). Behaviours that increase the likelihood of peer rejection (e.g., reactive impulsive behaviours) add significantly to the prediction of later delinquency, beyond the prediction based on aggressive behaviour alone (Loeber, 1990). Social cognition appears to be strongly associated with family background, independent of the contributions of language and age (Cutting & Dunn, 1999). All these facts are at least consistent with the view that poor attachment represents the point of origin of one path to conduct disorder.

Aggressive children appear to be at somewhat greater risk (Bierman & Wargo, 1995) because they use their aggression strategically to attain social goals (Coie & Lenox, 1994). Pope and Bierman (1999) suggest that aggressive children may be a marker of social-emotional deficit that affects the process of social adaptation over time. Behaviours manifested by aggressive children (immaturity, angry reactivity, negative affectivity, low frustration tolerance, irritability, social incompetence, frequent expression of personal distress, and inattention) may indicate deficiencies in the capacity to regulate negative affect in the context of interpersonal relations. This is a regulatory of attachment (Hofer, 1995; Sroufe, 1996). Therefore, some children with high levels of aggressive-hyperactive-impulsive-inattentive patterns have been shown to manifest considerable adaptive disability, and it is these children who are most likely to meet diagnostic criteria for conduct disorder (Shelton, Barkley, Crosswait, Moorehouse, Fletcher, Barrett, Jenkins & Metevia, 1998).
Furthermore, in a sample drawn from a high social risk population, children who showed early insecure relations were also consistently observed to be more prone to moodiness, poor peer relations, and symptoms of depression and aggression, right up to pre-adolescence (Shelton, Barkley & Carlson, 1999). Two follow-ups of this sample showed powerful prediction of psychopathology in adolescence. Anxiety disorder in adolescence was most likely to be associated with ambivalent attachment in infancy (Warren et al., 1997). Overall, avoidant infants showed the highest rate of disorders (70 percent) and resistant infants were more likely to have diagnosable psychiatric disorder than secure ones. In the same sample, dissociative symptoms at 17 and 19 years were predictable from avoidant classification and disorganised behaviour scores (Ogawa, Sroufe, Weinfield, Carlson & Egeland, 1997).

Lyons-Ruth and colleagues followed up 64 high-risk infants (Lyons-Ruth, 1996; Lyons-Ruth, Zoll, Connell & Grunebaum, 1989). Seventy-one percent of hostile pre-schoolers had been classified as insecurely attachment at 18 months compared to 12 percent of those originally classified as secure. More than half of children classified as insecurely attach in infancy and who had a mother with psychosocial problems were seen as hostile in kindergarten, compared with less than 5 percent of those with neither of these risk factors. Additionally, similar risk found in relation to teacher-rated externalising symptoms was predicted by the avoidant attachment infant classification. Furthermore, Shaw and colleague (Shaw et al., 1996; Shaw & Vondra, 1995), studying a high-risk sample of children, found that attachment insecurity modestly predicted pre-school behavioural problems at age 3, and robustly and uniquely predicted problems at age 5. Sixty percent of poor attachment children showed clinically elevated aggression compared to around 17 percent of securely classified children. Children with both insecure attachments and parental ratings of difficult temperament were in the 99th percentile for aggression. Children with just one of these two risk factors were within the normal range. Both these studies suggest that poor attachment may be a vulnerability factor for later psychological disturbance in combination with other risk factors. In addition, Greenberg (1999) has reviewed in many of the literature, which shows strong associations between concurrent measurement of attachment and psychopathology.
In another study, Rosenstein and Horowitz (1996) found that adolescents with conduct disorders displayed a poor style of attachment towards their mothers, characterised by experiences of rejection, and dismissing the importance and influences of attachment by the participant. Likewise, it is necessary to note that not only is attachment affected, but so are future relationships, especially those that are intimate. Various research support the notion that violence breeds violence (Rodriguez & Sutherland, 1999; Jaffe, Wolfe & Wilson, 1990), and a violent and aggressive home atmosphere is an environment where such behaviours are often learnt by the child. Investigations on the attachment styles of males who are abusive towards their intimate partner have shown a proficiency to avoid intimacy, but have a strong dependency on others for maintaining a positive self-image (Bookwala & Zdaniuk, 1998). These are characteristics of what is termed a fearful or pre-occupied attachment style (as identified by Bartholomew & Horowits, 1991), which respectively match the avoidant and anxious/ambivalent attachment styles proposed by Ainsworth (1989; Ainsworth et al., 1991). Dutton, Saunders, Starzomski and Bartholomew (1994) who had reported that insecure (avoidant) attachment styles were prevalent in their sample of wife batters, support such findings.

Briefly, there is general agreement that attachment security can serve as a protective factor against psychopathology, and that it is associated with a wide range of healthier personality variables such as lower anxiety (Collins et al., 1990), and less hostility to regulate affect through interpersonal relatedness (Simpson, Rholes & Nelligan, 1992; Vaillant, 1992). Insecure attachment appears to be a risk factor and is associated with such characteristics as a greater degree of depression (Armsden et al., 1987), anxiety and hostility (Hazan & Shaver, 1990) and less ego resilience (Kobak et al., 1988). Both longitudinal (Goldberg, Gotowiec & Simmons, 1995; Lyons-Ruth, Easterbrooks & Cibelli, 1997) and cross-sectional (Moss, Parent, Gosselin, Rousseau & St.Laurent, 1996; Moss, Rousseau, Parent, St.Laurent & Saintonge, 1998) studies have identified links between insecurely attachment and aggression. While aggressive behaviour appears to be a common sequel of insecure attachment, by no means all of those with poor attachment histories manifest problems of aggression. This type of attachment seems to be a general risk factor for maladaptive behaviours (Lyons-Ruth & Jacobovitz, 1999; Lyons-Ruth et
Main et al. (1998), however, have presented an exciting finding on attachment. According to Main and colleague, individuals' internal working models of attachment may be, but are not necessarily, related to actual childhood experiences. As for example, there are some adults who have secure models of attachment relationships, but who have had very difficult experiences as children, including a pervasive lack of love and/or sustained parental rejection. These secure individuals, however, are able to discuss their experiences coherently and objectively, and ultimately they may be forgiving of poor parenting they received. Main and colleague (1998), in addition, reported that it is not the experience per se, but how the experience has been interpreted that is reflected in internal working models of attachment. Yet, this result is, or used to be, true to the research study sample among non-delinquent groups, as they manage to cope with the internal family pressure, or could think positively towards those experiences. For delinquent institution groups, however, the results may possibly be different.

A decade ago, Loeber and Stouthamer-Loeber (1986) conducted a meta-analysis of concurrent and longitudinal studies on the relation of family factors to juvenile delinquency and conduct problems. Numerous family-related factors were examined, including parental involvement with children, parental supervision, parental discipline, parental rejection of their children, child's rejection of the parent, parental criminality and aggression, marital relations, and parental absence. From their analysis, Loeber and Stouthamer-Loeber concluded that some factors were more powerful predictors of juvenile conduct problems and delinquency than others. The most powerful predictors were reported to be level of parental supervision, parental rejection, child's rejection of the parent, and parent-child involvement. Juvenile delinquency and conduct problems were associated with parenting styles characterised by parents who did not go on outings with their children, who showed indifference and little affection toward their children, and who often were unaware of their children's whereabouts. The conclusions reached by Loeber and Stouthamer-Loeber (1986) have subsequently been confirmed by other researchers. Using data from the National Youth Study of 1972, Weintraub and Gold (1991) examined whether parental supervision influences the level of self-reported
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delinquent behaviour among a representative sample of 1,395 11 to 18 year old Americans. Their analysis indicated that there is a relationship between level of parental supervision and delinquency. However, this relationship is qualified by the age and gender of the adolescent. They found lower levels of parental supervision associated with greater delinquency, particularly among boys and especially those in the age group 13 to 16 years. These effects were observed even after taking into account the delinquency of their friends, the presence of parents and the degree of maternal and paternal affection shown. Reporting on the effects of parental supervision and affection, Weintraub and Gold indicated that delinquency tended to be lower when both supervision and affection were relatively high.

Barnes and Farrell (1992) examined the relationship between parenting practices and delinquency and other adolescent problem behaviours using data from interviews conducted with a representative household sample of 699 American families with adolescent children from New York and its surrounding areas. They found that parental support (i.e., behaviours toward adolescents that indicate they are valued, accepted, and loved) and parental monitoring (i.e., children informing parents of their whereabouts, and parents knowing of the whereabouts of their children) were important predictors of adolescent drug-taking behaviour, deviance (e.g., arguing with parents, assaulting others, running away from home) and school misconduct. These factors remained important predictors even after taking into account age, gender, race and socioeconomic status of the adolescent; family structure; and family history of alcohol abuse.

The role of poor parent-child attachment in the development of delinquency has been investigated by Rankin and Kern (1994), Lauritsen (1993), Krohn, Stern, Thornberry and Jang (1992), Simons, Robertson and Downs (1989), and Peterson and Zill (1986). Simons et al. (1989) conducted a panel design study involving about 300 adolescents from an American city to examine the relationship between parental rejection (as measured by parental concern, interest, and support) and delinquency. The authors wanted to determine whether parental rejection leads to delinquency, or whether delinquency contributes to parental rejection. Data were collected from adolescents
recruited from drug/alcohol programs, as well as a randomly selected sample from the community, at two points in time, 12 months apart. The researchers found a significant relationship between parental rejection and self-reported delinquency at each point in time, even after taking into account a number of control factors, namely family conflict, parental control, family religiosity, and family organization. Moreover, when they examined the temporal relationship between parental rejection and delinquency, the results suggested that, predominantly, parental rejection leads to delinquency rather than vice versa. Furthermore, the impact of the two variables on each other appears to be synchronous rather than delayed. In other words, a child's current behaviour is influenced by a parent's current rejecting practices rather than by a parent's previous rejecting practices.

Johnson, Su, Gerstein, Shin and Hoffmann (1995) used data from the High Risk Youth Study, a study of 601 families from an American Midwestern city, to examine the effects of parental support and psychopathology on juvenile delinquency. They were also interested in determining whether the effect of these factors on delinquency may be attributable to variations in income levels. In the study, their measure of support concerned the extent to which adolescents and parents openly communicated and interacted, and delinquency included a range of deviant behaviours, such as skipping school, drug-taking, and criminal offences. From their results, Johnson et al. (1995) concluded that relatively low support (fewer than two supportive parents) increased the risk of adolescent deviant behaviour, and the risk was amplified if one or more parents had a chronic mental disorder. They also concluded that the deleterious effects of parental psychopathology and low parental support were not significantly different for high-income and low-income families, despite the fact that a high household income was associated with a lower risk of delinquency in their sample.

In a study of 793 Canberra (Australia) high school students, Mak (1994) examined the relationship between delinquency, and paternal and maternal neglect and rejection. The measure of parental neglect and rejection used in the study indicated the extent to which adolescents perceived their parents as warm and understanding, while delinquency was
measured using a self-report scale of minor deviant acts (such as cheating and alcohol use) and more serious offences (such as theft and assault). Results indicated that both maternal and paternal neglect and rejection were significantly associated with delinquency, even after taking into account a number of delinquency-related variables, namely the adolescent's gender, the father's level of education, the intactness of the home, and parental control (the extent to which parents allowed their children to be independent and autonomous).

Some research has addressed the link between childhood maltreatment and later involvement in delinquency (e.g., Smith & Thornberry 1995; Zingraff, Leiter, Myers & Johnson, 1993). Using a group of some 1,000 children from the Rochester Youth Development Study, Smith and Thornberry (1995) identified which children had been the subject of maltreatment prior to age 12. Maltreatment was assessed using child protection services records and included physical or sexual abuse; emotional, moral/legal or educational maltreatment; physical neglect; and lack of supervision. Measures of delinquency were based on self-reports of offending and police arrests covering a four and a half year period from when the children were at least 12 years of age. The analysis of the data revealed a significant relationship between several measures of delinquency and maltreatment. Maltreatment increased the likelihood of official delinquency, as well as self-reported moderate delinquency (including such acts as joyriding and simple assault) and violent delinquency. It did not increase the likelihood of self-reported minor delinquency (including such acts as minor theft and rowdy behaviour in a public place) or serious delinquency (including serious acts such as armed robbery and burglary). These relationships were maintained after controls for race/ethnicity, sex, socioeconomic status, and family structure were instituted.

A small number of studies have attempted to investigate why it is that poor parental attachment leads to juvenile delinquency. Simons, Whitbeck, Conger and Conger (1991) and Simons and Robertson (1989) have shown that parental practices influence juvenile involvement in delinquent behaviour by increasing the likelihood that adolescents will associate with deviant juveniles. Two reasons have been proposed as to why children of
poor attachment and rejecting parents may become involved with deviant peers. Firstly, when parents fail to adequately monitor or supervise their children, access to deviant adolescents increases. Secondly, parents who display rejecting behaviour do not create the conditions which are necessary to transmit those values to their children which make participation in a deviant group unattractive or costly.

Developmental psychologists, additionally, have emphasised that parent-child relationships provide the setting for the development of social functioning later in life, and disruption of this attachment relationship is associated with subsequent difficulties in relating (Hodges & Tizard, 1989; Rutter, Quinton & Hill, 1990). As reported by Hill (2003), conduct problems occur within social interactions, and may be associated with maladaptive attributions and ineffective responses to social challenges, and to problems of affect regulation in social interaction. Children with antisocial and conduct disorder often show a pattern of pervasive malfunction in adolescent and adult life, including problems in establishing intimate relationships, suggesting that persistent difficulties in social relationships may be a key to the persistence of delinquency or conduct problems (Robins, 1966; Zoccolillo, Pickles, Quinton & Rutter, 1992). Indeed, attachment theory has its origins in Bowlby’s study of adolescent thieves, and in particular an affectionless and detached subset (Bowlby, 1944). Conversely, the evidence is rather mixed. Cross-sectional studies of pre-school children have demonstrated markedly increased rates of insecure attachment among referred children with oppositional and defiant disorder (Speltz, Greeberg & Decklyen, 1990; Greenberg, Speltz, Decklyen & Endriga, 1991). In the largest cross-sectional study so far, Speltz, DeKlyen and Greenberg (1999) found an increased rate of each of the categories of insecure attachment (avoidant, ambivalent) in 80 pre-school boys referred with oppositional and defiant disorder, compared with a normal control group. Hill (2003), however, claimed that attachment status was not associated with severity of the delinquency and conduct problems. Additionally, early studies of low-risk samples, using the secure-insecure classification, failed to find associations with externalising problems (Bates, Maslin & Frankel, 1985; Fagot & Kavanagh, 1990). Therefore, establishing a causal role for insecure attachment in the development of conduct problems requires prospective studies.
According to Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990), children with behavioural problems will tend to grow into juvenile delinquents and eventually into adult offenders. Because the path toward or away from crime commences early in life, they contended further that the level of self-control depends on the quality of parenting in a child’s early years. According to Gottfredson et al. (1990), parenting is the most important factor which will determine one’s level of self-control. But, what happen if they came from poor attachment family? As reported by Gottfredson and colleague (1990), if a child has an abusive or neglectful upbringing, he will tend to be impulsive, insensitive, physical (as opposed to mental), risk-taking, short-sighted, and nonverbal, and they will also tend to engage in the similar criminal acts outlined above (Gottfredson et al., 1990). Children whose parents care about them and supervise and punish their misconduct will develop the self-control needed, through socialisation, to resist the easy temptations offered by crime. This will help them in future school, work, and relationships.

Self-control theory argues that a lack of self-control is neither a sufficient nor a necessary condition for crime to occur, because other properties of the individual, or of the situation may counteract one’s likelihood of committing deviant acts (Hirschi & Gottfredson, 1993). The theorists have implicitly stated that “their perspective, unlike many others, is not meant to predict any single type of activity since most deviant behaviour, by its very nature, is impulsive and opportunistic. Therefore, everything else being equal, low self-control and weak bond to society should positively and significantly predict a variety of deviant and criminal conduct” (Polakowski, 1994, p.62). Though lack of self-control and the family’s role in its failed development do not mean that one will unequivocally become deviant, it will provide circumstances that will make conditions favourable for delinquency.

Furthermore, several studies has verified that poor parental management practices, such as failure to set clear boundaries for the behaviour of children, parental support, poor supervision and severe and inconsistent disciplinary patterns are risk factors that consistently predict later delinquency (Capladi & Patterson, 1996; Eddy & Chamberlain, 2000; Hawkins, Herrenkohl, Farrington, Brewer, Catalano, Hirachi & Cothern, 2000).
Gorman-Smith, Tolan, Zelli and Huesmann (1996) found that poor parenting practices and family characteristics contribute to risk for serious delinquent behaviour. These risk factors for children may be amplified by the rise in divorce rates (Gordon, Jurkovic & Arbuthnot, 1998), economic hardship and poverty (Thornberry, Smith, Rivera, Huizinga & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1999).

Economic stresses for many families have led to diminished parental support and parental involvement as both parents work more outside the home (Gordon et al., 1998). Family conflict associated with reduced family involvement significantly predicts inadequate parental supervision and possible delinquent behaviour. Strong parental involvement can function as a protective factor against violence (Hawkins et al., 2000). Parental support is also a significant predictor of reduced delinquency and drug use in youths (Kumpfer & Alvarado, 1998). Research further shows that by spending time with adolescents, parents can reduce delinquency by limiting opportunities for misbehaviour, modelling positive, law-abiding roles (Dishion, French & Patterson, 1995; Thornberry et al., 1999), and limiting association with deviant peer groups (Dishion et al, 1995; Hawkins et al., 2000; Vitaro, Brendgen & Tremblay, 2000). Increased parental supervision is reported to be a major mediator of peer influence (Chambers, Power, Loucks & Swanson, 2000; Dishion et al., 1995). Simultaneously, practical parent training and interventions that reduce family conflict, foster family involvement and improved parental supervision may reduce problematic behaviours (Huey, Henggeler, Brondino & Pickrel, 2000; Kumpfer & Tait, 2000).

In Malaysia, limited of comprehensive study has been conducted on attachment and crimes. Ganthimathi (1998) performed a study to determine the relationship factors of criminal behaviour among Indian ethnic group. The result indicates that low score in parental attachment has significant correlation with high score in peer attachment and poor self-esteem. In addition, all those three variables show significant relationships with the criminal behaviour of the respondents. Another study was carried out by Dewi (1999) to evaluate the contributing factors pertaining to the delinquent behaviour of male delinquents among incarcerated juveniles in one of the youth rehabilitation centres in
Malaysia. The finding of the research shows a highly significant correlation between delinquent behaviour with family restrain and peer attachment. The result also indicates that the income of parents and the birth order of the child in the family have no significant correlation with delinquency. These research findings are almost similar with other Western studies, that is, poor parental attachment could contribute to child delinquent behaviour. However, something can be done to overcome this problem. According to Marshall (1993), poor early attachments do not necessarily lead to a life of loneliness and aggression. Positive experiences with a friend, partner or people who are in a care-giving role (e.g., teacher), can help to offset the undesirable effects of the disruptive attachments. These experiences can help the individuals develop self-confidence and a capacity for developing close relationships with others. Chances of them developing into criminals will hence be reduced.

As a summary of the above review, parents are a critical, if not the most critical, factor in the social development of children (Alvarado & Kumpfer, 2000; Conger & Simons, 1997). A plethora of studies have produced empirical findings indicating that parental behaviour can either increase or decrease an adolescent’s risk for delinquency and other problematic behaviours (Patterson et al., 1992; Simons, Chao & Conger, 2001). For instance, volumes of research indicate that supportive parent-child relationships, positive disciplinary methods, close monitoring and supervision, parental advocacy for children, and parental pursuit of needed information and support (Huizinga, Loeber & Thornberry, 1995; Bry, 1996; Alvarado et al., 2000) consistently buffer youths against problematic behaviours. In other words, parents who provide their children with respect, support supervision and consistent discipline are likely to be rewarded with children who are less likely to become involved with antisocial peer and delinquent behaviour. On the contrary, when parents fail to fulfil these fundamental responsibilities, their children often suffer the consequences (Kumpfer & Alvarado, 1997). In fact, the evidence is overwhelming. A tremendous amount of research reveals that children are at risk of developing antisocial behaviour when they are exposed to ineffective parenting behaviour such as poor supervision, rejection, or harsh and inconsistent discipline. Specifically, research indicates that antisocial behaviour of parents (Slavin & Rainer, 1990);
unsupportive parents (Conger et al., 1997; Sampson & Laub, 1993); physical and emotional abuse (Doerner, 1987); poor parent-child involvement, poor parental supervision, and parental rejection (Loeber et al., 1986; Cernkovich et al., 1987); and poor parental monitoring, parenting techniques and caretaker discipline towards children (Steinberg, 1990) have all been found to influence delinquent behaviour.

Consequently, it is imperative that delinquency prevention programs reinforce the parent-child bond as a means of preventing delinquent behaviour. One way of reinforcing the parent-child relationship is to reduce risk factors and increase protective factors for delinquent behaviour through parent training and family strengthening programs. These programs address important family protective factors such as parental supervision, attachment to parents, and consistency of discipline (Huizinga et al., 1995). They also address some of the most important family risk factors, such as poor supervision, excessive family conflict, family isolation, sibling drug abuse, and poor socialisation (Kumpfer & Alvarado, 1995). It is hoped that the findings of this thesis will gather information associated with factors that can assist in solving the problems of the parent-child relationship, and further on prevent children from committing delinquent acts.

The present study examines the association between adolescents perceived with parent-child attachment and delinquent behaviour. It is expected that the incarcerated juveniles' self-report of insecure attachment with mothers and/or fathers would be related to negative views of self (esteem, behaviour, and religiosity). Concisely, the thesis will examine the extent to which poor parental attachment and family environment are related to delinquency. Since it is well understood that parental attachment is a dyadic phenomenon, the mother-adolescent relationship and the father-adolescent relationship are examined separately in all analyses.

Family Environment and Juvenile Delinquency

Family is an institution with interdependent components and a hierarchical structure. According to Hinde (1987), 'family' is viewed not only as a hierarchically organised system, comprised of smaller sub-systems (e.g., parental, marital and sibling) but also
embedded within larger systems (e.g., the community), and interactions occur within and across these various levels. Family members learn rules for relating to one another in the context of repeated family interactions. Family members must be allowed to function in family event without interference from other members, and they must also be able to access resources from the family unit as well (Minuchin, 1974). Concurrently, family environment have been related to individual behaviour and personality characteristics, social competence and emotion regulation (e.g., Allen et al., 1996; Cassidy, 1994). The attachment framework may also add to the understanding of the relationship between family environment and individual social skills (Cassidy, Parke, Butkovsky & Braungart 1992). Family environment is a pervasive relationship of verbal and non-verbal expression in the family that is frequently related to emotion (Halberstadt, 1991; Halberstadt, Cassidy, Stifter, Parke & Fox, 1995). The characteristic style with which emotion is expressed in the family may form the basis from which individuals organise their emotional responses to their environment (Malatesta, 1990). Personalities of individuals may ultimately come to be organised around particular emotions that have been frequently experienced in their families (Magai & McFadden, 1995).

Family interaction is one of the factors that cannot be ignored for any effort to understand juvenile delinquents. The family is the institution that determines what sort of individual a child will grow up to be, and how they cope and react to their social life. The evidence that family environment plays a critical role in juvenile delinquency is one of the strongest and most frequently replicated findings among studies of deviance (e.g., Walgrave, 1992; Kumpfer, 1999; Hawkins et al., 2000). From a systems theory perspective, adolescents often develop behavioural problems because of difficulties within either the immediate family or the broader social environment. Furthermore, etiological studies on delinquency and antisocial behaviour consistently emphasise aspects of family dynamics that correlate highly with delinquent and antisocial behaviours (Cashwell et al, 1996; Hawkins et al, 2000). Simultaneously, Hill (2002) has documented associations between a wide range of family characteristics and conduct problems which include parental criminality, large family size, parental discord, and critical, hostile or coercive parenting.
During the past few decades, the number and proportion of studies on family and juvenile delinquency based on self-reports have increased. The literature consistently indicates that broken homes (Berger & Simon, 1974), poor marital relationships, lack of close parental supervision, lack of parental control, ineffectual parental behaviour (which may be associated with a pathological state of the parent and/or the use of physical punishment), lack of close social ties with ‘normal’ friends, close ties of delinquents with other delinquents, and very poor parent-child relationships are associated with delinquency (however it is defined) (Norland, Shover, Thornton & James, 1979). All of these factors have in common that they are likely to be a consequence of parental behaviour, with parental behaviour being causally linked to a lack of effective role models, a lack of a nurturing home environment, and a lack of parental supervision (which could explain their children’s propensity to associate with delinquent friends). These findings correspond closely with Parsons’ (1955) functionalist discussion on the family environment, that is, a lack of harmonious marital and family relationship will be associated with delinquency.

Family composition is also routinely associated with delinquency (Hawkins et al., 2000; Thornberry et al., 1999). Studies have found that children who live in homes with only one parent or in which marital relationships have been disrupted by divorce or separation are more likely to display a range of emotional and behavioural problems, including delinquency, than children from two-parent families (Wells & Rankin, 1991). An association has also been found between young adolescent males in single-parent families and convictions for violence by age 18 (Hawkins et al., 2000). Matlack, McGreevy, Rouse, Flatter and Marcus (1994) reported higher rates of delinquency among youths from broken homes than those from intact homes, with a higher tendency for delinquency in males when there was a stepfather in the home. Related research also demonstrates that disruptions of family structure and family attachment support delinquency and other antisocial behaviours (Thornberry et al., 1999). Studies have reviewed three forms of familial child maltreatment that may contribute to delinquency and juvenile offending. Child neglect resulting from family disruption or stress increases the risk of delinquency by more than 50% and of adult criminality by around 40% (Widom, 1992). Evidence
also suggests that children who have been physically abused or neglected are more likely than others to commit violent crimes later in life (Thornberry et al., 1999; Widom, 1992). Exposure to high levels of marital and family conflict as well as violence in the home also appears to increase the risk of later delinquency (Hawkins et al., 2000; Paschall, 1996). Conflicts among family members may increase the risk for both domestic violence and violence against others. Again, it is emphasized that family conflict increases the risk for crime and violence. Children learn by example; hence, it comes as no surprise that children learn to be aggressive through observing aggression in their families and the surrounding society. The longitudinal study of urban delinquency (Huizinga, Loeber, & Thornberry, 1995) supported that parental supervision, attachment to parents, and consistency of discipline were the most important family protective factors in promoting resilience to delinquency in high-risk youth.

Concisely, many reviews on attachment and delinquency clearly presented that parental and family factors have a strong relationship with the appearance of delinquent behaviours among children and youths. The Perkins-Dock (2001) study on family influences on delinquent behaviour stressed the importance of family interventions. The study provides evidence on the efficacy of various family intervention models for reducing problematic behaviour, crime and recidivism rates for delinquent youths and their families. General treatment techniques described would assist the family in developing more adaptive parenting skills, improving family communication and interaction, and learning more effective family problem-solving skills. These procedures have been shown to significantly affect delinquent youths of both genders from various minorities and ethnic backgrounds who committed offences ranging from status offences such as truancy, alcohol abuse and disobeying parents, to felonies such as rape, armed robbery and homicide. This has shown to hold true for both rural and urban youths as well. In both the delinquency and substance abuse prevention or intervention fields, most programs are aimed at working with problematic youths rather than the whole family. Although efforts focusing on individual youths should be continued, mounting evidence demonstrates that providing family-focused interventions has a more enduring effect on the child. Many studies provide support for the beneficial effects of family therapy by
citing reduced family contact with the courts, juvenile truancy and a decrease in juvenile recidivism rates (Lipsey et al., 2000). Briefly, studying the child-family relationship is very important in understanding juvenile delinquency phenomenon.

In the current study, a Family Environment Scale (FES) was used to examine the interpersonal relationships among family members, on the directions of personal growth which are emphasised in the family, and on the basic organisational structure of the family. This measure has been widely used among Malaysian subjects and its reliability and validity are confirmed (e.g., Shamsiah & Mohammad, 1992; Lingham, 1994).

In sum, we have seen that several studies have linked attachment difficulties with variety of subsequent psychological and behavioural problems, including delinquency. However, little research has attempted to explain how a faulty attachment patterns actually translates into these later difficulties. On the other hand, there are a variety of other psychological features that are all linked with delinquency. Therefore, the following chapter will outline the reviews regarding these major factors, and attempt to show that they can themselves be traced to problems resulting from attachment, which thus offers a higher level of explanation accounting for many of the individual factors found to be associated with delinquency.
CHAPTER 4

OTHER FACTORS THAT LINK WITH ATTACHMENT PROBLEMS AND DELINQUENCY

Peer Attachment and Delinquency

Poor attachment leads to emotional and social problems. Attachment disorders, which lead to the most problematic outcomes for children, include those in which children have disrupted attachments to their caregivers, display overly vigilant or overly compliant behaviours, show indiscriminate connection to every adult, or do not demonstrate attachment behaviours to any adult. Children with insecure attachments may also have many other adverse outcomes that persist throughout childhood, such as poor peer relationships, behavioural problems, or other mental health difficulties (Carlson, 1998; Lyons-Ruth, 1996).

According to Boivin and Vitaro (1995), children with conduct problems have poorer peer relationships than non-disordered children in that they tend to associate with children with similar antisocial behaviours, reinforce each others’ antisocial behaviours (Kiesner, Dishion & Poulin, 2001), have discordant interactions with other children, and experience rejection by non-deviant peers (Vitaro, Tremblay & Bukowski, 2001; Patterson, Kapaldi & Bank, 1991; Synder, Horsch & Child, 1997). Using the samples of 1,014 inner city boys, starting in fourth and seventh grades with four assessments at six-monthly intervals, Keenan, Loeber, Shang, Stouthamer-Loeber and VanKannen (1995) examined the role of peer relationships on the onset of disruptive behaviours by excluding from the analyses those with disruptive behaviours at the initial assessment. After controlling the ADHD\(^1\) and family characteristics at outset, the presence of deviant peers was found significantly associated with the subsequent onset of overt and covert antisocial problems. Moreover, Synder, Horsch and Childs (1997) reported that peer rejection of antisocial children probably is a consequence of other children’s unresponsiveness to them. Aggressive children make as many attempts to interact with other children as non-aggressive children, but their overtures are less likely to be successful. In another study, Coie and
Lenox (1994) argued that early-onset conduct problems might be characterised by peer problems, because a lack of inter-personal sensitivity underlies both difficulties. Coie, Dodge, Terry and Wright (1991) found that antisocial children, who also had poor peer relationships, persisted in their aggression, ignoring social cues beyond the point that those with similar levels of aggression, but with good relationships, would go. This suggested a lack of interpersonal sensitivity or empathy. Coie and colleague (1994), likewise, report that rejected boys showed excessive anger when they were not succeeded in a competitive game, and excessive pleasure when things went their way. It is possible that the combination of problems with inter-personal sensitivity and emotion regulation leads to both conduct and peer problems.

Furthermore, several studies have shown strong links between affiliation with deviant friends and adolescents' delinquent behaviours (e.g., Lipsey & Derzon, 1998; Agnew, 1991; Elliot, Huizinga & Ageton, 1985; Elliott & Menard, 1996; Simons, Wu, Conger & Lorenz, 1994). Lipsey and colleague (1998) noted that for youth ages 12–14, a key predictor variable for delinquency is the presence of antisocial peers. According to McCord, Widom and Crowell (2001, p. 80), "factors such as peer delinquent behaviour, peer approval of delinquent behaviour, attachment or allegiance to peers, time spent with peers, and peer pressure for deviance have all been associated with adolescent antisocial behaviour." Conversely, Elliot (1994) reported that spending time with peers who disapprove of delinquent behaviour may curb later violence. The influence of peers and their acceptance of delinquent behaviour is significant, and this relationship is magnified when youth have little interaction with their parents (Steinberg, 2001). Elliott (1994), in addition, showed that the initiation for delinquency for most 13- and 15-year olds begins with deviant peer association. Even Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990), who emphasise individual characteristics such as bonding with conventional society to explain delinquency, granted that association with deviant peers might facilitate the development of delinquency in individuals already exhibiting antisocial tendencies. Several other studies looked at variables that predict association with deviant friends or mediate the link between association with deviant friends and subsequent delinquency (Brendgen, Vitaro & Bukowski, 1998; Dishion & Andrews, 1995; Dishion, Capaldi, Spracklen & Li,
In contrast, few studies examined variables that might moderate the influence of deviant friends on delinquency. In the present study, however, the researcher would like to investigate the relationship of peer attachment with delinquency, especially among incarcerated juvenile.

**Self-esteem, Attachment and Delinquency**

Self-esteem refers to self-judgements of personal worth and global feelings of competence and self-acceptance (Rosenberg, 1965). Individuals with high self-esteem are not only able to recognise their own strength and skills, they also accept their weaknesses and find ways to improve themselves where possible (Noom, Dekovic & Meeus, 1999). In short, individuals with high self-esteem accept themselves for what they are and are more likely to improve as they move along in life. Individual with low self-esteem are not confident with their own abilities and have problems coping with day to day challenges.

Studies with adolescents have found that low levels of self-esteem are associated with negative outcomes, including substance abuse, depressive mood, dissatisfaction with life, lack of general well-being (Baldwin, Baldwin, Kasser, Zax, Samerof & Seifer, 1989; Dekovic, 1999) and is a characteristic of delinquents in several studies (Blackburn, 1993). Furthermore, some suggest that low self-esteem in adolescents and young children predicted later delinquency (Rosenberg & Rosenberg, 1978). A positive and trusting relationship with parents are expected to facilitate the development of an internalised view of self as capable and loveable. Several studies with primarily European and American populations have reported that a secure attachment to mother or father or to both parents is positively associated with the self-esteem of school-aged adolescents (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987; Kenny, Lomax, Brabeck & Fife, 1998; Noom et al., 1999; Paterson, Pryor & Field, 1995). In previous studies, either an attachment to mother (Hoffman, Ushipz & Levy-Shiff, 1988) or attachment to father (Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986; LeCroy, 1988) emerged as more central to self-esteem. However, other studies have found that an attachment to both parents is similarly predictive of self-

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esteem (Noom et al., 1999; Paterson et al., 1995). Other findings indicated that the relative importance of father and mother attachments seem to depend on the adolescents' gender (Jackson & Foshee, 1998; Marcus & Betzer, 1996). Among high school students, the association of father and mother responsiveness with self-reported involvement in violent behaviours was stronger for females than for males (Jackson et al., 1998). In Malaysia, studies related to self-esteem have been conducted on incarcerated youths (e.g., Tan, 1997) and adult prisoners (Fernandes & Adam, 1995; Shukor, 1997). Generally, the results show that the majority of offenders presented moderate to low scores on self-esteem.

Considering the importance of self-esteem in individual attachment and delinquency, the current study would like to examine the relation of self-esteem to mother, father and peer attachments, family environment, other individual-related factor and self-reported involvement in delinquent behaviour among Malay incarcerated juveniles. This study will also test for differences in self-esteem between incarcerated juveniles and non-delinquent adolescents.

Religious Belief, Attachment and Delinquency

The work on attachment and religion has relied on adult and young adult samples (Kirkpatrick, 1998b). It is important also to examine adolescents, for several reasons. Adolescence represents a life period during which transition of attachment takes place, where attachment components are gradually transferred from parents to peers (e.g., Allen & Land, 1999; Fraley & Davis, 1997). Although parents remain important in fostering continuity of adolescent adaptation, adolescents show an increasing autonomy vis-à-vis parents (e.g., Armsden et al., 1987; Lapsley, Rice & Fitzgerald, 1990; Schultheiss & Blustein, 1994; Papini, Roggman & Anderson, 1991). This scenario is normative but some (particularly insecure) individuals are less likely to build close, trusting and satisfactory peer relations (e.g., Lapsley et al., 1990; Schultheiss & Blustein, 1994), implying that felt security cannot be derived either by turning to parents or peers for support. The attachment transitional period is sometimes also marked by increased conflicts with parents and by personal uncertainties on the part of the adolescent (e.g.,
Allen et al., 1999). Major religious changes and sudden religious conversions appear to be over-represented in this period of attachment transition (e.g., Starbuck, 1999; Hood, Spilka, Hunsberger & Gorsuch, 1996). Such experiences, unlike more gradual and less intense religious changes, are often linked to problematic life situations, such as relationship problems within or outside the family, personal crises, mental/physical illnesses and experiences of relationship break-ups (e.g., Granqvist, 1998; Granqvist & Hagekull, 1999). However, apostasy, the often temporary decline of religiosity among those raised in a religious home, is also tied to adolescence (Roof & Hadaway, 1979; Roof & McKinney, 1987), making this period of attachment transition ideal for studying increases, as well as decreases, in religiosity.

Research on the effect of religion on crime began a century ago and continues through to today (Lombroso, 1911; Kvaraceus, 1944; Schur, 1969; Bainbridge, 1989, Baier & Wright, 2001), yet a fundamental issue about this relationship remains unresolved. Simply stated, do religious beliefs and behaviours deter individuals' criminal behaviour? From 1969 to 1998, social scientists have produced an average of two studies per year that estimated the effect of religion on crime (e.g., Sherkat & Ellison, 1999), and the findings from those studies range from religion having little or no impact on criminal behaviour (Hirschi & Stark, 1969; Ellis & Thompson, 1989), to religion having a dominant impact (Rohrbaugh & Jessor, 1975; Chadwick & Top, 1993). Others argue that religious effect on deviant behaviour only exists with regard to certain antiascetic behaviours (Middleton & Putney, 1962; Burkett & White, 1974; Cochran, 1988). There are also other researchers who reported that the effect of religion on delinquency is only among some denominational subgroups or some social contexts but not in others (Jensen & Erickson, 1979; Stark, Kent & Doyle, 1982; Cochran, Beeghley & Bock, 1988; Junger & Polder, 1993). In Malaysia, two researches done by Ahmad and Mustapa (1995) and Ubaidullah (1995) have focused on the habit of hanging out, sexual activity and the consumption of alcohol (considered as status offences) amongst adolescent. The results for both studies indicate that adolescent weak religiosity and poor family environment were among the factors that trigger teenager social problems.
In social control theory (Hirschi, 1969), religious institutions, like family and educational institutions, are hypothesised to instil normative beliefs and foster individual attachment, commitment and involvement with the larger society (Marcos, Bahr & Johnson, 1986). Although religion as such was not discussed in the original model, social control theory would hold that by strengthening an individual’s bond to society, religious institutions should deter criminal behaviour (Chadwick et al., 1993).

Rohrbaugh and colleague (1975) defines religiousness as the extent to which one is religious, pious, or devout; the degree to which one expresses a sincere and earnest regard for religion. This definition can serve many purposes, ranging from providing meaning to one’s life to yielding a sense of personal fulfilment, securing access to social resources, interpersonal relationships, and standards to judge and guide one’s action (Cochran, Wood & Arneklev, 1994). Grasmick, Bursik and Cochran (1991) have linked individuals’ self-imposed sanctions to their degree of religious commitment. Individuals strongly identified as religious are more likely to experience shame from deviant acts, and individuals saliently involved in religion-based social networks are more likely to experience embarrassment from deviant acts (Grasmick et al., 1991). As a result of these processes, religious individuals are deterred from committing criminal acts through increases in the perceived certainty and severity of informal punishment. The differential association perspective (which emphasise the impact of social groups on the behaviour of individuals), on the other hand, describe that religion deters crime through both social selection and socialisation (Burkett, 1993; Wright, Caspi, Moffitt & Silva, 1999). With social selection, religion affects peer selection, such that individuals committed to religion select peers with similar, conventional beliefs (Burkett & Warren, 1987). With socialisation, religious peers alter individuals’ religious commitments through positive reinforcement, thus further deterring crime (Burkett et al., 1987).

Another theory namely reference group theory posits that individuals exist within reference groups with whom they tend to share similar backgrounds and beliefs, and, more importantly, they “decisively” shape each other’s behaviours and attitudes (Bock, Cochran & Beeghley, 1987). Because individuals compare and subsequently control
their own behaviour based on the behaviour and attitudes of others in their reference
groups, any increase in morality within these groups increases the moral behaviour of all
group participants. Thus, as reference groups become religiously centred, religion deters
crime through the provision and intensification of group-level morality salience (Bock et
al., 1987). Therefore, the bond between individuals and the significant people
surrounding them is very important in determining their attitude towards religion. This
study would like to investigate if there is any relationship between delinquency and
religiosity with attachments to mothers, fathers and peers.

Clearly, the issue of religious influence on delinquency has long been a debate in the
study of criminology. Several investigations suggest that being religious inhibits
adolescent delinquent behaviour (Albrecht, Chadwick & Alcorn, 1977; Elifson, Peterson &
Hadaway, 1983; Peek, Curry & Chafant, 1985; Benda & Whiteside, 1995; Sloane &
Potvin, 1986; Cochran, 1988; Cochran & Akers, 1989; Grasmick et al., 1991; Junger et
al., 1993). This view holds that religion plays an active role in shaping society and
controlling human behaviour, which promotes conformity and inhibits deviance by
encouraging the internalisation of moral values and the acceptance of social norms.
Jensen (1981) suggests that this reflect the belief that a lack of religious commitment is a
major element in the etiology of deviant behaviour.

The discrepancy in findings between previous research and earlier studies is attributable
largely to limitations in the study method, and in the use of theory and contingency
contexts in early investigations (Title & Welch, 1983; Burkett, 1993; Evans, Cullen,
Dunaway & Burton, 1995). Furthermore, Junger (1990) suggested that more information
about the nature of the social networks and institutions in a community are necessary in
order to arrive at an explanation of the relation between being religious and delinquency
that is applicable to different cultures (Junger et al., 1993). Thus, the importance of
religious beliefs and implication of the religious values on specific subgroups or culture
need to be taken into consideration, especially amongst the delinquent group.
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It is important to note that almost all researches of this kind focus on Christians by using the term ‘Bible’, ‘Jesus’ and ‘church’ in their questionnaire, although some studies have tried to investigate general behaviour and belief on religions (e.g., Denscombe, 1995; Kiangi, Nissinen, Vartiainen, Mtango & Myllykangas, 1995) of their targeted samples or populations. The current research would basically focus on Islam, since the samples of this study were Muslim adolescents. In this study, religiosity is defined as the extent to which an individual is committed to the religion he or she professes. Religiously committed adolescents are expected to attend religious services more proactively, as well as more regularly than their non-religious counterparts. In addition, less religious adolescents, in terms of attitude (belief) and behaviour, are more likely to commit delinquency than the more religious ones. In the present study, the religiosity questionnaire constructed by Munawir and Luqman (1995) was used wherein their seven-factor measurement model of religiosity show the indicators’ high factor loadings, ranging from .69 to .97.

Gender Differences and Adolescent Risk-Behaviour

This thesis also plans to investigate the differences of gender in attachment and delinquency phenomena. Previous studies show that there are persistent differences in the patterns, duration and intensity of offending behaviours among young males and females. A number of researchers (e.g., Mears, Ploeger & Warr, 1998; Sprott & Doob 2000; Burton, Cullen & Evans, 1998) have suggested that gender differences in delinquent behaviour may be due to differences in the way that males and females are affected by the same risk and protective factors. Understanding the gender differences in offending behaviour is important with respect to the assessment of needs for these youth (Artz, Nicholson, Halsall & Larke, 2001) and the development of policies and programs designed to target these behaviours.

Juvenile delinquency may be rooted in gender differences in the development of aggressive behaviour (Loper, 2000). As mentioned by Loper (2000), while girls are more likely to engage in relational aggression, such as gossip, social exclusion, or bullying, boys more frequently employ physical aggression. If relational aggression by a girl
becomes violent, it obviously targets a known victim. Since girls more frequently engage in relational aggression, this may account for a disproportionate victimisation of family and friends by girls. Delinquent girls are more likely than delinquent boys to victimise those with whom they have a relationship, such as a family member, and less likely to target strangers (Loper, 2000). A Canadian study (cited in, Family Adge, 2003), however, found that boys are up to three times more likely than girls to engage in delinquent behaviour, but girls are more sensitive to risk factors that can lead to delinquency.

In Malaysia, data released by the Social Welfare Department of Malaysia (JKM, 2002) shows that the percentage of juveniles reported for property offences, violent offending and damaging property was higher among male juveniles, as compared to female juveniles. In addition, Patterson’s (1975) work with aggressive children has shown that boys were much more likely than girls to develop aggressive behavioural problems, and if uncontrolled, they were likely to become more serious. Therefore, in general, gender differences seem to play a significant role in adolescent risk and problematic behaviour. The role of gender differences has been noted too in the areas of self-esteem (Chubb, Fertman & Ross, 1997), depression and other negative affect conditions such as personal stress and anxiety (Compas, Connor & Hinden, 1998; Pike, McGuire, Hetherington, Reiss & Plomin, 1996), economic stress (Conger, Conger, Elder, Lorenz, Simons & Whitbeck, 1993; Lempers & Clark-Lempers, 1997), urban poverty and family disintegration (Sampson & Laub, 1994) and loneliness (Mijuskovic, 1980). These negative experiences disrupt and fragment the stability of an adolescent’s personal and family life by promoting behaviour that has the potential to be an obstacle to healthy adolescent development. The manner of coping with these experiences will vary between males and females according to the type of response made by each gender and the amount of harm involved in the adolescent’s response. In situations where adolescents engage in domains of harmful risk-taking behaviour such as those described in the previous paragraph, females more than males are prone to negative affect conditions such as depression and body image problems (Khoury, 1998). Alternatively, males tend to
Chapter 4

exhibit more externalising criminal behaviour and drug abuse, although drug abuse is not reserved for males only.

Suicide is a response to negative life events made by both males and females, with males being more successful in their attempts, due possibly to an inclination to use more lethal means (Khoury, 1998). Moffitt, Caspi, Rutter and Silva (2001) have noted that antisocial behaviour is more consistently prevalent in males than in females. They have also noted that within the first two decades of life, males who engage in extreme problematic behaviours exhibit a higher frequency and broader range of criminally offensive behaviours than females, with a greater level of seriousness and violence displayed within this criminal behaviour. This observation does not suggest that females do not engage in antisocial or criminal behaviours. Somewhat, Moffitt and colleagues (Moffitt et al., 2001) point out that even the most actively offending females offend at a much lower rate than the majority of active males, although at around 15 years of age, females are most likely to resemble males in their antisocial behaviour.

Depression is also a problem for both male and female adolescents, and is of itself a serious element of adolescent risk (Leas & Mellor, 2000; Petersen, Sarigiani & Kennedy, 1991). A literature review conducted by Moffitt and associates (2001) found that antisocial behaviour was linked with depression amongst females, with conduct disorder amongst females being channelled into internalising problems such as depression. Moffit and associates further found that depressive disorders in antisocial females increased in severity as they entered adulthood. Males and females also display differing patterns of depressive behaviour. The tendency for males to display more characteristically external and aggressive behaviour rather than the more internal and affectional characteristics of female depressive behaviour greatly accounts for these differing patterns (Flannery, Vazsonyi, Torquati & Fridrich, 1994; Khoury, 1998). Furthermore, Leas and colleague (2000) have noted both a positive relationship between delinquency and depression, and the possible tendency of adolescents to mask their depressed mood state by negative acting-out behaviour, thus avoiding the debilitating feelings associated with depression.
Looking at the similarity and dissimilarity between genders on conduct problems in adolescence, the thesis is interested in investigating the differences between genders of the Malay juvenile group in understanding the patterns of the parent-child attachment in relation to delinquent activities.

Conclusion
The attachment theory is used in the thesis mainly to investigate the relationship between attachment factors and delinquency. Observation on attachment is focused on parental and peer attachment, as well as family environment. This kind of research is very limited in Malaysia and needs to be comprehensively studied. The current research, likewise, is important in discovering the quality of parental and peer attachments among Asian juveniles and provide beneficial information on attachment in explaining the behaviours of delinquent offenders amongst Malay youths.

Notes:
1 Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder
2 Status offences refer to the acts that are illegal due only to the age status of the juvenile offenders. Acts such as sexual activity or the consumption of alcohol that is not illegal when done by adults but is prohibited to children and adolescents is a status offence.
CHAPTER 5

AN EXPLORATORY STUDY ON BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF INCARCERATED JUVENILES
(STUDY 1)

Introduction
The first study of this thesis aims to identify patterns in recorded family histories and individual characteristics of male and female incarcerated juveniles in Malaysia, as well as to explore the types of offences committed by them. This study hopes to gain insight into the Malaysian scenario in relation to juvenile delinquency. Most of the existing research into juvenile delinquency (e.g., Pennell & Browne, 1999; Risler, Sutphen & Shields, 2000; Perkins-Dock, 2001) originates from Western countries but the extent to which findings can be generalised to the Malaysian culture remains thoroughly untested.

Brief Review of Attachment and Child Behavioural Problems
The role of attachment in childhood has been well documented as being critical to a healthy social and to the emotional adjustment in the child's cognitive personality development. According to Perry (1998), empathy, caring, sharing, inhibition or aggression, capacity to love and a host of other characteristics of a healthy, happy and productive person are related to the core attachment capabilities, which are formed in infancy and childhood. Indeed, the most important strategy that research shows helps to hinder the onset of substance abuse and other high-risk behaviours by early adolescents are parental and family attachment (Trout, 2003). Healthy adolescent development involves not only the ability to be a successful individual, but also the ability to maintain healthy and satisfying attachments with others (Steinberg, 2001). Parent-child attachment has been found to be the strongest inhibitor of delinquency among various demographic and family factors (Gove & Crutchfield, 1982). The literature consistently indicates that one-parent homes, poor marriages, lack of parental control, ineffectual parental behaviour, association with delinquents as opposed to non-delinquents, and very poor
parent-child relationships are associated with delinquency (however it is defined). Gove et al. (1982) also mentioned other factors influencing delinquency that have in common the fact that they are likely to be a consequence of parental behaviour, with parental behaviour being linked to a lack of effective role models, a lack of a natural home environment, and a lack of parental supervision (which could explain their children’s propensity to associate with delinquent friends). Thus, it is thought very important to collect and investigate data of individual and family characteristics of delinquent juveniles and it deserves the attention given in this study.

Malay children are described as possessing a strong sense of dependency. They would seek security within the group to which they belong (Suradi, 2000). This study, however, assumes that in the case of delinquency, these juveniles usually suffer from poor parental attachment and supervision. As noted by local researchers, parents with problems behaviour adolescents spend less quality time with their children and there is a lack of parent-child interaction and communication (Muhammad, 2000; Dass, 1922). There are often domestic problems, family disharmony, and emotional stress (Juhana, 1999). This lack of parental attachment has forced the children to seek self-satisfaction outside their homes and they inevitably get involved with delinquent friends (Dewi, 1999).

Attachment to the school is another aspect of the social bond, and an important insulator against delinquency. Poor school performance coupled with a feeling of dislike for school is determined to be a strong motivator for delinquency. Likewise, an attachment to teachers is inversely related to delinquent activities. Research on adolescent deviance generally has focused on such school factors as school achievement, academic motivation, and school failure (e.g., Kasen, Cohen & Brook, 1998; Jessor, Van Den Bos, Vanderryn, Costa & Turbin, 1995). Research indicates that a child’s sense of belonging at school is positively associated with academic motivation and social competence, and negatively correlated with psychological distress and classroom misbehaviours (Wentzel, 1997; Goodenow & Grady, 1993).
Research has also found that adolescent attachment to family and school can influence facets of the phenomenon of adolescent deviance. First, family and school attachments may reduce the overall frequency of problem behaviours among adolescents (Hawkins, 1997; Achenbach, Howell & McConaughy, 1995; Jessor et al., 1995), and second, attachment to parents and school might reduce the number of times that a deviant act recurs among those adolescents who have already initiated that form of deviant behaviour.

Derived from the reviews presented above, as well as reviews discussed in Chapter 3 and 4, it was clear that a number of factors could generate children (and adolescent) delinquent behaviours. However, because of the limited numbers of research among the Asian population, the present study is done to collect as much as information on incarcerated juvenile’s behavioural, parent-child relationship, and family background characteristics, as well as several risk factors in relation to delinquency.

Aims of the Study
The aims of this study are to identify the family and individual background characteristics of delinquent adolescents, and explore the types of delinquent acts carried out by Malay male and female juveniles. The study was done by collecting data from the juveniles’ official records. The purpose of using this method is to get extensive information and descriptions regarding these juvenile’s offences and their background characteristics, as recorded in the juveniles’ files. The differences between genders, number of times admitted to a YRC, offences committed and various background characteristics are identified and discussed.

From the researcher’s point of view, to get a broad understanding of juvenile phenomenon, a thorough review of juvenile records must first be done. For the purpose of this study, the most reliable and competent information was gathered by referring to the data collected by particular institutions responsible to manage juvenile cases from the first stage of investigation until supervision of juveniles in the YRC. Official records
were used in data collection where descriptions of certain situations cannot be obtained in detail, or are kept confidential by government institutions for particular subjects and cases (Smith, 1992). By collecting data from the juvenile’s official records, this study is able to explore, identify, examine and interpret the relevant data on juveniles, including parental and family problems, along with the juveniles’ behaviour, social interests and types of delinquency.

The key to evaluating the reliability and validity of official records, as well as the general suitability of the data for a research project, is to understand as completely as possible how the data was originally collected (Maxfield & Babbie, 1995). In Malaysia, as reported by the Social Welfare Department of Malaysia (SWDM) (JKM, 2000), the process of collecting data is done in a systematic way by trained social workers using a standard form provided by SWDM. According to SWDM, when a juvenile faces criminal charges in court, a probation officer is assigned to prepare a probation report based on extensive investigation into his/her background. The probation report covers interviews with the juvenile, information on family background, home environment, birth history, schooling, socialising with peers and economic status.

Method

Ethical Procedure

Before the actual research and data collection started, the research proposal, which described the objectives of the research, subjects required, details of data collection procedures and psychological measures used, was forwarded to the Director General of Prisons, Malaysian Prison Headquarters; Social Welfare Department of Malaysia, Ministry of National Unity and Social Development; Economic Planning Unit, Prime Minister’s Department; and Department of Planning and Research Education Foundation, Education Ministry; for consideration in December 2000. The related ethical issues and the technical support required were carefully considered by the research unit of each department. The proposal was finally accepted in July 2001.
Data Collection and Research Procedure

Data collection was conducted between September and November 2001. The study was carried out by examining the official records of incarcerated juveniles. Data was collected from the official records of juveniles at four YRCs located in three different states in Malaysia. This technique has been commonly used in studies carried out by researchers in the investigative psychology discipline (e.g., Canter & Fritzon, 1998; Salfati & Canter, 1999; Canter, 2000). The present researcher collected as much relevant information as possible on the subject population from records kept by the YRC. As reported by the SWDM (JKM, 2001) and personally observed by the researcher, the data recorded in the juvenile files can be considered as systematically collected and recorded. This information is needed by the juvenile court, prisons and rehabilitation institutions. The files reviewed contained information written by the police, prison officers and court officers.

Considering the confidentiality of the information written in the files (for the wellbeing and security of the inmates), the researcher was asked to conduct the study in a meeting room provided by each YRC without interference from others. The juvenile files were selected randomly by the duty officer of each ‘house’\(^1\). The files of non-Malay offenders were intentionally excluded. The same procedure was applied at all the selected YRCs. In order to ensure that the distribution of samples is balanced among the houses, an almost similar number of files were selected from each house in each YRC. The number of juvenile records collected (after being reselected for further analysis) from each YRC is presented in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>YRC A</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>291</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YRC B</td>
<td></td>
<td>92</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YRC C</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YRC D</td>
<td></td>
<td>87</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Number of Juvenile Records Collected from the YRC
The basic report in the juvenile files is standard for all YRCs. The first page is the juvenile's personal data such as name, gender, date of birth, age, offence(s) and sentence, previous offence(s) and details of the juvenile’s physical and health report (i.e., height, weight, disability, tattoos, scars, HIV positivity, etc.). The next page is a police report on the juvenile’s offence(s) and court sentence. The following page is a written report from the related social worker. The information in this report was obtained by interviewing the juvenile and his/her parent(s) or guardian(s). The social worker would conduct the interview and then fill the form prepared by SWDM with the information obtained. The data contained in this report consists of basic information on the juvenile (i.e., name, date of birth, ethnicity, religion, education and/or working status, and types of delinquent acts involved); parents (i.e., name, date of birth, ethnicity, religion, marital status, education level, job, income, number and names of children, criminal and imprisonment record, health report, etc.); home and housing area; family and parent-child relationship; child (inmate) character: behaviour, attitude and interest (or hobbies), previous disciplinary record; juvenile education and school report (obtained from the school). Other reports in the YRC are written by the 'house teacher' and counsellor. For the purpose of this research, data collection focused on reports written by the rehabilitation institution, police, court and social worker, as showed in Table 2 (Appendix A).

Before the data collection process was initiated, the researcher first explained the procedure of data collection to the record officer (in each of the YRC). The information gathered was recorded in a coding form before entering them into the computer to be analysed. To assess the coding reliability of this study, the rechecking method was used, whereby the researcher codes and rechecks the coded items twice. As remarked by Maxfield et al. (1995), test-retest procedures can be used when only one person is doing the coding; reliability can be computed in the same way as it would be if the inter-rater methods were used. In addition, to ensure that the data was correctly coded and conform it reliability, the researcher also asked the record officers (in each of the YRC) to check the coded items against the corresponding juvenile records. Thus, about one-quarter of the completed coding forms and the corresponding juvenile files were handed to the
record officer. Overall, the researcher deemed that the reliability of the data coded was 98 percent. This assessment was agreed by the record officers involved and the data was subsequently transferred into SPSS version 10 for analysis.

Samples
Four hundred and twenty incarcerated juvenile files were selected and reviewed. All relevant data was then transferred to the coding forms. During the analysis process, only 413 of the 420 completed coding forms were used. Seven coding forms were withdrawn from the study as they lacked certain required information. The samples utilised consist of 291 male and 122 female inmates, with ages ranging from 14 to 18 years.

Results
Profile of Inmates
The descriptive data reported in this study was based on 413 incarcerated juvenile files (a use rate of 98.33%). Figures 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 show the breakdown of age, number of times admitted to a YRC, offences, guardians and school level, respectively.

Figure 1:
Distribution of Age Collected from Juvenile Files
As shown in Figure 1, males (33.68%) and females (38.52%) aged 16 years were reported as the majority of those in the YRCs, while 17 year old males (25.09%) and 15 year old females (21.31%) formed the second largest group. Meanwhile, 14 year old juveniles of both genders (7.22% males; 13.11% females) formed the smallest group.

Once the data was analysed, the results showed that the majority of the incarcerated juveniles were first timers at the YRC. Only a small number of them had been locked-up in a YRC more than once, either in the same or a different YRC. Figure 2 illustrates these findings. The figures reveal that male offenders scored higher in terms of entering a YRC for the second time or more compared to female offenders, although the difference was insignificant.

The offences shown in Figure 3 represent the reasons that these juveniles were currently detained at the YRCs. The number of male juveniles arrested for motorbike theft is the highest (n = 69), followed by drug offences (n = 55; including taking, selling or distributing drugs). The majority of female juveniles were reported to be arrested for problems related to being “beyond parental control” (n = 41), followed by drug offences (n = 28). According to the juvenile files, problems related to beyond parental control
included running away from home, creating problems for the family and neighbourhood, and sexual activities. Juveniles arrested for offences such as burglary, robbery, possession of stolen property, sexual assault and rape represent between 21 to 35 of male offenders. Other offences such as car theft, murder (without intention), vandalism and arson were reported as the least committed offences among the incarcerated juveniles. Female juvenile files, however, show that none of them were caught for robbery, burglary, sexual assault or arson.

![Distribution of Offences Collected from Juvenile Files](image)

Figure 3: Distribution of Offences Collected from Juvenile Files

Juveniles were also classified in terms of their guardianship before they were placed in these YRCs. Looking at data presented in Figure 4, it is worth noting that offenders with both biological parent outnumbered offenders with biological mother & stepfather, biological father & stepmother, or those not staying with their parents at all (staying with grandparents). The majority of juveniles of both genders (57.4% males, 55.7% females)
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reported staying with their biological parents before being arrested and placed in the YRCs. On the other hand, only 27.1% male and 29.5% female juveniles were recorded as staying with their biological mother & stepfather, while the number of juveniles who stayed with their biological father & stepmother was very small (between 2.5% to 6.2%). Additionally, a number of juveniles were also staying with their grandparents when they were arrested, but the number was considered insignificant (less than 12.4%).

![Figure 4: Distribution of Guardianships Collected from Juvenile Files](image)

Data on school level was also collected and analysed. The purpose was to investigate the number of juveniles who completed primary school and spent a few years in high school. Generally, the educational level achieved can help predict how capable a juvenile is in dealing with academic or other appropriate knowledge. Figure 5 shows the results of this analysis. The findings of this study show that only 3.8% male and 2.4% female juveniles had never been to school. However, the highest percentage of incarcerated juveniles was found among those who had been to junior high school (63.2% males; 82.8% females), while 33% male and 14.8% female juveniles presented of those who had ended their schooling at the primary level only. No data was recorded on senior high school.

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Variables Collected
A total of five main characteristics appeared during data collection, that is, antisocial activity, parent background, parent-child relationship, behavioural, and schooling characteristics. Thirty-seven variables appeared from these five characteristics. The list of variables is presented in Tables 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7. This large number is a result of all variables being coded as dichotomous (0 = absent, 1 = present). Variables were decided by referring to attachment theory and various literature reviews on parenting quality, but more were added during data collection to account for the information present in the histories of the sample used. Variables were categorised as nominal data where appropriate. For each characteristic, the researcher cross-tabulated the presence versus absence of the offences with gender category, and performed the Chi-square test on each cross-tabulation (except for parent background characteristics). The results are as follows:

i. Antisocial activity characteristics
Antisocial activity characteristics are different from the primary offences recorded in the juvenile files. Antisocial activities are the socially deviant acts that were also recorded in
the juvenile files by SWDM officers and the police. In other words, antisocial activities are actions by the juveniles other than the offences that caused them to be arrested and placed in the YRCs. The goal was to identify the characteristics of the antisocial behaviour committed by these incarcerated juveniles. Table 3 shows a summary of the findings.

Table 3: Distribution of Respondents on Antisocial Activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable name</th>
<th>Male % (n)</th>
<th>Female % (n)</th>
<th>Chi-squared value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol abuse</td>
<td>53.6 (156)</td>
<td>45.1 (55)</td>
<td>2.501</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual activities</td>
<td>10.3 (30)</td>
<td>57.4 (70)</td>
<td>103.78**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sniffing glue</td>
<td>49.8 (145)</td>
<td>75.4 (92)</td>
<td>23.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking ecstasy pill</td>
<td>38.5 (112)</td>
<td>88.5 (108)</td>
<td>86.46**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug abuse</td>
<td>43.6 (127)</td>
<td>40.2 (49)</td>
<td>.425</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shoplifting</td>
<td>29.9 (87)</td>
<td>20.3 (37)</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illegal motorbike racing</td>
<td>6.5 (19)</td>
<td>5.7 (7)</td>
<td>.091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bullying</td>
<td>14.4 (42)</td>
<td>23.0 (28)</td>
<td>4.431</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Significant at p < 0.01 level

Table 3 displays eight types of antisocial activities recorded in the juvenile files. The results show that no significant differences were found for alcohol abuse, drug abuse, shoplifting, illegal motorbike racing and bullying between male and female juveniles. The numbers of male and female offenders who are guilty of these antisocial activities are approximately the same. However, significant differences were found between gender on sexual activities, glue-sniffing and usage of ecstasy pills. Looking at the percentage results, more female juveniles were reported to be committing these antisocial activities (i.e., sexual activities, glue-sniffing and taking ecstasy pills) compared to male juveniles. The percentage involved in such antisocial behaviour ranged from 57.4% to 88.5%, with usage of ecstasy pills reported as the most prevalent antisocial activity.

ii. Parent background characteristics

Several variables correlating to parent background characteristics were found in the inmates’ files. A list of the variables is presented in Table 4. The findings of this study
show a very small percentage (less than 8%) of the male and female juveniles’ parents reported as having a psychiatric history, being imprisoned, being violent to each other (fighting with the spouse using a belt, stick, knife and/or being physically aggressive), having committed a crime, and being guilty of alcohol and drug abuse.

Table 4:
Distribution of Respondents on Parent Background Characteristic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable name</th>
<th>Male % (n)</th>
<th>Female % (n)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Psychiatric history</td>
<td>1.7 (5)</td>
<td>2.5 (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imprisonment</td>
<td>2.7 (8)</td>
<td>2.5 (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violent to children</td>
<td>.7 (2)</td>
<td>7.4 (9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violent to each other</td>
<td>5.2 (15)</td>
<td>5.7 (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commit crime</td>
<td>4.5 (13)</td>
<td>3.3 (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents alcohol abuse</td>
<td>1.7 (5)</td>
<td>4.1 (5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents drug abuse</td>
<td>.7 (2)</td>
<td>2.5 (3)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

iii. Parent-child relationship characteristics

A variety of parent-child variables were collected, as illustrated in Table 5, covering a diverse range of social and psychological characteristics. Among eight variables that can be discovered from the juvenile files, only one variable, that is, lack of parental supervision, was found significantly different between the incarcerated male and female juveniles, i.e., the percentage of male juveniles was slightly higher compared to that of female juveniles (90.7% vs. 76.2%, respectively). Although having quality supervision by parents is very important for every child (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987), not surprisingly, the findings show that parental supervision is lacking among the sampled juveniles.

As shown in Table 5, both genders were not significantly different statistically in terms of the identified variables, i.e., having an uncaring mother and father, having a bad relationship with mother and father, lack of intimate communication, lack of joint activity, and lack of parental warmth. Male and female offenders were closely matched with respect to the percentages of these variables. However, the percentage having an
uncaring mother is slightly higher among female juveniles, while having an uncaring father is more prevalent among the male juveniles. Nevertheless, having a bad relationship with the mother and father was recorded higher among male offenders. Similar results were obtained on the lack of intimate communication and joint activity variables. This outcome offers an interesting discussion, particularly on Malay juvenile delinquents.

Table 5:
Distribution of Respondents on Parent-Child Relationship Characteristic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable name</th>
<th>Male % (n)</th>
<th>Female % (n)</th>
<th>Chi-squared value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Uncaring mother</td>
<td>4.6 (13)</td>
<td>9.6 (11)</td>
<td>3.461</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncaring father</td>
<td>20.4 (57)</td>
<td>13.9 (16)</td>
<td>2.247</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad relationship with mother</td>
<td>15.8 (46)</td>
<td>13.9 (17)</td>
<td>.233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad relationship with father</td>
<td>53.6 (156)</td>
<td>45.1 (55)</td>
<td>2.501</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of intimate communication</td>
<td>78.7 (229)</td>
<td>77.0 (94)</td>
<td>.136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of joint activity</td>
<td>86.3 (251)</td>
<td>76.2 (93)</td>
<td>6.208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of parental supervision</td>
<td>90.7 (264)</td>
<td>76.2 (93)</td>
<td>15.403**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of parental warmth</td>
<td>32.6 (95)</td>
<td>42.6 (52)</td>
<td>3.732</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Significant at p < 0.01 level

iv. Behavioural characteristics

Behavioural characteristics recorded in the juveniles’ files indicate the behaviour of offenders, gathered from an interview process reported by SWDM. The list of variables found from the offenders’ files is displayed in Table 6. The results show that no significant differences between genders were found with respect to being stubborn, spending most of the day with friends, lack of goal or future expectation, and lack of hobby. Male and female offenders were closely matched, with a majority of the juveniles reporting of lack of goal or future expectation (93.1% males, 96.7% females), and lack of hobby (84.9% males, 90.2% females). Data on stubbornness indicates no statistically significant difference between male and female juveniles. The results also show that both genders prefer to spend most of the day with their friends. However, significant differences were found between male and female juveniles on the characteristic of being aggressive, troublesome, spending time away from home at night, and lack of
cooperativeness. Male juveniles recorded a higher percentage on the first three variables, but female juveniles scored higher in terms of lack of cooperativeness.

Table 6:
Distribution of Respondents on Behavioural Characteristic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable name</th>
<th>Male % (n)</th>
<th>Female % (n)</th>
<th>Chi-squared value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stubborn</td>
<td>71.8 (209)</td>
<td>69.7 (85)</td>
<td>.194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggressive</td>
<td>46.4 (135)</td>
<td>26.2 (32)</td>
<td>14.509**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Troublesome</td>
<td>44.7 (130)</td>
<td>27.0 (33)</td>
<td>11.176**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spend most of the day with friends</td>
<td>70.8 (206)</td>
<td>69.7 (85)</td>
<td>.052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spend time away from home at night with friends</td>
<td>49.1 (148)</td>
<td>32.0 (39)</td>
<td>10.286**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of cooperativeness</td>
<td>60.8 (177)</td>
<td>73.0 (89)</td>
<td>5.514*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of goal/future expectation</td>
<td>93.1 (271)</td>
<td>96.7 (118)</td>
<td>2.029</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of hobby</td>
<td>84.9 (247)</td>
<td>90.2 (110)</td>
<td>2.048</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant at p < 0.05 level; ** Significant at p < 0.01 level

v. Schooling characteristics

The schooling years were shown to be problematic for a significant number of these juveniles. A number of variables was observed and coded. Table 7 presents the findings of the study.

Table 7:
Distribution of Respondents on Schooling Characteristic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable name</th>
<th>Male % (n)</th>
<th>Female % (n)</th>
<th>Chi-squared value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poor academic performance</td>
<td>85.2 (248)</td>
<td>77.0 (94)</td>
<td>4.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Truancy</td>
<td>85.6 (249)</td>
<td>91.0 (111)</td>
<td>2.255</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inability in friendships</td>
<td>72.5 (211)</td>
<td>81.1 (99)</td>
<td>3.427</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disinterest in educational and schooling activities</td>
<td>91.8 (267)</td>
<td>97.5 (119)</td>
<td>4.714*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School discipline problems</td>
<td>46.4 (135)</td>
<td>26.2 (32)</td>
<td>14.509**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant at p < 0.05 level; ** Significant at p < 0.01 level

As presented in the table, both genders were reported as showing the highest frequencies on poor academic performance, truancy, inability in friendships, and disinterest in educational and schooling activities, ranging from 72.5% to 97.5%. This number posits
very serious schooling behaviours. Poor academic performance was defined in the records as failing marks in final school term examinations or failing in PMR (Penilaian Menengah Rendah or Lower Secondary Assessment). Overall, educational achievement among both samples was poor, with 85.2% of male and 77% of female juveniles having poor academic performances. However, significant differences were found between male and female offenders in terms of the variables, “disinterest in educational and schooling activities,” and “school discipline problems”. Female juveniles scored higher in “disinterest in educational and schooling activities” (97.5%), while male juveniles were reportedly higher in school disciplinary problems (46.4%). As observed during the review of juvenile files, male juveniles would behave aggressively, either physically or verbally, towards teachers or other students. This type of action seems very serious, especially among schoolchildren.

**Comparison on the Number of Times Admitted to a YRC**

Instead of merely identifying the patterns of recorded family history and individual characteristics, and types of offences committed by male and female delinquents, this study also attempts to identify if there are differences between juveniles who admitted to a YRC for the first (1st) time and those who admitted to a YRC for the second (2nd) time or more on the patterns of recorded family history and individual characteristics.

Currently, there are no studies examining the relationship between parental attachment and the number of times delinquent juveniles admitted to a YRC. It is crucial, since studying the phenomenon of attachments and the number of times juveniles admitted to a YRC could assist in understanding the seriousness of their attachment patterns with parents, and peers as well. Bowlby (1988) has indicated that over a period of time, individuals will gain control of their self-regulating behaviours, and therefore be more autonomous. Thus, it can be argued that the longer the period of ‘staying away from the secure base (parent)’, the less the need for attachment to primary caregivers.

In this study, ‘the number of times admitted to a YRC’ is defined as the period away from parents and family members as to serve punishment and rehabilitation in the institution
administered by the government. The number of times admitted to a YRC was operationalised as ‘first time’ and ‘second time or more’. Using the same data, another descriptive analysis was performed. It is suggested that the rationale of analysing the number of times admitted to a YRC is to investigate the seriousness of particular variables. The assumption of this work is as follows: “Juveniles who admitted to a YRC for the 2nd time or more, score higher in poor attachment variables compared to juveniles who admitted to a YRC for the 1st time”. The samples utilised consist of 283 inmates admitted to a YRC for the 1st time, and 130 inmates admitted to a YRC for the 2nd time or more. The findings of each characteristic are presented in Tables 8, 9 and 10.

The results in Table 8 show increasing scores in all antisocial activities for those juveniles who admitted to the YRCs for the second time or more. Significant differences were found between juveniles who admitted to the YRCs for the 1st time and those who admitted to the YRCs for the 2nd time or more, in terms of alcohol consumption, drug abuse, shoplifting, illegal motorbike racing and bullying. Both groups, however, were closely matched in terms of sexual activities, glue-sniffing and usage of ecstasy pills, which suggested that these types of antisocial behaviour are more common among these juveniles.

Table 8:
Distribution of Respondents on Antisocial Activity between 1st Time and 2nd Times or More Juvenile Admitted to a YRC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable name</th>
<th>1st time</th>
<th>2nd times or more</th>
<th>Chi-squared value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol abuse</td>
<td>15.5 (44)</td>
<td>27.7 (36)</td>
<td>8.412&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual activities</td>
<td>23.3 (66)</td>
<td>26.2 (34)</td>
<td>3.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sniffing glue</td>
<td>56.2 (159)</td>
<td>60.0 (78)</td>
<td>.531</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking ecstasy pill</td>
<td>52.7 (149)</td>
<td>54.6 (71)</td>
<td>.138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug abuse</td>
<td>38.2 (108)</td>
<td>52.3 (68)</td>
<td>7.288&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shoplifting</td>
<td>24.0 (68)</td>
<td>43.1 (56)</td>
<td>15.385&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illegal motorbike racing</td>
<td>4.6 (13)</td>
<td>10.0 (13)</td>
<td>4.414*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bullying</td>
<td>12.4 (35)</td>
<td>26.9 (35)</td>
<td>13.407&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Significant at p < 0.05 level; ** Significant at p < 0.01 level
The results in Table 9 show a small percentage (less than 5.8%) in each variable of parent background characteristics for both groups. This suggests that juveniles who admitted to the YRCs for the 1st time and those who admitted for the 2nd time or more were closely matched in these characteristics.

Table 9: Distribution of Respondents on Parent Background Characteristic between 1st Time and 2nd Times or More Juvenile Admitted to the YRC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable name</th>
<th>1st time</th>
<th>2nd times or more</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% (n)</td>
<td>% (n)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychiatric history</td>
<td>1.5 (2)</td>
<td>2.1 (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imprisonment</td>
<td>3.8 (5)</td>
<td>2.1 (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violent to children</td>
<td>1.5 (2)</td>
<td>3.2 (9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violent to each other</td>
<td>5.7 (7)</td>
<td>5.2 (15)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commit crime</td>
<td>6.2 (8)</td>
<td>3.2 (9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents alcohol abuse</td>
<td>.8 (1)</td>
<td>3.2 (9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents drug abuse</td>
<td>2.3 (3)</td>
<td>.7 (2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All parenting variables (as summarised in Table 10) in parent-child relationship characteristics show higher scores for juveniles who admitted to the YRCs for the 2nd time or more. However, the differences between the two groups of inmates are not statistically significant. High percentages (ranging from 76.3% to 86.9%) were recorded for poor parent-child relationship, lack of intimate communication, lack of joint activities, and lack of parental supervision. Additionally, as illustrated in Table 10, the variable of 'being raped,' which only involved the female juveniles sampled, was addressed in this exploratory study. According to the juvenile reports, these female juveniles were raped by their family members such as the father, stepfather, brother or uncle. The percentage of those who were raped was higher for female juveniles who admitted to the YRC for the 2nd time or more, compared to those who admitted to the YRCs for the 1st time (6.9% vs. 6% respectively). However, the number is not significantly different statistically. Although the number of those who were raped was small, the implications on the emotional state and behaviour of the juveniles remain crucial in predicting their future performance.
Table 10:
Distribution of Respondents on Parent-Child Relationship Characteristic between 1st Time and 2nd Times or More Juvenile Admitted to the YRC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable name</th>
<th>1st time % (n)</th>
<th>2nd times or more % (n)</th>
<th>Chi-squared value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Uncaring mother</td>
<td>5.4 (7)</td>
<td>6.0 (17)</td>
<td>.063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncaring father</td>
<td>17.7 (23)</td>
<td>18.4 (52)</td>
<td>.028</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad relationship with mother</td>
<td>14.6 (19)</td>
<td>15.5 (44)</td>
<td>.060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad relationship with father</td>
<td>19.2 (25)</td>
<td>20.1 (57)</td>
<td>.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of intimate communication</td>
<td>76.3 (216)</td>
<td>82.3 (107)</td>
<td>1.871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of joint activity</td>
<td>83.4 (236)</td>
<td>83.1 (108)</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of parental supervision</td>
<td>86.9 (246)</td>
<td>85.4 (111)</td>
<td>.181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of parental warmth</td>
<td>62.5 (177)</td>
<td>68.5 (89)</td>
<td>1.361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being raped (female only)</td>
<td>6.0 (17)</td>
<td>6.9 (9)</td>
<td>.127</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Behavioural characteristics also show no significant differences between juveniles who admitted to the YRCs for the 1st time and those who admitted to the YRCs for the 2nd time or more, although the result generally showed higher scores for most of the related variables (i.e., stubborn, aggressive, troublesome, spend most of day with friends, lack of goal/future expectation, lack of hobby) by juveniles who admitted to the YRCs for the 2nd time or more. The breakdown of these findings can be seen in Table 11.

Table 11:
Distribution of Respondents on Behavioural Characteristic between 1st Time and 2nd Times or More Juvenile Admitted to the YRC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable name</th>
<th>1st time % (n)</th>
<th>2nd times or more % (n)</th>
<th>Chi-squared value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stubborn</td>
<td>69.6 (197)</td>
<td>74.6 (97)</td>
<td>1.088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggressive</td>
<td>35.0 (99)</td>
<td>43.8 (57)</td>
<td>2.978</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Troublesome</td>
<td>57.6 (163)</td>
<td>66.9 (87)</td>
<td>3.243</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spend most of day with friends</td>
<td>68.6 (194)</td>
<td>74.6 (97)</td>
<td>1.574</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spend time away from home at night with friends</td>
<td>46.3 (131)</td>
<td>39.2 (51)</td>
<td>1.801</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of cooperativeness</td>
<td>65.7 (186)</td>
<td>61.5 (80)</td>
<td>.681</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of goal/future expectation</td>
<td>93.6 (265)</td>
<td>95.4 (124)</td>
<td>.496</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of hobby</td>
<td>84.5 (239)</td>
<td>90.8 (118)</td>
<td>3.033</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 12 shows the percentages for schooling characteristics. Significant differences were found between juveniles who admitted to the YRCs for the 1st time and those who admitted to the YRC for the 2nd time or more on school disciplinary problems. In sum, the results of this finding suggest that these particular juveniles were very poor in either academic performance or attitude towards schooling, regardless of number of times admitted to a YRC.

![Table 12: Distribution of Respondents on Schooling Characteristic](image)

**Table 12: Distribution of Respondents on Schooling Characteristic**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable name</th>
<th>1st time</th>
<th>2nd times or more</th>
<th>Chi-squared value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poor academic performance</td>
<td>81.3 (230)</td>
<td>86.2 (112)</td>
<td>1.491</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Truancy</td>
<td>86.9 (246)</td>
<td>87.7 (114)</td>
<td>.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inability in friendships</td>
<td>75.3 (213)</td>
<td>74.6 (97)</td>
<td>.202</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disinterest in educational and schooling activities</td>
<td>81.3 (230)</td>
<td>86.2 (112)</td>
<td>1.491</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School discipline problems</td>
<td>24.0 (68)</td>
<td>76.2 (99)</td>
<td>100.492&quot;**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

"Significant at p < 0.01 level

**Discussion**

The descriptive findings of this study represent some valuable data on juvenile delinquents, in terms of self and social behaviour, as well as family background characteristics. The findings of this study, however, is arguably significant, since it is the first of its kind in Malaysia involving data collected through juveniles' files. Although lots of the information or source of data in the files were collected and recorded by the social worker, the methodology of the study is thought acceptable since this kind of research has been done previously (e.g., Loeber & Dishion, 1983; Loeber & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1986). The facts and figures gathered in this study are considered useful as the primary platform before proceeding to further research.

In this study, the majority of incarcerated juveniles were between the ages of 15 to 17 years. The largest group among those sampled was juveniles aged 16 years, which is delineated as middle adolescence (Sherrod, Haggerty & Featherman, 1993). Middle, as well as late adolescence is a period of transition associated with a variety of maturational.
challenges, including increased ability to care for oneself. The coupling of emotional and physical changes with an increased emphasis on regular self-care and unsupervised time with peers may be problematic for many middle and late adolescents, as some may not be able to manage their new independence responsibly (Sherrod, Haggerty & Kosmitzki, 1998).

The findings of this study indicate that the male juveniles sampled were involved in multitude of offences, with property crimes showing the highest score. The majority of female juveniles were involved in less violent delinquent activities (except for murder without intention). Many of them were alleged to have "beyond parental control" problems and drug offences.

Besides committing specific delinquent or criminal offences, these incarcerated juveniles were also reported to be taking ecstasy pills, sniffing glue, using drugs and partaking in sexual activities. Although the number of juveniles involved with alcohol and drug abuse was not large, their involvement in this antisocial behaviour is considered serious. This was supported by a number of studies, which reported that drug and/or alcohol abuse play a prominent role in the offenders' histories (Wilcynski, 1997; Kashani, Darby, Allan, Hartke & Reid, 1997; Singhal & Dutta, 1990). Additionally, a number of studies have shown that the use of illicit drugs and alcohol is correlated with negative attachment experiences in childhood and adolescence (De Wit, Embree & De Wit, 1999; McGee, Williams, Poulton & Moffitt, 2000) as well as a history of behavioural problems (McGee et al., 2000). Likewise, sexual activities seem to be one of the common areas of misconduct for the female juveniles. More than half of them had engaged in 'free will' sexual intercourse, sex parties, and numerous other types of sexual misconduct. The findings suggest that female youths commonly have the inclination to be involved in delinquent activities that are less aggressive (e.g., Loper, 2000). Although these antisocial activities per se may not cause much harm to the juveniles involved or the people around them in the short term, these activities may create problems in the long-term (Fergusson & Horwood, 1999) and hinder healthy development (Rice, 1990).
Chapter 5

The findings of this study show that the percentage of alcohol abuse by male and female juveniles may be considered average. However, given that consuming alcohol is prohibited in Islam (cited in, Manshur, 1998), it is therefore surprising that almost half of the incarcerated juveniles have taken alcohol. Although it is not drinking as such, but frequent drinking of large quantities, that creates problems (Hughes & Dodder, 1984). This behaviour is considered serious in Malay-Muslim society. Besides, a few studies have emphasised the seriousness of drinking behaviour although no specific study has proven that excessive drinking behaviour “causes” or “predicts” adolescent crimes. Alcohol abuse, however, is one of the major components in crime (Dawkins & Dawkins, 1983) and some studies report that it is involved in half of all homicides (Flanigan, McLean, Hall & Propp, 1990; Pirkola, Isometsa, Henriksson, Heikkinen, Marttunen & Lonnqvist, 1999). As to confirm, the associations between alcohol abuse and juvenile delinquency during the ages of 15 to 16 years were studied in a birth cohort of New Zealand adolescents (Fergusson, Lynskey & Horwood, 1996). Fergusson and colleagues found that young people who misused alcohol had significantly higher rates of violent and property offences, and these associations were similar for males and females. Their further analysis suggested that a substantial component of the association between alcohol misuse and juvenile delinquency arose from shared risk factors that were common to both outcomes. These risk factors included measures of family social background, family and parental characteristics, individual characteristics and adolescent peer affiliations. Furthermore, the association that alcohol problems have with crime and delinquent performance is as serious as drug abuse, glue-sniffing and usage of ecstasy pills (Jansen, Richter & Griesel, 1991; Marcos & Bashr, 1995). Overall, youth crime and delinquency are most prevalent and problematic (Snyder, Sickmund & Poe-Yamagata, 1996) and juveniles usually commit more than one offence (Rice, 1996). As shown in the present descriptive study, in addition to committing a particular crime, juveniles were also involved in antisocial behaviours such as drug abuse, glue-sniffing and usage of ecstasy pills.
The findings of this exploratory study also indicate that parental factors were paramount. The majority of male and female juveniles (over 76%) had high scores in terms of lack of parental supervision, as well as lack of joint activities and intimate communication with parents. Over one third of them experienced lack of parental warmth. These findings suggest that the parent-child relationship plays an important role in adolescent development, adjustment and social conduct (Kroupa, 1988; Meesters & Muris, 2002). Although no statistical test was performed to prove a significant correlation between delinquent behaviour and poor parent-child relationship, the high scores shown on poor parent-child relationship variables cannot be ignored. As suggested by previous researchers, the family environment (Walgrave, 1992; Hill, 2002) and parent-child relationship are the most important factors in delinquency (LeFlore, 1988). Griffin, Botvin, Scheier, Diaz & Miller (2000) also found that drug and alcohol abuse are linked to poor parental monitoring during childhood. Thus, secure relationships with the parents are particularly important. Parental support and monitoring contribute positively to the prevention of adolescent delinquency (Barnes & Farrell, 1992).

This study revealed a small number of male and female juveniles who had bad relationships with their mothers. On the other hand, almost half of the incarcerated juveniles were recorded as having higher bad relationships with their fathers than the mothers. Although other researchers (e.g., Johnson, 1987; Hanson, Hanggeler, Haefele & Rodick, 1984; Clark & Sheilds, 1997; Lee & Bell, 2003) have found that lack of closeness or a poor relationship with the father is a better predictor of delinquent behaviour, especially among males, this study, however, was not able to verify this finding in relation to the parent-child bond and delinquency. Additionally, this study also revealed that a very small number of these juveniles’ parents had committed a crime or had psychiatric problems.

In short, delinquent adolescent were having more relationship problems with their fathers as compared to mothers. This may be due to others who generally relate more to their children and possibly are the ones implementing rules and discipline. In most families,
mothers are the persons responsible in taking care of family issues such as guiding the children with their homework and handling other needs, whereas fathers are the persons responsible for generating the family income. Since these fathers spend fewer hours with their children, they are thus more likely to encounter difficulties and have conflicts with their children.

Data relating to self-behaviour characteristics are considered valuable to this study. The majority of juveniles were recorded as being stubborn. Nearly half of male juveniles and about one quarter of female juveniles were recorded as being aggressive and troublesome. Although the number of juveniles with these behaviour characteristics may not seem too high, a few studies have found that there is a significant relationship between aggression and delinquent activities (e.g., Gouze, 1987; Pakaslahti & Keltikangas-Jarvinen, 1997). Moreover, the way juveniles spend their time apart from parents or family members also reflect the lack of a close relationship with the family. The significance of the individual characteristics of young offenders has been shown in a few studies. For example, Pakaslahti and colleague (1997) found that aggressive adolescents score lower on immoral attitude. Aggressive adolescents think that victims deserve aggression, and that they do not suffer from it (Slaby & Guerra, 1998). Meesters and colleague (2002) in addition, suggested that the style of parental attachment might contribute to individual differences in both general aggression and separate dimensions of aggression. The findings of Meesters et al. is in line with the findings of the Mikulincer (1998) study, that is, insecurely attached juveniles experience higher hostility and anger-proneness and are inclined to attribute more hostile intent to other people. Therefore, research on self-behaviour characteristic should be prioritised when it comes to understanding delinquency, as certain negative characteristics or behaviour may possibly be associated with delinquent acts.

The findings of this study also show that the majority of the juveniles sampled, regardless of gender, spend most of their daytime with friends, while nearly half of them spend their time with friends at night. This suggests that the incarcerated juveniles may have
pleasant relationships with their friends. This may be an interesting topic to be further investigated. Furthermore, the lack of goals, future expectations, hobbies and cooperativeness were more severe among these juveniles. Sensible advice and support are suggested to be beneficial towards overcoming these problems.

The study revealed that the school experiences of these juveniles were not particularly positive. Although the majority of the offenders attended junior high school, both male and female juveniles recorded high scores in terms of poor academic performance. It is suggested that the juveniles' bad academic performance could be associated with acts of truancy and lack of interest in school when these variables show scores of more than 85%. As reported in numerous studies, delinquency has been associated with school problems, school misbehaviour, truancy, academic underachievement and peer influences (Boyd, Hagan & Cho, 2000). For example, low educational level has been cited as a common characteristic among offenders (Mendlowicz, Rapaport, Mecler, Golshan & Moraes, 1998; Wilcynski, 1997). Furthermore, many studies have identified the association between absences from school and deviant behaviour (e.g., Graham & Bowling, 1995; Norem-Hebeisen & Hedin, 1983). Farrington (1980) reported a link between truancy and delinquency, finding that school truants were more likely to have committed criminal offences and were reported as engaging in violent behaviour more often. Similarly, Pritchard, Cotton and Cox (1992) found that truants were more likely to exhibit a range of problematic behaviours, including fighting and vandalism. The results of this study revealed a number of the juveniles sampled were reported as having school disciplinary problems, while two thirds of them were recorded as having difficulty in making friends and integrating with peers at school. Generally, it was apparent that these incarcerated juveniles had gone through lots of negative experiences in school.

Finally, a comparison between the juveniles who admitted to the YRCs for the 1st time and those who admitted to the YRCs for the 2nd time or more shows no significant differences in all variables except for school disciplinary problems and certain antisocial activities, i.e., alcohol consumption, drug abuse, shoplifting, illegal motorbike racing and
bullying. There were higher scores recorded for almost all variables in the characteristics of parent-child relationship, self-behaviour and schooling problems for offenders who admitted to the YRC for the 2nd time or more. Generally, for those variables that were significantly different statistically, the scores for the 2nd timers were always higher. Overall, the findings show that juveniles who admitted to the YRC for the 2nd time or more have more behavioural problems and suffer from a poor parent-child relationship.

**Limitations of Descriptive Data**

The limitations of the present study should be highlighted.

First of all, it is important to keep in mind that this study relied on official records stored in each particular YRC and did not use any direct or objective behavioural observation. Initially, the main purpose of the recorded information maintained by government institutions is not for research, but for the reference of SWDM, the court system, prison authorities and the police. Thus, this research is considered to be the first study undertaken in Malaysia where data was collected directly from official records of the incarcerated juveniles. The researcher selected juvenile records that were thought complete and apposite to be studied. On the whole, the researcher was satisfied with the samples and variables selected for analysis, and the overall reliability of the data.

Secondly, the sample studied only consists of Malay incarcerated juveniles in four YRCs. So, it remains to be investigated whether or not the current findings are applicable to Malay youths in other YRCs or other ethnic groups.

Thirdly, it may be tempting to interpret having a poor relationship with parents as an antecedent of delinquent activities among these incarcerated youths. However, given the frequencies and the chi-square analysis, the current study does not allow causal inferences. Notwithstanding the fact that insecure children have shown more problems and aggressive behaviour (Main & Goldwyn, 1984), long-term prospective studies are needed to gain a better understanding of the possible role of insecure attachment in the
Chapter 5

development of delinquent behaviour.

In total, this study indicates that these juvenile offenders have poor relationships with their parents, have certain attitude and behavioural problems, poor schooling performance, and are involved with particular antisocial behaviours, which are important to be studied further.

Notes:
1 Residence where juvenile is placed is called a house.
2 School level where the pupil age is between 13 to 15 years.
3 School level where the pupil age is between 7 to 12 years.
4 School level where the pupil age is between 16 to 18 years.
5 Uncaring mother/father – mother/father did not care for their children particularly in children’s education, common essential need such as food, cloths, money and/or health.
6 Samples are all Muslim.
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AN ANALYSIS ON PARENTAL AND PEER ATTACHMENT PATTERNS AMONG MALAY INCARCERATED JUVENILES (STUDY 2)

Introduction
This study is interested in investigating the relationship between parental attachment and peer attachment amongst Malay juveniles in Malaysia. Specifically, this study aims to examine juveniles’ attachment patterns to their attachment figures (i.e., mothers and fathers). The study focuses on the determinant factors (trust, communication, alienation) of those attachment processes.

Background of the Problem
The number of juveniles involved in delinquent activities in Malaysia (JKM, 2002) is alarming. According to several reports published by the Social Welfare Department of Malaysia (SWDM; JKM, 2002) and research done by National Population and Family Development Board (NPFDB; LPPKN, 2001), delinquency problems amongst Malaysian youth are evidently caused by the failure of family functions and weaknesses in family relationships. Some researchers (e.g., Matlack, McGreevy, Rouse, Flatter & Marcus 1994; Warr, 1993b) suggested that family cohesion is necessary for learning healthy social skills. A balance between cohesion and adaptability created more positive communication (Matlack et al., 1994) which was characterised as empathetic, supportive and requiring reflective listening and sharing among family members in maintaining a harmonious family environment. Stronger family attachment and more positive communication give rise to more appropriate socialisation and conformity. On the contrary, disruptions to family attachment may support delinquency and other antisocial behaviours (Matlack et al., 1994). As reported by Warr (1993b), attachment to parents affects the friendships formed and therefore indirectly affects delinquency. His research finding showed that by spending time with adolescents, parents could reduce delinquency either through lack of opportunity or through the effects of positive (law-abiding) role
models. A strong attachment to parents may cause adolescents to seek out law-abiding friends and be less likely to become involved in delinquent behaviours. Warr’s research suggested that even in the presence of delinquent peers, adolescents who are strongly attached to parents are constantly influenced by the parents, who always seem to be “psychologically present”.

Research on effective parenting practices found support for the basic premises of adolescent individuation. The incidence of antisocial or delinquent behaviour is related to the amount of behavioural control, specifically parental monitoring (involves supervision of a child) and discipline (involves the application, in a consistent and caring manner, of negative sanctions for misbehaviours and positive sanctions for pro-social behaviours) that parents exercise over their children (Barber, Olsen & Shagle, 1995; Patterson, 1992; Rankin & Wells, 1990). A high or moderate level of direct behavioural control exercised by parent has been found to be negatively related to delinquency (Sampson & Laub, 1993), drug abuse, deviant acts, and school misconduct, even after other factors such as the adolescent’s age, race, gender and family socioeconomic status are taken into account (Barnes & Farrell, 1992; Rankin et al., 1990). Thus, loving parent-child relationships, adequate discipline and supervision by parents are needed to ensure positive developmental pathways on their children (Rankin et al., 1990). The primary function of these attachment figures (i.e. parents) is to provide a secure base of emotional, psychological and physical support. Parents are expected to be available as a source of help and comfort when needed, and this will help promote environmental exploration and mastery (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters & Walls, 1978; Bowlby, 1988; Rice & Whaley, 1994) as being described by Bowlby (1988);

"Healthy, happy and self-reliant adolescents and young adults are the products of stable homes in which both parents give a great deal of time and attention to the children" (p.2).

Since the adolescent period of life is always stressful and will affect the future development of the adolescent (Kenny & Rice, 1995), it is crucial to understand the factors surrounding the adolescent-parent and adolescent-peer attachment processes. Considering the existing evidence on the influence of attachment patterns on adolescents,
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This study aims to examine these patterns within a population of incarcerated juveniles in Malaysia. This study on parental attachment and peer attachment patterns among juvenile delinquents is the first of its kind in Malaysia and will hopefully enhance our understanding of the influence of such attachment phenomena.

Rationale for the Study

Although several researchers agree that early attachment relationships remain important throughout the life span (Kenny, 1990; Rice, Fitzgerald, Whaley & Gibbs, 1995; Rice & Whaley, 1994), and that attachment occurs in other than the mother-infant dyads, research on the adolescent-parent and adolescent-peer attachment dyads have been slower to develop. Most research has either been on infants’ or children’s attachment processes, or adult patterns of attachment in relation to romantic relationships (Feeney & Nooler, 1990; Hazan & Shaver, 1987, 1990; Kobak & Hazan, 1991; Tidwell, Reis & Shaver, 1996). However, research conducted by Greenberg, Siegal and Leitch (1983) and Armsden and Greenberg (1987) on the quality of parental and peer attachment has added a new dimension to the study of attachment theory. Using a quantitative approach and the construct of an internal working model suggested by Bowlby (1988), they developed an instrument called the Inventory of Parental and Peer Attachment (IPPA). They were able to measure the internal working model of individuals by assessing: (i) the positive affective and cognitive experience of trust in the accessibility and responsiveness of the attachment figures, (ii) the quality of communication between individuals and their attachment figures, and (iii) the negative affective and cognitive experiences of anger and hopelessness resulting from unresponsive or inconsistently responsive figures (Armsden et al., 1987). It would be pertinent to highlight in this context that attachment theory was developed using interdisciplinary and evolutionary perspectives, which emphasised the feelings of security and protection. These are universal feelings that individuals will try to acquire when threatened with stimuli from their environment.

Accordingly, the rationale of this study is to precisely understand the juvenile perception towards parent-child attachment and peer-child attachment, as they have been experienced. Since many studies have shown that lack of satisfactory parent-child
attachment amongst delinquent adolescents can lead to having close relationships with peers (e.g., Warr, 1993b, Barnes et al., 1992; Kafka & London, 1991), the current study hypothesises that individuals will organise their attachment behaviours if they received security and protection. In other words, juveniles who have poor attachments to their parents would show intimate relationships with peers who have the same interest as they are. It would be worthwhile to observe the utility of this theory within an Asian population, especially among juveniles of the Malay ethnic group, as proposed in this study.

Aim of the Study and Research Questions
This study investigates the applicability of Bowlby’s (1969, 1982, 1988) attachment theory in a population of incarcerated juveniles from the Malay ethnic group in Malaysia. The study also examines the juveniles’ attachment patterns to their attachment figures while they were in physical proximity of their family, that is, before they were placed in the YRCs. The study focuses on the determinant factors (trust, communication, alienation) of those attachment patterns. This study also attempts to determine the effects of gender on the attachment patterns.

Based on constructs and assumptions developed by Bowlby (1969) and the underlying foundation of attachment theory provided by Ainsworth and colleagues (1978), this study is designed to address the following research questions:

1. What sort of attachment do they perceive with their parent? Does a relationship exist between these juveniles’ parental and peer attachments?
2. Do variables such as gender impact the juveniles’ perceived parental and peer attachments?

Method
Research Design
This study integrated both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Phase One of the study employed the quantitative approach, while Phase Two employed the qualitative approach. Research suggests that when quantitative and qualitative methodologies are combined within the research design, it will increase the understanding of the results
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(Howe, 1988; Nias, 1996). Phase One utilised a quantitative approach to answer the research questions. A qualitative approach was used in Phase Two to gain in-depth information on the concepts or variables being studied. For the study to be more meaningful, these two approaches were designed to complement each other.

The quantitative approach involved observations in a cross-sectional design. The cross-sectional design employed the use of self-administered questionnaires to gather information. Information obtained from such a design is particularly useful when a researcher is trying to understand and confirm a theory about some behavioural phenomena at one point (Fink, 1995). This study examined the Malay incarcerated juveniles' quality of attachments to their mothers, fathers and peers. It examined the quality of attachment patterns throughout the juveniles' lives with their parents. The cross-sectional design enabled the researcher to investigate the juveniles' internal working model (thought processes) as suggested by Bowlby (1988). This was preceded by asking questions relating to their parental and peer attachments. The questions revolved around the issues of trust, communication and the feeling of alienation in developing relationships. These are the pertinent issues concerning attachment theory, as developed by Bowlby (1969) and suggested by Armsden et al. (1987).

Participants and Procedures

Phase One and Two participants were recruited from two YRCs situated in two different states in Malaysia. Each YRC represented different genders. In Phase One, the inmates were invited to participate in the study with the help of the house teachers. Once agreed, each participant was given a pencil and a set of questionnaires in one large classroom provided by the institution. First, they were asked to complete the consent form, and then to fill up the questionnaires. Three officers and one house teacher escorted the participants, researcher and research assistant. The researcher and research assistant were always available to ensure independence and confidentiality in the responses obtained, and to provide assistance when necessary. The participants completed the questionnaires in approximately 15 minutes and then returned the questionnaires personally to the researcher.
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One hundred male and 25 female incarcerated juveniles volunteered to participate in this study. However, during the coding of data into the SPSS Version 10 programme, 5 sets of questionnaires were found to be not completely marked (3 sets from male and 2 sets from female participants) and had to be rejected. Thus, the actual respondents in this study comprised of 97 male and 23 female juveniles.

In Phase Two, 14 participants from the same rehabilitation centre (as in Phase One) were interviewed. The interviews were conducted in the meeting room at each YRC and the place was very comfortable and private. The interviews were carried out between September and October 2002. The interviewees were selected based on their willingness to cooperate in the study when the interviewer visited the YRCs to select participants in September 2002. The participants consisted of juveniles not already involved in the study, to provide variability in the data collected for the research. The researcher, with the approval of the ‘school’ chief officer, arranged appointments for the interviews. As suggested by Bartholomew and Thompson (1995), interviewing can advance understanding of the role of attachment in psychology because it gives the researcher access to the observations of others. Through interviewing, the researcher can learn about the respondents’ lives, get the ‘right’ information about the nature of their social lives and experiences, and understand how certain events have affected the participants’ thoughts and feelings. However, the task of interviewing adolescents, especially juvenile delinquents, has to be planned carefully. One clear reason for interviewing these juveniles is to allow them to voice out their own interpretations and thoughts rather than rely solely on the interviewer’s (researcher’s) interpretations of their lives. It was important to make sure that the interviewees could express the salient feelings in their lives that are usually not discussed in daily conversations or interactions. Therefore, the interviewer needed to be sensitive to the power imbalance, where in this case, the interviewer had to understand and respect the interviewees during the interview process by trying not to treat them as interviewees per se, but rather as friends and trying to use simple words or the adolescents’ own speech routines. As suggested by Gubrium and Holstein (2002), a ‘regular’ linguistic approach can strengthen the validity of interviews.
as well as complement other models of data analysis by showing how certain beliefs are acquired and communicated.

Each interview was conducted individually between participant and researcher. Interviews lasted between 60 to 85 minutes and were tape-recorded. In order to ensure that the interview process would go smoothly, one research assistant was also present. She sat next to the interviewer to help in matters such as inserting and changing the tape, managing the tape recorder, and writing down as many important statements as possible in the notebook. The research assistant also helped in doing the rechecking against the original transcripts of the interviews and bringing the transcripts to the interviewees during the analysis stage.

An open-ended approach was adopted to allow the participants to get the maximum opportunity to guide the direction of the interview by both elaborating on topics introduced by the researcher and entering novel areas where appropriate. Smith (1996) suggests that empowering the participants in this way improves the probability of developing a good rapport and tends to produce 'richer' data as a consequence. Although the interview questions were properly organised, the participants were given every opportunity within the interview to tell their own story and add or elaborate on topics that were significant to them.

Participants were guaranteed anonymity, given permission to withdraw at any time during the interview and told that they might exclude any question that they considered uncomfortable. Before the interview started, participants were asked to complete the consent forms. All interviews were recorded with the permission of the participants. At the end of each interview, the participants were debriefed about the aim of the study and promised confidentiality of the interviews and the results.
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Pilot Study
The study began with pilot interviews of three adolescents. Two of them were introduced by the village committee members, while the other was introduced by one of the pilot interviewees, who found him at the Kuala Lumpur City Centre (KLCC) Mall. All three of them had behaviour characteristics that were similar to those of the actual participants, i.e., smoking, sniffing glue, playing truant, being involved in free sexual activities, hanging around shopping complexes and games centres, shoplifting, gambling and being involved in assault cases. The purpose of doing this pilot study was to ensure that the language used and the overall aim of the study were meaningful to the real participants.

Instrumentation
In Phase One, the Inventory of Parental and Peer Attachment (IPPA) was used. The study used specific questionnaires for the mother and father (as revised by Muhammad, 2000). The aim is to investigate the specific relationship between mother-child and father-child attachments. The peer attachment questionnaire remained the same. The IPPA comprised of three continuous scales that were scored independently, that is, mother/father attachment (28 items each) and peer attachment (25 items). The 5-point Likert scale used in the instrument indicated 1 as “never true”, and 5 as “always true”. Each scale measured three similar dimensions: (i) degree of mutual trust (assessed adolescents’ trust or feeling that the attachment figure understood and respected their needs and desires), (ii) quality of communication (determined the adolescents’ perceptions on how sensitive and responsive their attachment figures were to their emotional state and needs), and (iii) extent of anger and alienation (demonstrated feelings of anger or emotional detachment from attachment figures). Armsden and colleague (Armsden et al., 1987) included the construct of alienation since frequent and intense anger or detachment is seen as a response that threatens and disrupts a secure attachment bond. The questionnaires used can be seen in Appendix B. The maximum score for each mother and father attachment scale was 140, and the minimum score was 28. The maximum score for the peer attachment scale was 125, and the minimum score was 25. Items from the three scales were summed independently for three total scores.
Derive Measure

Factor analyses performed on the items by Armsden et al. (1987) yielded factor pattern coefficients suggesting a partial confirmation of the notion of positive and negative affective-cognitive dimensions of attachment. Inter-correlations among the scales indicated positive correlation between parent trust and communication (.68), and negative correlation between parent communication and alienation (.55). Similarly, there were positive correlations between peer trust and communication (.65), and negative correlation between peer trust and alienation (-.35) and peer communication and alienation (-.39). Moderate to high reliability of scores were also reported by Armsden et al. (1987). The alpha coefficients for trust, communication, and alienation for the parent scale were .91, .91 and .86 respectively, while the alpha coefficients for trust, communication, and alienation for the peer scale were .91, .87, and .86 respectively. Armsden and colleague reported a 3-week test-retest reliability for 27 samples. The samples were between the ages of 18 to 20 years. The reliability coefficient value for the Parent Attachment also taken as a total score from the three subscales was .86. These values correspond to the coefficient values found by Lapsley, Kenneth and Fitzgerald (1990) and Muhammad (2000), except for the alienation of parental and peer attachment by Lapsley et al. (1990) which demonstrated low reliability. As reported by Muhammad (2000), the alpha coefficients for trust, communication, and alienation for the mother scale were .89, .88 and .80 respectively; the alpha coefficients for trust, communication, and alienation for the father scale were .89, .87 and .81 respectively; while the alpha coefficients for trust, communication, and alienation for the peer scale were .87, .83, and .80 respectively. Muhammad reported a study for 187 samples ages between 15 to 18 years.

In the current study, the researcher calculated the alpha values for mother, father and peer attachments. The alpha Chronbach coefficient for mother attachment was .93, father attachment was .92, and peer attachment was .90. Specifically, the coefficient values for the mother attachment subscales were: trust = .87; communication = .86; alienation = .78. Mean-while, the coefficient values for the father attachment subscales were: trust = .85; communication = .84; alienation = .76. The coefficient values for peer attachment
subscales were: trust = .82; communication = .80; alienation = .66. In this study, all measures demonstrated adequate reliability. These figures are useful for future research when the IPPA is involved as an instrument to measure mother, father and peer attachments of samples from different ethnic groups in Malaysia.

The Interview Guide
Phase Two of the study used the ‘interview guide’ (illustrated in Appendix B) for data collection. The instrument was developed for the purpose of this study based on a literature review of parental and peer attachments (Armsden et al., 1987; Hazan et al., 1990). It has 14 open-ended questions related to mother and father attachment, respectively, that correspond to 14 open-ended questions related to peer attachment. The instrument also has two open-ended questions that explore how the juveniles perceived their mother, father and peer attachments before they were placed in the YRCs. The researcher first asked participants questions about their mother and father attachments. This was followed by questions regarding their peer attachment. The respondents were able to reflect on their mother and father attachments first. Then, they were able to use this reflection to help them understand how they relate to their peers.

Hypotheses and Quantitative Analysis
Research Question 1:

i. Does a relationship exist between the juveniles’ mother and father attachments?

ii. Does a relationship exist between the juveniles’ mother and peer attachments?

iii. Does a relationship exist between the juveniles’ father and peer attachments?

The research question was analysed using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r).

Research Question 2:

Do levels of mother attachment, father attachment, and peer attachment reported by male and female juveniles differ?

The research question was analysed using the mixed between-within ANOVA.
Analytic Strategy

The study in Phase Two produced qualitative data that may support or deny results for the two research questions. This qualitative research method employed an exploratory approach. The approach could help to identify the salient themes in the concept of juvenile attachment patterns to the mother, father and peers.

Each interview was transcribed precisely. The resulting transcripts formed the raw data, which was analysed with interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA) (Smith, 1996; Smith, Jarman & Osborne, 1999) method. It aimed to capture the meaning to the participants of the phenomenon under investigation. All the interview transcripts were read repeatedly and then coded to identify emergent themes, which have significance within the original texts. Transcripts were analysed individually in sequence, by marking relevant items, identifying emerging themes, noting connections and arranging these into preliminary lists. Recurrent themes were then identified across transcripts; such themes reflected a shared understanding among participants of the phenomenon under investigation. This was a dynamic process, with each transcript informing both the collection of further data and the following analysis (Flower, Smith, Sheeran & Beail, 1997).

At all stages of the analytical process, constant reflection and re-examination of the verbatim transcripts were conducted to ensure that themes and connections related to the primary source material, with certain themes being dropped and others expanded. All themes were represented by extracts from the original text, but were not chosen purely for their prevalence. “Other factors, including the richness of the particular passages which highlight the themes, and how the theme helps illuminate other aspects of the description, are also taken into account” (Smith et al., 1999, p. 226).

As validation within a qualitative study is an important element of the research, the researcher had taken great care to continuously ensure that emerging interpretations remain grounded in the experience of the participants through checking and re-checking by comparison with the original transcripts of the interviews. Two other people read a
sub-sample of transcripts independently, and emergent and recurrent themes were discussed. With the help of a research assistant, two transcribed notes were given back to two interviewees to confirm any themes or patterns that emerged from the data. The themes were agreed with these particular persons.

Due to the fact that the Malay language was used during the interview, the analysis was conducted in the same language to ensure that the data would be accurately analysed. The excerpts, however, were translated into English and translated back into Malay by a translator. The quality of translation was regarded as satisfactory by the researcher. With regard to the quotes presented in the analysis, empty brackets indicate where material has been omitted, clarificatory information appears within square brackets; and ellipsis points (...) indicate a pause in the flow of the participants' speech.

Result
The results of this study are reported in two phases. Phase 1 displays the descriptive profile of the research sample, as well as results from inferential analyses. Phase 2 presents the qualitative analysis of the data collected in the study. This section is used to support results documented during the quantitative analyses.

Phase 1: Results of Quantitative Analysis
Participant Profile
The descriptive data reported in this study were based on 120 participants. The breakdowns of the participants profile are showed according to: (i) age, (ii) gender, (iii) parents' monthly income, (iv) guardian, (v) number of times admitted to a YRC, (vi) juvenile status before admitted to the YRC, and (vii) categories of friendship before being in the YRC. The sample comprised of 80.8% male and 19.2% female juveniles. The participants' ages were as follows: 9.2% aged 15 years, 21.7% aged 16 years, 53.3% aged 17 years and 15.8% aged 18 years.

Juveniles were also asked to classify their family income. It ranged from less than RM500 to RM1,800 per month. Twenty three participants (19.2%) reported family
monthly income levels less than RM500; 40% of the participants reported family monthly income levels between RM501 to RM1,000; and 40.8% of the participants reported family monthly income levels between RM1,001 to RM1,800. The data suggests that most of the incarcerated juveniles who participated in the study were from lower to middle income groups.

It is worth noting that juveniles with two biological parents outnumbered juveniles with a biological mother & stepfather, and a biological father & stepmother. Ninety-six participants (80%) reported that they were staying with their biological parents; 19% of the participants reported that they were staying with their biological mother & stepfather; while 5% of the participants reported that they were staying with their biological father & stepmother. This is not surprising as marriage is highly valued in Malaysian society, especially among the indigenous groups.

Participants were also asked to indicate the number of times admitted to a YRC (either the same or different institution). Twenty-nine participants (22.2%) indicated that it was their 1st time being in a YRC, while 95.8% of the participants reported that they had been in a YRC more than once.

Participants also indicated that they were either schooling, working or unemployed before being in the YRCs. Twenty-four participants (20%) indicated that they were still schooling at the lower high school level. Meanwhile, the majority of participants (69.2%) indicated that they were working before being in the YRCs. Only 10.8% reported that they were unemployed. As remarked in the information sheet, they stayed at home or sometimes went to their friends for financial support.

In order to investigate the people with whom these participants had been friends with, respondents were asked to classify their friendship preferences before being in a YRC. Figure 1 shows the breakdown of the participants’ categories of friendship. There were a very low percentage of participants in this study who reported being friends with people not known to be involved in antisocial activities (7.5%). On the other hand, all (100%)
the participants indicated being friends with people who were involved in socially deviant, such as alcohol abuse and sexual activities. Moreover, many of them (98.3%) indicated that their friends were involved in minor criminal activities such as theft, vandalism, graffiti, illegal motorbike racing and drug abuse. Finally, more than half (59.2%) of the participants reported that their friends were involved in major crimes such as rape, robbery, drug trafficking, possession of firearms and assault.

Analysis of Research Questions

This section reports the results of data analysis using two different statistical measures:

i. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. This analysis determined if there were any relationships between mother and father attachments, mother and peer attachments, and father and peer attachments.
ii. Mixed between-within ANOVA. This analysis tested whether there are main effects for each of the gender (independent variables) and whether the interaction between the attachments and genders is significant.

Research Question 1: Results from the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Analysis
First, the scores from mother and father attachments were correlated using the Pearson product-moment correlation analysis. The result shows that the correlation coefficient value was $r = .98 (p < .001)$. This outcome indicates that the attachment qualities, either high or low, of mother and father attachments, as perceived by the incarcerated juveniles, were highly and significantly correlated. Second, the correlation between mother attachment and peer attachment was investigated, and significant negative correlation of $- .34 (r = -.34, p < .01)$ was discovered. Third, the correlation between father attachments and peer attachments was also examined, with a resulting significant negative correlation $(r = -.36, p < .01)$, which means that there is a low negative correlation between those two scores.

Research Question 2: Result from Mixed Between-Within ANOVA
A two-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of sex and attachments. The result of this study shows that the highest attachment of statistics scores are at peer attachment (91.02 [male]; 94.17 [female]), at mother attachment (81.95 [male]; 79.52 [female]), and at father attachment (80.91 [male]; 79.00 [female]).

Within-Subject Effect
The main effect of attachment (mother, father and peer attachment) revealed to be significant with $F(2,117)= 34.88, p < .01$, multivariate eta squared = .374. This suggests that participants scored differently based on the types of attachment measured. Using the commonly used guidelines proposed by Cohen (1988) (.01 = small effect, .06 = moderate effect, .14 = large effect), this result suggests a large effects saiz.
**Between-Subject Effect**

The result of this study indicates that there was no significant interaction between genders and the three types of attachment styles with $F(2,117)= 1.19$, $p > .05$. The significant value of between-subjects effect is $.875$. This is not less than our alpha level of .05, therefore, it is concluded that the main effect for group is not significant. Briefly, this study shows that there was no significant difference on the scales measures attachment of mother, father and peer for the two groups (i.e., male and female incarcerated juveniles). The eta squared valued for the effect size of the between-subject effect group in this case is .001. This is very small. It is therefore not surprising that it did not reach statistical significance.

**Phase 2: Results of Qualitative Analysis**

Results from this section will be divided into two parts: (i) mother attachment and father attachment; and (ii) peer attachment. The interpretative process conducted on the raw data resulted in the development of several themes from the three categories, that is, trust, communication, and alienation. Seven male and 7 female inmates from two YRCs were interviewed for the second phase of this study. It is worthwhile to acknowledge that six male and six female interviewees had been in a YRC more than once.

**Mother Attachment and Father Attachment**

In this part of the study, mother attachment and father attachment were explored using 14 open-ended questions that basically covered issues of trust, communication and feelings of alienation as suggested by Armsden et al. (1987). It is interesting to note that the raw data showed enormous richness in describing each category of trust, communication and alienation pertaining to parental attachment, as experienced by the interviewees. However, it is very important to clarify upfront that, although the interviewer had prepared and used two different sets of interview questions, one each for mother attachment and father attachments, but with similar approaches, the majority of the interviewees preferred to provide simultaneous answers for both parents. Also noteworthy are the answers to the question: “Do you feel that you relate to your mother better than your father or vice versa before you came to this school?”, almost all juveniles
responded that they had practically equal quality relationships with both parents. This finding is in line with the results of phase one of the study, where there was a significant relationship between the quality of mother attachment and father attachments, as perceived by the incarcerated juveniles.

The IPA (Smith, 1996) method used was able to separate data from each category into different themes. Six themes emerged for trust, four themes for communication, and two themes for alienation. The six themes for trust were: (i) understanding, (ii) respect, (iii) mutual trust, (iv) accessibility, (v) responsiveness, and (vi) expectation. The four themes for communication were: (i) extensiveness, (ii) quality, (iii) quantity, and (iv) modes of communication. The two themes for alienation were: (i) emotional alienation, and (ii) physical alienation.

**Trust**

*Understanding.* As suggested by many interviewees, it is difficult for them and their parents to understand each other's predicaments in order to develop parent-child trust. Lack of understanding about another person's predicament can lead to individuals being disrespectful and viewing the other party's dilemma from their own perspective.

The theme of understanding covered the following areas: (i) lack of mother and father understanding on issues presented by the interviewees, (ii) impatience displayed by the mother or father when attending to the interviewees' needs, and (iii) the parents' unwillingness to compromise on certain issues with the interviewees. Both male and female interviewees suggested that their parents very rarely tried to understand their needs while living together, before they were detained in the YRCs. This resulted in the interviewees feeling uncomfortable in terms of approaching the parents with their problems and feeling that their parents would not be able to help. As one male interviewee commented:

> My mother, my father, they sometimes don't care about me [ ] they never tried to help me, even when I said to her, “studying is very hard for me, I'm not interested to learn anymore”, my mum would say, “[ ] you are lazy [ ].”
Actually, she never tried to understand what I talked about ... That’s why I don’t trust them! [ ] she is not interested to understand my situation.

The same sentiment was echoed by another female interviewee:

My mother doesn’t understand what I want in my life [ ] My father, he’s worse! [ ] There is one times when I tried to tell her (mother) about my problems, suddenly she refused to hear [ ] it is really difficult to trust my parents.

Many interviewees also suggested that their mothers and fathers would be less understanding when the issues presented evolved around the interviewees’ social life, or some personal problems that encompassed different gender relationships. Some of them were told that their primary duty was “to be a role model to the siblings, and to have a good job to help their parents”. They were told to put their social life on hold temporarily because they were still young and to only consider different gender relationships or intimate relationships upon having a permanent job and reaching a certain age. One male interviewee remarked that:

My Mum said I’m abang (oldest son in the family) [ ] I have to be responsible to the family, take care of the house, take care of my siblings, I cannot think only about my own needs ... My mum and dad asked me to find a proper job, take care of my own maruah (self-respect), take care of the family honour [ ] They don’t trust me! Too much responsibility for me, so fed-up! [ ] She (mum) doesn’t understand me [ ] I know that I’m a son in my family, but, don’t force me too much! [ ] My father is more or less like my mum.

Another female interviewee shared her predicament:

I don’t think my mum understands me. My dad neither! [ ] They don’t understand why I need somebody. ... I’ve grown up [ ] I can’t just make them understand [ ] my mum and dad, they don’t want to understand me. They don’t trust me either [ ] If I tell them about this relationship (being friends with a boy), I’m sure my dad will tell me to break it off [ ] We (she and her boyfriend) are just like husband and wife.

Another female interviewee attributed the lack of understanding to the generation gap between herself and her parents. She was the youngest in a family of three and felt overly protected by her parents and brothers who were much older than her. She
commented on the lack of trust between them, and that affected her feelings of connectedness toward her family. She could not hold her frustration:

My mother is old, my father too, but I am still young. They don’t really trust me! They don’t understand what young people want [ ] They think that we [the young people] are sinners.

Other interviewees who suggested that their mothers and fathers did not have the compassion to understand or listen to their problems echoed her sentiment.

Many interviewees agreed that, in general, mothers were more understanding than fathers. According to them, fathers tend to take an indeterminate attitude (“talk to your mother, she knows better,” or “discuss with your mother first”) when confronted with issues related to the interviewees’ social life. Therefore, some interviewees felt more comfortable discussing personal issues with their mothers than with their fathers. Given the choice, they preferred to discuss issues related to their work experience than issues evolving around their personal lives because their parents “would never understand” their feelings. In general, both male and female interviewees attributed the willingness to understand, or lack thereof, to the development of trust. They suggested a linear relationship between trust and understanding as shown by the following excerpts:

I would feel happy and it would make me trust my mum and dad [ ] if, when I told them something, they would try to understand.

Very seldom do they show that they understand me, try to understand me ... they usually never show any effort to try to understand me [ ] If my mum and dad don’t understand me, how can they know what I am thinking? How can they tell me what to do? Why should I trust their judgement then?

**Respect.** The salience of respect as one of the themes in trust development emerged when interviewees commented on mother-child and father-child relationships. Many interviewees agreed that one’s ability to respect others is a sign of an appropriate upbringing. One male interviewee even commented that:

If the mother and father don’t respect their own children, their children would not respect them too [ ] respect is important in the family.
This sentiment was echoed by one female interviewee:

It’s difficult to trust them because they never respect my feelings [ ] but I don’t want to be like them because I think they are wrong. I want to respect my children, so that my children will respect and love me too.

From the interviewees’ perspective, respect was seen as: (i) the mother and father respecting the interviewees’ choices and decisions without imposing their own, (ii) helping the interviewees make decisions, and (iii) providing equal treatment to all the children and valuing their opinions. Interviewees also agreed that respect had to be mutual in order for them to feel comfortable in the parent-child relationship. Nonetheless, this was rather difficult to achieve because of the parents’ status versus the interviewees’ status within the Malay family setting, added to the family’s background characteristics. The parents wanted to have the ultimate respect from their children, while not necessarily providing the same respect to the children. In view of this, one male interviewee suggested that his feelings and opinions did not receive much respect from his mother or father. On the other hand, he was expected to respect both his parents in return for the help and support they provided. He added that:

My parents want me to respect them. But I don’t think I can respect them for what they have done, especially my father [ ] There were times when I felt that they had no respect for my feelings or ideas [ ] ignoring me, making fun of my ideas, which my mother always do [ ] I don’t trust them. I’ve lost my respect for them.

Most of the time interviewees felt that the lack of respect from their mother and father was due to age and academic performance factors. The younger the children, the less respect the parents had for their opinions. As one female interviewee said:

They probably think that I am too young to have any opinion of my own.

This sentiment was echoed by one male interviewee:

My father always said, “You are stupid. Nobody wants to respect you”. [ ] How can I respect him? He shouldn’t say that to me even though I was not good in my studies [ ] my mother is just the same, but she’s a little bit better than my father.
Similar sentiment was echoed by another female interviewee:

My mum and dad are always negative towards my views. They don’t really trust me, they never respect me. To them, I am just “budak mental” [too young/naive] [ ] What I have to do is just follow whatever they say. I don’t like that! [ ] my mum said I am not a bright person, like my academic performance is not as good as my two sisters, so I shouldn’t try to show that I’m good by saying something [ ] that is not fair!

This lack of acceptance in ideas and opinions frustrated the interviewees and lessened their respect towards their mother or father. When comparisons were made between male and female interviewees, the data suggested that parents were more receptive to the male interviewees’ ideas and opinions than those of the female interviewees. The following excerpts suggested this pattern:

Male interviewee:

I told them (parents) about staying with my friends [ ] we would enjoy staying, working together [ ] mum said, “OK, if you think you can handle it, you feel safe”

vs.

Female interviewee:

My father scolded me for requesting to stay with my auntie. My mother too. I was very upset [ ] mum and dad don’t respect my feelings, my choices [ ] I always felt like being controlled [ ] they never respect my needs.

Mutual Trust. Another overriding theme that emerged when discussing the issue of trust was the lack of mutual trust between parents and the interviewees. Interviewees agreed that mutual trust is important. They commented on the importance of sincerity, and that honesty should accompany feelings of mutual trust between parents and their children. In view of this, Cutman (1992) suggested that “trust is an individual’s characteristic belief that the sincerity, benevolence or truthfulness of others can generally be relied on” (p. 989). Mutual trust should reflect “confidence that one will find what is desired from another, rather than what is feared” (Deutsch, 1973, p.149). Many interviewees frustratingly commented on their parents’ demand that they constantly show their trustworthiness to them. However, this was not always received in return from parents. This was echoed by one female interviewee:
Chapter 6

My mother wants me to tell her what I did when I was with my friends, where I went if I went out with my friends, with whom and so on. They want to see whether they can trust me. I don’t like to be treated like a little girl. But that is fair, but when I tell my mother something, you know like, very personal things ... like I went out with my male friends, the next thing I know, my father would say something bad to me. I hate this! I expect her to just listen, and not tell anyone especially my father. So, it is hard to trust my mum.

Many male interviewees also indicated that the manifestation of trust from the mother and father was shown through their unwillingness to trust the interviewees’ judgements and decisions, and by the amount of personal space given to interviewees when they were in the decision-making process. Non-trust was exhibited through the non-sharing of personal items or belongings and, sometimes, the non-sharing of personal secrets with their parents. Many interviewees said that they were not willing to trust their mother or father with any of their personal issues and any personal secrets, as indicated by the following female interviewee:

I don’t trust my mother with my things. I don’t trust my father either. I don’t trust them with my secrets. It is very difficult to trust them because they never trusted me before. Besides, I don’t think they should know.

Another older male interviewee made a similar remark:

Of course I don’t trust my mum and dad with my things, my clothes, and sometimes my money. My secrets - sorry! This will put me into trouble.

The interviewees suggested that their parents’ untrustworthy behaviour and the habit of sharing their secrets with other family members caused their lack of trust towards their parents. Nevertheless, one female interviewee commented a bit comfortable she felt about sharing some issues with her mother, but not with her father. She sometimes looked upon her mother for some guidance and advice, although she was involved with socially deviant and delinquent activities. She said that she was happy with certain socially deviant behaviours because she had some miserable feelings towards her parents, especially her father. According to the interviewee, she hates her father and never felt comfortable staying at home while her father is around the house. She added that:

I sometimes trust my mother but I hate my father because he always talks roughly to mum. I sometimes trust mum’s judgement, not always.
Many interviewees suggested that they were not willing to compromise their parents' trust. They would rather keep their secrets from their parents because it would only get them into trouble.

**Accessibility.** Parental accessibility was also one of the themes that emerged when interviewees discussed mother and father trust. The idea of accessibility included: (i) being accessible, either emotionally or physically, and (ii) providing emotional support. Many of the interviewees commented that their mothers and fathers were inaccessible, especially in times of crisis, and this was the case even before they were brought to the YRCs. Interviewees agreed that this characteristic was maintained throughout their childhood and into their teenage years. This resulted in the interviewees feeling sad, confused and more uncomfortable with their parents. Commenting on this issue, a female interviewee remarked:

> Although they are my biological parents, they didn’t help me much in my life. They never gave me any good support, they never tried to help me solve any problems [ ] Everything I did myself [ ] My father is just the same! He’s useless. He just sticks to my mum’s decisions.

Similar sentiment was echoed by male interviewee:

> Last time, when I was in school [ ] I told my dad to send me for tuition, but my dad said, “I have no money to send you for tuition [ ]”. I know that he can afford to send me for tuition [ ] I always feel that they are not an accessible people.

However, one interviewee suggested that the mother was more accessible than the father, even during periods of crisis. The mother was seen as providing the base for the interviewee to return when emotionally upset. This resulted in the interviewee feeling closer and more comfortable with the mother rather than the father. As this interviewee suggested:

> If I have any problems, for some of that I will turn to my mum. Never to my dad … difficult. It is easier to talk to my mum rather than my dad.

**Responsiveness.** The data collected showed that unresponsiveness was the most salient theme that contributed to the development of untrustworthy between parents and interviewees. The majority of participants said that they had experienced
unresponsiveness from their parents. They described unresponsiveness as: (i) how slow
the parents responded to their needs in times of crisis, (ii) the non-attentive behaviour of
the parents, and (iii) not being supportive and concerned about the wellbeing of the
interviewees. With regard to the promptness of the parents’ response, one female
interviewee commented:

My father just didn’t care, once when I told him my school pocket money was
not enough. I know he doesn’t have much, but at least he should please me
when it comes to having sufficient money for school. [ ] My mother does
nothing!

On the same issue, another male interviewee remarked that:

When I asked them (parents) to buy a new t-shirt because the old one was torn
and faded, they said they didn’t have money. [ ] they were unresponsive
parents.

Yet another male interviewee reflected on how unconcerned his father was about the
children’s eating habits and certain domestic chores that he would never do for them.
Hence, the father never wondered whether or not the children would be able to live
happily with the family:

[ ] my father is not very concerned about my necessities … our necessities [ ]
he talks so rudely to us. He never asked how everything was in the house. [ ]
It’s useless to talk to my mum too. … [ ] I don’t feel I can trust them.

The three excerpts seemed to suggest that parents were not concerned about their
children’s wellbeing. It was interesting to note from the stories that, for both male and
female inmates, their parents were not concerned about the issue of coping with domestic
chores and taking care of their personal needs. Furthermore, there were also non-
attentive behaviours displayed by mother and father who were even less responsive to
their children. The parents, according to the interviewees’ stories, were more detached,
and were less concerned about their children’s mental and emotional wellbeing. One
female interviewee described her parents’ insensitivity towards her feelings as follows:

I was quarrelling with my sister [ ] I was very upset because my mum
suddenly asked me to shut up in an angry tone [ ] she said, “Its better to use a
knife if you want to fight”. [ ] She never cares about my feelings. She should
be more responsive. She should investigate what is wrong [ ] My father just
doesn't bother when we quarrel. Instead, he sometimes said "Lantak kau oranglah!" (Do what ever you want to do!)

The female interviewee’s sentiment was echoed by another male interviewee who described his parents as also being detached:

You know that my mum and dad are not types who will pat my back, and tell me nice things. They prefer to leave me alone [ ] Sometimes my mum and dad are fed up with me for telling them my ideas [ ] you know like, I should know my limit. They just ignore me when I said too much.

Interviewees also suggested that their parents were not only inattentive to their financial needs, but also to their mental and emotional wellbeing. Their stories reflect the mother and fathers’ unawareness of the importance of mental and emotional stability, and its influence on their children’s ability to excel academically, as commented by one male interviewee:

My father does not really care of my education achievement ... My mother too. They never care whether I’m feel secure or not to take the exam [ ] My father doesn’t like me to tell him if I am not feeling OK [ ] My mother more less like my father [ ] they don’t understand me.

One female interviewee echoed a similar sentiment:

My parents are not very concerned about how I feel, if I feel angry or sad [ ] they would never try to ask me [ ] I know, if I don’t tell them, they won’t be worried ... they don’t care how I feel.

A female interviewee who insinuated that her parents never responded immediately to her needs also suggested that she never missed her mother or father's presence. This female interviewee came from a middle class family, but her parents were not very much involved in her education or social life since childhood. She was one of the interviewees who were born to unmarried parents and she had been raped by her father twice. She had given birth to a baby girl (fathered by her boyfriend) while staying at the YRC. She hated her parents. When reflecting on her feelings towards her parents, she commented that:

I am awful to have such a mummy and daddy, uncaring, non-supportive, not compassionate ... never loved me honestly [ ] they never know what’s best for me [ ] they are really not responsive parents. You cannot trust them!
Another male interviewee also reflected on his bad relationship with his parents. He talked about his parent’s non-attentive behaviour when responding to his pleas for help or when he was emotionally upset.

If I feel upset or angry, my mother would respond negatively to my anger. My father would scold me ... sometimes they would ask me to leave the house. They never want to know about my problems [ ] they never took care of me.

It is worthwhile to note that both female and male interviewees suggested that their parents were non-attentive to their needs. The interviewees saw their parents as being not understanding, uncaring, non-supportive and not accommodating. However, only one interviewee agreed that his mother was sometimes responsive to him. He said:

When I am upset, my mother will sometimes ask me why, but my father will just keep quiet [ ] leaves it to my mother [ ] I don’t know whether he does it on purpose or not. [ ] they respond differently to my moods.

**Expectation.** Interviewees also insinuated that their mothers and fathers’ distrust were always accompanied by low expectations. The worse they are at meeting their parents’ expectations, the lower the trust level. The majority of the interviewees indicated that their mothers or fathers did not strongly expect them to excel academically and to maintain a low profile in their social lives. Commonly in Malay society, parents will have high expectations of their children or any member of the family, as this is associated with “saving the family’s name” or “saving the parents’ face” to avoid any humiliation (Suradi, 2000). Failure to meet the expectations was deemed detrimental to the parents’ status in the society. However, according to the interviewees, their mothers or fathers seemed to show a lack of expectation towards them. As one interviewee suggested:

My father very rarely reminded me to study [ ] never made sure I passed. He sometimes did not care about my studies ... He sometimes said, “If you do anything silly, that is your own problem”. [ ] My mother would just abide by what my father said. She always said, “It’s up to you.”

Another female interviewee made a similar remark:

My mum said, “You are dumb ... it is useless for you to continue your studies. You and your sister always bring bad luck to the family. It is better for you to serve jantan”. No future at all!” [ ] My dad, worse! He never shows
that he has any good expectations of us [ ] I don’t really trust my mum and dad.

While telling the researcher her stories, she seemed like she wanted to cry. She said that she really wanted to further her studies. Although her parents did not have high expectations of her, she did not mind. She said that once discharged from the YRC, she wanted to continue her studies in college and become a professional singer.

Two interviewees commented on how their parents’ high expectations were making their lives monotonous and uninteresting. According to the female interviewee, the only lifestyle she knew during her childhood centred on school and her studies. In her first year of secondary school, she was not willing to involve herself in other activities aside from studying for fear of getting distracted from her studies. This emphasis on academic excellence had led to frustration and anger because the interviewee felt that her parents did not understand her life situation, interest and needs. This sentiment was expressed by this particular female interviewee:

> When I was in Form 1, my parents expected me to just stay at home [ ] and study all the time. They told me not to date anyone [ ] My father said, “Don’t play around, don’t go to all these activities that I am hearing about”. A lot of expectations! Boring! I lost the interest to study [ ] my mum and dad doesn’t realise … I also want some life, some fun like my other friends [ ] my parents shouldn’t pressure me too much.

The interviewees opinioned that their parents should have lower levels of expectation and exert less pressure, which would help them to develop a more balanced lifestyle between their social and academic activities. Many reflected that they performed better when the pressure from their parents was less. In view of this, one male interview commented that:

> Last time, with my parents, they expected too much from me [ ] I felt so pressured, lost my interest to study. Here (in the YRC), I feel OK! I can do things without pressure.

The above comment paints a positive scenario, but some interviewees still indicated that their parents did not have any expectation or merely average expectations of them, either before they were sent to the YRCs or while they were in the YRCs. Their mothers or fathers did not strongly encourage them to continue their studies or to attain excellent
academic achievements. Some of the parents wanted their children to start a business when they completed their respective sentences at the YRCs. This sentiment was related by one male interviewee:

My father said, “You don’t have to continue your studies [ ] Nobody wants to take you as their employee, you have a bad record. It is better to start your own business”. My mother agreed with my father. I don’t have a choice [ ] actually I want to continue with my studies, but they don’t trust me.

When asked what their expectations would be towards their mothers and fathers, many interviewees suggested that they expected both their parents to be able to help them in times of crisis, when they need extra money, or when they need someone to care for them, love them and help them make wise decisions. They expected their mothers and fathers to accept them for who they were:

Actually, I want them to love me. You know, like other good parent [ ] they can help me when I have problem [ ] when I need extra money [ ] it is much better if they can help me make some decision [ ] about job. They also have to accept me as I am.

The interviewees also expected parents not to torture or pressure them into fulfilling their (parents’) own needs. They also hoped that both their parents would learn to trust their judgement by listening more and not jump right away into giving advice. This annoyed them because it sounded more like nagging.

If possible, don’t force me too much to follow them. There must be alimit. They also have to trust me too. Trust my ability. Don’t just force me to accept their advice. I hate that!

It is interesting to note that parents’ and interviewees’ expectations were not at all parallel. While some of the parents’ expectations centred on academic or career issues while majority of them never showed any expectation on these juveniles, the interviewees’ expectations revolved around the need to feel loved, to be listened to, and to be recognised for their abilities to make sound judgements and good decisions. Nevertheless, the stories communicated by the interviewees reflected weaknesses in the parents’ expectations of their children. Interviewees indicated that trust towards their parents would exist only if their (interviewees’) expectations were met.
Chapter 6

Communication

Four themes relating to communication, namely extensiveness, quality, quantity, and modes of communication emerged when interviewees were asked questions regarding their mother and father attachments.

Extensiveness of communication. When telling stories regarding their mother-child or father-child communication styles, many interviewees suggested that the amount of information shared or to what extent communication was taking place between them, was a good indicator as to the lack of quality of their mother and father attachments. Interviewees seemed to agree that the question of how much information to share with their parents depended upon the issue they wanted to share, and how comfortable they were in sharing the issues. In addition, they suggested that they were not willing to share some personal information for fear of the mothers or fathers' negative perceptions toward them. However, very few of them were more willing to share information that related to their financial situation, job or ideas that did not involve anything personal, although most of the times they were not satisfied with the answers from both of their parents. In view of this, one male interviewee commented:

I do discuss certain issues with mum, but very rarely with dad, like my work, health [...] and if I badly need money ... aside from that, like awek\textsuperscript{a}, or if I want to go out with my friends, or to have fun with some friends, watch movies, I don't tell them [...] they will not allow me because they never want to understand my interests.

Interviewees who suggested that they had a weak attachment bond with their parents insinuated that they rarely shared information with their parents including their social lives. Additionally, both parents at the early stage didn’t know that their children were guilty of antisocial behaviour. Meanwhile, the interviewees preferred not to do this sharing to avoid misunderstanding and creating other problems. As one female interviewee said:

It is better for me to hide anything from mum and dad [...] especially about my relationship with my balak\textsuperscript{b}. They will feel ashamed of me [...] I never tell them about the offences I have committed ... I took arak (alcoholic beverages) in my room when I felt miserable. Once I finished, I kept the bottle nicely, so my parents do not know [...] I don't like to discuss my problems [...] with mum, or even dad [...] it will make my life more complicated.
Quality of communication. The term ‘quality’ represents the quality of the two-way communication that existed between interviewees and their mothers, or interviewees and their fathers. It reflects the caring or uncaring behaviours that accompany the communication process such as: (i) the effort made by both parents and interviewees to communicate with each other, (ii) encouragement or discouragement given by mothers or fathers, and (iii) the comfort or discomfort levels felt by the interviewees when communicating with their mothers and fathers. Many interviewees agreed that their mothers or fathers’ style of communication consisted mainly of giving advice in an authoritarian style. Every time the information sharing process occurred, the parents followed it with non-stop advice, which to the interviewees sounded more like torturous nagging. Inevitably, this frustrated many interviewees who preferred their mothers and fathers to listen while maintaining an adult-to-adult relationship throughout the communication process. One interviewee remarked that:

Even if I tell them (parents), they would scold me for being silly [ ] would advice, and most of the time membebel (babbling), especially my mum [ ] sounded more like nagging, torturing. I don’t like that! [ ] If I said something, my dad would say that I am menderhaka (being disobedient). Fed-up!

In this study, only two interviewees who were more willing to share personal information with their mothers only seemed to have better communication patterns with the mother. These patterns were represented by two-way communication accompanied by attentive behaviours such as willingness to listen, show of affection, show of support and some encouragement. Many of the interviewees who were less willing to share any personal information with their mothers or fathers indicated that their parents very seldom encouraged them to talk about any personal issues with them. This resulted in feeling less comfortable talking or discussing anything with the parents.

Only two interviewees agreed that their mothers provided better communication compared to their fathers, while the majority of interviewees mentioned that both parents were poor in parent-child communication. These interviewees perceived mothers as being more patient and easier to talk to than fathers. Mothers were also said to be more
understanding, compassionate and were willing to make the effort to listen to their children. As one male interviewee commented:

It's useless to talk to my father. He seems not interested to listen to what I want to say ... although if he were to listen, he always put back the blame on me. So, there is no use to talk to him! [ ] mother would listen to me and she's easy to talk to. She sometimes understands the problem I tell her.

One female interviewee also suggested that her father was less sensitive when communicating with his children. She said:

My dad cannot communicate with his children [ ] he would try, but somehow it does not come out right.

Another female interviewee, who was never encouraged to discuss or talk about her problems with her mother or father, felt awkward when asked to do so. This particular interviewee also described her relationship with her mother and father as lacking any display of emotions or feelings, and the communication patterns were very superficial, and “nothing deep”. As she remarked:

If I asked for something ...like material things, or if I wanted to talk about something that was not related to emotions or feelings, they would be OK, but if I did, that would not be OK. What is so wrong about telling your parents that you don’t feel OK, right?

Quantity of communication. Interviewees described the quantity of communication as the number of times they communicated with their mothers or fathers to tell them where they want to go, respond to some questions asked by their parents, seek help for money or other things. Many interviewees indicated that they communicated with their mothers or fathers at least once a day, but several female interviewees wouldn’t communicate with both of their parents for about two to three days. This happened because they did not feel like talking to their mothers or fathers. Only two interviewees agreed that they communicated with their mothers more frequently than with their fathers, as evidenced by the following excerpts:

Male interviewee:
I talked everyday to my mother when I was at home [ ] With my father, sometimes in one whole day I would not talk to him, although I would see him in the house ... because I don’t know what to talk with him.
Female interviewee:
    Sometimes we talk, but it is very minimal. My parents don’t talk very much to their children.

There is no difference between the quantity of communications made by male and female interviewees before they were detained in the YRCs. However, both male and female interviewees indicated that the number of times they made contact (the only way – letter writing) with their parents while they were in the YRCs depended on their mood. Some of them reported that they received letters from their parents about once in three month. Other interviewees indicated that they never received letters from any of their parents, and they never wrote any letter to them too. Some parents came to visit them once a month or once in three months. Two female interviewees reported that their mothers did not allow them to send any letter at home. Their parents could not accept that their daughters were involved in criminal activities. Their parents felt ashamed for their daughters.

**Modes of communication.** Before the interviewees were admitted to the YRCs, they communicated with their parents in person or via the telephone. Once they were in the YRCs, some of the interviewees indicated that their primary way of communicating with their parents was by way of letters. The rest commented that they never received or sent any letters to their parents.

**Alienation**

Two themes emerged when interviewees discussed their feelings of alienation and isolation from their mothers and fathers, i.e. emotional alienation and physical alienation. Emotional alienation represents both the negative as well as positive feelings interviewees felt towards their mothers and/or fathers. Such feelings included anger, sadness, neglect and love. Physical alienation includes physical abuse in the family or the lack of togetherness in doing activities that involved family members.

**Emotional alienation.** There were a number of factors mentioned by interviewees that led to emotional alienation. Such factors involved the mothers and/or fathers: (i) making
comparisons between the interviewees and their siblings, (ii) treating the interviewees as children rather than adults, (iii) assuming that the interviewees were not able to make sound judgements, (iv) ignoring the interviewees after an argument, (v) assuming that the interviewees were not worthy of trust, and (vi) controlling the interviewees’ lives. These factors led to feelings of anger towards and isolation from their parents. In view of this, one female interviewee remarked:

I was so angry when my dad said that I was *budak mentah* (immature) and I did not have the right to make my own decisions. [ ] I feel like I didn’t have the right to grow up [ ] My mum and dad always think that they have to make decisions for me [ ] they need to know [ ] I know how to make my own decisions.

**Physical alienation.** Interviewees suggested that they were usually not involved in activities that bond family members together, such as helping their mothers and/or fathers around the house, spending the weekend with the family or participating in joint recreational activities. According to them, they would feel lazy or uncomfortable getting involved with these activities. They also felt that their parents did not want or like them getting involved with their activities. As one interviewee put it:

I don’t like to help my mum … I don’t feel comfortable to help her. Anyway, she doesn’t like me to help her.

Interviewees who felt emotionally and physically alienated from both their mothers and fathers also maintained that their families did not place a strong emphasis on family activities. They indicated that their parents did not consider doing things together as a family was a priority. One female interviewee frustratingly remarked:

Usually, when my parents would go to a *kenduri* (religious or family gathering), they would never invite us to come along. Actually, that is part of our family activities, but my mum and dad prefer to go by themselves.

Another male interviewee remarked:

They never pray with the children [ ] my mum never prays. My father as well [ ] this is bad because parents should pray and invite their children to pray together. Perhaps because I never prayed, I was easily inclined to commit *maksiat* (vice).

Interviewees who had more negative feelings towards their mothers and/or fathers talked about the physical abuse in their families. They indicated that their parents sometimes
quarreled and abused each other or the children. One female interviewee who had a very poor attachment with her mother and father reflected on this matter:

Normally if dad were angry, he would smack mum [ ] scold mum and swear at her. Sometimes he would smack us (my sisters and me) [ ] Mum would sometimes swear at us too.

Peer Attachment

Peer attachment was explored using 14 open-ended questions that basically raised the issues of trust, communication and the feelings of alienation, as suggested by Armsden and colleague (1987). Question 15: “Do you feel that you relate to your mother/father better than your friends or vice versa before you admitted to the YRC?” was used to explore any indication that might demonstrate a shift of attachment from mother and/or father to peers. Interviewees discussed themes similar to mother and father attachment when they told stories related to trust, communication and alienation in relation to peer attachment. Six themes emerged for trust: (i) understanding, (ii) respect, (iii) mutual trust, (iv) accessibility, (v) responsiveness, and (vi) expectation. Four themes emerged for communication: (i) extensiveness, (ii) quantity, (iii) quality, and (iv) modes of communication. Two themes emerged for alienation: (i) emotional alienation, and (ii) physical alienation.

Trust

Understanding. Stories on peer attachment told by interviewees described the theme of ‘understanding’ as the willingness of their peers to understand their lives and social struggles, as well as their psychological wellbeing. Both male and female interviewees agreed that their close friends understood their struggles and difficulties, and were more than ready to help. They also described their relationships with their friends as not demanding. One female interviewee described her friends as follows:

They really understand my problems, my struggles. We always look out for each other. If I have problems, like money problems, they help me.

One male interviewee who was also very comfortable with the relationship he had with his close friends remarked:
I have five close friends [ ] enjoy our life together. They understand me, I understand them too ... We try to settle whatever problem we have [ ] never pushing or forcing each other. They are free to tell me what they want to tell me, me too. I don’t feel pressured [ ] we always share our problems together.

These excerpts suggest that the interviewees experienced less constraint in their self-friend relationships when compared to their self-mother or self-father relationships. The interviewees attributed this to several factors: (i) both interviewees and peers dealt with the same life and social struggles, (ii) they did not have to be pretentious about who they were, (iii) they were willing to help each other in times of difficulties, (iv) they did not demand each other’s attention, and (v) they shared the same ‘culture’ and interests. These reasons made the self-friend relationships more enjoyable and meaningful.

**Respect.** The theme of ‘respect’ emerged when interviewees were asked about their feelings toward their former close friends. The interviewees agreed that respect was an important issue when developing their trust towards friends. This theme describes the feeling of mutual respect felt by interviewees while they were relating to their friends. The feeling was characterised by respect regarding opinions and choices. Interviewees suggested that they did not feel pressured to impose their opinions or choices on their friends. Therefore, in return, they did not feel the pressure to accept ideas, opinions or choices suggested by their friends. This was echoed by one female interviewee:

> If I have a certain point of view, ideas, I would tell my friends [ ] they don’t have to agree with me [ ] they have their own opinions, I don’t have to agree with them. We have the right to reject if we don’t like it [ ] they respect my feelings, my opinions.

Interviewees commented that they were able to develop good relationships with their friends when they learned to respect each other’s opinions. In addition, they argued that because they [interviewees and friends] were in the same predicament, it was much easier to cross each other’s personal boundaries.

The majority of the female interviewees suggested that their male friends were less demanding, and they felt more secure and comfortable interacting with them rather than their female peers. According to them, their female friends were more ‘selfish’ and were
less fun. They felt that their male friends had the same interests and needs as they did. The male interviewees claimed that they preferred to be close to their male friends because they felt more comfortable interacting with the same gender rather than their female peers. With their male friends, they felt more at ease and confident moving around and planning their activities, especially antisocial activities. In view of this, one male interviewee remarked:

I prefer to be with my male friends because it is easy for us to smoke, drink arak or go racing (illegal motorbike racing) ... we plan our activities together [ ] female friends are difficult. They are sometime selfish. I make friends with them just for fun, for sex.

**Mutual trust.** The theme of 'mutual trust' was defined by the extent to which individuals were willing to share their personal stories, information or belongings with their friends and vice versa. The mutual trust that developed between the interviewees and their friends promoted stronger feelings in the peer attachment. Both male and female interviewees agreed that they had difficulty trusting their friends the first time. They would be afraid that their friends would use their information or story against them in the future. One male interviewee used an old Malay saying, i.e. "kawan makan kawan," which literally means "friend eat friend (anything one’s tell people about one’s secret, can be used by other people to ‘kill’ oneself later),” to describe this situation. Furthermore, they would feel intimidated when new friends trusted them too much although they just met. They agreed that trust should be developed slowly, but once gained, they trusted their friends with their personal belongings and secrets. As one interviewee put it:

We just like staying as one big family. We are part of the family. So we share each other’s difficulties. If my friends are in trouble, I would feel it too.

One of the female interviewees remarked that she was willing to share any secrets with her friends and she did not feel embarrassed when doing so. She added:

I don’t mind sharing my things with my friends [ ] my secrets too, I don’t feel embarrassed [ ] they always help me [ ] they are willing to listen to my problems.
Another female interviewee suggested that she trusted her friends more than she trusted her family members. She also indicated that feelings between her and her friends were mutual. Her statement was supported by another female interviewee who referred to her friends as the best people for her to trust:

I trust Rita (best friend) [ ] I trust my other friends. They are mat motor [ ] I have been with them for so long [ ] they trust me too.

Another female interviewee indicated that she felt comfortable sharing information about her family or her family secrets only with her close friends, especially her female friends, because she wanted to avoid humiliation for herself and her family. She added that she was willing to share her personal secrets with her friends if the feelings were mutual.

I feel more comfortable telling story about my family... or family secret... only to friend that can really be trusted, the one who are really sincere, make sure she will keep the secret, not humiliate me at the back.

Generally, interviewees perceived their friends to be trustworthy. They were more willing to share their personal belongings and personal secrets with their friends as compared to their parents. However, they were still cautious sometimes. As remarked by one of the interviewee:

I trust them, but I am cautious. I think they also trust me, but still they are careful. Andy (friend) was the one I trusted a lot.

Accessibility. Another overriding theme that emerged for trust is 'accessibility,' which described the physical and emotional support given to and received by the interviewees from their friends when in crises. Many interviewees shared that they were relieved to have reliable friends who shared the same direction, friends they could depend on during difficult times. They showed immense gratitude and appreciation towards their friends who were willing to share with them. As one interviewee remarked:

They helped me go through a bad period with my parents. They were always there for me [ ] they are nice to me. I will do anything for them, they too for me.

Both male and female interviewees agreed that they need support from each other because "we encountered similar effort, interest ... motorbike, arak, smoking, hanging
around at shopping complexes ... sometimes sell drug”. This sense of support was necessary because they felt that they needed a base away from home and someone they could lean on. In view of this, a female interviewee suggested:

I prefer to stay away from home. I really need friends, especially in times of difficulty [ ] it would be more difficult to rely on my parents ... they don’t understand me. If I have problems, it would be better for me to go to my friends.

This is different from the sense of accessibility that emerged with mother or father attachment, whereby interviewees expected parents to be accessible, but there was no similar expectation from parents. Interviewees felt that their friends were more accessible than their parents or other family members. This was probably due to the emotional separation or lack of emotional trust between mother and child as well as father and child, which made it more difficult for them (interviewees and their parents) to get support from each other. Because of the inaccessibility of their parents or other family members, many interviewees looked upon friends as part of their lives. This was most notably true for those who sometimes lived together with their friends as described by the following excerpt:

We are friends. Sometimes we stay together. Usually in my friend’s house. We trust each other, always help each other in times of trouble. We do everything together [ ] If my friends were to feel sad, I would try to help them, they would too [ ] Whatever I can do, I will do. For me, they are part of my life because emotionally I was not close to my parents.

There were no differences between male and female interviewees on how they perceived their friends’ accessibility in times of crisis. Both groups indicated that their male and female friends responded positively to their pleas for help.

**Responsiveness.** Another theme that emerged during the interpretative analysis with respect to trust was the issue of ‘responsiveness’, which describes the attentive behaviour displayed by the friends towards interviewees. Responsiveness was manifested by the friends being: (i) supportive, (ii) concerned for the interviewees’ wellbeing, (iii) sincere and honest, (iv) forgiving, (v) attentive in listening, and (vi) willing to be more open.
Interviewees remarked that most of their close friends were very responsive regardless of the issues presented to them. As one of the interviewees suggested:

If I were to tell them something, they would listen and not argue with me.

Peers were also very observant of any changes happening to the interviewees, and sometimes the friends would respond to those changes without waiting for the interviewees to ask for their help. As expressed by one male interviewee:

If my friend saw that my life was miserable, they would talk to me about it. They were very concerned because they don’t want me to be sad [ ] they are so caring.

This relational pattern was consistent for both male and female interviewees. One female interviewee, whose close friends were male, agreed and added that:

He can sense when I am upset [ ] will make jokes about me being so quiet [ ] make me smile, feel good for the day. He takes me out. He encourages me.

From the six attentive behaviours mentioned, most interviewees suggested that showing concern, listening attentively and being supportive were the behaviours most favourable to them. They indicated feeling comfortable with peers who demonstrated such behaviours.

**Expectation.** With regard to the theme of ‘expectation,’ male and female interviewees suggested that the feelings were mutual. Both genders expected that their friends would: (i) help them in times of difficulty, (ii) accompany them in social and antisocial activities, and be involved in planning these activities, and (iii) share some personal items when appropriate. In addition, many interviewees indicated that they expected their friends to help them financially because, as an interviewee put it:

We don’t have much money, we don’t have proper jobs, so we have to know how to budget our money. We help each other.

Furthermore, these mutual expectations can be seen from the following excerpts:

They expect me to help them. I don’t mind [ ] I also expect them to do the same. When I have a problem, they expect me to tell them [ ] we help each other out … like stealing motorbikes, so that everybody goes through with our plan and gets money.
Overriding themes similar to those related to mother and father attachment emerged for the theme of ‘communication’ when interviewees were asked questions on their communication styles with peers. The themes were: (i) extensiveness, (ii) quality, (iii) quantity, and (iv) modes of communication. Many interviewees suggested that when the self-peer relationships were accompanied by effective communication, it helped to overcome misunderstanding that could have led to anger and bitterness.

**Extensiveness of communication.** Extensiveness describes how much communication was taking place between interviewees and their friends, or the depth of the communication. The data suggested that the interviewees felt comfortable sharing information that was related to their social lives, personal issues and their delinquent activities. However, some of them were not willing to share specific information regarding family matters, and if they did, they were always cautious to avoid embarrassment or humiliation. They would only share their family problems with their close friends. One male interviewee suggested a Malay proverb to describe this situation, i.e. “buka pekong di dada,” which figuratively means to reveal an embarrassing secret. Therefore the, cautiousness was necessary to avoid situations that might denigrate the individual and his family. They suggested several reasons for not sharing family issues with their friends: (i) they might get embarrassed or hurt, (ii) the friendship might be strained after the information is shared, and (iii) friends were not their family members. This was consistent with the data describing mutual trust where interviewees suggested that they trusted their friends with a lot of information, with the exception of family matters. In view of this, one male interviewee remarked:

> When it is too personal, like family matters, I don’t tell my friends. Family matters I keep to myself. I don’t tell them my family matters. I only tell Nurul (girlfriend) about my family problems. I trust her and she trusts me too. We always share our problems.

The above statement shows that this interviewee would only share his family matters with the one person he really trusted, loved and who would be willing to share her family matters with him too.
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The interviewees were also willing to share their ideas or opinions related to their antisocial and delinquent activities. In fact, they agreed that their friends were the best individuals with whom they could share their ideas and opinions. Furthermore, they indicated that their friends usually agreed with those ideas and opinions and they would sometimes commit a crime on an ad hoc basis. One male interviewee recalled:

We always do things together [ ] make plans together. Everybody gives his ideas [ ] do it together. Sometimes we do things ad hoc [ ] Last time, when we finished our job (burglarising a house), suddenly, we heard a noise from one of the rooms. We hatched a new plan to rob the people inside and ask them for their money and their ATM (automated teller machine) cards. We discussed the matter immediately, and then we did it.

Quality of communication. The interviewees defined quality of communication as communication styles that were supportive and encouraging. Many suggested that quality communication helped develop more cohesiveness among friends, and thus promoted a sense of “brotherhood”. Most male and female interviewees agreed that their friends were good listeners, very supportive and always encouraged them to share their problems or issues. As a result, they felt more comfortable and relaxed talking about their personal issues with their friends rather than their mother or father. This was echoed by one female interviewee who had one close friend with whom she shared most of her secrets:

I feel safe, comfortable, discussing my personal problems with my friends, more so than with my mother. I feel very relaxed because they understand me better.

However, some interviewees suggested that they had to be cautious and did not want to ‘overdo’ the sharing process. This was echoed by a male interviewee who suggested that he was very cautious when communicating with his male friend. He preferred to share his personal matters with his girlfriend rather than his male friend. He remarked:

If I were upset, I would jokingly tell my friend. I don’t want to sound so serious [ ] some personal matters, I would prefer to tell my girlfriend.

The stories told suggested that although communication styles between interviewees and their peers displayed support and encouragement, there was also a tone of cautiousness or prudence. They agreed that this was necessary in order to preserve the friendship. Many
argued that the self-peer relationship was vital to their own wellbeing because they needed friends and had to help each other to succeed in their activities. Without friends, it would be very difficult to move on their own, especially in committing particular crimes or even partaking in simple antisocial activities.

**Quantity of communication.** The number of times they communicated with their friends defined the quantity of communication. Both male and female interviewees suggested that they communicated constantly or on a daily basis with the friends. This was expressed by one female interviewee:

>I talk to them almost everyday [ ] all the time. We went to *pekan* (small town) and spent our time together, hanging out, taking a trip ... chatting

While a male interviewee remarked:

>Everyday, I would meet them, everyday, I would talk to them [ ] talked about many things ... movies, motorbikes, girls, sex. Then we laughed together, especially when we talked about how we had group sex with *bohsia*.

Both male and female interviewees also suggested that the need to communicate with their peers was greater in times of crisis. As described by one interviewee:

>If I were to get upset over something [ ] I would call them, or go to their place where I could talk to them. I would feel relaxed [ ] spending my time with them, telling them my problems.

**Modes of communication.** There were two modes of communication employed by the interviewees: (i) direct contact, and (ii) telephone calls. The interviewees suggested direct contact as their primary mode of communication with friends. Telephone calls were used as a secondary mode of communication.

**Alienation**

As with mother and father attachments, two themes emerged when interviewees were asked questions relating to their feelings of being liked or cared for by their friends. Both male and female interviewees suggested that there were two ways to describe that feeling, that is, feeling emotionally alienated and feeling physically alienated. Feelings of emotional alienation were positive or negative. The positive feelings were described as:
secure, grateful and happy. The negative feelings were described as: angry, annoyed and resentful.

**Emotional alienation.** The interviewees, who described their self-peer relationships as being very positive, comfortable and accompanied by little pressure, suggested that they felt secure in the relationships, elated with the friendships and less lonely. They expressed their relief in having those friends as their close friends, and hoped that the friendships would continue once they were released from the rehabilitation centre. As commented by one interviewee:

I don’t feel any pressure being friends with them ... we did everything together [ ] He listened to my problems, I listened to his problems. I want to see him after I’m released from this school.

Another female interviewee presented the same point of view:

The first thing, when I’m released from here, I want to find him (boyfriend). I want to find Rena (close friend) too. I want to tell them my experience staying in here.

However, one female interviewee suggested that her self-peer relationship was accompanied by some pressure and felt intimidated by the friendships. Sometimes the relationships were accompanied by anger and resentment, as suggested by the following excerpt:

Sometimes I feel angry with him because he likes to tell me what to do [ ] I have to be patient, although I hate him sometimes.

**Physical alienation.** Physical alienation was described as doing or not doing things together that included: (i) discussing or planning delinquent activities, (ii) being involved in delinquent activities, and (iii) social activities (shopping, watching movies, chatting, etc.). Many interviewees agreed that they did not feel physically alienated because they were involved in many activities, which they shared with their friends. The most common activities were social activities like window-shopping, chatting, watching movies and gambling, which they enjoyed doing together and included consuming alcohol and smoking cigarettes together. These activities were carried out almost everyday during their free time. They agreed that by being together, they would feel
happy, they would enjoy their time together and this helped eliminate the feelings of loneliness. In addition, they were able to reduce the cost of buying food, cigarettes and alcohol drinks as described by one male interviewee:

I feel happy being with my friends. They are just like me (partaking in delinquent activities) [ ] most of the time, they would spend money on me, buy me cigarettes ... sometimes food. Sometimes I would buy for them too.

While another female interviewee remarked:

We do everything together [ ] plan together, then we do it together (delinquent activities). Once we get the money, we share equally.

In conclusion, almost all of the interviewees indicated that they were able to relate to their friends much better than to their mothers and fathers. Interviewees also remarked that there was no difference between their relationships with their mothers and their relationships with their fathers.

Discussion

There are a limited number of studies exploring parental and peer attachments among Malay youths (e.g., Muhammad, 2000; Normadiniatul & Rojanah, 2001), while no comprehensive study has been conducted on incarcerated juveniles. Obviously, there is a need to examine the quality of parental and peer attachments and issues of trust, communication and feelings of alienation among delinquent juveniles.

During adolescence, children need more attention from both parents, although most of them would prefer to relate to their friends rather than the parents (Dishion, Patterson & Griesler, 1994). Furthermore, to make sure that the adolescents obtain a sound upbringing in terms of psychological and behavioural aspects, proficient psychological support is needed from their mothers and fathers, as well as their peers. As suggested by Bowlby (1969, 1982, 1988), the ability to feel confident in exploring surrounding environments is important for the development of healthy emotional and psychological wellbeing. Bowlby (1982) added that individuals’ ability to seek support systems and develop bonds with others relied on interactional patterns with past significant figures,
particularly their parents. Therefore, according to Bowlby, how individuals interacted relationally with their parents was mirrored in their interactional patterns with their peers. The dynamics that evolve within the relationship patterns prompt a shift in attachment from parents to peers as individuals grow older.

Although the current study did not quantitatively measure this shift in attachment, the phenomenon was reflected by the data produced through the interviewing process. The majority of the interviewees reflected on stronger bonds with their peers before being sent to the YRCs. They suggested developing more restraint with respect to personal information they perceived they should share with their mothers or fathers. In contrast, because of the feelings of connectedness with the peers, they were willing to share more intimate information with them regardless of gender. Peers were perceived as substitute parents or family members for them. This can be regarded as 'emotional glue' (Kim, 1996), which is a binding force that represents interpersonal connectedness among adolescents who are close together and are sharing their personal lives almost everyday. This binding force may act as a relationship basis that allows attachments among these individuals to remain stable, and to continue across time and space.

If this phenomenon holds true for delinquent juveniles having relationship problems with their mothers and/or fathers, then Bowlby's (1969, 1982) assumption that a shifting of attachment from parents to peers occurred when children felt frustrated, is confirmed. What seemed to vary with respect to Bowlby's (1969, 1982) postulation was that interviewees did not perceive their parental and peer attachments as being similar in strength and intensity, and that both relational patterns did not mirror each other. The data from this study suggested that insecure attachment patterns with parents will not necessarily result in insecure attachment patterns with peers, but instead, it will cause the tendency to develop secure attachment patterns with peers. These juveniles would prefer to have friends who have the same interests and behaviour as they did. Nonetheless, many interviewees commented that peer attachment was required mostly due to their financial needs and their need for comfort, respect, togetherness, sharing of personal matters and decision making revolving around their interests and antisocial activities.
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The study in Phase One found a strong correlation between mother and father attachment scores. The results indicate that the juveniles' relationship with their mothers is almost the same as their relationships with their fathers. This was supported by the findings in Phase Two of the study where the majority of juveniles reported that their relationships with their mothers and fathers were similar. The juveniles preferred to answer the questions on their mothers and fathers simultaneously, or talking about their mothers and fathers as one entity, that is "parents," and just pointing out if a particular answer is related more to one particular parent. Therefore, in this discussion section, the terms "parents," "mother" and "father" will be used depending on the suitability. Generally, the findings of this study suggested that the role performed by one party (mother or father) could influence a child's perception of the other party (father or mother). The other matter that could be evidenced in this study is that whenever the juveniles express certain things regarding their mothers or fathers, most of them would like to mention the weaknesses of both parties either directly or indirectly. This can be observed when the interviewees said that his or her mother just kept quiet and simply obeyed what was said by the father (or husband). This phenomenon portrays the common Malay lifestyle, that is, "in any circumstance or matter, the wife cannot be mutinous or disloyal to the husband ... has to obey the decision made by the husband" (Suradi, 2000; p. 9).

The results also show a low negative correlation between mother attachment and peer attachment scores, as well as the father attachment and peer attachment scores. Low scores on mother and father attachments were accompanied by high scores on peer attachment. This finding could be an indicator in the Malay delinquent juveniles' parental and peer attachment patterns. It seemed to support the sentiment expressed by many interviewees who felt more comfortable disclosing personal information to their peers rather than to their mothers or fathers. They seemingly had a greater propensity to feel connected to their peers, physically and emotionally, especially in times of crisis. The need for closeness in a secure base (which should be provided by their parents), was fulfilled by the environment provided by their peers, which seemed more inviting than the idea of trying to get connected with their parents. As mentioned by the interviewees in this study, their parents couldn't respond in a positive way as people who could
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provide good support or advice to them. Therefore, they preferred to seek advice and to share their problems with peers or friends. The finding of this study seems to support Rutter's (1981) view on attachment. It suggests that instead of developing secure attachment with the parents, the interviewees have develop bonds with other people (friends) and it appears likely that these bonds are secure for them. Rutter's viewpoint should be appreciated that the chief bond in children do not necessary be with a biological parent (Rutter, 1981). Peers, as described by the delinquent interviewees have relate to them and provide them with some things that are very important to their needs that other (parents) did not do. Briefly, this study reveals that friends somehow impact on individual development, but their influence and importance differs for different aspects of development or needs.

The qualitative analysis of this study also shows that juveniles who admitted to the YRC for the first time shows some positive perception on mother attachment and father attachment than the juveniles who were in a YRC for the second time or more. This finding seems to be consistent with Bowlby’s (1969, 1982) postulation that less experienced individuals will seek wiser individuals for support, and this encourages attachment behaviours. Therefore, it is fair to remark that juveniles who were in a YRC for the first time still experienced a need to be attached to parents until they acquired enough confidence to explore new environments by themselves. The breaking away process from the primary attachment bonds occurs at a slower pace before they develop new relationships with others apart from primary caregivers. This predicament was echoed by a male juvenile (who was in a YRC for the 1st time) who discussed certain issues, such as his work, food, siblings and sometimes financial problems, with his parents. Although he said that he did not have strong attachment bonds with his parents, he still felt comfortable talking about personal matters with his parents, especially his mother. Nonetheless, he emphasised that the sharing process depended on the importance of the issues he wanted to discuss. Moreover, he also argued that his self-peer relationships were as equally important as his self-parent relationships. Nevertheless, due to easy access to the self-peer contact, he preferred to stay connected to his peers.
Another female juvenile also commented on how comfortable she felt about sharing certain personal secrets with her mother and said that she sometimes trusted her mother to make sound decisions for her. But, at the same time, she hated her father and felt uncomfortable staying at home while he was around. She expressed the need for sometimes to be in constant contact with her mother for advice on certain matters, including some of her personal problems. However, as she learned to adapt more to her new environment and interests, and found suitable peers with whom she could share her struggles, she acquired a new bond with these peers who were involved with delinquent activities.

On the other hand, a male interviewee who was in a YRC for the second time suggested that he had a weak attachment bond with his parent since he was young and felt uncomfortable talking about personal matters with them. He would rather seek advice or share his problems with his fellow friends or girlfriend. However, he emphasised that the sharing process depended on the importance of the issues he wanted to discuss with them. He added that it was more comfortable being with his friends, mostly male adolescents who were *mat motor*, saying “they are my close friends and we always share our problems together.” Other participants in this study seemed to agree with this male interviewee.

Results from the quantitative analysis showed that there was no difference between male and female juveniles in mother attachment and father attachment. This finding suggested that both genders experienced similar parental attachment. Evidence from the stories told by the interviewees supported this finding. Both male and female interviewees remarked that their parents reacted slowly to their needs in times of crisis, lacked attentive behaviour, were unsupportive and showed little concern for their wellbeing. Most of them added that the amount of information shared, or to what extent communication was taking place between them and their parents, was a good indicator of the lack of quality in the parental attachment. Although, many interviewees (regardless of gender) report that they experienced insufficient parental attachment, one of the male interviewees reported something which needed special attention. He expressed an attachment bond
with his mother and reported that his mother sometimes gave advice without understanding his needs, which he considered an authoritarian approach that felt more like nagging and mental torture. As articulated by this male interviewee, "my mum said that I'm abang (oldest son) in the house, I have to be responsible to the family, take care of the house, take care of my siblings ... to find a proper job, take care of my own maruah (self-respect), take care of family honour ..." This made him feel uncomfortable and bored. According to him, he knew his responsibility as a son, but he needed his mother to be calm, patient and sensible in giving advice.

This posits an interesting issue of culture in the study. Within the realm of Asian culture, sons are held accountable for everything that is happening to themselves as well as the family. They are responsible for "saving the family's name" (maruah) from any humiliation, and have to always be good role models to their siblings. The oldest sons who are successful in their studies and careers are held more accountable than daughters who are equally successful in their endeavours. To accommodate this accountability, the sons have to learn to abide by their parents' decisions and accept their parents' judgements in order to avoid any complications. A 'good' son within the boundary of Asian culture is a person who can emulate their parents' 'good' standing within the norms of society (Suradi, 2000). In Malay culture, parents were perceived as "lebih dulu makan garam" (Malay) or "they are the first to taste salt," which reflects their wisdom and knowledge gained from life experiences. A son should be able to be the 'lead person' in the family and maintain constant contact with his parents and siblings. However, from the findings of this study, it seemed that having a healthy parental attachment or a good role model to assist in the development of a good son or daughter was not a common scenario among the juveniles interviewed. The relationship between parents and their children seemed fragile.

The finding of this study, in addition, put on view that most of the interviewees suggested a strong attachment with their peers, who helped them to reduce stress or any other problems they had. Additionally, they also shared their ideas, opinions and their plans with regard to delinquent activities. One of the female interviewees remarked that she
always relied on her friends when faced with any kind of problems and described that her relationships with friends as not demanding. Therefore, help from her peers was an immense relief for her in terms of making adjustments to a difficult environment. Her predicament was consistent with Bowlby’s (1988) suggestion that care-seeking behaviour is displayed by a weaker and less experienced individual toward someone regarded as stronger or wiser. In this case, the interviewee was the less experienced individual and her peer, the wiser. As commented by Rice and colleague (1994), the care-seeking behaviour is particularly salient during stressful periods. Thus, the incarcerated juveniles in this study would always go to their close friends for physical and emotional support. They showed immense gratitude and appreciation toward their friends who were willing to share with them. Knowing someone who understands the dynamics of a similar life or environment, provides a buffering effect for the individual and helps lessen feelings of uncertainty toward a crisis environment. This promotes environmental exploration and mastery, while shortening the length of adjustment periods in a difficult environment (Bowlby, 1988; Lapsley et al., 1990).

Furthermore, regardless of gender, the higher scores in peer attachment showed that the interviewees had developed a propensity for attachment towards peers, as part of their adjustment process, especially after suffering emotional difficulty with their parents. This sentiment was expressed by many interviewees who experienced stronger relationships with peers. The variation in attachment can be attributed to: (i) parenting styles (which also defines attachment styles), and (ii) a natural tendency to seek attachment (especially in times of crisis). These concepts are related to the attachment theory. Bowlby (1982, 1988) suggested that it is a natural human tendency to seek attachment with someone significant who might provide support, comfort and love. Therefore, the adolescents who felt that they were physically or emotionally alienated from their mothers and/or fathers would seek attachment from their peers. The interviewees who indicated that they felt emotionally alienated from their parents felt comfortable substituting their peers for family members or siblings. This provided them with emotional stability, support and understanding, which could be beneficial in fulfilling their needs or in developing their interests. This finding seems to support
Bowlby’s (1988) assumption that during adulthood, the attachment will shift from parents to peers. All interviewees suggested that they felt attached to their peers. This strong attachment to peers suggested the ability to identify with someone significant besides parents and family members. Since these individuals received respect, support, understanding and encouragement from their peers, many of them had less desire to invest and continue in developing their relationships with their parents. Peers were considered friends and family members, with whom they socialised and from whom they received emotional support in their daily activities. Some personal issues were also discussed with their peers. Although Bowlby (1988) proposed that relational patterns during childhood are reflected during adulthood in some other non-parental relationship, this pattern was not shown by interviewees who participated in the second phase of the study. These interviewees suggested that their self-peer relationships were less demanding and less constrained when compared to their self-parent relationships, yet there was a little ambiguity surrounding self-peer relationships.

Many of the interviewees suggested that they trusted and communicated effectively with their peers and readily acknowledged their need for empathetic and supportive responses from their peers, although some of them remained cautious with regard to what they shared with their friends. In doing so, they were able to maintain personal boundaries and regulated their own behaviours so as to avoid any humiliation. For these interviewees, the idea of “saving face” and “saving the family’s name” remained their utmost priority.

The quantitative analysis of this study showed no difference between genders in mother attachment as well as father attachment. Yet, from the qualitative analysis, many of the interviewees did not seem to enjoy the privilege and comfort of a healthy parental attachment. They expressed frustration over their mother attachment and father attachment, and also their parents’ responses, especially when they suggested ideas or gave opinions to their parents. Many of the interviewees expressed their frustrations, and some of them said that the lack of parental trust made them feel like they were imprisoned or controlled. This promoted feelings of distrust and affected the quality of
their parental attachment. Apparently, there seemed to be a chain reaction with regard to trust, communication and alienation, as experienced by many of the interviewees.

In addition, the findings from the interview section show that very few interviewees seemed to have any ability to make his voice heard by their mothers. Stories regarding communication showed evidence of their self-mother relationships, which included some attempts at communication that enabled them to endure discussions of certain issues with their mothers. For example, with one male interviewee, the extensiveness of his discussions included personal issues, where opinions were always taken into consideration. He described his mother’s responses to his ideas as being understanding. This also contributed to the development of some trust towards his mother, resulting in the interviewee having less difficulty expressing his opinions in public. However, one big question remain from this finding, i.e., in what way has the father played his role as the leader of the family to make sure his family is secure, satisfied and harmonious?

Bowlby (1988) posited that “children with a secure relationship to both parents were most confident and most competent; children who had a secure relationship to neither were least so; and those with a secure relationship to one parent but not to the other came in between” (p.10). This probably explained why the incarcerated Malay juveniles’ confidence and competency in their well brought-up life were not being optimised, although some of them had the capability and received support from their mothers. The lack of support from fathers could be one possible reason that these juveniles felt uncertain about exploring beyond what was permitted by their parents. Although most of them lacked parental attachment, very few of them felt connected to their mothers and were uncertain about their fathers’ responses to them. With regard to this, Bowlby (1988) suggested that, “the patterns of attachment that individuals develop during the years of immaturity ... is profoundly influenced by the way his parents treat him” (p. 124). He argued that the same attachment patterns that develop during an early age with the primary caregivers, will shape the individuals’ attachment patterns during their adulthood with some significant others. Therefore, if both parents conveyed different messages on the quality of attachment toward their children, the children felt ambivalent
about how much they should invest in their healthy attachment processes with others, particularly peers.

Even though Bowlby’s (1988) suggestion that time spent away from a secure base (parents) affects parental attachment, this study would suggest something different but acceptable. The interviewees in this study reported that they stayed with their parents since childhood until they were sent in the YRCs. Therefore, the issue in this study is that it is not the time spent away or together that is most important, but whether or not there is a conducive, trusting and harmonious relationship between parents and their children. It was not surprising that the participants in Phase One of this study showed higher mean scores on peer attachment rather than mother and father attachments. This was supported by the interviewees’ stories, as they narrated their relational patterns with their peers. According to the findings, most of the interviewees reported that the lack of parental understanding on issues presented by the interviewees, the impatient attitude displayed by their parents when attending to the interviewees’ needs, and their parents’ unwillingness to compromise on certain issues concerning the interviewees, were their major problems.

Moreover, their parents’ lack of understanding on issues revolving around the interviewees’ social lives or some personal problems that encompassed different gender relationships, and their lack of understanding due to the generation gap between children and parents, added an unsatisfactory atmosphere among these teenage children. Both male and female interviewees appeared to value and seek more responsive engagement with peers. To get away from their problems, they would seek advice from their friends, although sometimes their friends would not be able to help them, but at least they could still act as good listeners. This supported the Paterson, Pryor and Field (1995) study that showed an increase in utilisation of friends for support and proximity over time. The interviewees commented on their close friends’ ability to understand their struggles and difficulties, and their accessibility in times of crisis. In addition to this, one female interviewee concluded that she selected her peers over her parents when choosing to share personal information because, as she explained, “They understand my problems,
my struggles. We always look out for each other.” Moreover, another interviewee remarked, “... to share my secrets also, I don’t feel embarrassed. They are my friends. They always help me, moreover, they are willing to listen to my problems.”

There appeared to be some similarity between what the interviewees expected and needed from their peers, and how the peers were relationally oriented to them. For example, in the case of one female interviewee who reported feeling attached to her peers, her peers seemed to conduct their relationship with the interviewee in a manner that was consistent with the interviewee’s relational patterns. This kind of compatibility helped prolong the attachment bonds between the interviewees and their peers. This finding suggests that individuals who developed close connections with their peers, particularly with regard to co-interests and co-behaviour, would be able to sustain their friendships through mutual respect, despite differences, and the willingness to accommodate each other’s needs. In view of the interviewees’ self-parent relationship orientation, such compatibility was almost non-existent. Some of the parents’ expectations of the interviewees far exceeded their competence or interest to accommodate those expectations, while the interviewees’ expectations towards their parents were minimal.

The results from the qualitative analysis supported the findings from the statistical analysis. Data analysed qualitatively produced twelve themes that centred on the issues of trust, communication and alienation. The interviewees' stories about trust towards their parents and peers revolved around six themes, that is, understanding, respect, accessibility, mutual trust, responsiveness and expectation. The six themes of “trust” described the central feature of parenting suggested by Bowlby (1988). Most of the interviewees told stories of parents who were less responsive to their needs, less understanding with regard to their struggles, distrusting of their decisions, always rejecting their opinions and being disdainful of their academic performance, yet not respecting them as individuals and their personal space. This created a very insecure base for these interviewees. Bowlby (1988) also suggested that, “no parent is going to provide a secure base for his growing child unless he has an intuitive understanding of and respect for his child’s attachment behaviour and treats it as the intrinsic and valuable
part of human nature” (p. 12). However, this statement was not completely true for the parenting styles of those parents whose children were involved in this study.

Stories told by the interviewees reflected four themes that surrounded the issue of communication, that is, extensiveness, quality, quantity, and modes of communication. The interviewees’ stories suggested that there was a lack of effective communication patterns, accompanied by inattentive listening, discouragement and a lack of support from their parents. Furthermore, the stories portrayed the interviewees as feeling emotionally alienated from their parents. Some of them commented that they felt less loved and less supported by their parents, yet they felt obligated to love their parents. This was not a good indicator of a healthy parent-child relationship. A lack of closeness to parents meant that the interviewees were not able to be with their parents on many occasions. They were physically alienated from many family social activities. Therefore, it was important for parents to provide emotional stability for their children, especially when crises arose.

The interviewees were also asked similar questions pertaining to their mother, father and peer attachments. This resulted in similar overriding themes for peer attachment as was described for mother and father attachments. Stories about self-peer relationships attributed self-peer relational development to trust, effective communication and fewer feelings of alienation. Salient to trust were themes describing responsiveness, understanding, mutual trust, respect and peer accessibility in times of crisis, which helped promote peer attachment. These features of self-trust were similar to the parenting skill component suggested by Bowlby (1988). Peers played the role of secondary caregivers when individuals experienced difficulty or moved away from the primary caregivers, either physically or emotionally. This movement could bring forth some tension within the individuals. Eventually, they found a need to seek proximity to another individual who would replace the role of primary caregiver. This enhanced continuity of attachment processes from parents to peers that is detrimental to the mental health and wellbeing of the individuals (Bowlby, 1988).
Interviewees described their communication styles with peers as less demanding and they felt comfortable sharing information on certain personal issues. The majority of the interviewees felt that they had a better quality of communication with their peers compared to their mothers and fathers. This was due to several reasons, that is, interviewees and peers encountered similar experiences while being friends and therefore understood each other better, they shared the same behaviours and interests, they shared similar struggles and difficulties, and they relied on each other for help and thus developed close relationships.

The majority of the interviewees agreed that they were not physically or emotionally alienated from their peers unless it was their own choice. As suggested by one female interviewee: “Sometimes I feel angry with him [ ] I have to be patient”. Feelings of togetherness helped the interviewees and their peers develop a sense of cohesiveness. This helped in eliminating emotional alienation that might be damaging to their adjustment process in their daily activities or life in general.

The qualitative analysis provided support for statistical analyses conducted for the first phase of the study. Nonetheless, it triggered a number of hypotheses that could guide future research.

i. Within the Malay society, parental and peer attachments are seen as inversely related to each other. Therefore, these two attachments do not mirror each other.

ii. Mothers and fathers’ parenting quality and styles that emphasise distrust, ineffective communication and feelings of alienation can promote poor mother-child and father-child relationships.

iii. Peers play an important role as secondary caregivers in providing attachment process continuity, which assists in ensuring physical, mental and emotional stability when individuals feel discomfort or are away from their secure base.

Conclusion
Dissimilarities exist within the Malay juveniles’ self-parent and self-peer attachment processes depending on parenting styles and the need to seek proximity to some
identified significant other in times of crisis. Data from this study produced mixed results. Evidence suggests that the application of attachment theory to explain parental and peer attachment processes among Malay incarcerated juveniles was fitting, as the attachment theory posited by Ainsworth (1989) cuts across cultures. Both male and female participants had developed a propensity for stronger attachments with their peers. Juveniles who were in a YRC for the second time or more experienced a less caring and supportive environment with their parents, however, they sought and achieved a comfortable emotional environment with their peers. This finding contradicts the suggestion by Bowlby (1988) that individuals who experienced a shift of attachment from the parents to peers will maintain their primary attachment to parents. According to the findings of this study, interviewees who experienced a lack of mother and father attachments would shift toward peer attachment. Furthermore, this shifting in the attachment process seemed to be having a negative effect, in terms of learning and developing troublesome behaviours, although on the other hand, it helped them in terms of physical, mental and emotional stability, at least based on their own perceptions.

Twelve overriding themes emerged throughout the interviewing process, in which interviewees described their trust, communication styles and feelings of alienation with regard to their mothers, fathers and peers. Both male and female interviewees seemed to agree that how parents respond, or don’t respond, to pleas for help was the most important theme that discouraged the development of self-parent trust. However, most of the interviewees seemed to agree that the response to pleas for help was the most important theme that promoted the development of self-peer trust. Interviewees also identified the quality of communication as the predominant theme that enhanced peer attachment, while ineffective communication stands as a barrier in developing strong relationships in parental attachment. Furthermore, emotional alienation was favoured over physical alienation as the theme that obstructed parental attachments.

In conclusion, the evidence presented helps to elucidate the attachment processes experienced by delinquent juveniles before admitted to the YRCs. However, this study is merely a beginning towards understanding attachment processes of juveniles from the
Malay ethnic group. The attachment theory presented by Bowlby (1969, 1982, 1988) helped explain the innate strength of the individuals’ desire to develop intimate emotional bonds, which in turn explains the complex attachment behaviours of Malay juveniles, whose lives are strongly influenced by the social and moral ethics of their culture. In general, the Malay community is built upon the idea of the extended family, a complicated network of family systems that involve hierarchy and status. Within this system, many healthy and unhealthy intimate emotional bonds develop. Some might encourage and some might hamper children’s capacities to explore or master their new environment. The development of healthy emotional bonds, and thus healthy attachment behaviour, are important for children to feel self-assured and self-competent in developing their positive behaviours as well as their future goals.

Notes:
1 *Lembaga Penduduk dan Pembangunan Keluarga Negara*
2 This term describe the process whereby adolescents strive to develop a sense of self that is separate from parents while at the same time remaining connected to parents as sources of emotional support, empathy and practical advice. The theory of adolescent individuation proposes that complete autonomy from parents is undesirable to adolescents because it severs parental bonds and threatens development of a sense of connectedness to others (Cooper, Grotevant & Condon, 1983; Youniss & Smollar, 1985). Successful individual involves transforming the parent-child relationship so that a balance is achieved between the two movements.

Refer Appendix F.
CHAPTER 7

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DELINQUENCY AND MOTHER, FATHER AND PEER ATTACHMENTS, FAMILY ENVIRONMENT AND OTHER INDIVIDUAL-RELATED FACTORS (STUDY 3)

Introduction

The study presented in this chapter aims to investigate the relationship between delinquency and the attachments quality to their mothers, fathers and peers. The association between delinquency with family environment, individual behaviour, self-esteem, and religiosity will also be examined. An analysis was done between two groups; incarcerated juveniles as the main subject, and high school adolescents as a comparison group.

Several authors have suggested that attachment theory may provide a framework to integrate research findings related to personality and behaviour development, family relations, and identity development into a useful synthesis that will enhance our understanding of psychological development and functioning across the life span (Lopez, 1995; Lopez & Brennan, 2000). More specifically, Lopez and colleague (2000) proposed that attachment theory and related empirical work with adults “offers psychology a compelling framework for understanding the healthy and effective self” (p. 283), which is very useful and helpful to be practised in such institutions dealing with parents, children or youths. Attachment theory, in addition, was claimed as the most influential theories in explaining the relation between childrens’ family experiences and their social and emotional development (Bowlby, 1973, 1977). Attachment theory also predicts links between the child’s attachment history and their adaptive competence (e.g., Hamilton & Howes, 1992). This continuity or coherence in development is often explained by referring to the mediating role of the child’s working model of self (in relation to others) (Rose-Krasnor, Rubin, Booth & Coplan, 1996). Attachment to parents offers a framework for understanding the dynamics of individual differences in person
behavioural and perception. The theory holds that the interpersonal schema or internal working models that an individual develops in the context of attachment relationships can have a profound impact on how he or she subsequently perceives and responds to the social environment (Bowlby, 1988). The attachment transitional period is sometimes also marked by increased conflicts with parents and by personal uncertainties on the part of the adolescent (e.g., Allen & Land, 1999). As reported by Carlson (1998) and Lyons-Ruth (1996), children with problem attachments would have many difficulties such as poor peer relationships, behavioural problems, other mental health difficulties, and poor self-esteem (Noom, Dekovic & Meeus, 1999). Studies with adolescents have found that low levels of self-esteem are associated with negative outcomes, including substance abuse, depressive mood, dissatisfaction with life, (Baldwin, Baldwin, Kasser, Zax, Sammeroff & Seifer, 1989; Dekovic, 1999) and is a characteristic of delinquents in several studies (Blackburn, 1993). Furthermore, less religiosity are often linked to problematic life situations, such as relationship problems within or outside the family, personal crises, mental/physical illnesses and experiences of relationship break-ups (e.g., Granqvist, 1998; Granqvist & Hagekull, 1999). However, most of the attachment-related research to date has been conducted with European and American populations, with most of them focusing on childhood and adulthood, thus raising questions about the general nature of the findings on other ethnic populations, especially during the stage of adolescence. It seems that to increase the usefulness of the attachment theory as an integrative framework in understanding healthy psychological development, more studies are needed concerning parental attachment in other ethnic populations and of adolescents, and a comparison study must be done between groups with 'nondelinquent' and 'delinquent' behaviours.

Aim of the Study
This is a self-reported study, aims to examine the relationship of mother, father and peer attachments with delinquency among Malay incarcerated juveniles. The study would also aim to investigate the relationship between family environment and several individual factors (e.g., behavioural, self-esteem, religiosity) with delinquency. Briefly,
this study would like to identify and explore the ways in which these risk factors act
together in putting youths at risk of committing crime.

Research Questions
Research on juvenile delinquency and attachment has been limited by the lack of well-
validated measures of adolescent attachment, by measures processes based primarily on
adolescent self-reports, and by the absence of research designs capable of examining
development over time. Given the dramatically higher levels of deviant behaviour that
occur during adolescence as compared to other life stages (Moffitt, 1993), this study
seeks to develop and test explanations for adolescent deviance that take into account the
unique developmental demands of adolescence, as these demands interact with individual
adolescent vulnerability, leading to deviant behaviour. Indeed, it has yet to be established
whether attachment difficulties have causal roles in the development of behaviour
problems, or whether they are a marker for other relevant family risks. Hence, the
present study is designed to address and confirm the following research questions:
1. Are there any significant correlations in mother attachment, father attachment and
   peer attachment with juvenile delinquency?
2. Are there any differences in attachment, family environment, individual behaviour,
   self-esteem, and religiosity between delinquent institution and non-delinquent
   groups?
3. What are the risk factors for delinquency?

Hypotheses
A number of hypotheses have been drawn to answer the research questions. These
hypotheses were grouped accordingly on specific questions to be analysed systematically.

1st group of hypotheses
The hypotheses examined the correlation of attachment with all the dependent variables,
using Pearson product-moment correlation. The same hypotheses were used for
delinquent and non-delinquent group respectively.
Chapter 7

1. There is a correlation between mother attachment quality and peer attachment quality.
2. There is a correlation between father attachment quality and peer attachment quality.
3. There is a correlation between mother attachment quality and family environment.
4. There is a correlation between mother attachment quality and individual behaviour.
5. There is a correlation between mother attachment quality and self-esteem.
6. There is a correlation between mother attachment quality and religiosity.
7. There is a correlation between mother attachment quality and delinquency.

The next analysis, specific for number 3 to 7, followed similar hypothesis patterns except that the independent variable was changed to father attachment quality and peer attachment quality.

2nd group of hypotheses

The remaining hypotheses examined the differences between delinquent institution and non-delinquent groups on each of the attachment quality on mother, father and peers, followed by family environment, individual behaviour, self-esteem, and religiosity. Since the non-delinquent group shows that none of them has committed any delinquent activities as listed in the questionnaire, this variable was not analysed.

1. Are there any differences between groups in mother attachment, father attachment, and peer attachment?
2. Are there any differences between groups in family environment?
3. Are there any differences between groups in individual behaviour?
4. Are there any differences between groups in self-esteem?
5. Are there any differences between groups in religiosity?

Hypothesis number 1 was analysed using mixed between-within ANOVA, whilst hypothesis number 2 to 5 were analysed using the t-test.
3rd group of hypotheses

As the main purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between mother, father and peer attachment, family environment and other individual-related factors, with delinquency, the next hypotheses were examined only for the delinquent institution group. This decision was carried out based on the finding that none of the non-delinquent group reported that they have committed delinquent acts. So, the next analysis is within the delinquent institution group in association with delinquency:

1. Poor attachment quality relate significantly to delinquency.
2. Poor family environment relate significantly to delinquency.
3. Poor individual behavioural relate significantly to delinquency.
4. Poor self-esteem exhibit significant relationships with delinquency.
5. Poor religiosity exhibit significant relationships with delinquency.

Hypothesis 1 to 3 were analysed using multiple regression analysis, whilst hypothesis 4 and 5 were analysed using simple linear regression.

4th group of hypotheses

Based on the results of the bivariate and multivariate analyses, variables associated with delinquency were used to test the cumulative hypothesis. The cumulative hypothesis asserted that not only the type of risk, but also the quantity of risk is related to the delinquent activities of adolescents, i.e., the more risks adolescents experience or are exposed to, the more delinquency they will exhibit, regardless of which factors establish the risk. The statistical approach utilised to examine cumulative risk was dimensional. One cumulative hypothesis was proposed and multiple regressions were used for analysis:

1. Risk factors operate in a cumulative way. Definitely, the greater the level of risk, the better the prediction of adolescent delinquency.
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Method

Participants

Data for the analyses in this study were initially collected from 245 Malay adolescents. Their ages ranged from 15 to 18 years. Participants were youths that came from two different environments. The first group of participants was 145 juveniles who have been incarcerated in four different youth rehabilitation centre (YRC); two YRC of male juveniles and two YRC of female juveniles (the present study draws on a different set of participants than the previous study). The second group (the comparison group) was 100 senior high school students, which came from two different schools, i.e., a male school and a female school. The breakdown of participants according to institutions and gender is presented in Table 1. In this study, participants from a YRC will be labelled the delinquent institution group, and subjects from high schools will be labelled the non-delinquent group. In the analysis, each YRC is named by letter A and B for male, and C and D for female institution groups. This is the requirement from the Economic Planning Unit, Malaysia Prime Minister Department, to maintain confidentiality.

Table 1:
The Breakdown of Participants According to Institutions and Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male participant (n)</th>
<th>Female participant (n)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-delinquent group</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delinquent institution group</td>
<td>YRC A: 64</td>
<td>YRC B: 27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YRC C: 23</td>
<td>YRC D: 31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The participants are categorised according to individual and family characteristics. For the delinquent institution group, the individual characteristics consist of age, number of times admitted to a YRC, status before admitted to a YRC, highest level of education achieved, and guardianship. The family characteristic consists of parents’ working status and income level. On the other hand, the individual characteristics for the non-delinquent group consist of age and guardianship only. Family characteristics for this group are the same as those for the other group.
Instruments

Instruments used in the study were as follows:

1. Demographic data instrument. This consists of the following items: (i) age, (ii) gender, (iii) guardianship, (iv) working status and income of parents, (v) status before arrest, (vi) highest level of school education, (vii) number of times admitted to a YRC, and (viii) offences that caused them to be sent to a YRC. Item numbers (v) to (viii) were addressed to the delinquent institution group only.

2. The Attachment Questionnaire (AQ) revised from Hazan and Shaver (1987). It consists of three descriptions concerning the adolescent’s feelings of, and perceptions about, their relationships with the parents. The descriptions were sorted by mother and father separately. By reading the descriptions given, the participants had to classify themselves as either securely, avoidantly or ambivalently attached to their mothers and fathers.

3. The Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA). This instrument was the same as used in the previous study (i.e., Study 2).

4. The Family Environment Scale (FES; Moos, 1974) consists of 90 items, which assessed the social climates of all types of families. It focused on the measurement and description of inter-personal relationships among family members, on the directions of personal growth that are emphasised in the family, and on the basic organisational structure of the family.

5. The Jesness Behaviour Checklist (Jesness, 1971). This checklist consists of 80 items, measuring 14 bipolar behavioural factors. It is designed to provide a systematic way of recording data about social behaviour.

6. The Religiosity questionnaire developed by Munawir and Luqman (1995) is based on Islamic teachings and culture, as practised in Malaysia. It consists of 7 items measuring the behavioural (frequency of praying, and fasting during the month of Ramadan) and attitudinal dimensions (importance of religion in the respondent’s life [religious salience] and importance of involvement in the community-based religious activities).

7. The Global Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965), consists of 10 items that relate global positive and negative attitudes to self. It has been used with a wide variety of
subject populations and shows good test-retest reliability \( r = .85 \) (McCarthy & Taylor, 1999).

8. Adolescents’ Self-reported Delinquency. The self-reported supplement, which consists of 29 items, asked adolescents about the number of times they have committed person offences, property offences, drug law violations, public order offences, and status offence cases.

**Reliability**

The self-report questionnaires used in the current study were reliable in terms of internal consistency. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficients for all the scales and subscales were well above 0.60. However, for the AQ, because it is a one item measure, Cronbach’s alpha could not be computed. Table 2 represents the alpha values for all these scales and/or sub-scales. Some items in the instruments used have been altered (by previous researchers) to suit cultural needs and societal norms. The factor analysis, reliability and validity of the instruments were analysed, and produced satisfactory results.
Table 2:
Distribution of Mother, Father and Peer Attachment Scales, Family Environment Sub-scales, Individual Behaviour Sub-scales, Self-esteem, Religiosity, and Delinquency Scales, with Mean Values, Standard Deviation and Chronbach Alpha

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scales/Sub-scales</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mother Attachment</td>
<td>81.01</td>
<td>8.92</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father Attachment</td>
<td>77.63</td>
<td>9.71</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer Attachment</td>
<td>102.69</td>
<td>7.17</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cohesion</td>
<td>10.26</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expressiveness</td>
<td>13.61</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict</td>
<td>14.14</td>
<td>5.43</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence</td>
<td>13.04</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement Orientation</td>
<td>13.65</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual-cultural Orientation</td>
<td>12.66</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active-recreational Orientation</td>
<td>13.57</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral-religious Emphasis</td>
<td>13.90</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td>15.05</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>14.17</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual Behaviour</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>13.09</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calmness</td>
<td>19.35</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anger Control</td>
<td>12.45</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insight</td>
<td>20.76</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enthusiasm</td>
<td>15.14</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity</td>
<td>23.00</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport</td>
<td>15.57</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>17.53</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence</td>
<td>18.17</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Control</td>
<td>13.54</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>31.21</td>
<td>6.21</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Considerateness</td>
<td>24.31</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friendless</td>
<td>17.72</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>.68</td>
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<tr>
<td>Unobstrusiveness</td>
<td>26.77</td>
<td>5.66</td>
<td>.78</td>
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<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>24.94</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religiosity</td>
<td>16.09</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delinquency</td>
<td>61.43</td>
<td>17.63</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Result

Before analysing the hypotheses, the differences between participants in a YRC for each gender group were examined. The reason is to determine whether it would be better to combine the participants as one group (a group of male, and a group of female respectively) or to analyse them as separate institution groups.

Differences between Male Juveniles from YRCs A and B

Using the Means command, it allows us to view the age (characteristic of continuous variables) by group of YRCs. Looking at the result presented in Table 3, it was found that the mean age of the male participants in both YRCs is 16.8 years with a standard deviation of .88. The sample of participants covers a range of ages starting from 15 to 18 years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YRC</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>16.81</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>15 year-old</td>
<td>18 year-old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>16.63</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>15 year-old</td>
<td>18 year-old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>16.76</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, by using the Crosstabs procedure, the results in Tables 4 and 5 show that no significant differences were found between male juveniles in YRC A and YRC B for all individual (i.e., number of times admitted to a YRC, status before admitted to the YRC, highest level of school achieved, guardianship) and family (i.e., working, income) characteristics. Both groups of male juveniles were closely matched.
Table 4:
Distribution of Individual Characteristics of Male Juveniles in Two Different YRC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individual characteristics</th>
<th>YRC A % (n)</th>
<th>YRC B % (n)</th>
<th>Chi-square value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of times admitted to a YRC</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st time</td>
<td>17.2 (11)</td>
<td>22.2 (7)</td>
<td>.317</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd times or more</td>
<td>82.8 (53)</td>
<td>77.8 (20)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status before admitted to the YRC</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schooling</td>
<td>12.5 (8)</td>
<td>18.5 (5)</td>
<td>.690</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working</td>
<td>78.1 (50)</td>
<td>70.4 (19)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>9.4 (6)</td>
<td>11.1 (3)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest level of school achieved</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>23.4 (15)</td>
<td>29.6 (8)</td>
<td>.984</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior secondary school</td>
<td>62.5 (40)</td>
<td>63.0 (17)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior secondary school</td>
<td>14.1 (9)</td>
<td>7.4 (2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guardianship</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biological parents</td>
<td>81.3 (52)</td>
<td>74.1 (20)</td>
<td>1.319</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biological mother &amp; stepfather</td>
<td>14.1 (9)</td>
<td>14.8 (4)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biological father &amp; stepmother</td>
<td>4.7 (3)</td>
<td>11.1 (3)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5:
Distribution of Family Characteristics of Male Juveniles in Two Different YRC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family characteristics</th>
<th>YRC A % (n)</th>
<th>YRC B % (n)</th>
<th>Chi-square value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Working</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both parents working</td>
<td>56.3 (36)</td>
<td>59.3 (16)</td>
<td>.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father only working</td>
<td>43.8 (28)</td>
<td>40.7 (11)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than RM500</td>
<td>18.8 (12)</td>
<td>7.4 (2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM500 to RM1,000</td>
<td>42.2 (27)</td>
<td>51.9 (14)</td>
<td>3.421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM1,001 to RM2,000</td>
<td>39.1 (25)</td>
<td>40.7 (11)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Differences between Female Juveniles from YRCs C and D

The Means command was used to observe the age by group of female participants in YRC C and D. The result displayed in Table 6 shows that the mean age of the female participants in both YRCs is 16.61 years with a standard deviation of .88. The sample of participants covers a range of ages starting from 15 to 18 years.
Table 6:
The Age of Female Participants in Two Different YRC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YRC</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>16.48</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>15 year-old</td>
<td>18 year-old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>16.78</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>15 year-old</td>
<td>18 year-old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>16.61</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Crosstabs procedure was used to identify the frequency of certain types of individual and family characteristics. Tables 7 and 8 show a breakdown of individual (i.e., number of times admitted to a YRC, status before admitted to the YRC, highest level of school achieved, guardianship) and family (i.e., working, income) characteristics of female juveniles in YRCs C and D.

Table 7:
Distribution of Individual Characteristics of Female Juveniles in Two Different YRC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individual characteristics</th>
<th>YRC C % (n)</th>
<th>YRC D % (n)</th>
<th>Chi-square value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of times admitted to a YRC</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st time</td>
<td>30.4 (7)</td>
<td>54.8 (17)</td>
<td>3.185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd times or more</td>
<td>69.6 (16)</td>
<td>45.2 (14)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status before admitted to the YRC</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schooling</td>
<td>47.8 (11)</td>
<td>77.4 (24)</td>
<td>5.361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working</td>
<td>39.1 (9)</td>
<td>19.4 (6)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>13.0 (3)</td>
<td>3.2 (1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest level of school achieved</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>13.0 (3)</td>
<td>9.7 (3)</td>
<td>1.361</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior secondary school</td>
<td>73.9 (17)</td>
<td>64.5 (20)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior secondary school</td>
<td>13.0 (3)</td>
<td>25.8 (8)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guardianship</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biological parents</td>
<td>65.2 (15)</td>
<td>71.0 (22)</td>
<td>.221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biological mother &amp; stepfather</td>
<td>26.1 (6)</td>
<td>22.6 (7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biological father &amp; stepmother</td>
<td>8.7 (2)</td>
<td>6.5 (2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result displays no significant differences found between juveniles in YRC C and YRC D for all individual and family characteristics. Both groups of female juveniles were closely matched. Therefore, for future analyses, both male and female respondents from different YRCs will be grouped together, that is, males from YRCs A and B...
grouped into the male group, and females from YRCs C and D into the female group. The rationale is that there are no significant differences between each gender group on individual and family characteristics.

Table 8:
Distribution of Family Characteristics of Female Juveniles in Two Different YRC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family characteristics</th>
<th>YRC C</th>
<th>YRC D</th>
<th>Chi-square value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Working</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both parents working</td>
<td>60.9 (14)</td>
<td>67.7 (21)</td>
<td>.273</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father only working</td>
<td>39.1 (9)</td>
<td>32.3 (10)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than RM500</td>
<td>13.0 (3)</td>
<td>19.4 (6)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM500 to RM1,000</td>
<td>26.1 (6)</td>
<td>35.5 (11)</td>
<td>1.519</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM1,001 to RM2,000</td>
<td>60.9 (14)</td>
<td>45.2 (14)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gender Differences on Participant Profile

1. Delinquent Institution Group

In this study, the male juvenile participants numbered more than the females (91 vs. 54). Table 9 illustrates a descriptive finding of individual characteristics between male and female juveniles. Using the cross-tabulation method, chi-squared values shows no significant difference with respect to academic level. Both groups show higher frequencies in junior secondary school level. Furthermore, it is worth noting that juveniles with two biological parents outnumbered juveniles with biological mother & stepfather, and biological father & stepmother. Seventy-two male (79.1%) and thirty-seven female (68.5%) participants reported that they were staying with their biological parents; 14.3% males and 24.1% females reported that they were staying with their biological mother & stepfather; whilst 6.6% males and 7.4% females reported that they were staying with their biological father & stepmother. The data is not surprising since marriage is highly valued in Malaysian society, particularly among the indigenous groups. This finding is similar to that found in Study 2.

Participants were also asked to indicate the number of times admitted to a YRC (either the same or different centre). Significant differences were found between male and
female participants on this variable. The majority of male juveniles (81.3%) indicated that it was their second time in a YRC, whilst only 18.7% reported that it was their first time in such an institution. Slightly more than half of the female participants indicated that it was their second time, or more, admitted to a YRC, whilst the remainder reported that it was their first time. Overall, a higher number of participants in both groups reported admitted to a YRC for the second time or more.

Table 9:
Distribution of Individual Characteristics between Genders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individual characteristics</th>
<th>Male % (n)</th>
<th>Female % (n)</th>
<th>Chi-square value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of times admitted to a YRC</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st time</td>
<td>18.7 (17)</td>
<td>44.4 (24)</td>
<td>11.091**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd times or more</td>
<td>81.3 (74)</td>
<td>55.6 (30)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status before admitted to a YRC</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schooling</td>
<td>14.3 (13)</td>
<td>64.8 (35)</td>
<td>39.876**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working</td>
<td>75.8 (69)</td>
<td>27.8 (15)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>9.9 (9)</td>
<td>7.4 (4)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest level of education achieved</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>25.3 (23)</td>
<td>11.1 (6)</td>
<td>5.112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior secondary school</td>
<td>62.6 (57)</td>
<td>68.5 (37)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior secondary school</td>
<td>12.1 (11)</td>
<td>20.4 (11)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guardianship</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biological parents</td>
<td>79.1 (72)</td>
<td>68.5 (37)</td>
<td>2.350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biological mother &amp; stepfather</td>
<td>14.3 (13)</td>
<td>24.1 (13)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biological father &amp; stepmother</td>
<td>6.6 (6)</td>
<td>7.4 (4)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Significant at alpha .01 level

Participants also indicated that they were either still schooling, working or unemployed before admitted to a YRC. Significant differences were found between genders on this variable. The majority of male juveniles reported that they were working (75.8%), followed by studying (14.3%) and being unemployed (9.9%). The female juveniles indicated the largest group still schooling (64.8%), followed by working (27.8%) and being unemployed (7.4%). The result shows that very few of them were just staying at home (unemployed).
As presented in Table 10, the current study shows that no significant differences were found between genders on the working status of parents. Male and female juveniles were closely matched, with more than half (57.1% vs. 64.8%, respectively) of them reporting both parents working.

Juveniles were also asked to classify their family incomes. Fourteen male and nine female (15.4% vs. 16.7%) participants reported family income levels of less than RM500; 45.1% male and 31.5% female juveniles reported family incomes of between RM500 and RM1,000; and 39.6% males and 51.9% females reported family monthly incomes of between RM1,001 and RM2,000 (Table 10). The data shows that most juveniles who participated in the study were from the lower to middle income groups. Chi-squares analysis shows that no significant differences were found with respect to family income.

### 2. Non-delinquent Group

The individual characteristics in the non-delinquent group consists of two variables only, as the other three variables (number of times admitted to a YRC, status before admitted to a YRC, and highest level of education) were not relevant to them. The gender distribution among the non-delinquents was equal (50% males, 50% females). The mean age of the non-delinquent group was 16.44, and ages ranged from 16 to 18 years (see Table 11). Individual characteristics indicate no significant differences between genders (see Table 12).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family characteristics</th>
<th>Male % (n)</th>
<th>Female % (n)</th>
<th>Chi-square Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Working</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both parents working</td>
<td>57.1 (52)</td>
<td>64.8 (35)</td>
<td>.831</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father only working</td>
<td>42.9 (39)</td>
<td>35.2 (19)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than RM500</td>
<td>15.4 (14)</td>
<td>16.7 (9)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM501 to RM1,000</td>
<td>45.1 (41)</td>
<td>31.5 (17)</td>
<td>5.390</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM1,001 to RM2,000</td>
<td>39.6 (36)</td>
<td>51.9 (28)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 10: Distribution of Family Characteristics between Genders</th>
<th>Male % (n)</th>
<th>Female % (n)</th>
<th>Chi-square Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Working</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both parents working</td>
<td>57.1 (52)</td>
<td>64.8 (35)</td>
<td>.831</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father only working</td>
<td>42.9 (39)</td>
<td>35.2 (19)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than RM500</td>
<td>15.4 (14)</td>
<td>16.7 (9)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM501 to RM1,000</td>
<td>45.1 (41)</td>
<td>31.5 (17)</td>
<td>5.390</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM1,001 to RM2,000</td>
<td>39.6 (36)</td>
<td>51.9 (28)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 11:
The Age of Participants between Genders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>16.40</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>16 year-old</td>
<td>18 year-old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>16.48</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>16 year-old</td>
<td>18 year-old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>16.44</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12:
Distribution of Individual Characteristic between Genders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individual characteristic</th>
<th>Male % (n)</th>
<th>Female % (n)</th>
<th>Chi-square value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Guardianship</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biological parents</td>
<td>96.0 (48)</td>
<td>98.0 (49)</td>
<td>.344</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biological mother &amp; stepfather</td>
<td>4.0 (2)</td>
<td>2.0 (1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12 shows that the majority of male (96%) and female (98%) adolescents stay with their biological parents. Only one female and two males stayed with their biological mother and stepfather.

Table 13:
Distribution of Family Characteristics between Genders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family characteristics</th>
<th>Male % (n)</th>
<th>Female % (n)</th>
<th>Chi-square value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Working</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both parents working</td>
<td>52.0 (26)</td>
<td>50.0 (25)</td>
<td>.040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father only working</td>
<td>48.0 (24)</td>
<td>50.0 (25)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM500 to RM1,000</td>
<td>6.0 (3)</td>
<td>8.0 (4)</td>
<td>.154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM1,001 to RM2,000</td>
<td>94.0 (47)</td>
<td>92.0 (46)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13 shows a breakdown of family characteristics. The distribution of working status of parents is almost similar among male and female adolescents. The distribution between the characteristic of both parents working and only the father working in the family among females is equal (50% vs. 50% respectively), and among males is almost
equal (48% vs. 52% respectively). In terms of family income, both genders reported that it was between the range of RM1,001 to RM2,000. This result indicates that the participants were from middle class income groups.

Gender Differences on Attachment Style

1. Delinquent Institution Group

In order to support the findings on participant profile for each gender from different YRCs, and to decide whether to combine them into one group of males (from YRCs A and B) and one group of females (from YRCs C and D), further analysis was carried out on the attachment style. In addition, this analysis served to explore the attachment style of participants in the present study.

Chi-squared analysis shows that there were no significant differences on mother attachment style between male participants from YRCs A and B (Table 14: Appendix E), and between female participants in YRCs C and D (Table 15: Appendix E). Therefore, the findings strengthen the decision to combine respondents from both centres into one group of males and one group of females. The result also shows that less than one fourth of juveniles defined themselves as securely attached on mother attachment styles and father attachment styles.

Further analysis between gender groups was carried out. Table 16 (Appendix E) shows that there were significant differences between genders in mother attachment style, but no significant differences were found in father attachment style. Female juveniles reported the highest percentage on ambivalence of mother attachment (44.4%), whilst male juveniles indicated the highest percentage on avoidance of mother attachment (54.9%). Both groups reported the lowest percentages (less than 20.5%) for secure attachment.

2. Non-delinquent Group

Table 17 (Appendix E) shows that there were no significant differences between gender in both mother and father attachment styles. Male and female participants indicated the highest percentages (82% vs. 90%) for security towards mother attachment. Very few of
them reported experiencing ambivalence (18% vs. 10%) towards mother attachment, while none of them indicated avoidance of mother attachment. Meanwhile, these male and female high-school adolescents reported the highest percentages of more than half, on secure father attachment (54% vs. 58%). Some of them indicated that they experience ambivalence toward father attachment (38% vs. 36%), whilst very few of them reported avoidance of father attachment (8% vs. 6%).

Based on the above results, a brief conclusion can be made that most of the non-delinquent participants experienced secure attachment with both of their parents. Meanwhile, the majority of the delinquent institution participants experienced poor attachments with their parents.

Gender Differences on Participant Preferences

Descriptive analysis was also performed between delinquent and non-delinquent participants on several preferences; (i) categories of friendship and (ii) activities in their spare time. The next analysis shows the percentage breakdown of reasons incarcerated juveniles involve themselves in delinquent activities. The rationale of this analysis is to get clarification from participants on their preferences towards the characteristics of their friends, and the activities they usually engaged in during their spare time. Throughout this analysis, we able to identify their friends and activities. The results of the following analysis would therefore shed light on the daily lives of these participants.

1. Delinquent Institution Group
   a. Category of Friendship

Figure 1 shows the breakdown in friendship preferences of participants before they admitted to a YRC. It is not surprising that a very low percentage of these participants have friends who are not known to be involved in antisocial activities (3.3% males vs. 3.7% females). All participants verified that they had been friends with people who were involved in antisocial activities. Male and female juveniles also indicated higher percentages on being friends with people who were involved with minor crimes (93.4% vs. 85.2%). Moreover, the analysis shows that more than half of the male participants
(61.5%) had been friends with people who were involved in major crimes, whilst only 31.5% female participants were friends with such people.

Figure 1:
Distribution of Respondents by Category of Friendship before Admitted to a YRC

b. Spare Time Activities
Out of eleven types of activities that juveniles preferred to do during their spare time, participants of this study have marked only nine. A distribution of these activities, and the corresponding percentages, can be seen in Figure 2. Male and female juveniles show the highest score on hanging out in shopping malls (95.6% vs. 96.3%) and hanging out in public recreation/rest areas (95.6% vs. 94.4%). The next highest percentage in spare time activities was hanging out in games centres for male juveniles (93.4%) and hanging out in entertainment centres by female juveniles (88.9%). Both genders also indicate high percentages on watching TV & videos with friends (90.1% vs. 83.3%). More than half of them denote that they like to watch movies with friends. As shown in the figure below, less than 9% of them like to involve themselves in sports activities or in reading. However, an interesting finding is that about 13.2% of male juveniles love to fish, which is perhaps being a solitary activity.
c. Reasons for Involvement in Delinquent Activities

This finding relates only to the delinquent institution group, since none of the non-delinquent participants marked them as applicable in the checklist provided. Figure 3 shows a summary of the finding. The majority of the participants indicated that they became involved in delinquent activities because they followed in their friends' footsteps (84.6% male, 81.5% female), and because they felt the need to try those delinquent behaviours (72.5% male, 79.6% female). The third main reason is that they were forced to do so for need of money (70.3% male, 64.8% female). Female juveniles also scored a high percentage on the reason of enjoyment and satisfaction (61.1%), whilst male juveniles only represented 47.3% for those reasons. The finding also shows that the participants indicated an average percentage on the reason of proving membership (58.2% male, 57.4% female) and escapism (52.7% male, 53.7% female). Both genders scored almost similar percentages on the reason of being challenged by friends (25.3%...
male, 24.1% female). Male juveniles scored higher on the reason of earning respect or to show courage (28.6% vs. 14.8%), and revenge (19.3% vs. 11.1%), as compared to female juveniles, although the number is small.

![Figure 3: Distribution of the Reason for Committing Delinquent Activities by the Delinquent Institution Group](image)

2. Non-delinquent Group
   a. Category of Friendship

   There is no difference between genders regarding friendship preferences. Of the four categories of friendship listed in the checklist, non-delinquent participants associated with only two. Figure 4 illustrates the friendship categories in the non-delinquent group. All participants indicated that they have been friends with people not known to be involved in antisocial activities. However, only 6% of male and 4% of female participants have noted that they were also friends with people whom they knew were involved in some antisocial behaviour.
Figure 4:
Distribution of Category of Friendship by the Non-Delinquent Group

b. Spare Time Activities

Figure 5 shows the distribution of spare time activities for each gender. Of the eleven types of spare time activities listed in the checklist, non-delinquent participants associated with only eight. The majority of non-delinquent participants (82% male, 86% female) indicated that they preferred to read during their spare time. They also reported that they liked to spend their spare time with family at home (78% males, 79% females). About half of male (58%) and female (50%) participants indicated that they engaged in sports activities during their spare time. About 22% and 32% of male and female participants respectively preferred creative and arts work. Twenty six percent of the male participants were interested in fishing activities. The figure also shows the percentages of male and female participants spending their spare time by hanging out in public recreation/rest areas (10% males, 6% females), watching movies with friends (4% males, 6% females), and watching TV and videos with friends (6% males, 2% females). The numbers, however, were considered small.
Quantitative Analyses

Analysis on the 1st group of hypotheses
To answer hypothesis numbers 1 and 2, each score from the mother attachment quality and the father attachment quality were correlated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient with the score from peer attachment.

1.1 Delinquent Institution Group
When the relationship between mother attachment quality and peer attachment quality was investigated, a significant negative correlation of -.65 (r = -.65, p< .01) was discovered. The correlation between father attachment quality and peer attachment quality was also examined, with a resulting significant negative correlation (r = -.48, p< .01). Such a result by delinquent group sampled suggests that low score on mother and father attachment quality was associated with high score on peer attachment quality. Therefore, this result supports the hypothesis that mother attachment quality and father attachment quality were negatively correlated with peer attachment quality.
1.2 Non-delinquent Group

The relationship between mother attachment quality and peer attachment quality was analysed. The result shows that the correlation between mother and peer attachment quality was significantly low (r = -.24, p< .05), indicating a negative relationship between the two scores. Such a result suggests that high score on the mother attachment quality was negatively associated with low score on peer attachment quality. Likewise, father attachment quality and peers attachment quality was also subjected to statistical correlation analysis. Again, a significant negative correlation was reported (r = -.28, p< .01), suggesting that non-delinquent group scored higher in father attachment quality was negatively correlated with low score in peer attachment quality.

Hypotheses numbers 3 to 9 were also analysed using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients separately for mother, father and peer attachment qualities. Tables 18 and 19 illustrate a summary of the relationships between each attachment quality with family environment sub-scales, individual behaviour sub-scales, self-esteem, and religiosity for the delinquent institution group and the non-delinquent group, respectively. The relationships between mother, father and peer attachment quality with delinquency was offered by the delinquent institution group only, in Table 18.

2.1 Delinquent Institution Group

Before the 1st group of hypotheses being analysed, the correlation between genders on delinquent participants were examined. Using Pearson product moment correlation, the result of this analysis found significant correlation between male and female delinquents on the variables of mother attachment (r = .82, p< .01), father attachment (r = .79, p< .01), peers attachment (r = .80, p< .01), self-esteem (r = .64, p< .05), religiosity (r = .68, p< .01), delinquency (r = .63, p< .05), and all variables of family environment and individual behaviour. Both group of gender were closely matched.

As summaries in Table 18, within the dependent sub-scale of family environment, mother attachment quality was only positively and significantly correlated with cohesion (r = .60, p< .01), and peer attachment quality was significantly and negatively associated with
cohesion ($r = -.56$, $p < .01$). Father attachment quality was positively correlated with three family environment sub-scales, namely, cohesion ($r = .51$, $p < .01$), independence ($r = .17$, $p < .05$) and intellectual-cultural orientation ($r = .21$, $p < .05$).

Table 18:
Summary of Pearson Product-Moment Correlation for the Score of Mother, Father and Peer Attachment Quality with Family Environment sub-scales, Individual Behaviour subscales, Self-esteem, Religiosity, and Delinquency by Delinquent Institution Group

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Attachment quality</th>
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</tr>
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</tr>
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<td>Expressiveness</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence</td>
<td>.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement orientation</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual-cultural orientation</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active-recreational orientation</td>
<td>-.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral-religious emphasis</td>
<td>-.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Individual behaviour</strong></td>
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<td>Sociability</td>
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<tr>
<td>Calmness</td>
<td>.02</td>
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<tr>
<td>Anger control</td>
<td>.09</td>
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<tr>
<td>Insight</td>
<td>-.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enthusiasm</td>
<td>-.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport</td>
<td>.18*</td>
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<td>Communication</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence</td>
<td>.17*</td>
</tr>
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<td>Social control</td>
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<td>.16</td>
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<tr>
<td>Considerateness</td>
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<td>Friendliness</td>
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<td>Unobstrusiveness</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Self-esteem</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Religiosity</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Delinquency</strong></td>
<td>-.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Significant at the .01 level; * Significant at the .05 level
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The sub-scale of individual behaviour (as presented in Table 18) indicates no significant correlation found for father attachment quality. Peer attachment quality was only significantly and negatively correlated with the sub-scale of considerateness \((r = -.19, p < .05)\). Mother attachment quality shows only significant correlations with the sub-scales of rapport \((r = .18, p < .05)\), independence \((r = .17, p < .05)\), considerateness \((r = .19, p < .05)\), and friendliness \((r = .18, p < .05)\).

Furthermore, results in Table 18 show no significant relationship between mother, father or peer attachment qualities with self-esteem, and religiosity. There was no significant association between each mother and father attachment qualities with delinquency too. A significant correlation was found between peer attachment quality and delinquency. However, the correlation coefficient value is low \((r = .18, p < .05)\).

2.2 Non-delinquent Group

The correlation between genders on non-delinquent participants was also examined. Using Pearson product moment correlation, the result of this analysis shows significant correlation between both genders on the variables of mother attachment \((r = .81, p < .01)\), father attachment \((r = .77, p < .01)\), peers attachment \((r = .74, p < .05)\), self-esteem \((r = .76, p < .05)\), and religiosity \((r = .80, p < .05)\), and all variables of family environment and individual behaviour. Both group of gender were closely matched.

The results presented in Table 19 shows that there is significant correlation between each of the mother, father and peer attachment qualities with the sub-scales of family environment, individual behaviour, self-esteem, and religiosity. All the correlation coefficient values for mother and father attachment qualities with these scales and sub-scales were positively and highly correlated, except for the sub-scales of independence (individual behaviour), where the correlation coefficient value was negative and low. Meanwhile, all the correlation coefficient values for peer attachment quality were negatively low associated with the sub-scales of family environment, individual behaviour (except for independence), self-esteem and religiosity. These findings suggest
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that there is a relationship between strong attachment towards mother and father with positive family environment, self-behaviour, self-esteem, and religiosity.

Table 19:
Summary of Pearson Product-Moment Correlation among Score of Mother, Father and Peer Attachment Quality with Family Environment sub-scales, Individual Behaviour sub-scales, Self-esteem, and Religiosity by Non-delinquent Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Attachment quality</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>Father</td>
<td>Peers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family environment</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Cohesion</td>
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<td>.88**</td>
<td>-.31**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expressiveness</td>
<td>.80**</td>
<td>.82**</td>
<td>-.32**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict</td>
<td>.80**</td>
<td>.85**</td>
<td>-.36**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence</td>
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<td>.74**</td>
<td>-.43**</td>
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<tr>
<td>Achievement orientation</td>
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<td>.84**</td>
<td>-.25*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Intellectual-cultural orientation</td>
<td>.79**</td>
<td>.82**</td>
<td>-.30**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active-recreational orientation</td>
<td>.83**</td>
<td>.87**</td>
<td>-.28**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral-religious emphasis</td>
<td>.84**</td>
<td>.84**</td>
<td>-.35**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation</td>
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<td>.89**</td>
<td>-.38**</td>
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<td>Control</td>
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<td>-.36**</td>
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<td>Individual behaviour</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>.81**</td>
<td>.85**</td>
<td>-.30**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calmness</td>
<td>.86**</td>
<td>.86**</td>
<td>-.32**</td>
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<tr>
<td>Anger control</td>
<td>.76**</td>
<td>.80**</td>
<td>-.39**</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insight</td>
<td>.83**</td>
<td>.85**</td>
<td>-.39**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enthusiasm</td>
<td>.57**</td>
<td>.58**</td>
<td>-.28**</td>
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<td>Conformity</td>
<td>.83**</td>
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<td>Rapport</td>
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<td>.83**</td>
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<tr>
<td>Social Control</td>
<td>.84**</td>
<td>.88**</td>
<td>-.36**</td>
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<td>Responsibility</td>
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<tr>
<td>Considerateness</td>
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<tr>
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<td>.88**</td>
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<tr>
<td>Unobtrusiveness</td>
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<td>.87**</td>
<td>-.30**</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
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<td>.92**</td>
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<tr>
<td>Religiosity</td>
<td>.87**</td>
<td>.93**</td>
<td>-.22*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Significant at the .01 level; * Significant at the .05 level
Analysis on the 2nd group of hypotheses

Before the hypotheses being analysed, the differences between genders on delinquent institution group was examined. Using the t-test, the result of this analysis shows no significant differences found between male and female delinquents on the variables of self-esteem \((t = 1.984, df = 143, p > 0.05)\), religiosity \((t = 2.035, df = 143, p > 0.05)\), delinquency \((t = 1.220, df = 143, p > 0.05)\) and all variables of family environment and individual behaviour. Both group of gender were closely matched. The differences between genders on non-delinquent group were also examined. Using the t-test, the result of this analysis shows no significant differences found between male and female participants on the variables of self-esteem \((t = 2.211, df = 98, p > 0.05)\), religiosity \((t = 3.010, df = 98, p > 0.05)\) and all variables of family environment and individual behaviour. Both group of gender were closely matched.

A two-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of group of institutions and attachments. For delinquent institution group, the result shows that the highest attachment of statistics scores is at peer attachment (102.69), at mother attachment (81.01), and at father attachment (77.63). Meanwhile, for non-delinquent group, the highest attachment of statistics scores is at mother attachment (115.46), at father attachment (108.33), and at peer attachment (107.86).

Within-Subject Effect

The main effect of attachment (mother, father and peer attachment) revealed to be significant with \(F(2,242) = 81.78, p < .01\), multivariate eta squared = .403. The Multivariate Tests shows that the \(p\) value is less that .05, therefore it is conclude that there is a statistically significant effect of attachment. This suggests that participants scored differently based on the types of attachment measured. In this case, the attachments by group interaction account for 40.3% of the variance in the three attachment patterns. Using the commonly used guidelines proposed by Cohen (1988), this result suggests a large effects saiz.


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**Between-Subject Effect**

The result of this study indicates that there was significant interaction between institution groups and the three types of attachment patterns with \( F(2,242) = 106.67, p < .01 \). The significant value of between-subjects effect is .000. This is less than our alpha level of .05, therefore, it is conclude that the main effect for group is significant. Briefly, this study shows that there was significant difference on the scales measures attachment of mother, father and peer for the two groups (i.e., group of delinquent institution and group of non-delinquent adolescents). The eta squared valued for the effect size of the between-subject effect group in this case is .686. This is considering large, thus it had reach statistical significant. Specifically, in mother attachment pattern, the mean score for delinquent institution group (\( M = 81.01, SD = 8.92 \)) was significantly different from non-delinquent group (\( M = 115.46, SD = 15.48 \)). In father attachment pattern, the mean score for delinquent institution group (\( M = 77.63, SD = 9.71 \)) was also significantly different from non-delinquent group (\( M = 108.33, SD = 18.95 \)). The pattern of peers attachment as well represent the mean score for delinquent institution group (\( M = 102.69, SD = 7.17 \)) as significantly different from non-delinquent group (\( M = 107.86, SD = 5.61 \)).

The independent t-tests were used to analyse differences in the mean between the delinquent and non-delinquent groups on the sub-scales of family environment, the sub-scales of individual behaviour, self-esteem, and religiosity. Significant group differences were found for all variables, except for organisation (a sub-scale of family environment) (\( t = -1.035, df = 243, p > 0.05 \)). Table 20 shows a summary of these findings. Throughout the findings, the non-delinquent group seemed to display good supervision, cooperativeness and sharing attitude/behaviour in their family while the delinquent institution group was not. The non-delinquent group also displayed positive self-behaviour, as compared to the delinquent institution group. Referring to religiosity, the non-delinquent group showed the most responsibility and highest respect for religion. They also have high self-esteem.
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Table 20:
Summary of T-test Analysis between Group of Delinquent and Non-delinquent on the Family Environment sub-scales, Individual Behaviour sub-scales, Self-esteem, and Religiosity

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
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<th>Non-delinquent</th>
<th>t-value</th>
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<td>Conformity</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religiosity</td>
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<td>20.82</td>
<td>21.040**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Significant at the .01 level

Analysis on the 3rd group of hypotheses

Two types of analyses have been used in the 3rd group of hypotheses; multiple regression analysis and simple linear regression. Firstly, multiple regression analysis was used to examine the relationship among mother attachment, father attachment, and peer attachment with delinquency. The stepwise method of entering variables was used in the
analysis. An initial look identifies the key elements of the analysis, as noted in Table 21. In this analysis, only one variable met the entry requirement to be included in the equation, and that is peer attachment quality. The other two variables (mother attachment and father attachment) did not meet the entry requirement. The multiple R shows a substantial correlation between peers attachment (predictor variable) and delinquency (dependent variable) ($R = .178$). The R-squared value indicates that about 3.2% of the variance in delinquency is explained by the quality of peer attachment. The $\beta$ value of peer attachment quality is $.178$.

Table 21:
Summary of Regression Analyses between Attachment and Delinquency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Peer attachment quality</th>
<th>$\rightarrow$ Delinquency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Regression model</strong></td>
<td>$\beta$ values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peers attachment</td>
<td>$.178$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Significant at the .05 level

Table 22:
Summary of Regression Analyses between sub-scales of Family Environment and Delinquency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-scales of family environment</th>
<th>$\rightarrow$ Delinquency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Regression model</strong></td>
<td>$\beta$ values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict</td>
<td>$.261$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement orientation</td>
<td>$-.230$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral-religious emphasis</td>
<td>$-.195$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cohesion</td>
<td>$-.192$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Significant at the .01 level

Secondly, using multiple regression analysis to identify the relationship between ten sub-scales of family environment with juvenile delinquency, results displayed in Table 22 could answer the hypothesis. Only four variables met the entry requirement, significantly predicting the delinquency of juveniles, that is, conflict ($\beta = .261$), achievement orientation ($\beta = -.230$), moral-religious emphasis ($\beta = -.195$), and cohesion ($\beta = -.192$).
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The multiple R verified a substantial relationship between the four predictor variables and the dependent variable (R = .389), whilst the R-squared value denotes that about 15.1% of the variance in delinquency is explained by the four predictor variables. However, the directions of influence for sub-scale of conflict is positive, whereas the directions of influence for the other three (achievement orientation, moral-religious, and cohesion) are negative.

Table 23 exhibits the result of the relationship between individual self-behaviour and delinquency. From eleven sub-scales of individual behavioural characteristics, only three variables were found to meet the entry requirement and were included in the equation (insight, conformity, and considerateness), whilst the others (sociability, calmness, anger control, enthusiasm, rapport, communication, independence, social control, responsibility, friendliness and unobtrusiveness) did not meet the entry requirement. The multiple R is .351, meanwhile the R-squares value noted that about 12.3% of the variance in delinquency is explained by these three predictor variables. The β values indicate the relative influence of the entered variables, that is, insight has the greatest influence on delinquency (β = -.292), followed by conformity (β = -.241), and then considerateness (β = -.197). The direction of influence for the sub-scale of insight, conformity and consideration are negative.

Table 23:
Summary of Regression Analyses between sub-scales of Individual Behaviour and Delinquency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-scales of individual behaviour</th>
<th>Delinquency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression model</td>
<td>β values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insight</td>
<td>-.292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity</td>
<td>-.241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Considerateness</td>
<td>-.197</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Significant at the .01 level

Furthermore, by using simple linear regression, the result shows that there is a significant linear relationship between religiosity and delinquency, such that poor performance in
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Religiosity results in higher commitment to delinquency. The R value is .251, and the R-squared identifies that 6.3% of the variance in delinquency is explained by religiosity. The direction of influence for religious behaviour is negative. Table 24 indicates the result.

Table 24: Simpler Linear Regression Analysis between Religiosity and Delinquency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regression model</th>
<th>β values</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Religiosity</td>
<td>-.251</td>
<td>.251</td>
<td>.063</td>
<td>9.610**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Significant at the .01 level

The analysis for hypotheses no. 4 that is “poor self-esteem exhibit strong relationships with delinquency” is not presented. This is due to the fact, simple linear regression analysis show that self-esteem has no significant relationships with delinquency.

Analysis on the 4th group of hypotheses

To answer the research question no. 3, multiple regression analysis was used to examine the relationship between the variables of attachment; religiosity; conflict, achievement orientation, moral-religious emphasis, cohesion [sub-scales of family environment]; and insight, conformity, considerateness [sub-scales of individual behaviour] (as independent factors) with delinquency (as dependent factors). By using this method, an understanding of risk factors in relation to delinquency would be identified. As the main purpose of this study is to investigate how attachment qualities would influence juveniles into committing delinquency, the score of mother attachment, father attachment, and peers attachment will be placed in the analysis, regardless of it significant value in the relationship with delinquency. However, for the sub-scales of family environment and individual behaviour, only the variables that significantly influence delinquency were analysed, that is, cohesion, conflict, achievement orientation and moral-religious emphasis [sub-scales of family environment]; and insight, conformity and considerateness [sub-scales of individual behaviour]. The scale of religiosity was

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examined too. The selected variables were associated to significant results in the analysis on the 3<sup>rd</sup> group of hypotheses. The analysis was designed as follows: attachments, cohesion, conflict, achievement orientation, moral-religious emphasis, insight, conformity, considerateness, and religiosity were correlated with delinquency.

In this analysis, the direction between variables was marked with a Beta weight value (β). A positive value indicates that a higher score on the associated variable will increase the value of the dependent variable, while a negative value on a predictor variable would decrease the value of the dependent variable. Throughout the analysis, only seven variables, namely moral-religious emphasis (β = -.274), religiosity (β = -.265), insight (β = -.259), considerateness (β = -.225), conformity (β = -.194), conflict (β = .180) and achievement orientation (β = -.178) were found to show strong magnitude and direction in the relationships with delinquency. Thus, this result would conclude that mother attachment and father attachment, as well as peer attachment do not have strong relationships on juveniles in committing delinquency. The summary of the result was presented in Table 25.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Religiosity</td>
<td>-.265</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>.180</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformity&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>-.194</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insight&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>-.259</td>
<td>.541</td>
<td>.293</td>
<td>8.110&lt;sup&gt;**&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral-religious emphasis&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>-.274</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Considerateness&lt;sup&gt;b&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>-.225</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement orientation&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>-.178</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>a</sup> Subscale of family environment; <sup>b</sup> Subscale of individual behaviour; <sup>**</sup> Significant at the .01 level
Discussion
Since there is no study conducted on the relationship between attachment and delinquency among incarcerated youths in Malaysia, this research, which investigates the relationship between attachment and other related individual and family factors, with delinquent behaviours, perform as a pioneering work. The majority of the participants from the delinquent institution group consist of those who have been admitted to a YRC for the second time or more. Among male offenders, the majority reported that they were working before being arrested and located in a rehabilitation centre, while most of the female offenders were still schooling prior to being arrested. However, both groups notified that they completed schooling only at junior secondary school level (the age range of 13 to 15 years). The finding suggested that these incarcerated juveniles hold a low level of an education achievement.

The marriage factor illustrated, although, is highly valued in Malay society, such that both groups (delinquent and non-delinquent) indicate the highest percentages in staying together with biological parents, the findings of this study, however, shows dissimilar strengths in mother and father attachment qualities between those groups. The delinquent institution group exhibited very weak mother and father attachment qualities, while the non-delinquent group posited strong attachment qualities to their mothers and fathers. Observing the adolescent’s perception towards parental attachment style, the two groups (delinquent and non-delinquent) presented contradicting results. Non-delinquent youths displayed positive perceptions, as the majority of them chose the description of security to portray their attachment styles towards their mothers and fathers, although the percentage on mother was slightly higher compared to father. The majority of youths in delinquent institution group exhibited a high percentage on insecure attachments towards their mothers and fathers. Only less than a quarter of incarcerated youths chose the description of security to portray their attachments towards the parents. Specifically, male juveniles presented higher on ambivalence towards their mothers, while female juveniles showed higher scores on avoidance towards their mothers. In the father category, both genders displayed the highest scores on avoidance.
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The result in the current study was not surprising when participants from the delinquent institution group scored higher on being friends with people who were involved in antisocial behaviour, be it a minor or major crime. On the other hand, non-delinquent participants categorised their friends as people not known to be involved in antisocial activities, although very few (less than 6%) of them marked the fact of being friends with people who were involved in antisocial activity. Awareness on adolescent spare time activities is also important. The result of this study suggested that incarcerated participants prefer to spend their spare time with friends that could provide them with fun and excitement, whereas non-delinquent participants prefer to involve themselves with something beneficial, like increasing knowledge (e.g., reading), being together with family members, taking part in sports activities for physical and mental health, fishing and doing something that could offer satisfaction and peace, such as creative and art works. Despite not examining the reason for choosing friends, the findings of this study suggested that incarcerated juveniles were better at relating to their friends than to their mothers or fathers, had better communication with friends that shared similar interests and moods, and trusted and respected one another.

The data collected from this study shows that only delinquent participants registered scores on delinquent activities. The question is, “why do they assume delinquent behaviours?” According to Carroll (1995), juvenile delinquents set specific and challenging goals, to which they have commitment, in order to achieve their desired outcomes. Using the reasons for committing delinquent acts checklist, the result shows that the majority of male and female juveniles scored higher on the variables of following friends, the need to try, forced for need of money, enjoyment and satisfaction, to prove membership, and escapism. The result displayed no differences between genders on the types of reason for committing these delinquent acts. In general, the result of this study suggests that delinquents strongly orient their goal priorities to the expectations and desires of the immediate peer group and self-behaviour. Such a tendency can be considered instrumental in their gaining and retaining memberships in delinquent gangs (Goldsmith, Throfact & Nilsson, 1989). In general, the result evoked that juvenile delinquents do have goals, although these goals may be different from the goals of other
adolescents of the same age or the number of times admitted to a YRC and in conflict with mainstream society. However, little is known about the reason-directed behaviour of juvenile delinquents. Study 4 of this thesis would clarify this issue.

Based on the quantitative analysis on the delinquent and non-delinquent groups, the mother-peer and father-peer relationships were significantly and inversely correlated. The non-delinquent group had lower scores on peer attachment, when compared to the score obtained on mother and father attachments. The finding suggested that the participants who had not committed delinquent acts held quality attachments with parents that are engaged in reliable trust and communication, and faced less problems of alienation. This situation, however, is contrary to the attachment score on peers. For the delinquent institution group, the attachment score on peers was higher than the mother and father attachment scores. In conclusion, the finding of this study, together with other previous studies in this thesis, suggests that the delinquent institution group displays close relationships with their friends or peers more so than with their parents. Thus, choosing friends with the same interest and spending a great amount of time on common-interest activities show that friends were assumed as primary and important references. This finding is in line with that in Study 1, where the data shows that delinquent juveniles prefer spending time with friends, and are often away from home at night. Study 2 indicates that incarcerated juveniles perceive their friends as trustworthy, occupying friendly communication and lack of alienation, as compared to parents. On the other hand, the results of this study on non-delinquent group indirectly seem to support previous researches which have identified positive parent-child relationship as a preventive factor in the development of delinquent behaviour. Jensen (1972) reported that supportive relationships by parents reduce the impact of other risk factors. Blackburn’s (1993) research has specifically showed that having a supportive relationship and getting regular positive evaluation by mothers reduces the impact of other identified risk factors.

This study, however, has clearly shown that no mother-child and father-child attachment was associated with delinquent behaviour. Those with high attachments to parents with
friends who were not deviant were free of delinquency, whilst those who showed strong association with deviant peer attachment and observed as having low attachment with parents posit highly problematic behaviours. Although the current study does not present evidence that poor mother or father attachment is significantly related to juvenile delinquency, this and other previous findings have illustrated that incarcerated juveniles possess very poor attachment bonds with parents, but hold affective attachments with peers instead. The evidence from current study suggested that weak bonding allows, but does not foster, delinquent acts (e.g., Agnew, 1991, 1993; Akers, 1994; Gibbons & Krohn, 1991). This may imply that an affective bond with parents can shield teenagers against the influence of deviant peers (Bell, 1998). Finally, when set against the evidence that conduct problems with the highest risk start early in life, prospective studies of peer processes have yet to recruit sufficiently young samples that would enable researchers to “...look at the dynamic and reciprocal manner in which children’s evolving behavioural characteristics predict their selection of friends and in which friends’ changing characteristics explain children’s evolution of conduct problems...” (Vitaro, Brendgen & Tremblay, 2000).

Using the Pearson product moment analysis, peer attachment exhibited significant correlation with delinquency. The result thus proving that attachment towards deviant peers has a relationship with delinquency. This finding is in line with other researches from Western countries. The Peer Influence/Socialisation model (Elliott, Huizinga & Ageton, 1985) proclaims that weak bonding to conventional peers leads to association with deviant friends, which in turn is responsible for initiation or aggravation of delinquent behaviours. In support of this notion, Agnew (1991) has shown that the association with friends who engage in serious delinquency has an impact on delinquency only when adolescents are strongly attached to peers or spends much time with them and when peers manifest deviant attitudes and encourage deviant behaviours. Indeed, as suggested by some authors, association or attachment to delinquent peers increases delinquency, whereas association or attachment to conventional peers reduces it (Conger, 1976; Jessor, Van Den Bos, Vanderryn, Costa & Turbin, 1995). Thus, this finding would
suggest that friendships and friends create a context with particular features and norms that might differ from other friendships and other friends.

By using regression analysis, religiosity and several sub-scales of family environment and individual behaviour were found to have significant associations with juvenile delinquency. Through multiple regression analysis, which combined all those significant variables on delinquency, this study found that strong influences came from the variables of 'achievement orientation', 'cohesion', 'moral-religious emphasis' and 'conflict' (sub-scales of family environment); 'insight', 'conformity' and 'considerateness' (sub-scales of individual behaviour); and religiosity. Thus, this study suggests that weakness in family environment, mischievous individual behaviours, and poor religiosity, were the mixture that could activate children and youths to commit certain delinquent acts.

Although poor parental attachment fails to present any significant relationship with juvenile delinquency, a weak family environment, which is poor attitudes and behaviours on cohesion, achievement orientation, moral-religious emphasis, and various conflicts in the family were shown to have significant relationships with juvenile delinquency. Juveniles might have suffered stress during their childhood years or are members of a family that did not show any commitment nor practise cooperation in making decisions on family matters. In addition, they might also have experienced little support from family members to work hard in their studies or obtain good academic results, struggled to achieve success and victory in all activities, and lacked examples of moral discipline and behaviour by their parents or other family members (Jesness, 1988). The juveniles may have feel that their lives and souls are 'void' of ethical values, which should have been carried out by parents as models for their children to imitate in their everyday lives. This study suggest that incarcerated juveniles are the persons who are weakly bonded to their families and had undergo poor family environment which have give way to natural or innate deviant desires (e.g., Nettler, 1984). The family as an institution plays a critical role in the socialisation of children and therefore, it presumably also plays a critical role in whether or not children misbehave. Considerable evidence exists in the current study
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shows that delinquency is correlated with conflict in family relationship, poor cohesion, achievement orientation and moral-religious emphasis within the family.

This study found that adolescents in the non-delinquent group reported positive individual and family characteristics that are held together by strong parental attachments. Meanwhile, adolescents from delinquent institutions are involved with poor maternal and paternal attachments, and reported having committed several antisocial and delinquency acts. They also reported facing difficulty in the family environment, individual behaviour, self-esteem and religiosity. From the author’s viewpoint, the findings of this study suggest that children who are ignored or disdained by their parents are more likely to become delinquent than are children who are held in strong parental attachments. Furthermore, through the findings of this study, it was learned that lack of family cohesiveness constitutes one of the major and most important differences in the background of delinquent and non-delinquent groups. It appears that the influence of family disintegration on delinquency was more potent in the case of family conflict, poor moral-religious emphasis and achievement orientation. Children who are members of a disintegrating family are more likely to become delinquent than are children reared in cohesive families. The findings of this study seem to support the findings by Glueck et al. (1962) that the absence of family cohesiveness has been found to contribute to the development of emotional conflicts, a defensive attitude, unconventionality and impracticality, all of which are characteristics that are more prevalent among delinquents than among non-delinquents. In the present work, it was shown that low behavioural standards are, in general, far more characteristic of the behaviour of delinquents, than of non-delinquent participants. Multiple regression analysis has proven that weakness of insight, conformity and considerateness contributes to the development of delinquency.

The findings of this study show that the association between subscales of family environment and individual behaviour was positively and significantly correlated with mother attachment and father attachment for the non-delinquent group. It is suggested that a sound family environment has to do with parental desire in promoting the status of the family members (for example, education for the children). Parent-child relationships
can be said to be far more and to be significant characteristic of the families of the non-delinquent than of the delinquent group. This could be explained by the fact that good upbringing and 'family spirit' contributed to the development of youngsters in the non-delinquent group. Individual behavioural factors, self-esteem and religiosity were also found to have significant relationships with mother attachment and father attachment. This may be reasoned by the strong parent-child association, which does indeed contribute to the development of certain traits found in children’s behaviours and religious practices.

In addition, another explanation suggested that the positive significant correlation between mother attachment and father attachment with the family environment, individual behaviour, self-esteem and religiosity could be due to effective relationship experiences. These relationship experiences are incorporated, and gradually develop into a model of oneself as lovable and a model of others as dependable and trustworthy. In theory, as these general self-other models become more firmly established, they begin to exert a pervasive influence on the individual’s social perception and behaviour (Bowlby, 1988). The current study has revealed that the correlation coefficient values for mother and father attachment qualities with family environment sub-scales were positively and highly correlated. These findings could suggest that individuals with sound mother and father attachments have greater feelings of self-worth and more social confidence, and they tend to perceive family members as generally trustworthy and dependable, and they are comfortable with intimacy and interpersonal closeness. In addition, it would be sensible to say that individuals with sound mother and father attachments tend to have better perspective-taking skills and higher relationship satisfaction as the correlations of both parental attachments were significant with individual behaviour and self-esteem. As a conclusion of this finding, good parent-child relationships are characterised by better communication, more mutual support and trust (e.g. Brennan & Shaver, 1995), and emotional stability. Healthy parent-child relationships have also shown strong associations with religiosity. Thus, it is assumed that the combination of all these factors could have deterred the individual from engaging in any immoral or antisocial behaviour.
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The finding of this study has clarified that delinquency is significantly related to weak religiosity. The finding suggests that incarcerated youths were less interested and unable to fulfil the obligations of his/her religion. Two requirements that must be performed by Muslims are the five daily prayers and fasting during the month of Ramadan\(^2\) (Manshur, 1998). However, the result of this study reports that participants have not performed or performed less of these basic obligations. It is suggested that the concept by the extent to which self-reported participation in religious services and activities reflects the adolescent’s religiosity of his or her own self (Title & Welch, 1983). Weak religiosity is significantly correlated to delinquency. It is suggested that interview would be the best technique to investigate the association between delinquency and religiosity. The result of this study, however, supports findings from other local studies (e.g., Munawir et al., 1995; Musa, 1998), which investigated religiosity of adolescents or adults offenders. According to previous findings, the majority of offenders practise weak religiosity, whereas in this study, almost all participants were very weak in pray and fast, and to a larger extent, they never engage in charity or participate in religious gatherings. Generally, the present findings provide empirical evidence that the negative direct effects of religiosity on delinquency remain significant consistently across other variables. This finding supports the opinions presented by many scholars who have spoken on the association of religiosity and conduct disorders (e.g., Rohrbaugh & Jessor, 1975; Chadwick & Top, 1993; Munawir et al., 1995).

The research finding also shows a significant relationship between delinquency and participants’ weak characteristics of consideration, conformity and insight. At this point, a juvenile could be seen as somebody who possesses inaccurate self-understanding and inactive engagement in efforts to cope with and solve personal problems. According to Jesness (1977) and Jesness and Wedge (1984), weakness in insight is represented by characteristic of indecisiveness, making little effort towards resolving personal problems, and inaccurate self-knowledge. Lack of conformity means not being interested in complying with accepted social conventions, laws, or established rules, and instead, tends towards lying, stealing and going against social or legal norms. From the viewpoint of weaknesses in consideration, the juveniles were conceded as not having the tendency to
behave with politeness and tact, and to show kindness towards others. They were perceived to be callous, tactless, and/or lack social skills (e.g., Jesness, 1977, 1984). This finding generally supported the Elkins, Iacono, Doyle and McGue (1997) study on the persistence of antisocial behaviour. According to Elkins and colleagues, persistent antisocial behaviour is associated with lower achievement, more pathological personality characteristics, and early progression along developmental pathways of antisocial behaviour during adolescence. Consequently, these risky behavioural characteristics have to be recognised earlier by parents and significant others, and negated as soon as possible during childhood. Adolescents who have a strong affective bonds with their parents are more likely than their less attached peers to accept parental rules and regulations, and to consider the parents' reactions when the temptation to commit an antisocial act presents itself (Marcus & Betzer, 1996). A lack of secure attachment may engender anger and hostility toward parents, reducing the parents' leverage over the adolescents’ behaviour (Allen, Moore, Kupermine & Bell, 1998).

The importance of examining the self-behaviour of juveniles is that the knowledge could lead to more effective interventions (Farrington & Hawkins, 1991). As from the field of criminology, the advent of the “criminal career approach” to understanding antisocial behaviour (Blumstein & Cohen, 1987), which involves examining the sequence of offences committed by an offender, has focused recent attention on clarifying which specific behaviours are associated with persistence or desistance of delinquent activities. Generally, the approach distinguishes among factors that contribute to antisocial behaviour according to which point in the sequence of antisocial behaviour they affect, for example, onset, persistence, or desistance from offending (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Without a doubt, delinquent behaviours are associated with a more pathological personality (Quinton & Rutter, 1985), characterised primarily by responding to frustration with negative emotions, having more aggressive and hostile attitudes towards others, and an impulsive, thrill-seeking orientation to life (Costa et al., 1992; Sher & Trull, 1994). This study, in general, support Rutter (1972) viewpoint on attachment, that is, the studies into the development of antisocial behaviour in children show the important of family relationships. Discord, tension, and lack of affection in the home all
appear to increase the likelihood of the children showing disorders of conduct. This effect is not one particularly associated with influences in early childhood and it serves to emphasise the important of life experiences in middle childhood for some aspects of development.

Furthermore, in view of the quality of attachment, findings of this study must be considered within the limitations of the study. The numbers of non-delinquent participants who had volunteered to take part in the study is considered small. This self-selection process probably resulted in an under-sampling of students who frequently missed school, had negative relationships with their parents, or engaged in high levels of antisocial behaviours. Because of the correlative nature of the study, the researcher cannot conclude that the quality of the adolescent attachments to mothers and fathers have a positive influence on family environment, individual behaviour, self-esteem and religiosity, and no engagement at all in delinquent behaviours. It is also possible that well-adjusted adolescent feels better about their relationships with their parents and that this positive perception of parents simply reflects the adolescents' adjustment rather than contributes to it. Nevertheless, consistent with theoretical formulations, strong mother and father attachments in the non-delinquent group have shown positive family relationships, worthy individual behaviours, a sense of self-esteem, and religiosity, and have reported no delinquent activities. The finding suggests that security in the parent-child relationship is essential for children. It is important for psychologists and criminologists to note that the presence of a secure parent-adolescent bond seems to be associated with positive outcomes for the non-delinquent group. According to Vivona (2000), high quality attachment organisations among youths are associated with positive outcomes, including lack of depression, anxiety and worry, and confidence in pursuing academic-related tasks (O’Brien, Friedman, Tipton & Linn, 2000). It seems important to extend the study on juveniles' attachments to other Malaysian ethnic groups.

The findings of this study suggests that future research should seek to verify the attachment patterns that this study has detected and should use samples of young children followed over longer periods of time. Next, the age range studied should include youths
with prior delinquent experiences and youths already with established delinquent peer networks. By moving the analyses back in time, that is, before the onset of delinquency and before friendship networks have been solidified, a more vigilant test could be contained.

It is hoped that this study furnishes information helpful to psychologists and criminologists in understanding the family life and individual characters and behaviours, in focusing attention on criminal behaviours in terms of their relationships with families and individual factors. Although it must be remembered that the various factors found linked to delinquency might not always exist in every individual (Glueck et al, 1962), the findings of the current study has shown that the influences in question are significant enough to warrant their serious consideration in prevention and therapy. Throughout the analysis, it was indicated that the delinquent group is linked to various expressions of delinquent behaviour, and to deprivations of parental affection and care, and other forms of familial unwholesomeness.

In sum, delinquent juveniles (in this study) were identified as the group having relationship problems with both parents. Thus, there is a need to clarify the factors that actually play a role in preventing delinquency. Parents need to be educated about this fact so that they have a better understanding of the extent they should go in terms of trying their children from being involved in deviant behaviour. In order to do this, parenting skills training should be considered as one of the intervention strategy (Christopherson & Penney, 1993; Tremblay, McCord, Boileau, Charlebois, Gagnon, LeBlanc & Larivee, 1991; Tremblay, Vitaro, Bertrand, LeBlanc, Beauchesne, Boileau & David, 1992). By improving their parenting style, parents will have better understanding on how to relate to their children and carry out appropriate ways of not only in monitoring their children's behaviour, but also in handling early, signs of undesirable behaviour in their children.

Finally, these findings also draw attention to the criminology and psychology understandings of social processes that underlie the formation of individual behaviour.
and delinquent peer group networks and misbehaviour. Instead of attributing delinquent peer networks or engaging in delinquency as the sole product of self-selection mechanisms rooted in intractable individual differences (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Ganthimathi, 1998), these results highlight the individual behaviour and social effects of the family environment in channelling youths towards or away from problematic behaviours (Sampson & Laub, 1993). The empirical findings garnered through these analyses suggest that a dynamic system, rooted in the family environment, individual behaviour and religiosity, functions to either protect youths from delinquent peers (Warr, 1993) or inoculates youths from engaging in illegal behaviours, or, as is most likely the case, both. Ultimately, the attachment theory appears to be unsuccessful in explaining the broader criminological debate, especially in Malaysia, surrounding the relationships between youth and delinquency.

Notes:

1 Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder
2 The 9th month of Islamic Calendars named as Ramadhan.
Introduction
To end and conclude the findings of Study 1, 2 and 3, the current study would like to investigate the reasons for the incarcerated juveniles' involvement with delinquent activities. From the previous studies, it is understood that explaining crime and delinquency is a complex task (Carroll, 1995) and multitude factors exist that contribute to the understanding of what leads someone to engage in delinquent behaviour (Huizinga, Esbensen & Weiher, 1991). While biological and psychological factors hold their own merit when explaining crime and delinquency (Lyons-Ruth, 1996), perhaps social factors can best explain juvenile delinquency. According to Wright and Wright (1992), a variety of family circumstances contribute to negative behaviour in children. Studies of family risk factors for delinquency conclude that the probability of a child becoming delinquent increases rapidly as the number of family problems or risk factors increases (Rutter, 1987). Children and youths generally appear to be able to withstand the stress of one or two family problems. When they are continually bombarded by family problems, however, their normal development is impeded.

In an effort to understand more about the causes of juvenile delinquency, the current study would like to investigate the causes and correlate issues of delinquency. Past research indicates that many variables correlate with delinquency and that many factors tend to increase the risk of later delinquent behaviour. Among these risk factors are birth trauma, child abuse and neglect (Somer & Braunstein, 1999; Shaw, Owens, Vondra, Keenan & Winslow, 1996), ineffective parental discipline, family disruptions (Gorman-Smith, Tolan, Loeber & Henry, 1998), conduct disorder and hyperactivity in children (Lyons-Ruth, 1996; Zoccolillo, Pickles, Quinton & Rutter, 1992), school failure, learning disabilities (Dornbusch, Erikson, Laird & Wong, 2001), negative peer influences (Dishion, Andrews & Crosby, 1995; Vitaro, Brendgen & Tremblay, 2000), limited
employment opportunities (Zill, 1993), inadequate housing, and residence in high-crime neighbourhoods (DuRant, Cadenhead, Pendergrast, Slavens, & Linder, 1994; Zill, 1993). So far, research supports the conclusion that no single cause accounts for all delinquency and that no single pathway leads to a life of crime. To date, however, research has not clearly identified all the pathways that lead to delinquency (Hill, 2002), nor has it been able to analyse the factors that cause individuals to take different paths.

Social scientists and policy makers agree that the best way to gain information on the causes of delinquency is through longitudinal studies (Farrington, Ohlin & Wilson, 1986; Tonry, Ohlin & Farrington, 1991). Because longitudinal studies involve repeated contacts with the same individuals over an extended period of time, they permit researchers to study patterns of development, to sort out which factors precede changes in offending, to predict such changes, and to do so independently of other factors. They also enable researchers to examine the differential impact of risk factors at different stages of a child’s development (White, 1990). In brief, longitudinal studies make it possible to identify various pathways to delinquency, each with unique causal factors that, like delinquency itself, may change with time. This information is needed to develop truly effective intervention programs. However, although longitudinal study is the best method to obtain accurate and sufficient data, this technique could not be implemented in this study due to time constraint. Nevertheless, on the importance of understanding the reasons for “why these incarcerated juveniles committed delinquency”, the juveniles self-reported reasons were considered vital.

As noted by Alvazzi del Frate, Zvekic and van Dijk (1993), self-report studies are based on the assumption that respondents can provide information on their own deviant behaviour for a certain period of time. The response usually includes examples of offences, socio-demographic data, and sometimes additional answers about victimisation, contacts with the police. Moreover, self-report studies can be considered a research tool for evaluating non-reported crime and delinquency. Self-report methodology, in addition, has enabled researchers to examine the effect of age of onset, to track the careers of offenders, to study desistance, and to apply developmental theories to study
both the causes and consequences of criminal behaviour over the life course. The development and widespread use of the self-report method of collecting data on delinquent and criminal behaviour together were one of the most important innovations in criminology research in the twentieth century. This method of data collection is used extensively both in the United States and abroad (Klein, 1989). Therefore, the last project of this thesis aims to analyse the juveniles’ self reported reasons for committing delinquent acts (specifically among Malay delinquents) using interview technique. In previous studies of this thesis, it was discovered that juveniles who committed delinquent acts scored lower in maternal attachment and paternal attachment qualities. However, parental attachment and the juveniles’ delinquent activities were not statistically correlated significantly. An analysis in Study 3, however, discovered that only seven variables, namely moral-religious emphasis, achievement orientation, conflict [family environment variables], insight, considerateness, conformity [individual behaviour variables], and religiosity were found to show strong magnitudes and directions in their relationships with delinquent activities.

Aim of the Study

By using the interview technique, this study aims to investigate the reasons for committing delinquent acts by incarcerated juveniles. It is important to note here that the findings of this study are based on interpretative analysis of the responses given by the present interviewees.

Method

Participants and Procedure

Participation in the study was on a voluntary (self-selected) basis, when the researcher came to the YRCs to select participants in October 2002. Originally, nine males and eight females agreed to take part in the research. However, during the day of interviewing, two males pulled out because of health and disciplinary problems, and one female withdrew for the health reasons. Therefore, the actual number of participants involved in this study was fourteen. The breakdown of the participants is presented according to gender and age. The sample was represented by an equal number of both
genders (7 males and 7 females). The range of the participants' age was 16 to 18 years. The majority of the participants had been in a YRC more than once. Table 1 shows the breakdown according to gender, age, and number of times admitted to a YRC.

Table 1:
Distribution of Respondents by Gender, Age and Number of Times Admitted to a YRC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 years</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 years</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The participants consisted of juveniles not already involved in any study of this thesis, to provide variability in the data collected for the study. The researcher herself conducted all interviews. In this study, researchers have conducted face-to-face interviews with incarcerated juveniles. By using self-report data rather than juvenile justice records, researchers have been able to come much closer to measuring actual delinquent behaviours and ascertaining the age at onset of delinquent careers.

The interviews were administrated in the meeting-room at each 'school' (YRC), where the location was very private and quiet. It was carried out in December 2002. The researcher set appointments for interviews with the approval of each school's chief officer. An open-ended approach was adopted to allow the participants to get the maximum opportunity to guide the direction of the interview by both elaborating on topics introduced by the researcher and entering novel areas where appropriate. Therefore, the interviewees were given every opportunity within the interview to tell their own story and add or elaborate on topics that were significant to them.
The interviews lasted between 70 to 90 minutes and were tape-recorded. To ensure that the interview process would run smoothly, one research assistant was also present. She sat next to the interviewer to help in administrative matters, such as inserting and changing the tapes, managing the tape recorder and copying important statements, as much as possible, into the notebook. The presence of the research assistant was also important to help in doing the counter-checking against the original transcripts of the interviews.

Participants were guaranteed anonymity, given permission to withdraw at any time during the interview and told that they could exclude any question that they considered uncomfortable. Before the interview started, participants were asked to complete the consent form and then answer the AQ. The interviews were recorded with the permission of the participants. At the end of each interview, participants were debriefed about the aim of the study and promised confidentiality of the interview data and analysis results.

**Design**

This study aimed to elicit the meaning each participant constructs around memories before and during being in the YRC. In this study where the aim was to gain data rich information from a small sample, phenomenology was considered appropriate, in particular, Smith’s interpretative phenomenological approach (IPA) (Smith, 1996a; Smith, Flower & Osborn, 1997; Smith, Jarman & Osborne, 1999).

**Instrumentation**

Two types of material were used in this study. The first is, the Attachment Questionnaire (AQ) (see Appendix D). Participants were asked to complete the AQ. The reason is to identify the attachment style of each juvenile. Three descriptions were given concerning the adolescents’ feelings about and perceptions of their relationships with their mothers and fathers. They were instructed to choose the description that applied best to them, by classifying themselves as either securely, avoidantly, or ambivalently attached. The findings are presented in Table 2. Four male and three female participants marked avoidant attachment on mother, whilst three male and four female participants marked
ambivalent attachment on mother. The result also shows that, five male and four female
participants classified themselves as having avoidant attachments with their fathers,
whilst only two males and three females reported ambivalent attachment on fathers.
None of the participants classified themselves as having secure attachments with either
their mothers or fathers.

Table 2:
The Number of Juveniles who Classified Themselves as Securely,
Avoidantly or Ambivalently Attached in the AQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AQ - Mother</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secure</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidant</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambivalent</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AQ - Father</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secure</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidant</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambivalent</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The second is, the 'interview protocol' (see Appendix D). This instrument was
developed by the researcher to gain as much information as possible on juvenile’s
involvement in delinquent activities. Seventeen ‘open-ended’ questions were formulated,
arranged and used in a logical sequence, and open to possible probes and prompts, which
might follow the answers to each of the questions.

Analytic Strategy
The data were analysed using IPA (Smith et al., 1997; Smith et al., 1999), the aim of
which is to create a comprehensive account of themes, which have significance within the
original texts. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim. The first
step in the analysis involved repeated reading of the transcripts which resulted in notes
being made on each transcript regarding key phrases and processes. These notes included
summaries of content, connections between different aspects of the transcript and initial
interpretations. Within each transcript, these notes were condensed to produce initial
themes, with care being taken to ensure that these themes were consistent with the data.
When this process had been repeated with each transcript, the resulting sets of initial themes were examined to identify recurrent patterns across the transcripts, producing a final set of superordinate themes. The links between these themes and data set were checked again at this stage. Themes were taken ordered in such a way as to produce a logical and coherent research narrative. Since the Malay language was used during the interviews, the analysis was conducted using the same language to ensure that the data were accurately analysed. However, the excerpts were translated into English and then translated back into Malay by a translator. The quality of translation was regarded as satisfactory by the researcher. Among the alternative criteria that qualitative researcher have suggested is the criterion of persuasiveness by ‘grounding in examples’, applied through an inspection of interpretations and data (Elliott, Fischer & Rennie, 1999; Smith, 1996b), this interpretations are illustrated by extracts from data set to allow readers to assess the persuasiveness of the analysis. In these quotations, empty brackets indicate where material has been omitted, clarificatory information appears within square brackets; and ellipsis points (...) indicate a pause in the flow of the participants’ speech. It is helpful to note that the particle lah in the excerpts is suffixed to the emphatic word to express a strong feeling by the interviewees.

Analysis
It is interesting to note that the raw data showed enormous richness in describing each theme of the reasons for committing delinquent activities, as experienced by the interviewees. However, it is very important to clarify upfront that, although the interviewer had prepared and used a set of interview questions, the majority of the interviewees preferred to provide simultaneous answers for all the reasons of committing delinquent acts. The interview also managed to solicit other significant answers related to the aim of the study.

The interpretative process conducted on the raw data resulted in the development of the eight themes, that is, frustration, friend factors, problems with the family environment, weakness in religiosity, need to do it for money, self-need, self-behavioural weakness, and revenge.
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The IPA method used was able to further separate data from each theme into different sub-themes. The two sub-themes that emerged for feelings of frustration are: (i) frustration towards the family, and (ii) frustration over the perception of society. The two sub-themes for friend factors are: (i) influence by deviant friends, and (ii) desire to be accepted as a group member. The three sub-themes for problems with the family environment are: (i) lack of love and attention, (ii) poor role model, and (iii) escaping pressure at home. The two sub-themes for weakness in religiosity are: (i) no sense of sin and reward, and (ii) poor religiosity role model. The two sub-themes for need to do it for money are: (i) own necessity, and (ii) debt. The two sub-themes for self-need are: (i) self-motivation, and (ii) self-satisfaction. The three sub-themes for self-behavioural weaknesses are: (i) perception of oneself as bad, (ii) aggressive reaction, and (iii) skill in pretending. Finally, the two sub-themes for revenge are: (i) revenge with denial of victim, and (ii) revenge with denial of injury.

i. Frustration

When asked about their feelings about running away from home, sexual activity, and other status offences, many interviewees spoke of frustration towards the family. This theme seems to support Gottfredson’s (1990) description that frustrated children are more likely to engage in conduct-disordered behavior. This makes sense since sad, frustrated and depressed teenagers will look for something to bring excitement into their lives. As noted by Gottfredson (1990), antisocial actions can bring a temporary feeling of excitement or a thrill from "beating the system" or "outsmarting" people in authority. In this analysis, two sub-themes were revealed from this theme, namely, "frustration towards the family" and "frustration over the perception of society".

**Frustration towards the family.** The feeling of frustration was related to bad parenting practices when interviewees reported that their parents or other family members did not have the appropriate skills to educate their children or other young people. They tend to use harsh words when talking to their children. As one interviewee explained:

> My mother doesn’t know how to respect her children [ ] frustrated with them [ ] My wan (grandmother) too. They like to curse, they often call us *hangang* (idiot), *berok* (monkey) ... sometimes *babi* (pig) [ ] about the children’s
feelings, they never cared. [ ] old, but they don't know the right way to educate children [ ] I get out of the house because I cannot stand them. I stay with my friends. I sometimes feel sad [ ] to overcome, sometimes by smoking, taking pills to ease tension, sometimes through ecstasy pills, or arak,[ anything] staying away from home [ ] usually I will steal my mum's money first, then blaa (get out) [ ] you see, the last time, I was really frustrated with them.

The feeling of frustration was echoed by another interviewee when he declared that he did not want to blame his parents for neglecting his need to be loved or cared for, because he believed that parents should be aware of their responsibilities towards their children. Therefore, being frustrated with the family relationship led him to be involved with a number of negative activities:

It is sad, but I don't want to blame my parents, or blame my family [ ] I don't care ... supposedly, everybody in the family should know, children need love [ ] need attention [ ] Previously, at home, I was always being scolded [ ] very upset with my family [ ] if they don't love me, I don't know, there is nothing I can do. Sometimes I would go out, I would smoke cigarettes, or I meet friends, I sniffed glue [ ] because that would be much better for me. I could wash away my sorrow.

When the interviewee was asked about his feelings after committing those misdemeanours, he replied:

usually ... after drinking arak, or sniffing glue, I felt, ... felt free, pleasure, OKlah! Could forget my problems for awhile.

From the analysis, it was evident that the interviewees actually wanted to be loved and cared for, either as a child or as a member of the family. The attitudes of family members or parents who did not care for their children’s feelings have caused them to be frustrated. The feeling of frustration led to the feeling of anger and action that could satisfy their feelings, such as running away from home (usually to a friend's house), smoking cigarettes, taking ecstasy pills, sniffing glue, and consuming alcohol. These forms of misbehaviour seemed to alleviate or reduce their frustration and anger.

In addition, boys in particular are not encouraged to cry to express their sadness or frustration (Kernberg, 1975). This sometimes drove boys into "burying" their sadness,
ultimately letting it surface as more frustration and anger. Researchers (e.g., Kernberg, 1975; Brooke, Whiteman, & Finch, 1991) agree that frustration in teenagers that comes out as anger can often lead to conduct disorder. The following excerpt from a male interviewee serves as an example:

Even if I were frustrated with my dad, am I going to cry in front of my dad, in front of my mum? No way! It’s embarrassing. ... Sad or not, my parents do not care about my feelings. So, I would rather hang out with friends because they care about me. That’s the reason I don’t feel guilty about robbing people, or taking drugs or cocaine because ... I’m very stressed because of them (family). At least, if I smoked cocaine, I would forget my problems, right! ... I have a father, but it seems like he does not exist.

**Frustration over the perception of society.** When the question: “Do you see things as happening in your life because of your own choices or because of other people’s fault?” continued to be asked, some of the responses presented were linked to the feeling of frustration over the perception of society. Throughout the data, society’s perception seemed to cause serious pressure on them. They added that although they wanted to start a new life with the intention of improving their lives or behaviours, the people surrounding them continued to have a negative perception of them, and this added to the feeling of frustration and pressure. With a hint of frustration, one male interviewee expressed ‘being humiliated’ by a neighbour:

my neighbour said to me, “You are a bad boy. If you are bad, you will be bad forever” [ ] “you are just like anjing dengan tahi (dog with shit)”

The same sentiment was echoed by a female interviewee (2™ time admitted to a YRC), through an excerpt regarding ‘being humiliated’ by the public:

in the newspapers, in school, everywhere! The public always refers to us as “sampah masyarakat” (discards of society”). They humiliate people like me...

In her continuing argument, she communicated that society’s bad perception and reaction towards ex-convicts caused her to feel very frustrated and upset. They (the society) regularly labelled ex-convicts as delinquents, and she therefore feels that this (being delinquent) might be best for her. Indirectly, this is somewhat described by the saying, “if the shoe fits, wear it”. The juveniles feel as though they are seen as delinquents, and
they will therefore act out the part and find a sense of self-esteem by doing so. As one interviewee said:

because they always say that we are sampah masyarakat, so to me, it's better to be truly harsh. Being good is worse, people keep seeing bad in us. Like me, before, selling drugs was difficult, but I work hard, I got lots of money [ ] luxury, the most important is that we know how to locate the hole, right!

The same opinion was echoed by another interviewee:

to ease my sorrow, or to satisfy my anger, usually I would race on the motorbike', normally with friends. One of the reasons was, when we were sad, had problems, people never understood, they called us ‘demons’, so, let us be a real ‘demons’ [ ] let us race on our motorbikes, enjoy our time together. It was bad, but … since the public sees that we are bad, then yes, I am bad.

Furthermore, frustration was linked to the prevalence of prejudice in society. Several interviewees commented that society was very prejudiced in terms of selecting friends. Parents or other adults usually ask children to be friends only with those who have a good reputation academically. As one female interviewee described, “Society always holds the opinion that if we were friends with bright people, good people, we would be clever and good too. But, if we were friends with bad people, we would be bad too”. Due to this belief, the interviewees felt that people humiliated them and commented that society was making a big mistake. One interviewee who was detained in the YRC for the second time reflected on this idea:

I do feel frustrated with society … they are making a big mistake by not allowing their children to be friends with people like us because they are afraid that their children will turn out bad [ ] people like to affront, like to disgrace, whatever we did, we would always be in the wrong.

Due to their frustration and anger over the public’s perception of them, some of the interviewees said that they preferred to express these feelings by vandalising or damaging public or private property, or committing petty thefts. They did it because they felt that those offences were easy and pleasurable, and they indirectly fit the perception of the public. This type of delinquent behaviour is evidenced by the following citation:

Let them know we are truly bad [ ] go to the toilet and scribble on the wall. I will write anything bad, or draw a picture [ ] scribble sometimes on a table, or ... at a phone booth, but usually, on the wall. So, they will know.
In summary, when the interviewees voiced out their personal perceptions with regards to the themes “frustration towards the family” and “frustration over the perception of society”, they presented almost similar thoughts. The interviewees commented that family members and society put great pressure on them and the frustration towards these groups very much led them to engage in certain antisocial or deviant behaviours.

ii. Friend Factors
Several studies (e.g., Agnew, 1991; Elliott & Menard, 1996) have shown strong links between affiliation with deviant friends and adolescents' delinquent behaviours. Peer influence and being approved as a group member were considered crucial in the development of delinquent behaviour. Many researchers (e.g., Vitaro et al., 2000; Simons, Wu, Conger, & Lorenz, 1994) agree that an individual is more likely to show delinquent behaviour when his or her peers engaged in such activities. In the current study, when the interviewees were asked about their experiences being with their friends, two sub-themes emerged, namely “influence by deviant friends” and “desire to be accepted as a group member”.

*Influence by deviant friends.* In examining the nature of relationships between interviewees and their friends or peers, this study found that juvenile involvement in delinquency was associated with friends’ influences. The analysis shows that the interviewees have been friends with deviant peers. They reported that their friends have committed a few delinquent acts. The analysis also shows that the association with deviant friends has an impact on individual delinquency when interviewees were attached to peers or spent a lot of time with them, and when peers manifested deviant attitudes and encouraged deviant behaviors. Most of the interviewees agreed that they had committed delinquent acts because it was influenced by their friends, for example:

friend always begs me to do it. He said that when we get the money, he will give some to me, anyway he said the job is easy [ ] he asked me to join him pick-pocketing, I stayed on with him [ ] the first time he asked me to join him and his brother to steal a motorbike, I felt scared but then, they calmed me down, so I followed them [ ] we used to steal one motorbike in KL, then, we sold the parts [ ] to Chinese men.
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The same theme emerged when another interviewee narrated his story:

I followed my friends. They asked me to join them in motorbike racing. They also attracted me to go speeding in cars with them. Sometimes, they invited me to hang out at shopping malls, at games centres. Sometimes we played snooker [ ] I was caught because of a rape case. That was because of friends, too. [ ] I never did it myself. I do not dare do it alone, but I do it because of them (friends). They asked me to join them [ ] one of them and I were caught, the other two ‘escaped’.

When their opinion was asked about whether breaking the law or committing antisocial behaviours were a big deal or otherwise, some of them said “no” and only one said “sometimes”:

no, not a big deal [ ] my friends are in here, too. She has been here three times. Anyway, we are under-aged, not going to be punished, right! Just stay here [ ] everything is free here

only sometimes, ya sometimes it is a big problem, but because my friends always forced me to do it (sell drugs), I just stuck with them

Drug behaviour and drug-related attitudes of peers are among the most potent predictors of drug involvement:

some of my friends smoke marijuana, some cocaine, arak too [ ] they always ask me to try [ ] they teach me [ ] when asked by friends, I’ll have some but I never got addicted to drugs [ ] only sometimes, because when friends ask me, I would join them, sometime just for suka-suka (fun), sometimes just ikut-ikut (to go along).

Some juveniles increased their use of drugs or their sale of drugs due to the influence of friends. Some of them reported feeling comfortable being friends with drug sellers as they could, or easily, earn lots of money. In one of his responses, an interviewee narrated a story about his friend and how he first learned to sell drugs:

many of them (friends) sell drugs . . . [ ] Along (his friend) always asked me to help him sell drugs at Chow Kit. I learned how to sell drugs from him. He was the one who taught me [ ] yes, I like him because he had lots of money. He always allowed me to use his money [ ] sometimes I paid back, sometimes not [ ] enjoy being friends with him, like a big brother to me. If only he hadn’t taught me, or shown me how to do it (sell drugs), then I would not be good at doing it. He was the one who taught me a lot.

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Desire to be accepted as a group member. In this study, some of the interviewees mentioned that they have been involved in several delinquent activities because they wanted to be accepted as a member in a group. The group usually consists of 6 to 8 members of the same gender. According to the interviewees, being a member in a group was fun because they could carry out many activities together with their friends. Therefore, for many events, they would have to plan and do certain ‘work’, especially delinquent acts, together. Following is an excerpt presented by one of the interviewees:

I was happy being a member of my group. We were six. ... I wanted to be accepted as a member, so I had to work with them, help them sell drugs. We usually sold drugs at Klang Valley area. At times, I help them stole motorbikes and then sold the motorbike parts.

To be accepted as a member in a group also means receiving protection from group members. This was proven when the interviewees said that the reason they committed the crime was to continuously be ‘safe and secure’ among friends or group members. According to the interviewees, protection means attention, friendship, monetary aid and security. From the data collected, it was also understood that security aids mentioned by the participants were the needs of protection from group members due to being disturbed or threatened by others. Commenting on this issue, for example, one interviewee remarked:

I felt safe with them. If somebody threatened me, or wanted to fight with me, they would help me, protect me, so to be a member, I had to cooperate with them ... such as to steal motorbikes, car radios ... sometimes to pick pockets, this was risky but fun [ ] fun because I was doing it with friends

Sometimes, individuals in a group would have to do something as a ‘reward’ to the group, to show their gratitude for being accepted as a member and for being protected by the group, such as sex. One female interviewee said:

because I wanted to be a member. I wanted them to protect me, to support me ... so they can guide me to sell drugs, finding the ‘hole’ (opportunity to market the drug), so in return, I had to have sex with them [ ] don’t mind, it’s normal what! All these ... I learned from my friends.

In summary, individuals learned how to behave through a process of modelling and reinforcement by peers. Basically, individuals assimilate and mirror behaviours by
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observing the actions of others and the consequences of their actions. Repeated exposures to peers who abuse substances or commit deviant acts are likely to influence these adolescents. Similarly, the perception that smoking, drinking, drug abuse or other delinquent activities is standard practice among peers also serves to promote delinquent behaviour.

iii. Problems with the Family Environment

The third theme concerns factors internal to the problems with the family environment, which drove them to decide to commit particular antisocial acts. It encompasses three sub-themes of “lack of love and attention”, “poor role model”, and “escaping pressure at home”.

Lack of love and attention. The sub-theme ‘lack of love and attention’ was identified when the interviewees tried to clarify their feelings and desires on family matters. Data showed that the attitudes of love and care were the most prominent of the themes that contributed to the development of positive or negative perceptions towards family. Some of them pointed out that parents should not scorn at them, with the metaphor “look down on us” being frequently invoked. Considering what was voiced by the juveniles, this sub-theme shows how strongly and importantly the interviewees wanted to be loved and cared for by parents or family members. An excerpt below serves as an example:

I want to be loved [ ] have someone care about my feelings, my needs [ ] to feel like, er ... I exist [ ] so that we feel our lives are meaningful, ... we are still kids [ ] like our parents, they should give attention to us at home [ ] never look down on us [ ] must give love to their children [ ] if they did the right thing, maybe we wouldn’t do these bad things, because ... if they don’t love us, never care about us, we would feel the same way about them too.

A dialogue among the interviewees suggested that love and attention by parents or family could act as a blockade against conduct disorders, based on the phrase: “if they did the right thing, maybe we wouldn’t do these bad things”. This was evidenced when the interviewee continued to explain the meaning of “do these bad things”:

taking ecstasy pills, or sniffing glue or, ... but usually hanging out with friends at shopping malls/ah. Sometimes watching porn movies at a friend’s house
Apart from that, many interviewees presented a positive picture of their relationships with their friends. The majority of them claimed that their friends were the ones who really cared and were always willing to help a member of the group. The need to be loved and cared for between friends was important to assure that the friendship was continuous and protected. In fact, it appeared that the interviewees would have been happy to help a friend:

they saw my sad face, so they quickly asked me about the matter. They know if I had problems or not [ ] listening to my voice, they would notice it. They would ask me to share my problem with them. OKlah! I like them, being friends with them [ ] I don’t mind even if they were bad ... they care for me, what! If we cared about our members, we would be safe. That’s very important, if not, mampus (we wouldn’t survive)!

What can be seen from this phenomenon is the problem of lack of love and attention has made individuals feel frustrated and angry. These feelings led them to fulfil their needs by seeking out their friends without bothering about their friends’ status or misbehaviour. From the above story, as well as stories by other interviewees, their friends had committed several delinquent acts. But, because these friends had paid attention to their needs and problems, this made them feel at ease hanging out with them (deviant friends). This situation could link with previous study in Chapter 6 showing that high attachment to peers was important where juveniles experienced less constraint in their self-friend relationships when compared to their self-mother or self-father relationships. This scenario also suggested that the problem of lack of love and attention from family led the individual to find someone else (e.g., friends) as replacement, who happened to be deviant peers. Referring to the previous themes, that is, “friend factors”, these deviant peers were the ones who had introduced and invited them to get involved in several delinquent activities. At that point, the problems seemed to lead from one conflict to another.

In brief, the interviewees’ comments show the importance of affection in their relationships. They perceive their family members as being unaware of their desire to be loved and cared for. However, they claimed that this desire was fulfilled through their relationships with their friends, which seems to be two-way.
Poor role model. The sub-theme ‘poor role model’ appeared when interviewees communicated their negative perceptions about their family members. Such factors includes the fact that family members always quarrelled among themselves or were guilty of certain misbehaviours or criminal offences, along with the improper communication style between members in the family. The following excerpt serves as an example:

They (parents) should show good examples to their children [ ] talk nicely, don’t have to yell because, although I know my parents are busy, it doesn’t mean they don’t spend some time with us! [ ] If they never set a good example, never pray, then how can I be good? I would become worse than them, right? [ ] like my father, he’s crazy about toto (lottery’). Always quarrels with my mum because of money... and, he used to fight with other people too.

The father, being the head of the family, was said to have been a bad role model for them. The interviewees described their fathers as persons with bad attitudes, and reflected the belief that somehow, their own bad behaviours were influenced by their fathers' bad characters:

My father is bad [ ] there were many times when my mother scolded my father and asked him not to go gambling, not to drink alcohol, but he never wanted to listen. He’s bad! He kept on doing it. How can I respect him? Alaa, as people say, ‘Bapak borek, anak rintik’ (Like father, like son).

Older siblings were also seen as poor role models. Big brothers with bad behaviours and attitudes influenced their siblings’ minds and stimulated their desires to follow their big brothers’ footsteps, that is, to earn money the “easy and fast” way. For example, below is a story narrated by one of the interviewees:

I saw my (big) brother selling drugs and getting lots of money. I always saw him holding lots of money ... My mum sometimes asked money from my brother [ ] I enjoy seeing him have lots of money, so I wanted to be like him, but I never worked with him, instead with a friend [ ] when he (friend) asked me to join him, I just went.

When asked, “Does your mother know how your brother gets the money?”, the interviewee replied:

Yes, she knows [ ] sometimes she would scold my brother, but, sometimes she would ask some money from him [ ] she buys whatever she wantslah.
Under this theme, it seems that parents were also indirectly involved. The weakness of this family institution became observable once parents did not show good examples or provide good advice to family members. It also seems to encourage these wrongful behaviours. Exposure to family conflict as well as violence in the home appears to increase the risk of later delinquency (Hawkins et al., 2000; Paschall, 1996). Conflicts among family members may increase the risk for both domestic violence and violence against others. Therefore, poor role model, poor achievement orientation and conflicts in the family have driven the particular family member to get involved in specific antisocial acts. Children learn by example, hence, it comes as no surprise that children learn to be aggressive through observing aggression in their families or the surrounding society.

In summary, when voicing out their personal perceptions with regards to the sub-theme “poor role model,” the interviewees presented almost similar thoughts. They commented that parents or other members of the family were not good role models for them or others. In other words, the interviewees perceive that their own bad behaviours are shaped by their experiences with certain people. It is evident that those with insecure attachment patterns have more negative self-images as well as negative models of relationships (Deirdre & Schill, 1994).

**Escaping pressure at home.** Data showed that the need to escape pressure at home was one of the salient sub-themes that contributed to their forming friendships with deviant people and being involved with delinquent activities. The interviewees reported that they were depressed with the family environment, due to conflicts between family members and the harsh attitudes of their parents:

Who can tolerate daily nagging? I ran away to my friend’s house because I wanted to escape the pressure. You know, it’s stressful! [ ] I sniffed glue, sometimes took ecstasy pills so I could forget the problems at home ... smoking marijuana also helped me feel free. I stopped thinking about the troubles in my house [ ] mum and dad were always quarrelling. My brother sometimes quarrelled with my father ... if my father got angry, everybody would become his victim (scolded and beaten) [ ] I feel like, I hate to stay at home. So, to get away from this problem, I would do anything. Usually I smoked cigarettes or I smoked marijuana. At least I could forget my problems at home for awhile.

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The interviewees, who have strong negative feelings about their parents and family members, portrayed family activities to be something meaningless. According to one interviewee, who is the youngest in the family, his family members always belittled him. His elder brothers and sisters also never gave any support, advice or attention to him. He added that his siblings neglected him a lot. Another similar sentiment was echoed by an older male interviewee when he pointed out his depression about too many people occupying his house, saying that, “it shouldn’t be like that”. Besides the house being crammed, the attitudes of its occupants were also bad. He said:

> I felt very unhappy staying in my house, there are too many people living there! [ ] It is a small house, I felt suffocated [ ] my sister-in-law doesn’t like me, neither does my brother. They don’t allow their kids to get too close to me. I felt really depressed staying with them ... maybe, that was the reason I became ‘wild’ [ ] racing on motorbikes could make me forget my problems, ease the tension. Sometimes, if it got worse, I sniffed glue, or ... smoked marijuana with my friends to get away from the problems [ ] problems at home.

Apart from feeling emotionally and physically pressured by parents or family members, some of the interviewees also maintained that their families did not place strong emphasis on family activities. The interviewees indicated that had their parents and siblings considered doing activities together as a family, it would have been very meaningful for the family, especially for them:

> hanging out with friends, or racing (on motorbikes) with friends could wash away my problems ... too many problems in my family [ ] makes me tensed ... one reason, they never cooperate. Everyone did their own work. They never did anything together (as a family). They didn’t care about others [ ] I am actually depressed about my family [ ] so, to release the stress, sometimes I smoked, sometimes I sniffed glue. If not for the problems, I wouldn’t be this bad.

One of the greatest findings in the analysis was that the majority of the interviewees suggested that the family environment was extremely important either to stop them from repeating the offences or to encourage them in repeating the offences. This is clearly evidenced by the fact that the interviewees said that they sometimes felt much safer staying in the YRC. According to them, if they were released from the YRC, they might not stay long at home because they believed that they would be facing the same
unhealthy family environment. They added that although they wanted to start a new life with the intention of improving their lives or behaviours, family and the society around them continued to have a negative perception of them, and this added to the pressure. Because of these reasons, they were of the opinion that the possibility was high for them to eventually succumb to these pressures, then meet up with their former friends and repeat the previous offences. On these thoughts, one of the interviewees commented:

staying here (YRC) is much safer. ... The last time I was released, the first two days was okay. My mum was okay with me, my siblings too. But after that, the problems started! Whatever I did was wrong, everything was wrong. ... My father always threatened to send me back here. I hate him saying that to me! My siblings seemed to not like being close to me. I felt the tension staying at home! I really felt pressured! That was the reason I joined my friends gambling, stole a motorbike [ ] I was caught and sent back here.

In summary of this theme, a poor family environment affects children's antisocial behaviour in several ways. Poor parenting practices, high levels of conflict in the family and a low degree of bonding between children and parents appear to increase the risks of adolescents' problem behaviours generally, including the abuse of alcohol, sniffing glue, motorbike racing or the abuse of drugs. Adolescents are at risk of drug related behaviour, for example, due to poor family management practices that are characterised by unclear expectations of behaviour, poor monitoring of behaviour, and few and inconsistent punishment for unwanted behaviour. It seems that conflict among family members appears more important in the prediction of delinquency than does family structure. Thus, this study suggests that children raised in family high in conflict appear to be at risk of both antisocial behaviour and illegal drug use.

iv. Weakness in Religiosity

The theme “weakness in religiosity” surfaced when the interviewees made comments about their poor religious commitment, which they said could have contributed in leading them to commit antisocial acts. In discussing this issue, two sub-themes come forward, namely, “lack of sense of sin and reward” and “poor religiosity role model”.

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Lack of sense of sin and reward. The theme, “lack of sense of sin and reward” emerged when several interviewees talked about having made their decision to perpetrate delinquent acts or crime because they felt that they had reached a stage where they never felt that what they did was wrong or sinful. Although only three participants mentioned that they were very weak at performing worship and claimed that it was not genuinely sincere, the majority of the interviewees declared that they never performed worship before being admitted to the YRC. The majority of the interviewees stated that they never prayed, and some of them said that they do not even know how to perform proper prayer. Besides, they added, before they were admitted to the YRC, they did not consider worship and fasting as important. Consequently, some of them agreed that the absence of awareness of sin and reward from God for the good deeds is one of the reasons for their inclination towards immoral behaviour and delinquent acts, as many of them verbalised almost the same phrase: “I admit, I did it (delinquent acts) because I never felt guilty, never thought of sin, reward or ... God”. One of the male interviewees commented that without the element of religiosity, he had lost his sense of innocence and fears nothing in his life. His feelings were shared by another interviewee, who said:

I never cared about religion or God, never thought about sin before, because I didn’t know how to pray, I didn’t know how to recite the prayers [ ] perhaps because of that I have become ‘bad’, I am not afraid of sin, I feel free [ ] even now, I admit that I’m very weak at practising religion [ ] it’s not only me who does not pray at home, my father doesn’t either [ ] mum prays once or twice only.

When asked what she meant by the word ‘sin’, another interviewee replied:

At that time, I enjoyed being a juara (trophy) girl* ... I felt proud. I used to follow my friends in consuming arak (alcoholic drinks), ecstasy pills, but the worst was when we participated in a parti golok (orgy*). We were crazy, happy, we forgot everything, never thought of God at all.

When asked about the meaning of “forgot everything”, she answered:

“no feeling of shame or sin ... felt really free”

Interviewees also said that they do not know and cannot differentiate between sin and reward from God for the good deeds. According to them, they have never been sent to religious school (or class), so their actions or standpoint at the time of performing
immoral or deviant acts was driven only by their instincts, without fear of sin to God or others. Among their comments is:

I never thought that what I did was sinful, never feared sinning ... I never cared about sin, reward [ ] anyway, I never went to religious school. I just did whatever I wished to do, that’s it!

However, these two excerpts, presented by two different interviewees, seem to conclude the perception of sin and bad behaviour:

I stole motorbikes [ ] four times ... yes, four times. I never thought of sin before. But if I had been scared of sinning, or if I had been scared of God, I might not have done that ...

&

I never prayed to God [ ] never, ever went to a mosque. I don’t like it. I think that’s the reason I am never afraid to be bad, because I don’t care if what I do is sinful or not [ ] I don’t have a strong knowledge of religion ... only after I came here, I knew how to perform proper prayer. Before this, you know, I never fasted [ ] I never thought about sin. ... If I had thought about sin, maybe I wouldn’t be this bad.

From the analysis, these incarcerated juveniles performed particular deviant behaviours for the reason that they did not feel guilty or sinful, and after a certain point, they would forget God. According to the interviewees’ stories, this could have happened because they did not have adequate religious knowledge in addition to parents not being good religious models for them. Continuing from this sub-theme is the second sub-theme, namely, poor religiosity role model.

**Poor religiosity role model.** This sub-theme was considered crucial after the interviewees mentioned several times that the weakness in their parents’ or other family members’ religiosity served as poor religiosity role models for them. They were of the opinion that their wrongdoing was ‘OK’ after they saw and related to their parents’ misconducts or criminal acts:

my parents don’t pray, I don’t know, I never saw them pray, so I don’t pray either [ ] my dad doesn’t fast. Neither does my uncle, who smokes during Ramadan, and buys lottery tickets*. As they did it, I did it too. They drink arak, I drink arak too. So, don’t expect them (family) to help me or ... teach
me to pray to be good. They themselves don’t pray, or go to a mosque. I don’t think they would want to talk about God. I don’t care [ ] he (dad) sells drugs! He gambles too [ ] perhaps, because he is not afraid of God, and that caused him to be like that ... me too, more or less like my dad [ ] so, I’m not the only sinful one. Running away from home or ... racing (illegal motorbike racing), it normal what! My uncle did it too. ... Anyhow, my father never cares about us. “You, you. I, I” (mind your own business).

According to Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990), children with behavioural problems will tend to grow into juvenile delinquents and eventually into adult offenders. Because the path towards or away from crime commences early in life, they contended further that the level of self-control depends on the quality of parenting in a child’s early years. As noted by Gottfredson et al. (1990), parenting is the most important factor that will determine one’s level of impulsiveness, insensitivity, physicality (as opposed to mentality), risk-taking, and they will also tend to engage in the several criminal acts. Children whose parents care about them, and who supervise and punish their misconducts will develop the self-control needed, through socialisation, to resist the easy temptations offered by crime (Gottfredson et al., 1990). This might help them in future work and relationships. However, poor parent-child interaction, as observed in the current study, characterised by poor religiosity role model, a lack of closeness and a lack of parental involvement in activities with children, appears to be related to the initiation of drug abuse and other antisocial activities such as running away from home, drinking alcohol, sniffing glue, gambling and illegal motorbike racing.

Apart from that, one female interviewee narrated that she never saw her parents read the Quran (holy book of Islam). When asked if she knows or used to read the Quran, she said “no”. Then she added:

Here (in the YRC) we learn to read the mugaddam (holy book which covers a small part of the Quran) [ ] it tells us to be good, about sin, heaven ... hell ... many other things [ ] my mum never taught me, perhaps she knows ... or doesn’t know. Maybe, because I never learned about religion previously, I never thought that religion is important.

Due to the weakness in religiosity, interviewees assumed that being religious are not extremely important because their parents themselves never perform prayer and fast,
which are compulsory for Muslims. Besides that, some of their family members gambled, committed drug offences, and smoked cigarettes instead of fasting (which is obligated in Islam). In sum, the analysis explains that these incarcerated juveniles seem to relate their delinquent acts with the weakness in religiosity, either with the “lack of sense of sin and reward” or the “poor religiosity role-model” sub-theme. Generally, the analysis suggests that these juveniles, in the past, did not hold (or have) strong faith in themselves. As reported in Wood’s (1970) study, faith is simply a person’s desire to attain a moral end and is sustained through dealing with the stresses of everyday life. Faith in the belief that God is wise, and placing one’s trust in Him reassures a person that everything will be fine. Faith is the choice to remain rational in dealing with the stresses of everyday life, instead of yielding to despair. Everyday life requires that decisions be made. These decisions are best made with the help of faith because faith and reason both require, and are compatible with each other (Wood, 1970). However, throughout the data, these incarcerated juveniles, previously, seem not to have or to have inadequate knowledge about their religion. According to them, they have not been to religious school. On top of that, their parents never taught them about religion, neither did they present good religious behavioural models. Without this knowledge or good examples from parents or other family members, they seemed to not know of or to appreciate reward and sin, heaven and hell. Indirectly, the data shows that the interviewees neither had nor used faith to guide their actions, especially in times of crisis, or their intentions to cooperate in or to commit immoral or delinquent acts.

v. Need to do ‘it’ for money

According to Maslow (1970), needs are proponent. A proponent need is one that has the greatest influence over our actions. Everyone has a proponent need, but that need will vary among individuals (Maslow, 1970). In the current study, when interviewees were asked about their reasons for committing a number of thefts, two sub-themes of need to do ‘it’ for money become visible, that is, “own necessity” and “debt”.

Own necessity. Interviewees indicated that the reason for committing certain crimes was the need for money to fulfil own necessities. Therefore, to overcome the problem, they
committed theft, robbery or burglary. Crimes of theft reported by the interviewees included stealing money or property belonging to their family or neighbours, stealing motorbikes, car parts or bicycles, and stealing office or school property. According to the interviewees, their major need was to buy food, cigarette, drugs, ecstasy pills, and other essential things or simply to fulfil their needs to own certain items. Following are excerpts presented by the interviewees, whose victim was not amongst family members:

"to get the money, I would do whatever I could. I knew it was wrong, but I didn't care... stealing motorbikes, for example, [ ] we rob people. We got the money, we bought the things we wanted, but I never stole my parents' money. They (parents) don't have much money. If they did, they wouldn't give it to me anyway [ ] usually, to buy food, cigarette, clothes, anythinglah ... shoes maybe [ ] food and clothes are the most important"

I needed money, yalah, to buy clothes, food, ... I didn't have a choice, I had to steal. I didn't care what people said, to hell with them!

The second excerpt above was voiced out by a male interviewee. When asked, "why did you need 'that' money to buy clothes and food?", he quickly turned his face towards the window, and was silent for awhile. Then he answered:

"perhaps because I'm poor, my parents are poor, my parents do not have money to buy me clothes, if I eat a lot of food, I would be scolded. So, the easy way is theft. I get the money, I buy my own clothes, I don't trouble my parents [ ] what my parents gave me was not enough. I'm grown up, at least I should wear proper clothes ... not torn ones."

The response given by the above interviewee explains that individuals committed crimes to get money to buy basic necessities for themselves in order to avoid feeling embarrassed (about using torn or faded clothes) with friends or the people around them. In addition, the stories narrated by the interviewees above illustrate their need to have sufficient necessities such as food and clothes, which they said was not provided adequately by their parents. According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, there are general types of needs (physiological, safety, love, and esteem) (Maslow, 1970) that must be satisfied before a person can act unselfishly (Norwood, 1996). He called these needs "deficiency needs." As long as people are motivated to satisfy these cravings, they are moving towards growth, toward self-actualization. Satisfying needs is healthy, while blocking gratification makes people sick or evil (Norwood, 1996). In addition, as
propose by Maslow's hierarchy of needs, people are basically trustworthy, self-protecting, and self-governing. Humans tend toward growth and love. Maslow (1970) believed that violence is not what human nature is meant to be like. According to him, violence and other evils occur when human needs are thwarted. In other words, people who are deprived of lower needs may defend themselves by violent means. Thus, this analysis suggests that the driving factor in committing a particular crime was the need to have sufficient necessities (i.e., physiological and safety needs) which cannot be provided by their families.

Apart from that, a small number of interviewees reported that they stole their family's belongings. The reason for stealing their family's belongings is the same as that for stealing other people's belongings, that is, to buy their necessities. However, the purpose for purchasing those things was for their own enjoyment, such as watching movies or buying cigarette. With regards to this, one interviewee narrated her offence:

I stole my mum's jewellery once ... sometimes her money [] because I needed the money to buy cigarettes [] for gambling sometimes, or to watch movies. I didn't have enough money, so I stole her money. ... I used to buy ecstasy pills too, but only twice.

In committing the thefts, other crimes were also committed, such as threatening and assaulting people into surrendering their money or belongings. Usually, these types of crimes were done in a small group. The interviewees said that all the items (other than money) they stole would be sold. Then, the money would be equally distributed among them. The following excerpt gives an example of an assault carried out by an interviewee:

we showed him the knife, but when he refused to give (his money), we beat him repeatedly and then took his money [] divided the money equally [] we would buy clothes, trousers, it depends, sometimes cigarette, or we would go gambling ...

Debt. Another overriding sub-theme that emerged when discussing the issue of "need to do 'it' for money" was to settle their own debts or their parents' debts. With regards to this, one interviewee narrated his experience:

I had to rob because I needed money to settle my debt.
When asked what would happen if he could not repay the debt, the interviewee quickly replied:

would be smacked. He would call on his gang to beat me up, so it’s better to lanyak (beat up) others first. Get the money and pay the debt.

This sentiment was echoed by another interviewee who committed crimes to help settle his father’s debt:

I was really desperate at that time because the Chinese shopkeeper kept coming to my house, asking for his money back from my father [ ] the Chinese man threatened to beat him (father) up. So, I asked help from my friends. We stole a motorbike, because it was easy to sell. Once I got the money, I gave it to my father.

In this analysis, it was found that individuals committed crimes because they were forced to do it for the money, that is, to pay off debts, either their own or their parent’s. They expressed their worry and concern that their family would be threatened. In these cases, the interviewees seemed to favour the ‘unlawful’ way of resolving their problems, which they felt was the easier way (by stealing people’s property). In this situation, it is suggested that these juveniles were in a desperate situation and could not think rationally to settle their problems. When the interviewees were asked, “Did you discuss with your parent the best way to settle this (debt) problem?”, they replied “no” and continued that “it is difficult to discuss with them, I do it my way”. Therefore, it was their own decision to steal other people’s property to resolve their problems.

vi. Self-need

The theme of self-need appeared when the interviewees were asked about their reasons for committing particular offences. Throughout the analysis, self-need in committing particular antisocial activities refers to a condition or situation in which something is required or wanted by oneself. The theme presents the interviewees’ psychological feature that prompts them to act towards a desired goal, which they thought would give purpose and direction to their particular antisocial behaviour. This theme also refers to the psychological result of perceiving, learning and reasoning. This theme represents two sub-themes, namely, “self-motivation” and “self-satisfaction”. 

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Self-motivation. Stories on activities of antisocial and delinquent behaviours, as told by the interviewees, described the sub-theme ‘self-motivation’, a self factor or circumstance that induces a person to act in a particular way of their own choice. The misbehaviour that attributed interviewees’ self-motivation was mostly minor offences, such as alcohol abuse, sniffing glue, smoking cocaine, gambling and sexual activities. The decision to commit these misdemeanours was triggered by the interviewees’ desire to try something ‘new’. Throughout the interview, all participants stated that smoking cigarettes was the first act they tried, which they realised was wrong. Additionally, a majority of them proceeded with the second offence, which was drinking alcohol. According to the data collected, the earliest age at which these children started smoking was 9 years. One interviewee said that her first act was to smoke rokok daun* (hand-rolled cigarette):

When I was 9 years old, I smoked rokok daun. At first, I just wanted to find out what it tasted like. Then I kept on smoking … I knew it was wrong, but that didn’t matter.

The interviewees agreed that their first cigarette smoking act was genuinely due to their own self-motivation. The following excerpt illustrates the interviewee’s story:

nobody forced me. I myself wanted to try it. It was my own desire.

The interviewees reported that their parents initially did not know of their misbehaviours, and some of them said that their parents never found out until they were caught. They also claimed that they committed the offence secretly, since they were very good at pretending. According to the interviewees, the wrongful acts they did were driven by their own curiosities to taste and experience the pleasures that are being enjoyed by others who are doing the same acts. In view of this, one of the interviewees commented:

First, I smoked cigarettes. Next, I drank arak. My parents never knew. It was by my own choice, my self-desire, because … I saw many people smoking, so I wanted to try it too.

The self-motivation theme also surfaced when interviewees narrated sexual misdemeanours or heavy petting such as hugging, kissing, touching and the like. According to the interviewees, the first time they committed these sexual activities was to fulfil their desires, that is, just to try it and experience the feeling, without anybody
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urging them to do so. When asked about whether they felt any shame, the interviewees replied that they felt ashamed only during that first time. But after doing it several times, they neither felt shame nor guilt, yet they deemed the actions as common activities. The following citations suggest this pattern:

The first time I had sex with my boyfriend was truly because of my own desire to try [ ] so I didn't mind. After that incident, I did it with other men.

The majority of interviewees said that they never felt ashamed and said that their first sexual act was committed by their self-motivation to fulfil their own desires. Following is an excerpt that supports this theme:

I smoked, or drank, had sex [ ] out of my own desire. I was curious to try, nobody taught me how. I read from books, or watched porn movies. Other girls, we share, but my girl, she's mine alone.

The interviewees agreed that initially, they felt no guilt or shame because none of their family members knew about what they had done. Besides, it was their self-motivated desire to perform these misconducts. Their misbehaviours were only known to the family when their son or daughter was caught by the police, was reported by the victim’s family, or became pregnant.

**Self-satisfaction.** The sub-theme ‘self-satisfaction’ represents interviewees’ interests to fulfil their needs to do something that could give them the feelings of satisfaction, happiness, pleasure and freedom. This need usually related to delinquent behaviours involving sex, such as orgies, sexual assaults and rape. Interviewees reported that their partners or victims were persons whom they knew very well; whom they have known for just a short time; or whom they didn’t know at all. Without shame and guilt, one interviewee said:

usually, I have sex with my boyfriend ... just for fun, satisfactionlah [ ] I participate in an orgy two times. We took turns, exchanged partners [ ] once we were satisfied, we would take a rest [ ] yes, I think it was really ‘gila babi’ (crazy fun).

On rape and sexual assault offences, interviewees reported that they committed the crime to gain pleasure and satisfaction, either on a person they knew or have just gotten to
know. Some interviewees reported that they committed the offence alone, while other interviewees said that they did it in a group. Following are two different excerpts on two different types of sexual offence. The first excerpt is taken from a male interviewee who acted alone in raping a girl, and the second excerpt is quoted from an interviewee who engaged in sexual assault and rape in succession with his group members:

I knew her. I raped her [ ] because I needed satisfaction for myself, sexual satisfactionlah. At the time I raped her, I felt pleased and satisfied.

We did it for fun, to satisfy our needs [ ] first, we charmed the girl by chatting her up. Then we invited her to ride on our motorbike. We took her to a waterfall, then we raped her! We took turns [ ] She screamed, kicked, swore at us, we just laughed. At that time, it was really enjoyable.

The feeling of satisfaction also emerged when the interviewees told stories about their involvements in other types of delinquent behaviours, such as theft. The thieving activities included stealing motorbikes or bicycles, shoplifting and picking pockets. As one of the interviewees put it:

When we succeeded in stealing a motorbike, we felt very satisfied and happy, felt as if we wanted to do it again [ ] stole the motorbike, then we rode it everywhere [ ] the bigger the motorbike cc, the more satisfied we were.

Apart from that, some of the interviewees said that they preferred to get satisfaction by committing petty thefts, or by vandalising or damaging public or private property. They did it because they felt that those offences were easy and enjoyable. The type of petty theft is illustrated by the following citation:

I used to steal clothes [ ] it was not difficult, it was just for fun. I would go to the fitting room, put on the new clothes, then slowly walk out of the shop. Outside the shop we would compare the prices. I felt satisfied when I got the most expensive ones.

When asked what she did with the clothes, the interviewee replied:

I never use it … [ ] I give it to other people, I guess.

In summing up the sub-themes of “self-motivation” and “self-satisfaction” under the theme of self-need, it is suggested that individuals committed crimes or delinquent activities as “acts in pursuit of self interest”. In general, low self-control was thought to be the best idea to explain an individual’s propensity to commit crimes. Throughout this
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analysis, it seems that juveniles involved with crime also engaged in similar behaviour that provides short-term gratification. Smoking, drinking, gambling, irresponsible sex, and speeding in cars are examples of similar risky behaviours that may be manifested in criminal individuals who seek instant gratification.

vii. Self-behavioural Weaknesses

When asked the question, "If you had to think of words to describe yourself, what words come to your mind?", it was very interesting to note that the majority of the interviewees spoke about their poor self-behaviours and how this weakness had prompted them to commit particular antisocial behaviours or crimes. In the analysis, three sub-themes were drawn up from this theme, namely, "perception of oneself as bad", "aggressive reaction", and "skill in pretending".

Perception of oneself as bad. This sub-theme emerged as interviewees kept on saying and referring to themselves as ‘bad people’ when relating stories about their experiences with delinquent activities:

I realise I am a bad boy because I did bad things! I have had sex with many girls ... I am bad [ ] I admit I smoke, consume alcohol, take drugs, steal motorbikes ... sell drugs. What didn’t I do? I did everything!

In addition, interviewees also declared that they were uneasy about obeying rules. They refused to listen when people gave advice, and they claimed that it was difficult for them to trust people who seemed to be suspicious of their every movement. One of the interviewees echoed this issue:

I’m kepala batu (hard-headed) [ ] I hate law. What is law? I don’t like rules, ... any rule ... because to me, I think I’m right. I don’t like it when people try to give me advice, you see, I don’t like to listen to people ... Anyway, I don’t trust them. If I did something bad, or thievery, or shoplifting. it’s my own businesslah.

Interviewees also mentioned that their bad manners were linked to their attitude to disobey the rules. The expression of view was thought crucial when the interviewees remarked, “freedom is our culture”. This statement seemed to be accepted by other participants when many of them claimed that, what they desired the most was to be happy.
and to have freedom in life without any rules. They remarked that freedom should be accompanied by feelings of mutual enjoyment in daily life, and their need for freedom should not be blocked:

all these were part of our lifestyle before ... it was our tradition [ ] I liked to join my friends at the night-club [ ] being happy, enjoying ourselves, listening to the music, chatting, dancing [ ] having fun with my friends [ ] I really enjoyed my life, we did whatever we wanted, nobody could say “no”.

When asked about their activities at the night-club, many female participants spoke of their experiences working as GROs (guest relations officer) or bohsia. According to them, the job they did was easy, stress-free and had no hard rules. The most important part of their job was to chat with the customer. Sometimes they had to comply with the customer’s request, such as to drink (alcohol) with them, or to engage in a ‘light petting’. Although some of them commented that the job was tiring, others said that it was “OK”:

It’s not hard, just chat with them (customer). Anything they asked, we just gave ... OKlah [ ] easy because there were no rules. If there were, I wouldn’t have liked it.

The need for freedom was obviously important to the interviewees as many of them voiced out their unwillingness to be ordered around by others or to obey the rules. They stated that they wanted to be free to do whatever they liked. As remarked by one of the interviewees, he did not like people treating him like a little kid. Being free was obviously a strong desire when the interviewees said that other people did not have any right to hinder their needs:

I know what I’m doing. I want freedom in my life ... don’t like to be controlled just like a little kid [ ] I don’t like rules, feels like being shackled. Others actually don’t have any right over me [ ] if I do something bad, I am not hurting other people, I just do it for my self.

In brief, the analysis presented in this study suggests that these individual admitted having bad attitudes, that is disobeying the rules and disliking instructions.

Aggressive reaction. The sub-theme “aggressive reaction” emerged when the interviewees communicated their perceptions towards self-attitude and behaviour. The majority of the interviewees agreed that they were aggressive and never felt afraid of
other people. Additionally, the interviewees said that they felt brave enough to argue or fight with people if they thought they were “right.” They also agreed that they were never afraid of being punished or criticised. Instead, they would react aggressively toward others if they were riled:

I’m not afraid of being punished [ ] I was very aggressive before, even willing to kill if desperate. No, I’m not scared of anything [ ]... of anybody, I would do anything, kick or spank or punch a head. I don’t care.

Their aggressive nature would translate into sudden or intentional physical or verbal assault towards others. However, according to the stories narrated by the interviewees, their aggressive reactions were usually preceded by provocation by others. Many interviewees viewed themselves in the same manner, for example:

I slapped my neighbour [ ] she said something bad to me, about my family. I said to her “You are sundal!” (a slut) ... I think we have to be brave [ ] At that time, I was thinking about damaging her car.

Being aggressive also meant that the interviewees always felt that other people were not as strong as they were, and they would do anything for their self-satisfaction:

Go to hell! I’m never scared of other people, I’m an aggressive person [ ] I have been here three times [ ] running away from the center (YRC) [ ] I’ve learnt many things in here, that technique, this technique ... if I were not aggressive, why am I staying here? [ ] I once kicked a bangla (Bangladeshi man), he was badly injured because he spoke rudely to me, but I felt satisfied.

**Skill in pretending.** The sub-theme ‘pretending’ arose when the interviewees declared, “to survive, we must be good at pretending”. This statement was reiterated by many interviewees. They declared that they were good at pretending:

I’m good at pretending [ ] to be safe! Lying to people, it’s common. Anyway, all inmates in here, they are just like me, everybody is good at pretending too [ ] so that I could steal people’s money, or pick their pockets.

The skill of pretending is important to the delinquents as some interviewees stressed that pretending was necessary when committing a crime. They suggested that without the knowledge or expertise to pretend, individuals were not fit to be criminals:

... don’t show that you are scared of something, just be ‘cool’, act normally [ ] If we did something wrong ... for example, stole a motobike or ... stole
something from a shop, don’t quickly panic, just be calm, nobody would know [ ] If you do not know how to pretend, it’s better not to be bad. Staying at home would be much better.

The reason for pretending was to hide their bad intentions from others, so people would not suspect that they were bad. They suggested that this tactic was the easiest and had to be put in place first.

The most important is our action. It is not difficult to pretend that we are good, it’s easy! [ ] I just give salam (greeting) to old people [ ] They would think that I am a good person. That’s enough, simple, easy, right!

As suggested by the interviewees, the same quality of pretending had to be maintained in committing serious offences, for example, rape. Pretending was described as a wise and safe tactic that made them feel comfortable and secure when committing planned offences:

I’d pretend to be nice to her, offer her a ride on my motorbike, tell her that I wanted to send her home or take her for a ride [ ] Then I’d take her to a place and then, I’d rape her. [When asked about the number of times he had done that, the interviewee replied:] Four times.

In summary, the bad attitude of oneself greatly affects one’s susceptibility or vulnerability to social influences that promote deviant behaviour. It is therefore important for clinicians, psychologists and criminologists to keep this in mind, because it has definite implications on assisting children and adolescents in developing resilience. Because individuals can establish goals for the future, it is very crucial to recognise the importance of self-regulation and self-control.

viii. Revenge

Many interviewees spoke of revenge when talking about the person or experience they dislike the most. This theme highlights the interviewees’ wish to see someone get paid back, and to feel the satisfaction of knowing that the one who caused hurt on them will get hurt in return. In discussing this theme, two sub-themes appeared, that is, “revenge with denial of victim” and “revenge with denial of injury”.

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Revenge with denial of victim. The theme “revenge with denial of victim” is used when the crime is committed as punishment or revenge towards a person thought to deserve it. This technique may be used by those who attack minority groups or individuals. In this sub-theme, the interviewees commented that they committed a particular crime because they did not feel happy with certain words used, or certain behaviours shown, whether deliberately or otherwise, by other people towards them or their friends. According to the data, denial of victim is a kind of revenge performed mainly by male interviewees. To show their displeasure, interviewees usually expressed revenge in physical forms. The expression, “they deserve it” was frequently uttered by the interviewees. Some interviewees even used weapons during the attack, with the intention of injuring the victim. One of the interviewees narrated his action:

I attacked an Indian boy with a metal rod. We hated him [] he was very rude. He reported to the teacher that I smoked in the toilet [] we waited for him after school, hit him on the shoulder and leg [] I felt satisfied because he did it to me first.

Another type of action under this sub-theme was exacted on public property or property belonging to someone whom the interviewees were in conflict with. By damaging the properties, the interviewees said that they felt a deep sense of satisfaction. They declared this type of action to be the easiest way to exact their revenge on a particular person. The interviewee narrated his offence towards a Chinese owner of a grocery shop:

My friend hit his head [] we damaged his car badly [] truly angry with him. He lied to people too much, you know [] we hit his car with stones, broke the window, then punctured the tyres. Lastly, we scratched the car with a hammer [] the easiest way. He really deserved it! It was not our fault actually, it was his fault. A big liar!

Revenge with denial of injury. The second sub-theme is known as “revenge with denial of injury”. This theme occurs when the criminal act by the interviewees causes no bodily harm to the victim, but the intention was still to do something to somebody as punishment or revenge towards a ‘deserving’ person. Usually, criminal acts are deemed deviant in terms of whether or not someone got hurt. Using this technique, the interviewees view stealing as merely borrowing, and view gang fighting as a private argument between consenting and willing participants. According to Coleman (1987),
the use of this technique is reaffirmed in the minds of delinquent juveniles when society does not look at certain acts as criminal, but merely accepts them as harmless acts. Throughout the analysis, the actions representing this sub-theme appeared when some of the interviewees frequently mentioned, “I assume that criminal action means hurting someone, but we did not hurt anyone” while relating the story about their feelings of revenge and anger towards somebody or a gang. One interviewee related:

We took his motorbike [ ] it’s not as if we punched his face, or beat him up. We didn’t injure him at all. We have actually been cross at him for such a long time [ ] He likes to criticise people. He called us babi kampong (village pigs), wicked boys, in fact, he’s the ‘evil’ one. He used to leak police secrets to games centres before the police came for spot-checks [ ] I feel like smacking his face [ ] we took his motorbike, sold the parts to a Chinese shop, then we shared the money equally.

Based on the above two sub-themes, interviewees showed their satisfaction towards their actions without regret. The themes clarified that incarcerated juveniles also committed crimes because of revenge.

Overview
Delinquency, youth violence, gangs, early sexual involvement, alcohol and drug abuse and among problem behaviors in young people that are causes for grave concern in Malaysia. Incidents of delinquency involving teenagers in Malaysia have caused many persons to ask why these things are happening. “What causes teenage delinquency?”, they ask. To answer this question, psychology cannot offer a single answer, but there are some issues to consider. The current study has extracted plenty of rich information and meaningful findings in portraying the juveniles’ reasons for engaging in delinquent activities. By using the IPA technique, eight themes (with 19 sub-themes) of reasons for committing delinquent acts were identified through 14 interviewees. The perceived causes of delinquency are multiple. Many research showed that there is not a single cause of delinquency (e.g., Huizinga, Loeber & Thornberry, 1993; Huizinga et al., 1991), but rather a combination of causes. The findings of this study, generally, show few explanations, some that can be related to the weaknesses of family institution, others on individual behaviour weaknesses and external factors such as friends’ influences.
In the analysis, the interviewees reported feeling frustrated. Some of them tried to control their frustration and anger, but others vented out in violent ways towards objects or other people. They tend to direct their frustration outwards or through physical activities or hazardous and risky behaviours. The word “frustration” tends to be used either when the interviewees wished to express dislike for, or rejection of someone in an aggressive manner, or when the interviewees felt sad. The responses of the interviewees on frustration and problems with the family environment contributed considerable and valuable issues to the study. Furthermore, some of the interviewees mentioned the need to be loved and cared for. From the analysis, the interviewees had expectations of having happy and safe lives with their families. Within this perception, it was suggested that if these individuals were provided with a good environment, moral values, and excellent role models by their parents, family members or communities, they could have had the potential to become well-behaved persons. The adolescence process, in addition, could be relatively easy and smooth if parents learned how to communicate effectively with their children right from the beginning. This study has clarified that the aversive environmental situations or frustration can be sources of anger that could lead to delinquency. In addition, the disregard for other peoples’ feelings or rights is one aspect of this condition, as reported by Bushman & Anderson (2001), that is, when certain people are in a negative emotional state, acting violently could improve their emotional outlook. As revealed in this study, many interviewees become frustrated because of poor parent-child relationship. This may imply that the family plays an important role in providing the emotional stability that young people need, particularly during adolescence.

This study, apparently, shows that adolescents who have experienced insecure attachment histories find the requirement to meet their relationship needs outside the family more difficult and disturbing. Insecure juveniles are often unable to maintain a focus or to contain his or her responses towards something being discussed, have a strong sense of love-hate, and separation of good and bad. Their language may be sentimental but could slip into anger and resentment at the slightest memory, and there was excessive talk of parents or family feuds.
The findings of this study also suggest that the interviewees find it very difficult to trust people around them. The interviewees reported that certain people around them have not been good role models. Moreover, family members or society often use harsh or lewd words when talking to them or calling them. Therefore, from the opinion of the interviewees, people around them were hard to respect as they were not good role models to the youngsters. A number of interviewees gave some positive views and suggestions on how others could be good role models, for example, “Parents should serve as good examples to their children [ ] talk nicely, don’t yell ...”. This sort of perception posits that interviewees want to be respected, and want to inspire other parties to understand their needs, treat them fairly and negotiate with them in a friendly manner.

Briefly, findings of this study present a view that the association between ‘thinking’ and ‘behaving’ bears the significance of mental representations. This process is centred upon the relationship with the primary caregiver, with the evaluation of self and others arising out of the quality of the care-giving behaviour. This process leads to the development of a cognitive structure, a set of mental representations of self, others and relationships known as an internal working model, which becomes the framework for future appraisals and future behavioural responses (Bowlby, 1969). According to Steele and Steele (1994), this view assumes an ongoing interplay among emotion, cognition and behaviour in personality development. In general, the current findings also conclude that interviewees who are humiliated, disrespected, and lack of love often behave in ways that provoke and perpetuate the rejection they most fear. By referring to the attachment theory, the link between thoughts and feeling are (indirectly) central to Bowlby’s original model and have remained at the heart of its development, since mental representations, as well as feelings, drive the internal working model and have some consequences on behaviour, although not directly to delinquent behaviour.

In scrutinising the reasons for delinquency, the weaknesses of the family environment were studied. The fragile balance in the family and home environments are vital either to avoid or encourage children developing unhealthy behaviours. Family environment weaknesses were an important consideration in trying to explain juvenile delinquency.
The family unit is crucial to a child's development and healthy upbringing, for the reason that much of what a child learns is through their family or guardians. A criminal parent can teach their child adverse lessons about life when their child views or witnesses their parent's delinquent behaviour. These behaviours may also help them achieve a personal goal, such as admission into a particular peer group. A closer analysis of problem behaviours strongly suggests that vulnerability to engage in substance abuse, gambling or other immoral activities is greater among children and adolescents who have fewer effective coping strategies in their repertoire, fewer skills for handling social situations and greater anger at social situations. The discomfort in interpersonal situations experienced by these adolescents prompts them to take action to alleviate this discomfort. After all, it is suggested that if parents are sufficiently committed to healthy moral beliefs, they could encourage their children to learn about and question those beliefs as they grow up, and there would not be so much for the children to challenge in adolescence.

Apart from feeling the emotional and physical pressures from their family members, some mentioned that their families did not strongly emphasise family activities. The findings of this study also reveal that another serious demand is the perception of society, especially from neighbours and relatives, towards delinquent juveniles. The interviewees added that although they would set out to start a new life with the intention of improving their behaviours, family and surrounding environmental factors would pressure them.

The findings of this study also suggest that if parents lack spiritual and moral beliefs, their children would grow up without any sense of honesty, compassion or discipline. It seems that when parents gave their children too much freedom, it appeared as though the parents do not really care. The children, therefore, are left feeling such profound emptiness and guilt about their meaningless lives that they challenge 'everything' out of pure frustration. In sum, children become adolescents who feel worthless because their parents' lives are valueless, that is to say, without any meaningful or spiritual values. Besides, communication also fails because the family is governed by the fear of love. In a similar way, many interviewees "act out", which technically means communicating
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behaviourally rather than verbally. In line with this comment, Glueck and Glueck (1962) mentioned complex psychological traits, such as the feelings of resentment, anxiety and frustration, all tending to weaken and cripple personality and character, which are related to poor conditioning in the home. In addition, lack of parental interest in the child, lax or erratic discipline, improper supervision, lack of family ambition, parental laziness or dishonesty, leading to the child’s rejection of the parents as a symbol for lack of parental love for the child, and many other unwholesome influences must be taken into account in the assessment of the generative or formative influences on traits that can become antisocial in expression. Thus, the findings of the current study suggests that despite the sufficient roots of family environment and parenting practice, as well as upright behaviour or personality, a potent involvement of childhood influences in the home is also operative in the development and moulding of behaviour and character of a crippling kind which add to the child’s incompetence to meet the demands of life that are made on him in the ever-widening world outside the borders of ‘home’.

Another reason that triggered the interviewees to commit misconducts was individual self-need. The minor acts committed are known as socially deviant acts, such as smoking cigarette, drinking alcohol and sexual activity. A juvenile’s deviant behaviour gets more severe and serious when the interviewees reported the reason to be problems with the family environment. When this situation surfaced, the interviewees resorted to running away from home, taking ecstasy pills, sniffing glue, smoking cocaine, and motorbike racing (illegally). Interviewees also presented another reason, which is self-behavioural weakness. With this, the offences they normally committed focussed on sexual activities, such as rape, sexual assault and indulgence in orgies. However, some of them were also involved in writing and drawing graffiti as well as throving offences. In theft cases, involvement was in simple, easy thievery.

For reasons due to ‘friend factors’ and ‘need to do ‘it’ for money’, the interviewees commented that they usually directed their action towards offences involving assets, such as theft of motorbikes, car radios and bicycles, as well as robbery and burglary. They were also involved in selling drugs. The reason for revenge involved offences on persons
and/or property, such as assault and vandalism. Concisely, this study emphasised that each interviewee has his/her own significant reason for committing particular actions or offences. In other words, each delinquent action was provoked by a specific intention. The other psychological resource that affects the development of conduct disorder grows out of a child's capacity for love and empathy. Under the theme of revenge, it is the guilt that children experience following a transgression or a violation of a rule. Guilt is the feeling that comes when an individual violates a norm or when they hurt or violate another person (Ostroff, 1992). The emotional discomfort, tension, and unpleasantness that make up feelings of guilt decrease the likelihood that an individual will commit that violation repeatedly.

Being aggressive, bad, stubborn, disobeying the rules, and revenge are the characteristics that could be presumed to be risky for youth development. Besides, some interviewees claimed that without the ability to pretend and without an aggressive character, it would be difficult for a person to 'act' delinquently or to be involved in crime. In this matter, they admitted that their bad characteristics have assisted and qualified them to be involved in various delinquent activities. This finding indirectly supports the result in Study 3 that individual self-behaviour is among the significant factors contributing to delinquency. In the previous study, individual behaviours, which were found to have a significant relationship with delinquency, was related to disregarding social or legal standards, the small effort in resolving personal problems or indication of indecisiveness, and lack of social skills. It is clear from the current study that incarcerated juveniles do not like to be controlled, and suggested that they preferred to do something out of their own interests which could give them satisfaction, without any concern about whether their actions were sound or not. Additionally, this study would like to emphasis that lack of self-control and failed development of the family’s role could provide circumstances that would make conditions favourable for delinquency. These behaviours may also help the individuals achieve a personal goal, such as admission to a particular peer group. In brief, a closer analysis of problem behaviours strongly suggests that vulnerability to engage in substance abuse is greater among children and adolescents who have fewer effective coping strategies in their repertoire, fewer skills for handling social situations
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and greater anger at social situations. The discomfort in interpersonal situations experienced by these adolescents prompts them to take action to alleviate this discomfort.

The findings of this study also suggest that delinquency proneness in youths has been found to relate negatively to the degree of moral belief (e.g., Sheley & Bailey, 1985). The decision to carry out a delinquent act can be considered as involving the interviewees' attempt to weigh, partly in terms of his or her goals, priorities and value system, and partly in terms of the perceived characteristics of the situation, the positive and negative consequences the act can have. Both internal and external aspects of the environment can activate the goals relevant to moral conduct (Staub, 1996). Thus, the current research suggests that juvenile delinquents set specific and challenging goals, to which they have commitment, in order to achieve their desired outcomes. The reasons or goals are short-term and immediate, and are based on the acquisition of resources, having fun with friends and in some cases, to get rid of pressure or strain, supported by claims made by other researchers (e.g., Goldsmith, Throfast & Nilsson, 1989; Wentzel, 1989; Carrol, 1995).

Moreover, the goals that the juveniles set for themselves would impact on their behaviours, which would ultimately affect their paths in life. It seems that adolescent problematic behaviour and delinquency are related to how these youngsters see themselves and their needs. Besides fulfilling self-need and the urge by self-behavioural weaknesses, the findings of this study suggest that delinquents strongly orient priorities of their goals to the expectations and desires of the immediate peer group. Adolescents may resort to joining a gang because they lack the social skills necessary to develop close, personal relationships. Indeed, research has found that loyalty within delinquent gangs is externally created. Such a tendency can be considered instrumental in their gaining and retaining membership in delinquent gangs. From another perspective, it suggests that relationships within a gang were so weak that the gang would not stay together without outside pressure from, for example, other gangs or the police. Deviant activity, such as substance abuse, selling drugs or thievery, may be chosen by some as a
way of achieving group acceptance, status, and membership or escaping the realities of rejection.

While previous studies have found a strong negative or beneficial relationship between religion and delinquency (Benda, 1995; Brownfield & Sorenson 1991; Title & Welch, 1983), others have suggested that religion only has a weak or insignificant effect on delinquency (e.g., Cochran, Wood & Arnekle, 1994). In the current study, however, through the interview technique and interpretative analysis, results show that weakness in religiosity could have led them to get involved in particular delinquent behaviours, for example, sexual offences and thievery. The sub-themes ‘lack of sense of sin and reward’ and ‘poor religiosity role model’ have encouraged them to behave badly. Consequently, commitment to religious values and beliefs seems to have both an immediate and a long-term impact on deviant or delinquent behaviour.

Religion is the knowledge, beliefs, feelings, actions, and experiences of an individual expressed in relation to that person’s system. The person’s system may include their religious sect, or a religious organisation to which they belong (Hood, Spilka, Hunsberger & Gorsuch, 1996; Paloutzian, 1996). Religion helps people deal effectively with an environment that can be hostile and threatening. Religion plays a role by offering hope, comfort and guidance to people when there seems to be none available (Yinger, 1970). According to Lenski (1963), religion is an internal process. He also defined religious orientation as people being directed by values and prayer, or talking to God, and these activities give a person direction in life. Being committed to religion is a process by which a person is motivated and life is given meaning, as an internal process, as prayer has some positive effects (Morgan, 1983). As indicated by Yinger (1970), faith in God and religion help people deal with everyday stresses, thereby eliminating the need to behave aggressively. However, in the present study, not being pious, as in not performing prayers, lacking in the sense of sin and reward, and having poor religiosity role-models, has ‘permitted’ them to commit immoral or delinquent acts. Weak social bonds and weak bonds to religion seem have made these juveniles susceptible to act
deviantly. Acting aggressively, with the intent to cause harm, violates the principles of religion.

In this study, almost all interviewees said that they did not perform worship, or never thought if what they did was wrong or sinful. On top of that, they commented that their parents and other family members did not perform prayer either. The finding is in line with other studies that have discovered that negative attitudes (Reiss, Neiderhiser, Hetherington & Plomin 2000; Miller, Maguin & Downs, 1997; Flannery, 1997), low religious commitment, and low religiosity (Brinkerhoff et al., 1992) are related to high rates of criminal, violent, and aggressive behaviours. Engagement in deviant activities further weakens a person's belief in morality, decreases attachments to other people, and reduces commitments. In view of that, when a person has no religious faith, or low religiosity, that person might be more accepting of aggression, and may be more likely to act violently. According to Nisbet, Duberstein, Conwell and Seidlitz (2000), religious participation reduces risk of suicide. Both a recent large U.S. national study as well as an initial large-scale regional study published thirty years earlier found that persons who did not attend religious services were four times more likely to kill themselves than were frequent religious attenders (Nisbet et al., 2000; Comstock & Partridge, 1972). Furthermore, in a review of 68 studies that examined the relationship between suicide and spirituality/religion, 84% found lower rates of suicide or more negative attitudes toward suicide among the more religious (Koenig & Larson, 2001). In a study of suicide rates in the Netherlands, a decrease in suicide mortality was linked with a religious revival among the young, pointing to religion/spirituality serving as a protective factor (Kerkhoff, 1994). In line with these findings, Nisbet and colleagues (2000) concluded that participation in religious activities may act as a safeguard against suicide. Pertaining to these issues, it is very important to recognize and include religion/spirituality in suicide prevention, treatment, and care (Koehoe & Gutheil, 1994) especially given the increasing suicide rates among adolescents. In sum, the findings of this study illustrate the effect of religiosity and religious beliefs on aggressiveness and delinquency, which may be of use to policy makers, law enforcement officials, and school authorities. Understanding this
relationship is important because it provides more insight into reasons why a person may or may not decide to commit a crime or act violently, aggressively, or immorally.

In conclusion of the findings of this study, it is correct to say that delinquents set some of their intentions for immediate gratification of resources and materials, which they are unable to obtain through law-abiding means. It was also evident from the findings that delinquents set goals, which are achievable. Certain achievements of aims and ideas are on an immediate and spontaneous basis, as interviewees respond instantly and almost impulsively to their needs and interests. There is commitment to the reasons or goals that delinquents set. Thus, a commitment on the intention is a necessary and vital component for successful goal setting (e.g., Locke & Latham, 1984, 1990). This study suggests that friends play an important moderating role in the reason setting process; the setting and achievement of reasons or goals occur collectively with other peers. Group membership was dependent upon performance and success in crime-related activities. Individuals must participate in their activities to be accepted as a member of the group, and to be included in the distribution of resources. In addition, being frustrated with the family and frustrated over society’s bad perception of them led them to look for ‘something’ that could bring excitement into their lives. Problems with the family environment also strengthened their engagement in bad behaviour to escape pressure at home, poor role modelling by parents or older family members, and lack of love and attention. Other internal factors, such as the need to do ‘it’ for money, self need, self-behavioural weaknesses, and revenge were also accountable in triggering juveniles to engage in particular delinquent behaviours.

In light of this study, it is seen that there are many aspects of family life that have a bearing on the propulsion of children in the direction of delinquency. The present study, in addition, advances our understanding of the explanations for committing delinquent acts by insecure delinquents. Researchers have concluded that there is no single path to delinquency and have noted that the presence of several risk factors often increases a youth’s chance of offending. Juvenile delinquency usually stems from a combination of factors that varies from child to child. No single risk factor is sufficient to explain it.
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Thus, to develop effective methods for preventing juvenile delinquency and its escalation into serious and violent juvenile offending, it is suggested that intervention methods must account for the wide range of individual, family, peer, school, and community risk factors.

Finally, in spite of everything, some limitations of the present study deserve mention. First of all, the result of this study is restricted to present Malay incarcerated juveniles and cannot be necessarily generalised to other ethnic groups. Second, as the aim of this study is to investigate the explanations for committing delinquent activities by incarcerated juveniles, it is important to note here that the finding of this study is based on the interpretative analysis through the response given by the interviewees. Knowledge about the subjects was based upon the subjects’ responses to the questions asked during the interviewing process.

In conclusion, the root causes of crime are many and diverse. Any hope of success in addressing these causes requires multi-faceted strategies, which can be implemented by family, neighbourhoods, communities and various levels of government. There is no expedient answer that can be imposed from above. Any solution to juvenile crime must involve all sectors of society: individuals, families, schools, religion institutions, community groups, governments and businesses, while the scope of effort involved should be as broad as all of society.

Notes:
* *tau ke* refer to Appendix I
* *arak* refer to Appendix I
* *motorbike racing* - illegal motorbike racing
* *juara girl* - girl who is given as a ‘prize’ to the *Mat Rempit* (nickname for illegal motorbike racer) who wins the race.
* *buying lottery* - In Islam, buying lottery is categorised as gambling, and gambling is prohibited by Islam (Manshur, 1998).
CHAPTER 9

CONCLUSION

Outline

This chapter weaves together the findings from all the studies. The findings presented in the previous chapters provide some compelling suggestions about where efforts should be concentrated in the future. Those chapters discussed the research findings regarding characteristics surrounding the incarcerated juveniles as reported in their personal records; the mother, father and peer attachment qualities in their relationships; the relationship between attachment and other related risk factors with delinquency; and the reasons (by incarcerated juveniles) for committing delinquent acts. This chapter concludes with suggestions for: (i) future research that could be carried out to extend the findings and contributing factors, both theoretically and practically, as a follow up of the results of this thesis, and (ii) potential efforts that are essential for delinquency prevention programs to reinforce the family affiliation as a means of preventing delinquent behaviour.

Review of the Aims of the Thesis

This thesis has four main aims:

i. To identify patterns of recorded family history and individual characteristics, and to explore the types of delinquent acts carried out by male and female juveniles.

ii. To investigate the nature of Bowlby’s (1969, 1982, 1988) attachment theory within incarcerated juvenile samples from the Malay ethnic group.

iii. To examine the relationship of mother, father and peer attachments with delinquency among Malay incarcerated juveniles. The study would also aim to investigate the relationship between family environment and several individual factors (e.g., behaviour, self-esteem, religiosity) with delinquency, and to examine the ways in which these risk factors act together in putting youths at risk of committing crime.

iv. To investigate the reasons for committing delinquent acts.
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Theoretically, this thesis sets out to explore the application of the Bowlby (1969, 1982, 1988) attachment theory, and the underlying foundation of the attachment theory provided by Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters and Walls (1978), in order to understand the relationship of attachment with delinquency. The finding would be significant to psychologists and criminologists in attempting to understand delinquent behaviours and socio-environmental dilemmas, in analysing the delinquents' feelings and thoughts about their own behaviours and the behaviours of others, as well as in identifying attachment patterns among Asians, in particular the Malay ethnic group. In sum, the findings highlight that poor attachment quality, as perceived by the incarcerated juveniles, shows no significant correlation with delinquency. However, weaknesses in family environment, poor individual behaviour, and frail religiosity were the primary contributing factors for juvenile delinquency.

Brief Review and Comment on Malaysian Delinquency Problems

The problem of juvenile delinquency is viewed as a global issue, where each country has its own strategy on how to solve these problems. The issue of juvenile delinquency in Malaysia had been raised and discussed earlier in the 1940s. The Juvenile Court Act was passed in 1947 in Malaysia, based on several international standard outlines as stipulated by the United Nations. Basically, the concept of rehabilitation centres in Malaysia, i.e. Tunas Bakti, Taman Seri Puteri (known as ‘approved schools’) and Henry Gurney School is to inspire youths to take responsibility for the offence(s) they committed, to avoid the worst possible consequences, and to take steps against repeating the same crimes in the future (JKM, 2000). It (initially) gave the opportunity to the youths to improve their wrongful attitudes and/or behaviours, and encouraged their integration with the community, especially with their parents and families. To ensure the safety and wellbeing of incarcerated juveniles, the Social Welfare Department of Malaysia (SWMD) committee was asked to assist in their rehabilitation by finding adoptive parents and families for these “under-supervised juveniles”. Most of all, the committee was to help find the best training opportunities and suitable jobs for these juvenile and members of the committee were encouraged to visit the juveniles in the youth rehabilitation centres (YRC) to ensure that these juveniles were safe and were treated according to the
Detention Placement Methods, 1950. This exhibited the noble effort undertaken by the authorities concerned.

Considering the extent of the measures implemented by the government and the authorities, along with the findings of this thesis, the author is of the opinion that crime reduction among youths cannot be resolved unilaterally nor by linking the causes directly to the youths or their parents. Hitherto, in the author’s opinion, the rehabilitation process being implemented by government agencies are not based on scientific and comprehensive research. Psychological and criminological factors have not been taken into account. In addition, the lack of precision and practicality in the approach taken by the authorities (e.g., YRCs, social welfare departments, schools, etc.) in their effort to address juvenile delinquency or to control conduct disorder, plus the projection of poor role models by particular persons caused the resolution of delinquent problems to be tackled ineffectively. It is of great consequence to bear in mind that adolescents are dynamic entities and that their relationships with surrounding factors are equally dynamic. The vigorous changes and needs in children and adolescents should be taken into high consideration in attempting to deal with unlawful acts and criminal problems among youths. With an awareness of the family environment, self-behaviour, and religiosity factors, the problems perhaps could (and should) be handled and controlled well.

In the author’s point of view, efforts to control juvenile delinquency should focus on the aspect of prevention, as the saying goes ‘prevention is better than cure’. It would be worth the effort of any government agency, for example Social Welfare Department of Malaysia (SWDM) to step up their efforts in educating people to realise the importance of close relationships within the family environment, of engaging in healthy behaviours and thoughts, of practising sound religiosity, as well as of maintaining adequate parental attachments and healthy friendships. The need to actively support families experiencing child conduct disorders at an early point is vital if the likelihood of further difficulties is to be reduced (Christopherson & Penney, 1993). It is worth suggesting that family education programs and early childhood programs could help in preventing delinquency.
and crime. They represent at least two potential sources of savings for the society, namely in crime reduction and in justice system costs; and gains in workforce participation when youths who are less delinquent participate more actively in the legitimate economy (Christopherson et al., 1993).

Main Findings by Study
The main findings on the Malay juvenile phenomenon of attachment and delinquency in this thesis are hereby presented according to the sequence of the studies. The results of Study 1 showed no significant difference between the juveniles who had admitted to a YRC for the first time with those who had admitted for the 2nd time or more, in parents’ backgrounds, parent-child relationships, and behavioural characteristics. The findings presented that male juveniles engaged in all the types of offences identified, with the highest count on property crimes. Female juveniles were locked up in YRCs for delinquencies of perpetration or for offences that were less violent. The majority of the female delinquents were arrested for problems that were 'beyond parental control' and drug offences. In general, the incarcerated youths committed more than one offence each. They lacked parental supervision, participation in group activities and intimate communication with their parents. Over one third of them had experienced the lack of parental warmth.

Phase One of Study 2 found a strong correlation between mother and father attachment scores. This result verifies that the juveniles’ relationships with their mothers are almost the same as that with their fathers. This result was supported by the findings in Phase Two of Study 2, where the majority of interviewees reported and described that their relationships with their mothers and their fathers are almost similar and that it was hard to distinguish between the two in detail. The study also showed low negative correlations between the maternal and peer attachment scores of these juveniles, as well as between their paternal and peer attachment scores. This finding seems to support the sentiment echoed by many interviewees, who felt more comfortable disclosing personal information to their peers rather than to their parents. They appeared to have a greater propensity to feel connected to their peers, both physically and emotionally, especially in times of
As mentioned by the interviewees in this study, their parents could not respond positively as one who was able to provide good support or advice to them. Therefore, they preferred to seek advice and share their problems with peers or friends. In sum, twelve themes emerged throughout the coding process; six themes described the development of trust (i.e. understanding, respect, mutual trust, accessibility, responsiveness, expectation), four themes depicted the communication patterns (i.e. extensiveness, quality, quantity, mode of communication), and two themes illustrated the feeling of alienation (i.e. emotional alienation, physical alienation) as experienced by the interviewees while interacting with their mothers and fathers, as well as with their peers.

The main finding of Study 3 shows that none of the specific mother-child and father-child attachment qualities were associated with delinquency although the study displays a low attachment bond and a strong association with peer attachment, as presented by delinquent institution participants. Therefore, the attachment theory presented by Bowlby (1969, 1973, 1980) and the discussion on secure and insecure parent-child attachments cannot explain the significant relationship between poor attachment and delinquency, as demonstrated by this study. By using regression analysis, several sub-scales of family environment, individual behaviour, and religiosity were found to have significant associations with delinquency. Via the multiple regression analysis, which combines all these significant variables, the study found that the strong contributing factors came from the variables of ‘cohesion’, ‘conflict’, ‘achievement orientation’ and ‘moral-religious emphasis’ (sub-scales of family environment); ‘insight’, ‘conformity’ and ‘considerateness’ (sub-scales of individual behaviour); and religiosity. This study suggests that weakness in family environments, poor behavioural, and weak religiosity were ingredients of the concoction that triggered the children and youths to seek and perform numerous delinquent acts. The findings of this study, in addition, show that there were significant differences between male and female juveniles on mother attachment, father attachment, peer attachment, and religiosity, although the means differences between genders were small.
Finally, Study 4 generated themes on the reasons of committing delinquent acts. The interpretative process conducted on the raw data resulted in the development of the eight themes (with 19 sub-themes), that is, feeling of frustrated (frustration towards the family; frustration over the perception of society), friends factors (influenced by deviant friends; to be accepted as group member), problems with family environment (lack of love and attention; poor role model; escaping pressure at home), weak of religiosity (no sense of sin and reward; poor religiosity role-model), forced to do it for money (force for own necessity; forced by debt), self-need (self-motivation; self-satisfaction), self-behavioural weakness (perceive oneself as a bad person; aggressive reaction; skill in pretending), and revenge (revenge with denial of victim; revenge with denial of injury).

Implications of the Study
Findings of this thesis may have several meaningful theoretical and practical implications. These vital implications are identified and discussed below.

Theoretical Implications
The emerging patterns of dissimilarities in parental and peer attachments identified among the Malay incarcerated juveniles reflect the influence of socio-environmental elements that govern their development progress. Taking into consideration that the development of individuals' self-behaviours is not static, and is influenced by socio-environmental factors, an appreciation of both social patterns and individual preferences concerning the interpersonal relationships between juveniles and their parents and peers, as well as family environment, would seem critical in understanding their attachment behaviours. Hence, it is worth noting that the attachment theory is of great value for practitioners (e.g., psychologists, social workers) as it provides a framework for understanding the relationship of children to their primary caregivers. As a system that conceptualises a young adult's emotional and social development, this theory can greatly enrich practice in early childhood and adolescence. Social workers and psychologists can help inmates develop their relationship skills by observing their attachment behaviours and by giving positive feedback to help them promote better relationship skills.
Evidence suggests that the application of the attachment theory to explain parental and peer attachment processes among Malay incarcerated juveniles was fitting, as the attachment theory posited by Ainsworth (1989) cuts across cultures. Both male and female participants had developed a propensity for stronger attachments with their peers. Juveniles who were in a YRC for the second time or more experienced a less caring and supportive environment with their parents. On the contrary, they sought and achieved a comfortable emotional environment with their peers. This finding contradicts the suggestion by Bowlby (1988) that individuals who experienced a shift of attachment from parents to peers will maintain their primary attachment to parents. As indicated by the findings of this thesis, participants who experienced a lack of maternal and paternal attachments would shift towards peer attachment. Furthermore, this shifting in attachment process seems to have a negative effect, in terms of learning and developing problematic behaviours, although on the other hand, it helped them in terms of physical, mental and emotional stabilities, at least based on their own perceptions.

The evidence presented, in sum, helps elucidate the attachment processes experienced by delinquent juveniles. Yet, this study is merely a beginning towards understanding attachment processes of juveniles within the Malay ethnic group. The attachment theory presented by Bowlby (1969, 1982, 1988) helped explain the innate strength of the individuals’ desire to develop intimate emotional bonds, which in turn shed light on the complex attachment behaviours of Malay incarcerated juveniles. In general, the Malay community is built upon the concept of the extended family, a complicated network of family systems that involve hierarchy and status. Within this system, many healthy and unhealthy intimate emotional bonds develop. Some might support and some might hinder children’s capacities to explore their environments. The development of healthy emotional bonds, and thus healthy attachment behaviours, are important for children to feel self-assured and self-competent in developing their positive behaviours as well as their future goals. On the whole, the findings of this thesis conclude that the attachment theory appears to be unsuccessful in explaining the broader criminological debate, specifically for the Malay incarcerated juvenile ethnic group, surrounding the influences of poor attachment and youth delinquency.
In conclusion by means of the attachment theory, although this thesis indicates that there is no significant relationship between mother attachment and father attachment with juvenile delinquency, it presents the experiences of the delinquents regarding the lack of pleasant and satisfactory mother-child and father-child attachments, as well as relationships with other people. In this manner, the attachment theory is extremely helpful for everyone working with youth rehabilitation institutions and social welfare institutions, teachers, and child care providers. It reminds us of the essential human needs that adults must provide for children. Children need adults to be reliable, to be available to show the way, and to be willing to help children learn to take care of themselves. This does not suggest "forced independence", but rather promotes the understanding that self-functions are one of the primary outcomes of good attachment. Children learn to take care of themselves only as well as they have been cared for (Bell, 1998). Attentive care fosters self-regard, self-protection and self-control. Having one’s needs met fosters a view of the world as responsive and caring, which in turn leads to self-regulation and a sense of equilibrium and wellbeing.

The second outcome of good attachment experience is a growing capacity to be related to others not only because they are useful, but also because caring and affection develop when the child’s needs are met. Eventually, this pattern of needs being met leads to the beginnings of empathy and a growing ability to act mutually, to care for others. On the broadest level, children need to know that they can be “attached” to the adults who are there with them. This type of attachment is not to be interpreted in the same way as we address the parenting relationship, but it does remind us that reliability and an attitude of patience and willingness to teach are crucial. Parents, teachers, YRC staff, childcare workers and neighbours, for example, need to know the concepts of attachment and to understand their importance as part of a larger community that is committed to raising our children. They must also be recognised for the critical work they do. Similarly, teachers can appreciate that within a curriculum that values reading and writing, there is opportunity to supplement children’s attachment strengths by being a good role model. Teachers also must have access to colleagues who can identify children’s needs and
difficulties and give guidance and support. It has to be noted that attachment behaviours related to frustration are rarely simple or easy to decode.

In YRCs, where children with attachment difficulties are often identified, it is important to remember that life histories are filtered through this primary experience of adult usefulness or absences. Children can grow up without good attachment experiences, but their deficits are related to the experience of having to learn alone and not being able to rely on others. Any intervention must include two essential components; (i) for at least a period of time, children must have a sense of caring as they learn about their lives, (ii) the adults must be active in helping them learn to function in ways that work better.

In sum, by applying the idea of ‘learning’, it is important to realise that attachment is primary learning that occurs through both our body and mind. It is the learning that the lucky children do early in life which they can easily utilise in subsequent tasks. It is the learning that many take as a given (Porter & Cole, 1997). Attachment theory offers a template for those who haven’t been able to ‘learn’ with their senses through early experience during childhood, and so must learn. If the community can regard this learning as critical, and can support its members charged with taking care of children, then we can develop increasingly better ways to help children attach to the larger human community and grow up able to care for themselves (i.e. mentally and behaviourally), and for others.

**Practical Implications**

The study of this thesis is certainly valuable in several ways. The insight gained from studying this incarcerated juveniles’ attachment processes may suggest several practical implications. Family environment, self-behaviour and religiosity present significant correlations with youth delinquency.

Results of this thesis showed that variability exists within the incarcerated juveniles’ attachment processes with their parents and peers, and the impact these processes have on their mental and emotional stabilities. Regardless of gender, these delinquent juveniles
were deeply affected by their parents’ and peers’ trust, communication styles, and feelings of alienation as they interacted with each other. Their predicament was provoked by the lack of understanding for their needs and interest as a child, particularly from parents, plus parents often blamed or dishonoured them in various way. In the author’s opinion, education programs on parenting certainly must be established, which specifically focuses on a parent’s responsibilities as educator in the family, and on the family as a healthy and strong institution, mainly in the aspects of cooperation and communication. The element of spirituality is also a main concern, therefore the sense of dignity in soul and attitude is a vital commitment by every family member. This could instil the feelings of responsibility to God, to oneself, to the family and to other people. Most importantly, education programs on parenting should be designed to help parents and children develop a sense of attachment and connectedness, while maintaining the importance of learning to live together harmoniously.

Staff of rehabilitation institutions should be more insightful of the relational dynamics involved while juveniles are living in the rehabilitation centre (i.e. away from parents). They should present themselves as good role models to the inmates. In other words, the staffs actually act as ‘mother’ or ‘father’ to the inmates. It would be beneficial if the staff were trained to be educators or advisors, who can provide strategic interventions to help inmates make a smooth transition from their homes to the YRC and back to their homes again, and develop a positive view towards themselves and the people surrounding them.

This research also extends the understanding of parental and peer relationship patterns within the cultural aspects of these delinquents’ lives. This insight is important to psychologists, criminologists and social workers, especially those who work with offenders and incarcerated juveniles, when making an assessment of these persons. Psychologists should be encouraged to be more sensitive to culturally related values and to understand the juveniles’ relational needs from their cultural perspectives. While working with delinquent juvenile attachment issues, psychologists or criminologists may be able to listen and intervene in a more balanced way. This can be achieved by recalling the juveniles’ histories of relational patterns with their parents, peers and the other people.
surrounding them. Individuals may be more aware of their relational patterns when they are able to notice the lack of harmony between their past and present relational histories and experiences.

Finally, results from this study can add to the body of knowledge within the realm of attachment theory and criminology. It can help enrich the knowledge base by examining the attachment theory from a multicultural perspective. Eventually, this can help individuals in the profession of assistance in addressing the issue of diversity within the attachment and relational dimensions of the offenders. By understanding the offender’s relational experiences and attachment patterns, therapists will be in a better position to provide effective service to their clients within the context of the client’s own frame of reference.

Comments on the Findings of the Thesis and Suggestions for Intervention

The findings of the studies identified several factors that were associated with the likelihood of juveniles committing delinquent acts. These factors are not new. It is equally as important to realise that there is no one single factor that acts alone. The problems of juvenile delinquency need to be addressed early as it could become more serious crimes in the later years. The findings of this thesis suggest that delinquent youths were found to come from family environments that were: more inconsistent in quality, poor in cohesion, lacking the sense of achievement and orientation for success, conflicting in household management, having more and unclear rules or commands, more likely to respond to family members on the basis of mood rather than the characteristics of the individual’s behaviour, less likely to monitor their children’s whereabouts, unresponsive to their children’s pro-social behaviour, and having poor moral-religious emphasis. Delinquents also suffered stress during their childhood years or are members of a family that did not show any commitment nor practise cooperation in making decisions on family matters. They might have experienced little support from family members to achieve success and victory in all activities, and lacked examples of moral discipline and behaviour by their parents or other family members. All in all, family environment seems to have an important influence on child delinquency. The findings of
this thesis also present a significant correlation between the participants' delinquency and their poor behavioural characteristics of consideration, conformity and insight. At this point, a juvenile could be seen as somebody who possesses an inaccurate self-understanding and is inactively engaged in efforts to cope with and solve personal problems. Weakness in insight is represented by characteristic of indecisiveness, making little effort towards resolving personal problems, and inaccurate self-knowledge. They are seen as people who are not interested in complying with accepted social conventions, laws, or established rules, and instead, tend towards lying, stealing and going against social or legal norms. From the viewpoint of the weaknesses in consideration, delinquents were accepted as not having the tendency to behave with politeness and tact, and to show kindness towards others. They are perceived to be callous, tactless, and/or lack social skills (e.g., Jesness, 1988). In the author's opinion, delinquents have persistent antisocial behaviours, which are associated with low achievement, problematical personal characteristics, and early progression along developmental pathways of antisocial behaviour during childhood and early adolescence. Consequently, these risky behavioural characteristics need to be recognised early by parents and significant others, and negated as soon as possible during childhood.

Additionally, the findings of this study suggest that the association between 'thinking' and 'behaving' bears the significance of mental representations. The findings also propose that the formation of insecure attachments relies on the quality of a child's thinking. Moreover, as explained by Bowlby (1969), key to the process of attachment formation is the way children learn to align their behaviours around the responses they get, and to adapt to the relationship environment in which they find themselves. This process is centred on the relationship with the primary caregiver, with the evaluation of self and others arising out of the quality of the care-giving behaviour, which becomes the framework for future appraisals and future behavioural responses (Bowlby, 1969). As the current findings generally conclude that interviewees who are humiliated, disrespected, and lack of love and attention often behaved in ways that provoked and perpetuated the rejection they most fear. By using the attachment theory, the links between thoughts and feeling are central to Bowlby's original model and have remained
at the heart of its development, since mental representations, as well as feelings, drive the internal working model and have some consequences on behaviour, although not directly on delinquent behaviour.

The finding of this thesis, generally, demands the need to clarify the factors that actually play a role in relation to delinquency. It has been observed that delinquent adolescents did not receive the parents support and emotional affection that they needed. They also experienced severe stress in their relationship with their parents. Thus, at this point, parents need to be educated about this fact so that they have a better understanding of the extent they should go in terms of trying to prevent their children from being involved in deviant behaviour. In order to do this, parenting skills training should be considered as one of the intervention strategy. By improving their parenting style, parents will have better understanding on how to relate to their children and carry out appropriate ways of not only in monitoring their children’s behaviour, but also in handling early, signs of undesirable behaviour in their children. Parenting programmes need to provide practical guidelines on how to parent their child better. In Malaysia, we either have not enough programmes that stress on parenting skills or the programmes offered are too theoretical in nature (Zaiton, 2002). Practical guidelines in parenting training programmes are necessary, and instead of preaching parents to be good parents it is knowing the know-how that is more appropriate.

In the author opinion, strategies for intervention and prevention are very much important and need to be looked at. Intervention will mean doing something to the adolescent or to the adolescent’s family after the adolescent has been identified to have demonstrated the problem behaviour. Intervention at this juncture will also be considered as secondary prevention as the objective of intervention in an adolescent with delinquent problems is also to prevent the chance of repetition and its progression towards more serious crimes. Thus, the delinquents need to be provided with regular counselling activities with the objective of increasing their self-worth. Work with the family through regular family therapy sessions with the delinquents is also recommended. The research literature (e.g., Bilchik, 1995; Falco, 1992; Kumpfer & Alvarado, 1997) contains numerous examples of
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effective programs that target aggressive and violent youth. Many of these programs are family interventions for the prevention of delinquency and drug abuse (Kumpfer, 1993a, 1997; Kumpfer & Alvarado, 1995). Improving parenting practices and the family environment is the most effective and enduring strategy for reducing juvenile delinquency and associated behavioral and emotional problems (Bry, Greene, Schutte, & Fishman, 1991; Szapocznik, 1997). It appears that strengthening families is a key strategy to the effort to significantly reduce delinquency. Therefore, strengthening the ability of families to raise children to be law abiding and productive citizens should be one of the most critical public policy and social issues in Malaysia.

The delinquents will need to feel accepted again, not just by the society but more so by their immediate families. These can sometimes be difficult especially if the family of origin have not changed in their ways of relating to their children or have already formed a permanent negative perception towards their delinquent children. Helping this delinquent work towards independence with self-worth and to be able to find a reasonable job once discharged from the YRC should be the target, even if their families continue to reject them. Furthermore, what is more important is to work towards primary prevention, meaning having pro-active programs designed to reduce the incidence or the onset of delinquent behaviour amongst juveniles. We need to work and concentrate on concrete and achievable steps. As a suggestion, this could include having parent training programmes to teach them what goes into effective parenting, what it takes to develop and enhance healthy social bonds to the family, so that children are less likely to associate themselves with delinquent peers and also less likely to be influenced to commit delinquent acts.

It is essential for delinquent prevention programs to reinforce the parent-child and family bonds as a means of preventing delinquent behaviour. One way of reinforcing the family relationship is to decrease risk factors and increase protective factors for delinquent behaviour through parent-child training and family strengthening programs. These programs could address important family protective factors, such as parental supervision and attachment, and consistency of good discipline. The intervention should include a
broad range of support services for parents and children, as well as for siblings. Parents and other family members should be educated on the socio-emotional, intellectual, and physical aspects of child development in the interest of their delinquent family member; receive training in home management; and become familiar with community resources. In addition, several of the most important family risk factors, such as poor cohesion, lack of supervision, excessive family conflict, family isolation, poor socialisation, weak achievement orientation and brittle moral-religious emphasis must be made the centre of attention. More scientific research regarding family environment and attachment has to be conducted. Family training programs should concentrate on teaching family members, and showing prospective parents the application of effective management skills. Programs should be designed to help family members learn to recognise both pro-social and antisocial behaviours, to employ learning techniques (e.g., positive reinforcement, disregard, distraction, punishment), to improve the problem-solving skills of the family, to set a goal to be a successful person, and to practice positive moral-religious discipline. Family-parenting training can be beneficial even during pregnancy and early childhood, since parenting skills learned early can have positive effects as the child matures (Howell, 1995). With the aim for success, family training sessions can take place in diverse settings (e.g. schools, community centres, religious institutions, workplaces or even at home with self-instructional programs), using various types of approaches.

Furthermore, it is suggested that family education programs are very important as it could raise an awareness of good parenting practices and family relationships, better ways to discipline children, how to recognise if a child is abusing drugs or alcohol, and other warning signs of delinquent behaviour. Programs could consist of brochures, feature articles in newspapers and magazines, and other print media; videotapes; or TV programs. In addition to general media information, schools, workplaces, religious institutions or community organisations could offer general parental and family education information. This suggestion is based upon the findings by a number of researchers that family training helps reduce aggressive, antisocial and delinquent behaviours among children (e.g., Dumas, 1989; Tremblay, McCord, Boileau, Charlebois, Gagnon, LeBlanc & Larivee, 1991; Tremblay, Vitaro, Bertrand, LeBlanc, Beauchesne, Boileau & David,
1992; Kazdin, Siegel & Bass, 1992), and that positive family relationships are related to more harmonious sibling relationships (e.g., Teti & Ablard, 1989; Belsky, 1992). On top of that, in managing juvenile delinquency, consideration must be given to the programs designed to prevent delinquency at the individual and societal level. School, for example, could provide students with knowledge about morals and educate them on the bad implications of unlawful acts on themselves.

Although John Bowlby began his work on attachment theory over fifty years ago, there are still varying ideas about how one approaches psychotherapy from an attachment perspective (Sonkin & Dutton, 2003). Unlike most clinical theories, attachment theory has had the benefit of more than forty years of empirical research before discussions even began on the clinical applications to adult psychotherapy. So as the clinical application of this theory evolves, clinicians will have at their disposal a continually growing body of empirical data that will hopefully meld with clinical experience. Through a positive attachment between clinicians and academics, the application of this theory will unfold in the years to come (Sonkin et al., 2003).

Furthermore, children, who develop healthy trusting relationship with their parents and family, are also more likely to have increased self-esteem. These can be further enhanced by having parents with good role modelling behaviours, especially in their problem solving skills. Programmes organised for parents should be behaviourally oriented. Such parent training programmes should stress on communication skills and behaviour management skills since these types of programmes have somehow shown some promise (e.g., Kumpfer, 1997). In addition, school and especially teachers could play on equally important role, as they act as surrogate parents. The social bond of an adolescent to the school should be enhanced in a similar way that programmes are provided for parents, i.e., by helping teachers to have satisfactory and healthy communication, and effective behaviour management skills. This is in addition to their usual role of ensuring the children achieve satisfactory academic results. To achieve this, the teachers should have proactive classroom management, interactive teaching and cooperative learning with their students.
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After all, much more effort needs to be placed by government and/or other related agencies on evaluating what prevention programs work best with what population. In brief, what is clear here is that delinquency is a social disease and not a physical disease. This is because the causes of delinquency are inseparable from the causes of other problems, they are multiple rather than single, and they are also often entangled in complex organisational concerns.

Suggestions for Future Research

The study of attachment theory among juveniles could offer worthy information about the different ways in which attachment behaviours are displayed among Asian juveniles. Their patterns of relational histories with significant others could provide a basic understanding of their present relational behaviours. In view of the findings and limitations mentioned in the study, the following recommendations are suggested for future research:

i. Determine whether the findings obtained for this incarcerated youth group as well as findings from high school students (the control group) can be generalised to groups that are more culturally diverse. Future research should be directed to addressing methodological limitations of this study. As the incarcerated juveniles are those who have been confirmed of conducting delinquency or crime, they might have a greater interest to investigate non-incarcerated children that seem likely to commit delinquent acts but have freedom in community. It is also interesting to conduct a study on delinquent behaviour in specific groups of children between the ages of 10 to 14 years. Within this scenario, the future researcher could gain great understanding in parent-child attachments and uncover concrete reasons for such crimes being committed. Furthermore, they might have a greater ability to analyse the socio-environmental dynamics that influenced their parental and/or peer attachments.

ii. Longitudinal research that periodically assesses the high-risk behavioural problems regarding children’s self-behaviour, family environments and attachments, religious practices, and peer attachments, plus indices of socio-cultural milieu, could be improved to understand juvenile delinquency.
iii. Future research is needed to re-examine the differing impacts mothers and fathers have, especially on attachment styles, by using dimensional measurements. Interviews conducted in this study clarify issues pertaining to mother-child and father-child relationships that promote or hinder parental attachment, although no obvious differences could be said to have been observed in the current thesis. Studies on attachment and delinquency among Malaysian youths, in addition, should be conducted within other ethnic groups as well (e.g., Indian and Chinese) and comparison should be made between the three main ethnic groups in Malaysia. Therefore, a rich collection of data and explanations can be established from the Malaysian perspective.
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300
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APPENDIX A

Distribution of Variables Coded from the Juvenile Files and List of the Sources
### Table 2: List of Variables and Sources Recorded from Juvenile Files

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inmates Profile</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>YRC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Numbers of Times Admitted to a YRC</td>
<td>YRC &amp; Police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offences</td>
<td>YRC, Police &amp; Court</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guardianship</td>
<td>YRC &amp; Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Level</td>
<td>YRC &amp; Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Antisocial Behaviour</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol abuse</td>
<td>Social worker &amp; YRC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual activities</td>
<td>Social worker &amp; YRC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sniffing glue</td>
<td>Social worker &amp; YRC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking ecstasy pill</td>
<td>Social worker &amp; YRC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug abuse</td>
<td>Social worker &amp; YRC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shoplifting</td>
<td>Social worker &amp; YRC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illegal motorbike racing</td>
<td>Social worker &amp; YRC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bullying</td>
<td>Social worker &amp; YRC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Parent Background Characteristic</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychiatric history</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imprisonment</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violent to children</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Violent to each other</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commit crime</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents alcohol abuse</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents drug abuse</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Parent-child Relationship Characteristic</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncaring mother</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncaring father</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad relationship with mother</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad relationship with father</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of intimate communication</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of joint activity</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of parental supervision</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of parental warmth</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Behavioural Characteristic</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stubborn</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aggressive</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Troublesome</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spend most of the day with friends</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spend time away from home at night with friends</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
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</table>

- continue -
### APPENDIX A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lack of cooperativeness</th>
<th>Social worker</th>
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<tr>
<td>Lack of goal/future expectation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lack of hobby</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
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**Schooling Characteristic**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Poor academic performance</th>
<th>Social worker</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Truancy</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inability in friendships</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not interested in academic and schooling</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School discipline problems</td>
<td>Social worker</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: YRC - Youth Rehabilitation Centre
APPENDIX B

Questionnaires of Study 2
The Interview Guide of Study 2
The Study of Attachment

You are invited to take part in a study of attachment. Affizal Ahmad, who is studying for a PhD at the University of Surrey in England, is conducting this research.

This research will investigate attachment patterns among adolescent. The researcher believes that adolescent's development and behaviour is not only determined by their innate characteristics, but also by their relationship with others, particularly their parents and peers. Findings from this study may impact at both a theoretical and practical value.

Confidentiality: All information will be kept in strict confidence. No one outside the research team will see any of the information.

Please ask if you have any questions. If you decide you would like to take part, then please sign the consent form below. Your cooperation is very important for this study.

Thank you.

****************************************

Consent Form
(To be completed by participant)

This is to certify that I am willing to participate in the present study conducted by Affizal Ahmad. I understand that the present study aims at investigating interpersonal relationship between child-parent and child-peers. I am aware that the data that I am going to contribute will be treated confidentially, they will not affect my sentence and future psychological reports.

Participant Registration No. : ________________________________

Signature of Participant : ________________________________

Date : ________________________________

Signature of Researcher : ________________________________

Date : ________________________________
Please complete the following details. Tick [ / ] your answer in the column provided.

1. Gender:  
   - Male [ ]  
   - Female [ ]

2. Age:  
   - 15 years old [ ]  
   - 16 years old [ ]  
   - 17 years old [ ]  
   - 18 years old [ ]

3. Before admitted to this school, who is your guardian?  
   - Both parents [ ]  
   - Mother & Stepfather [ ]  
   - Father & Stepmother [ ]  
   - Mother only [ ]  
   - Father only [ ]

4. Please estimate your family total income:  
   - Less than RM500 [ ]  
   - RM501 to RM1,000 [ ]  
   - RM1,001 to RM1,800 [ ]  
   - If more than RM1,800, please specify: RM [ ]

5. Number of times admitted to the youth rehabilitation centre (including this school):  
   - First time [ ]  
   - Second times [ ]  
   - More than second times [ ]

6. Status before admitted to this school:  
   - Schooling [ ]  
   - Working [ ]  
   - Unemployed [ ]

Researcher's note: Juvenile’s offence (based on Personal Official Record): [ ]

Research on attachment indicates that we always seek attachment bonds with someone significant in our life. These bonds developed as an attachment patterns that is constantly being reorganized and restructured which in turns will enable us to maintain a balance in our well being. Statements below indicate some of the attachment issues that might strengthen or weaken the attachment bonds between you, your parents, and your close friend. When responding to these statements, please associate each statement with your mother, father and peers who most influenced you. On the scale of 1 to 5 ('Never True' to 'Always True'), please circle the appropriate number that indicates your feeling towards each statement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Never true</th>
<th>Seldom true</th>
<th>Sometimes true</th>
<th>Often true</th>
<th>Always true</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. My mother respects my feeling.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I feel that my mother is successful as parents.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I wish I had different mother.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. My mother accepts me as I am.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I can rely on my mother when I have a problem to solve.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I like to get my mother point of view on things I am concerned about.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I feel it is no use letting my feelings show around my mother.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. My mother sense when I am upset about</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
9. Talking over my problems with my mother makes me feel ashamed or foolish.
10. My mother expects too much from me.
11. I get myself upset with my mother at home.
12. I get upset a lot more than my mother knows about.
13. When we discuss things, my mother considers my point of view.
14. My mother trusts my judgement.
15. My mother has their own problems, so I don’t bother them with mine.
16. My mother helps me to understand myself better.
17. I tell my mother about my problems and trouble.
18. I feel angry with my mother.
19. I don’t get much attention by my mother at home.
20. My mother encourages me to talk about my difficulties.
21. My mother understands me.
22. I don’t know if I can depend on my mother these days.
23. When I am angry about something, my mother tries to be understanding.
24. I trust my mother.
25. My mother doesn’t understand what I am going through these days.
26. I can count on my mother when I need to get something off my chest.
27. I feel that my mother doesn’t understand me.
28. If my mother knows something is bothering me, they ask me about it.
29. My father respects my feeling.
30. I feel that my father is successful as parents.
31. I wish I had different parents.
32. My father accepts me as I am.
33. I can rely on my father when I have a problem to solve.
34. I like to get my father’s point of view on things I am concerned about.
35. I feel it is no use letting my feelings show around my father.
36. My father senses when I am upset about something.
37. Talking over my problems with my mother makes me feel ashamed or foolish.
| 38. | My father expects too much from me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 39. | I get myself upset with my father at home. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 40. | I get upset a lot more than my father knows about. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 41. | When we discuss things, my father considers my point of view. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 42. | My father trusts my judgement. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 43. | My father has their own problems, so I don't bother them with mine. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 44. | My father helps me to understand myself better. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 45. | I tell my father about my problems and trouble. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 46. | I feel angry with my father. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 47. | I don't get much attention by my father at home. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 48. | My father encourages me to talk about my difficulties. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 49. | My father understands me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 50. | I don't know if I can depend on my father these days. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 51. | When I am angry about something, my father tries to be understanding. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 52. | I trust my father. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 53. | My father doesn't understand what I am going through these days. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 54. | I can count on my father when I need to get something off my chest. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 55. | I feel that my father doesn't understand me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 56. | If my father knows something is bothering me, they ask me about it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 57. | I like to get my friends' point of views on things I am concerned about. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 58. | My friends sense when I am upset about something. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 59. | When we discuss things, my friends consider my point of view. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 60. | Talking over my problems with my friends makes me feel ashamed or foolish. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 61. | I wish I had different friends. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 62. | My friends understand me. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 63. | My friends encourage me to talk about my difficulties. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 64. | My friends see me as I am. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 65. | I feel the need to be in touch with my friends more often. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 66. | My friends don't understand what I am going through these days. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
APPENDIX B

<p>| | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>67. I feel alone or apart when I am with my friends.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>68. My friends listen to what I have to say.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>69. I feel that my friends are good friends.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70. My friends are fairly easy to talk to.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71. When I am angry about something, my friends try to be understanding.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72. My friends help me to understand myself better.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73. My friends are concerned about my well being.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74. I feel angry with my friends.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75. I can count on my friends when I need to get something off my best.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76. I trust my friends.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>77. My friends respect my feelings.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>78. I get upset a lot more than my friends know about.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>79. It seems as if my friends are irritated with me for no reason.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80. I tell my friends about my problems and troubles.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81. If my friends know something is bothering me, they ask me about it.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please answer the last questions sincerely.

Before admitted to this school, who were your friends?

Please tick [ ] your answer in the column provided. You may tick more than one statement that describes your previous friends. You can underline the offence(s) if you know.

a. People not known to be involved in antisocial activities (never being incurred of school discipline action, or involved in any bad behaviour, either physically or verbally).

b. People who involved in antisocial behaviours such as smoking cigarette, alcohol abuse or free sexual activities.

c. People who involved with minor crime such as theft, vandalism, traffic offences, drug abuse, sniffing glue or illegal motorbike racing.

d. People who involved with major crime such as rape, sexual assault, robbery, burglary, drug trafficking, possession of fire arm, physical assault or murder.

Thank You

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APPENDIX B

The Interview Guide

Questions Concerning Parents

1. Can you tell something about your family in particular about your mother/father, their educational background, where they are working, the number of your siblings and anything that you think I should know about your family?

2. What are the factors that you think make them a better/worst mother/father?

3. How do you describe your feelings towards your mother/father?

4. How do you communicate with your mother/father before, as well as after you came to this ‘school’?

5. How do you describe your mother/father expectation of you academically, socially, emotionally and physically?

6. What type of personal issues do you discuss with your mother/father?

7. Do you think they understand what you are going through at the moment? Why?

8. Do your mother/father encourage you to discuss your personal issues or ideas with them? Why?

9. Do you feel comfortable discussing the issues with your mother/father? Why?

10. How do you describe your level of trust toward your mother/father?

11. What do you think your mother/father level of trust towards you? Why?

12. When you were at home, do you do things together with your family especially your mother/father? What sort of activities do you do together?

13. When you are upset or angry, how does your mother/father response to those reactions?

14. What was your expectation toward your mother/father?

15. Do you feel that you relate to your mother better than your father or vice versa before you came to this ‘school’?

Questions Concerning Friends

1. Can you tell something about your close friends, in particular your close friends before entering this ‘school’? Who he or she was? Were your close friends living in the same housing area, village, or from the same school? Tell me anything that I should know about your close friends.

2. What are the factors that you think make them a better/worst friend?

3. How do you describe your feelings towards your friends?

4. How do you communicate with your friends before as well as after you came to this ‘school’?

5. How do you describe your friends’ expectation of you academically, socially, emotionally and physically?

6. What type of personal issues do you discuss with your friends?

7. Do you think they understand what you have gone through? Why?

8. Do your friends encourage you to discuss your personal issues or ideas with them? Why?

9. Do you feel comfortable discussing the issues with them? Why?

10. How do you describe your level of trust towards your friends?

11. What do you think their level of trust towards you? Why?

12. Before you come to this ‘school’, do you do things together with your friends? What sort of activities do you do together?

13. When you are upset or angry, how does your friends’ response to those reactions?

14. What was your expectation toward your friends?

15. Do you feel that you relate to your parents better than your friends or vice versa before you came to this ‘school’?
Kajian Perapatan

Anda dijemput untuk mengambil bahagian di dalam kajian 'perapatan'. Kajian ini dikendalikan oleh Affizal Ahmad, penuntut Doktor Falsafah dari University of Surrey, England.

Kajian ini akan mengenalpasti pola perapatan di kalangan remaja. Pengkaji percaya bahawa perkembangan dan tingkahlaku remaja bukan hanya ditentukan oleh sifat-sifat semulajadinya, tetapi juga disebabkan oleh hubungannya dengan orang lain, terutama ibubapa dan rakan-rakan. Dapatan kajian ini dapat memberi sumbangan dari sudut teoritikal dan praktikal.

Kerahsiaan: Semua maklumat anda akan dirahsiakan. Tidak ada sesiapa di luar dari kajian ini yang akan melihat maklumat yang anda beri.


Terima Kasih

**************************************************

Borang Akuan
(Untuk diisi oleh peserta)

Saya mengakui bahawa saya setuju untuk mengambil bahagian dalam penyelidikan yang dikendalikan oleh Affizal Ahmad. Saya faham bahawa tujuan penyelidikan ini ialah untuk mengenalpasti hubungan di antara anak-ibubapa dan anak-rakan. Saya faham bahawa maklumat yang saya beri akan dirahsiakan, dan ianya tidak akan memberi kesan pada hukuman dan laporan peribadi saya.

Nombor Pendaftaran Pelatih : 

Tandatangan Pelatih : 

Tarikh : 

Tandatangan Penyelidik : 

Tarikh : 
APPENDIX B

Sila lengkapkan perkara berikut. Tandakan [ ] pada kenyataan yang betul.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Jantina:</th>
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<td>Lelaki [ ] Perempuan [ ]</td>
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<th></th>
<th>Umur:</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15 tahun [ ] 16 tahun [ ] 17 tahun [ ] 18 tahun [ ]</td>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sebelum memasuki sekolah ini, siapakah penjaga anda:</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ibubapa [ ] Ibu &amp; Bapatiri [ ] Bapa &amp; Ibutiri [ ]</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Ibu sahaja [ ] Bapa sahaja [ ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<th>Sila beri anggaran kasar jumlah pendapatan keluarga anda:</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kurang dari RM500 [ ] RM501 to RM1,000 [ ] RM1,001 to RM1,800 [ ]</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Jika lebih dari RM1,800, sila nyatakan: RM___</td>
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<tr>
<th></th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kali pertama [ ] Kali kedua [ ] Lebih dari dua kali [ ]</td>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Status anda sebelum memasuki sekolah ini:</th>
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<td></td>
<td>Bersekolah [ ] Bekerja [ ] Menggangur [ ]</td>
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</table>

Nota Penkaji: Kesalahan Pelatih (berdasarkan Rekod Rasmi Pelatih):


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1. Ibu saya menghormati perasaan saya.</th>
<th>2. Saya merasakan ibu saya telah berjaya memainkan peranan ibubapa.</th>
<th>3. Kalau boleh, saya ingin mempunyai ibu yang berbeza.</th>
<th>4. Ibu saya menerima saya seperti diri saya seadanya.</th>
<th>5. Saya boleh bergantung pada ibu saya apabila saya ada masalah untuk diselesaikan.</th>
<th>6. Saya suka mendapatkan pandangan ibu saya</th>
</tr>
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</tbody>
</table>
terhadap sesuatu perkara yang sangat penting saya rasakan.

7. Saya rasakan tiada gunanya saya menunjuk-
nunjukkan perasaan saya pada ibu saya.  
8. Ibu saya dapat merasakan apabila saya marah terhadap sesuatu perkara.  
10. Ibu saya terlalu berharap kepada saya.  
11. Saya mudah merasa marah dengan ibu ketika berada di rumah.  
12. Saya merasa marah lebih banyak daripada apa yang ibu saya ketahui.  
13. Bila kami berbincang sesuatu perkara, ibu saya akan mempertimbangkan pandangan saya.  
15. Ibu saya mempunyai masalahnya sendiri, jadi saya tidak memperdulikan masalahnya.  
16. Ibu saya membantu saya mengenali diri saya sendiri dengan lebih baik.  
17. Saya memberitahu ibu mengenai masalah dan kesusahan saya.  
18. Saya berasa marah terhadap ibu saya.  
19. Saya tidak mendapat perhatian yang banyak dari ibu di rumah.  
22. Saya tidak tahu samada saya boleh bergantung dengan ibu sekarang.  
23. Apabila saya marah terhadap sesuatu perkara, ibu saya cuba untuk memahaminya.  
25. Ibu saya tidak memahami apa yang saya alami selama ini.  
26. Saya boleh bergantung kepada ibu apabila saya ingin menghilangkan sesuatu yang terbuku di dada.  
27. Saya rasakan ibu saya tidak memahami saya.  
28. Sekiranya ibu saya mengetahui sesuatu mengganggu fikiran saya, dia akan bertanya saya mengenai perkara tersebut.  
29. Bapa saya menghormati perasaan saya.  
30. Saya merasakan bapa saya telah berjaya memainkan peranannya sebagai ibubapa.  
31. Kalau boleh, saya ingin mempunyai bapa yang berbeza.  
32. Bapa saya menerima saya seperti diri saya sedannya.  
33. Saya boleh bergantung pada bapa saya apabila
APPENDIX B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>Saya suka mendapatkan pandangan bapa saya terhadap sesuatu perkara yang sangat penting saya rasakan.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>Saya rasakan tiada gunanya saya menunjukkan-nunjukkan perasaan saya pada bapa saya.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>Bapa saya dapat merasakan apabila saya marah terhadap sesuatu perkara.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>Menceritakan masalah saya kepada bapa membuatkan saya rasa malu dan bodoh.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>Bapa saya terlalu berharap kepada saya.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>Saya mudah merasa marah dengan bapa ketika berada di rumah.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>Saya merasa marah lebih banyak daripada apa yang bapa saya ketahui.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>Bila kami berbincang sesuatu perkara, bapa saya akan mempertimbangkan pandangan saya.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>Bapa saya menyakini keputusan saya.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>Bapa saya mempunyai masalahnya sendiri, jadi saya tidak memperdulikan masalahnya.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>Bapa saya membantu saya mengenali diri saya sendiri dengan lebih baik.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>Saya memberitahu bapa mengenai masalah dan kesusahan saya.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>Saya berasa marah terhadap bapa saya.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>Saya tidak mendapat perhatian yang banyak dari bapa di rumah.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>Bapa saya menggalakkan saya bercakap mengenai kesusahan-kesusahan saya.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>Bapa saya memahami diri saya.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>Saya tidak tahu samada saya boleh bergantung dengan bapa sekarang.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>Apabila saya marah terhadap sesuatu perkara, bapa saya cuba untuk memahaminya.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>Saya mempercayai bapa saya.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53</td>
<td>Bapa saya tidak memahami apa yang saya alami selama ini.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54</td>
<td>Saya boleh bergantung kepada bapa apabila saya ingin menghilangkan sesuatu yang terbuku di dada.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55</td>
<td>Saya rasakan bapa saya tidak memahami saya.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56</td>
<td>Sekiranya bapa saya mengetahui sesuatu mengganggu fikiran saya, dia akan bertanya saya mengenai perkara tersebut.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57</td>
<td>Saya suka mendapatkan pandangan kawan-kawan saya terhadap sesuatu perkara yang penting saya rasakan.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58</td>
<td>Kawan-kawan saya peka apabila saya merasa sedih terhadap sesuatu perkara.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX B

59. Apabila kami membincangkan sesuatu perkara, kawan-kawan saya memberi pertimbangan pada pandangan saya.  1  2  3  4  5

60. Menceritakan masalah saya kepada kawan-kawan membuatkan saya rasa malu dan bodoh.  1  2  3  4  5

61. Kalau boleh, saya ingin mempunyai kawan-kawan yang berbeza.  1  2  3  4  5

62. Kawan-kawan saya memahami saya.  1  2  3  4  5

63. Kawan-kawan menggalakkan saya bercakap mengenai kesusahan-kesusahan saya.  1  2  3  4  5

64. Kawan-kawan melihat saya seperti diri saya seadanya.  1  2  3  4  5

65. Saya merasa ingin untuk lebih kerap bersama kawan-kawan saya.  1  2  3  4  5

66. Kawan-kawan saya tidak memahami apa yang saya alami selama ini.  1  2  3  4  5

67. Saya merasa tersendiri atau tersisih apabila saya bersama kawan-kawan saya.  1  2  3  4  5

68. Kawan-kawan saya mendengar apa yang hendak saya katakan.  1  2  3  4  5

69. Saya rasakan bahawa kawan-kawan saya adalah kawan yang baik.  1  2  3  4  5

70. Kawan-kawan saya adalah orang yang mudah untuk diajak bercakap.  1  2  3  4  5

71. Apabila saya merasa marah terhadap sesuatu, kawan-kawan cuba untuk memahaminya.  1  2  3  4  5

72. Kawan-kawan saya membantu saya mengenali diri saya sendiri dengan lebih baik.  1  2  3  4  5

73. Kawan-kawan saya mengambilberat mengenai kesejahteraan saya.  1  2  3  4  5

74. Saya rasa marah dengan kawan-kawan saya.  1  2  3  4  5

75. Saya boleh bergantung kepada kawan-kawan saya apabila saya ingin menghilangkan sesuatu yang terbuku di dada.  1  2  3  4  5

76. Saya mempercayai kawan-kawan saya.  1  2  3  4  5

77. Kawan-kawan menghormati perasaan saya.  1  2  3  4  5

78. Saya merasa marah lebih banyak daripada apa yang kawan-kawan saya ketahui.  1  2  3  4  5

79. Ianya kelihatan seperti kawan-kawan saya marah pada saya tanpa sebarang sebab.  1  2  3  4  5

80. Saya memberitahu kawan-kawan saya mengenai masalah dan kesusahan saya.  1  2  3  4  5

81. Sekiranya kawan-kawan saya mengetahui sesuatu mengganggu fikiran saya, mereka akan bertanya saya mengenai perkara itu.  1  2  3  4  5
Sila jawab soalan terakhir ini dengan jujur

**Sebelum memasuki sekolah ini, siapakah kawan-kawan anda?**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Orang yang baik (tidak pernah dikenakan tindakan tatatertib di sekolah, atau terlibat dengan apa sahaja tingkahlaku yang buruk, samada secara fizikal atau bahasa).</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Orang yang terlibat dengan tingkahlaku antisosial seperti merokok, minum arak atau aktiviti seks bebas.</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Orang yang terlibat dengan jenayah kecil seperti mencuri, merosakkan harta benda awam, melanggar undang-undang lalulintas, mengambil dadah, menghidu gam atau lumba haram.</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Orang yang terlibat dengan jenayah berat seperti merogol, keganasan seksual, menyamun, merompak, mengedar dadah, memiliki senjata api, keganasan fizikal atau membunuh.</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pastikan anda telah menjawab semua soalan

TERIMA KASIH
APPENDIX B

Panduan Interview

**Soalan berkaitan Ibubapa**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Soalan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Boleh jelaskan pada saya sesuatu mengenai keluarga anda terutama mengenai ibu/bapa anda, latar belakang pendidikan mereka, di mana mereka bekerja, bilangan adik-beradik, atau apa saja yang anda rasa saya perlu ketahui mengenai diri anda?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Apakah faktor-faktor yang anda fikir, menjadikan mereka ibu/bapa yang baik atau buruk?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Bagaimana anda menjelasa perasaan anda terhadap ibu/bapa anda?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Bagaimana anda berkongsi dengan ibu/bapa sebelum dan selepas datang ke sekolah ini?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Bagaimana anda menjelaskan jangkaan atau keinginan ibu/bapa anda terhadap pelajaran, kehidupan sosial, perasaan dan fizikal anda?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Apakah isu-isu peribadi yang anda bincang dengan ibu/bapa?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Adakah anda fikir mereka faham perkara yang sedang anda hadapi ketika ini? Kenapa?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Adakah ibu/bapa anda menyokong anda untuk berbincang masalah peribadi atau idea-idea anda dengan mereka? Kenapa?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Adakah anda merasa selesa membincangkan isu-isu itu dengan ibu/bapa anda? Kenapa?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Bagaimana anda menarikan tahap kepercayaan anda terhadap ibu/bapa anda?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Apa yang anda fakir mengenai tahap kepercayaan ibu/bapa anda terhadap anda? Kenapa?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Apabila anda di rumah, adakah anda melakukan sesuatu bersama dengan ahli keluarga, terutama ibu/bapa anda? Apakah aktiviti-aktiviti yang anda lakukan bersama?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Apabila anda sedih atau marah, bagaimana reaksi ibu/bapa terhadap anda?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Apakah jangkaan atau keinginan anda terhadap ibu/bapa anda?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Adakah anda rasa hubungan anda dengan ibu adalah lebih baik daripada bapa, atau sebaliknya, sebelum datang ke sekolah ini?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Soalan berkaitan kawan-kawan**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Soalan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Apakah faktor yang anda fakir membuatkan mereka itu kawan yang baik atau buruk?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Bagaimana anda menjelaskan perasaan anda terhadap kawan-kawan anda?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Bagaimana anda berkongsi dengan kawan-kawan sebelum dan selepas anda datang ke sekolah ini?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Bagaimana anda menjelaskan jangkaan atau keinginan kawan-kawan anda terhadap pelajaran, kehidupan sosial, emosi dan fizikal anda?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Apakah jenis isu-isu peribadi yang anda bincang dengan kawan-kawan anda?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Adakah anda fikir mereka faham apa yang sedang anda lalui ketika ini? Kenapa?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Adakah kawan-kawan anda memerlukan sokongan anda untuk membincangkan isu-isu peribadi atau idea-idea anda dengan mereka? Kenapa?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Adakah anda merasa selesa membincangkan isu-isu itu dengan mereka? Kenapa?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Bagaimana anda menjelaskan tahap kepercayaan anda terhadap kawan-kawan anda?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Apakah yang anda fikir tentang tahap kepercayaan mereka terhadap anda? Kenapa?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Sebelum datang ke sekolah ini, adakah anda melakukan sesuatu perkara itu bersama-sama kawan-kawan anda? Apakah jenis aktiviti yang anda lakukan bersama?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Bila anda sedih atau marah, bagaimana reaksi kawan-kawan anda terhadap perasaan anda?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Apakah jangkaan atau keinginan anda terhadap kawan-kawan anda?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Adakah anda fikir hubungan anda dengan kawan lebih baik daripada ibubah atau sebaliknya sebelum anda memasuki sekolah ini?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX C

Questionnaires of Study 3

Note:
1. The same questionnaires were used for adolescent, either in the youth rehabilitation centre or high school, except some of the words have been altered to suit the respondents situation.
2. The Consent Form used in Study 3 is the same as used in Study 2.
3. Refer IPPA questionnaire in Appendix B.
4. Refer Friendship Categories question in Appendix B.
Perceptions of Parental Attachment and Individual Behaviour

You are invited to take part in a study of attachment behaviour. Affizal Ahmad, who is studying for a PhD at the University of Surrey in England, is conducting this research.

The purpose of the study:
The aim of the parent-child attachment study is to better understand which factors influence adolescence to behave in different ways. The study focuses on a variety of different experiences and environments that adolescents have, including relationships with parent and family. In this study, the researcher is interested in the way you think and feel about your parent and family attachment in general, and your behaviour in particular. These thoughts and feelings may show some finding of general adolescence ways of behaviour.

Through the help of around 200 adolescence like yours, the researcher will explore the different environments, relationships, and attitudes in different adolescents, and see how these may be associated with adolescence’s behaviours.

What you will be asked to do:
You will be given a set of questionnaire to be completed. There is no right or wrong answer. The researcher is only interested in the way you think and feel about you yourself, your parent and family attachment in general.

Confidentiality:
You may be anxious that what you say will be shared with others. Your responses will be kept strictly confidential. This means that what you marked will not be passed on to anyone outside the study, including the prison officers, house teacher or counsellor in this school. In the records, the researcher will use a registration number instead of your name. In reports of the study, the researcher will combine the information from everyone, so that it will be impossible to identify individuals.

Benefits:
The study is part of a research project and not a counselling session. However, you may find you learn something about yourself through answering the questionnaire. You will also have the satisfaction of knowing that you have helped to make a difference for future children and parent attachment needs.

Please ask if you have any questions. If you decide you would like to take part, then please sign the consent form on the next page.

Thank you.
# APPENDIX C

## Personal Data

**Instructions:** Tick (/) the appropriate answer, or write the answer in each question.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>14 year-old [ ] 15 year-old [ ] 16 year-old [ ] 17 year-old [ ] 18 year-old [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male [ ] Female [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of times admitted to this school</td>
<td>1st time [ ] 2nd times [ ] 3rd times &amp; more [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of times admitted to other rehabilitation schools</td>
<td>1st time [ ] 2nd times [ ] 3rd times &amp; more [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you live with both parents?</td>
<td>Yes [ ] No [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If no, describe why?</td>
<td>__________________</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you live with mother only?</td>
<td>Yes [ ] No [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Since what age</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you live with father only?</td>
<td>Yes [ ] No [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Since what age</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you live with mother &amp; stepfather?</td>
<td>Yes [ ] No [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Since what age</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did you live with father &amp; stepmother?</td>
<td>Yes [ ] No [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Since what age</td>
<td>______</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of siblings</td>
<td>______ You are no. [ ] in the family.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother/stepmother working</td>
<td>Yes [ ] No [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If working, her monthly income is</td>
<td>Less than RM500 [ ] RM501 to RM1,000 [ ] RM1,001 to RM2,000 [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father/stepfather working</td>
<td>Yes [ ] No [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If working, his monthly income is</td>
<td>Less than RM500 [ ] RM501 to RM1,000 [ ] RM1,001 to RM2,000 [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Before arrested, were you</td>
<td>Schooling [ ] Working [ ] Unemployed [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest level of school achieved</td>
<td>__________________</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Researcher's note:** Juvenile's offence (based on Personal Official Record): ______

333
Instructions: Following are descriptions of three general parent-child relationship styles. Please read each description and circle the letter corresponding to the style that best describes you or is closest to the way you generally are in your parental close relationship.

Relationship With Your Mother

A. I often find that my mother does not want to get as close as I would like her to be. I am often worried that my mother doesn’t really like me and wants me to go away from her life. I prefer to do everything together with my mother. However, this desire sometimes scares my mother away.

B. I am uncomfortable to be close with my mother. I find it difficult to trust my mother completely, and difficult to depend on her. I get nervous when my mother wants to become close with me. My mother often comes more close to me than I want her to.

C. I find it easy to become emotionally close with my mother. I trust my mother. I am comfortable depending on my mother and having my mother depend on me. I do not worry about being abandoned or about my mother getting too close with me.

Relationship With Your Father

A. I often find that my father does not want to get as close as I would like him to be. I am often worried that my father doesn’t really like me and wants me to go away from his life. I prefer to do everything together with my father. However, this desire sometimes scares my father away.

B. I am uncomfortable to be close with my father. I find it difficult to trust my father completely, and difficult to depend on him. I get nervous when my father wants to become close with me. My father often comes more close to me than I want him to.

C. I find it easy to become emotionally close with my father. I trust my father. I am comfortable depending on my father and having my father depend on me. I do not worry about being abandoned or about my father getting too close with me.
**APPENDIX C**

**Instructions:** They are statements about families. Read and decide which of these statements are true of your family and which are false. The researcher would like to know what your family seems like to you. If you think the statement is True or mostly True of your family, circle ‘T’ (true). If you think the statements is False or mostly False of your family, circle ‘F’ (false).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>True</th>
<th>False</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Family members really help and support one another.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Family members often keep their feelings to themselves.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>We fight a lot in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>We don’t do things on our own very often in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>We feel it is important to be the best at whatever you do.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>We often talk about political and social problems.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>We spend most weekends and evenings at home.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Family members attend jumaah prayer or religious talk fairly often.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Activities in our family are pretty carefully planned.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Family members are rarely ordered around.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>We often seem to be killing time at home.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>We say anything we want to around home.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Family members rarely become openly angry.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>In our family, we are strongly encouraged to be independent.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Getting ahead in life is very important in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>We rarely go to movies, or concerts.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Friends often come over for dinner or to visit.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>We don’t say prayers in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>We are generally very neat and orderly.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>There are very few rules to follow in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>We put a lot of energy into what we do at home.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>It’s hard to “blow off steam” at home without upsetting somebody.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Family members sometimes get so angry they throw things.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>We think things out for ourselves in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>How much money a person makes is not very important to us.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>Learning about new and different things is very important in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>Nobody in our family is active in sports such as sepak takraw, badminton, etc.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>We often talk about the Islamic meaning of Eid ceremony, Passover, etc.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29.</td>
<td>It’s often hard to find things when you need them in our household.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>There is one family member who makes most of the decisions.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>There is a feeling of togetherness in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.</td>
<td>We tell each other about our personal problems.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33.</td>
<td>Family members hardly ever lose their tempers.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.</td>
<td>We come and go as we want to in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35.</td>
<td>We believe in competition and “may the best man win”.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36.</td>
<td>We are not that interested in cultural activities.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37.</td>
<td>We often go to picnic, visit relatives, or visit grandma/pa.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38.</td>
<td>We don’t believe in heaven or hell.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.</td>
<td>Being on time is very important in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40.</td>
<td>There are set ways of doing things at home.</td>
<td>T</td>
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<tr>
<td>41.</td>
<td>We rarely volunteer when something has to be done at home.</td>
<td>T</td>
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<tr>
<td>42.</td>
<td>If we feel like doing something on the spur of the moment we often just pick</td>
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<tr>
<td>43.</td>
<td>Family members often criticise each other.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44.</td>
<td>There is very little privacy in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45.</td>
<td>We always strive to do things just a little better the next time.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.</td>
<td>We rarely have intellectual discussions.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47.</td>
<td>Everyone in our family has a hobby or two.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48.</td>
<td>Family members have strict ideas about what is right and wrong.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.</td>
<td>People change their minds often in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50.</td>
<td>There is a strong emphasis on following rules in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51.</td>
<td>Family members really back each other up.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52.</td>
<td>Someone usually get upset if you complain in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53.</td>
<td>Family members sometimes hit each other.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54.</td>
<td>Family members almost always rely on themselves when a problem comes up.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55.</td>
<td>Family members rarely worry about job promotions, school grades, etc.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56.</td>
<td>Someone in our family plays a musical instrument.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57.</td>
<td>Family members are not very involved in recreational activities outside work or school.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58.</td>
<td>We believe there are some things you just have to take on faith.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59.</td>
<td>Family members make sure their rooms are neat.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60.</td>
<td>Everyone has an equal say in family decisions.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61.</td>
<td>There is very little group spirit in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62.</td>
<td>Money and paying bills is openly talked about in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
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<tr>
<td>63.</td>
<td>If there’s a disagreement in our family, we try hard to smooth things over and keep the peace.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64.</td>
<td>Family members strongly encourage each other to stand up for their rights.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65.</td>
<td>In our family, we don’t try that hard to succeed.</td>
<td>T</td>
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<tr>
<td>66.</td>
<td>Family members often go to the library.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67.</td>
<td>Family members sometimes attend courses or take lessons for some hobby or interest (outside of school).</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>68.</td>
<td>In our family each person has different ideas about what is right and wrong.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>69.</td>
<td>Each person’s duties are clearly defined in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70.</td>
<td>We can do whatever we want to in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71.</td>
<td>We really get along well with each other.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72.</td>
<td>We are usually careful about what we say to each other.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73.</td>
<td>Family members often try to one-up or out-do each other.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74.</td>
<td>It’s hard to be by yourself without hurting someone’s feeling in our household.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75.</td>
<td>“Work before play” is the rule in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76.</td>
<td>Watching TV is more important than reading in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>77.</td>
<td>Family members go out a lot.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>78.</td>
<td>Al-Quran is a very important book in our home.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>79.</td>
<td>Money is not handled very carefully in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80.</td>
<td>Rules are pretty inflexible in our household.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81.</td>
<td>There is plenty of time and attention for everyone in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82.</td>
<td>There are a lot of spontaneous discussions in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83.</td>
<td>In our family, we believe you don’t ever get anywhere by raising your voice.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>84.</td>
<td>We are not really encouraged to speak up for ourselves in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85.</td>
<td>Family members are often compared with others as to how well they are doing at work or school.</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX C

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Family members really like music, art and literature.</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>86.</td>
<td>Our main form of entertainment is watching TV or listening to the radio.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>87.</td>
<td>Family members believe that if you sin you will be punished.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>88.</td>
<td>Dishes are usually done immediately after eating.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>89.</td>
<td>You can't get away with much in our family.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Instructions: The researcher would like to know your general feelings about yourself. Below is a list of statements dealing with your general feelings about yourself. Please circle your responses on the answer provided.

1. At times, I think I am no good at all.
   A = Strongly disagree B = Disagree C = Agree D = Strongly agree

2. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
   A = Strongly disagree B = Disagree C = Agree D = Strongly agree

3. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
   A = Strongly disagree B = Disagree C = Agree D = Strongly agree

4. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.
   A = Strongly disagree B = Disagree C = Agree D = Strongly agree

5. I certainly feel useless at times.
   A = Strongly disagree B = Disagree C = Agree D = Strongly agree

6. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.
   A = Strongly disagree B = Disagree C = Agree D = Strongly agree

7. I wish I could have more respect for myself.
   A = Strongly disagree B = Disagree C = Agree D = Strongly agree

8. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.
   A = Strongly disagree B = Disagree C = Agree D = Strongly agree

9. I take a positive attitude toward myself.
   A = Strongly disagree B = Disagree C = Agree D = Strongly agree

10. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself
    A = Strongly disagree B = Disagree C = Agree D = Strongly agree
APPENDIX C

**Instructions:** Below are the statements about your behaviour and attitude towards religion. Please, circle only one answer which best describes you. There is no right or wrong answer.

**Before attending this (named the school) school, ...**

1. How frequent have you generally performing daily prayer?
   A = Never  B = Sometimes  C = All the time

2. How frequent have you generally fasting during the month of Ramadhan?
   A = Never  B = Sometimes  C = All the time

3. How important has religion been in your life?
   A = Never  B = Sometimes  C = All the time

4. How important has performing daily prayer been in your life?
   A = Never  B = Sometimes  C = All the time

5. How important has fasting in Ramadhan been in your life?
   A = Never  B = Sometimes  C = All the time

6. How important has performing jumaah prayer in the mosque/madrasah been to you?
   A = Never  B = Sometimes  C = All the time

7. How important is listening to religious talk in the mosque/madrasah been to you?
   A = Never  B = Sometimes  C = All the time

**Instructions:** The purpose of this checklist is to provide a way of describing your own behaviour. In making your ratings, think of yourself as you have been during the last six month. Read each statement and decide whether you have behaved in the stated manner ‘very often’, ‘fairly often’, ‘sometimes’, ‘not often’, or ‘almost never’. Circle your responses on the answer provided.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very often</th>
<th>Fairly often</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Not often</th>
<th>Almost never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I interrupt others when they are talking, or bother others who are busy.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I give compliments and encouragement to others.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I clown around, horseplay, or act up when I know I’m not supposed to.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I try to get others in trouble, by getting them into fights or arguments or by talking about them.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I will go to others for help or advice when I need them.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I hate to lose at anything, and I get angry when I don’t win. I might cheat if it helps me to win.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I go out of my way to say hello or speak to others, even those who aren’t very popular.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I agitate or bother others by teasing, laughing, or</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### APPENDIX C

| 9. | I am well groomed, clean, and neat in appearance. |
| 10. | I say “I’m sorry” or apologise at times when I should. |
| 11. | I pick on, push around, threaten, or bully others. |
| 12. | I try to be polite. I answer when spoken to, I smile when others smile at me, and so fourth. |
| 13. | I like to tell others about things I’ve gotten away with, even some that were against the law. |
| 14. | I keep on talking or fooling around, even after I have been asked to stop. |
| 15. | I am able to express my opinion, or to disagree with and criticise others in a way that does not get them angry or upset. |
| 16. | I feel upset if I can’t have what I want or do what I want right away. |
| 17. | I get loud and noisy at times or places when I probably shouldn’t. |
| 18. | I help others, even when there may be nothing in it for me. |
| 19. | I argue or quarrel with others. |
| 20. | I do my schoolwork or job assignments neatly and carefully. |
| 21. | When I am corrected, I make excuses, put the blame on someone else, or say that they are being unfair. |
| 22. | I say what I think and feel about things. I express my opinion freely. |
| 23. | I take good care of my own and others equipment and property. |
| 24. | I dislike group or individual counselling sessions. |
| 25. | I get things done; I do a lot of work in a given time. |
| 26. | Other people can talk me into things; I tend to go along with what they say. |
| 27. | I try to stick to a job or task until I finish. |
| 28. | I get a kick out of and may even encourage those who act up or go against the rules or the people in authority. |
| 29. | I make up my own mind easily without asking others what they think I should do. |
| 30. | I get up on time, and get to school, to work, and other places on time. |
| 31. | I dislike counsellors, police, or other people in authority, and I say so. |
| 32. | I go ahead to the next job or assignment without being told; I make good use of my free time. |
| 33. | I ask for help from someone, even in doing some of the simple, easy things that come up during the day. |
| 34. | I have been a leader of a group and helped them organise things and get the job done. |
| 35. | I tend to resist authority; I argue or don’t go along |
with what people tell me to do.

<p>| | | | | |</p>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>36.</td>
<td>I get started on my regular job or work assignments without needing to be told or reminded.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37.</td>
<td>If I am having a problem with another person, I ask someone such as a teacher or counsellor to do something about it.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38.</td>
<td>I get my work on the job or in school done on time.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.</td>
<td>People have difficulty understanding what I say. I mumble, get mixed up, or don’t talk clearly.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40.</td>
<td>I tell the truth. I say things without changing facts or lying. I tell it like it is.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41.</td>
<td>When the pressure is on or I have to do something that’s hard, I get upset and nervous.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42.</td>
<td>During meetings or group discussions, I speak up and add my feelings and thoughts on the subject.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43.</td>
<td>I take things without permission or steal.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44.</td>
<td>When someone is explaining something, I try to pay close attention.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45.</td>
<td>I am nervous, anxious, or tense.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46.</td>
<td>I am dependable. You can count on me to do what I say I will do.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47.</td>
<td>I get anxious and feel hurt when I’m criticised or corrected.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48.</td>
<td>I don’t “beat around the bush”. When asking for something, I am direct and get right to the point.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.</td>
<td>I swear and use rough or vulgar language.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50.</td>
<td>I can take kidding or teasing without getting upset or nervous.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51.</td>
<td>I have personal habits, or behave in ways, that are offensive or disturbing to others.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52.</td>
<td>I have told others that I was nervous or that I was having a hard time sleeping at night.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53.</td>
<td>When I am talking with someone, I am able to look him directly in the eye.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54.</td>
<td>I do things that I know are wrong, illegal, or against the rules.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55.</td>
<td>I have a good (positive) opinion of myself.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56.</td>
<td>I like to spend my time with people who know “what’s happening,” might have belonged to a gang, or might have had their share of trouble with the law.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57.</td>
<td>When I am told to do something, it bothers me, and I take my time doing it.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58.</td>
<td>I feel bad and want to get away by myself when things don’t go right or when people criticise and correct me.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59.</td>
<td>Other people my age seem to like me; they want me around.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60.</td>
<td>I have a short temper and quickly get angry.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61.</td>
<td>I talk freely to persons such as counsellors or teachers about myself, my plans, my problems, and</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62.</td>
<td>I'm kind of slow-moving and show little spirit.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63.</td>
<td>I get along well with others in group recreation activities.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64.</td>
<td>I tend to stay away from persons such as teachers, and counsellors or any activities in which they take part.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65.</td>
<td>I am cheerful.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66.</td>
<td>I get angry and upset when I am frustrated or don't get my way.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67.</td>
<td>I work well with others and get along with others in groups.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>68.</td>
<td>I get into fistfights.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>69.</td>
<td>I took for chances to have a friendly chat with adults.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70.</td>
<td>I tend to stay myself instead of with a group.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71.</td>
<td>I can take criticism or teasing without getting angry or flaring up.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72.</td>
<td>Others agitate and tease me.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73.</td>
<td>I take part in social events and try to get involved in group functions or activities.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74.</td>
<td>I distrust persons such as teachers or counsellors.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75.</td>
<td>Instead of just sitting, I do something about my problems I might have with my family, my job, or in school.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76.</td>
<td>I am realistic about appraising myself; in other words, I am accurate in judging what I can do and what I can't do.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>77.</td>
<td>I make realistic plans for school or a job; in other words, I haven't set my goals too high or too low.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>78.</td>
<td>I understand what I need to do to avoid trouble with police, school officials, or other authorities.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>79.</td>
<td>I have a pretty good understanding of how to get along with my parents and/or other persons at home.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80.</td>
<td>I make plans, set goals, and try to prepare myself for the future.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX C

**Instructions:** Below is a list of activities you may have been involved in. Please, circle the acts you have done (even if you have not caught) with the correct answer. Please, be completely honest.

1. Have you ever hurt someone badly enough to need bandages or a doctor?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

2. Have you ever got into a serious fight with a student at school?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

3. Have you ever got something by telling a person something bad would happen to them if you did not get what you wanted?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

4. Have you ever hit a teacher?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

5. Have you ever taken part in a fight where a group of your friends are against another group?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

6. Have you ever used a knife or gun or some other thing to get something from a person?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

7. Have you ever taken a motorbike that didn’t belong to someone in your family without permission of the owner?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

8. Have you ever taken a car that didn’t belong to someone in your family without permission of the owner?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

9. Have you ever taken something not belonging to you worth less than RM50.00?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

10. Have you ever gone onto someone’s land or into some house or building when you were not supposed to be there?
    - A = Never
    - B = Very rare
    - C = Sometimes
    - D = Frequently

11. Have you ever set fire to someone else’s property on purpose?
    - A = Never
    - B = Very rare
    - C = Sometimes
    - D = Frequently

12. Have you ever damaged school or public property on purpose?
    - A = Never
    - B = Very rare
    - C = Sometimes
    - D = Frequently

13. Have you ever taken something from a shop without paying for it?
    - A = Never
    - B = Very rare
    - C = Sometimes
    - D = Frequently

14. Have you ever taken something not belonging to you worth more than RM50.00?
    - A = Never
    - B = Very rare
    - C = Sometimes
    - D = Frequently
### APPENDIX C

15. Have you ever taken any part of a car without the permission of the owner?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

16. Have you ever broken into house, shop, school and taken money or something else you wanted?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

17. Have you ever involved in illegal motorbike racing?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

18. Have you ever kept something you knew it was a stolen properties?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

19. Have you ever smoked a cigarette?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

20. Have you ever drunk alcohol?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

21. Have you ever smoked marijuana and drug abused?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

22. Have you ever sniffed glue, paint, gasoline, and other inhalants?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

23. Have you ever distributed drug?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

24. Have you ever run away from home?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

25. Have you ever involved in any kind of sex activity?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

26. Have you ever rape or sexually attacked people?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

27. Have you ever involved in murder/homicide?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

28. Have you ever involved in robbery without weapon?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently

29. Have you ever involved in robbery with weapon?
   - A = Never
   - B = Very rare
   - C = Sometimes
   - D = Frequently
Before attending this school, what were your activities during the spare time?  
Please tick (/ ) the statement that true describes your self. You may tick more than one.

[ ] Spending time with family members  
[ ] Watching TV & video with friends  
[ ] Watching movies in cinema with friends  
[ ] Hanging out in the entertainment centres  
[ ] Hanging out in the video game centres  
[ ] Hanging out in the shopping centres  
[ ] Hanging out in the public recreation/rest area.  
[ ] Reading  
[ ] Sport activities  
[ ] Fishing  
[ ] Creative works @ arts (sewing, painting, play musical instruments and others)  
[ ] Others (Please specify) ..................................

Why were you committed antisocial, delinquent activities or against the law?  
Please tick (/ ) the statement that true describes your self. You may tick more than one.

[ ] Self need to try  
[ ] Following colleagues'/friends's behaviour  
[ ] Forced to for money or material reasons  
[ ] Revenge  
[ ] Intent to prove membership  
[ ] To earn respect or show of courage  
[ ] Being challenged by the colleagues/friends  
[ ] For enjoyment and self-satisfaction  
[ ] As a mean of escapism  
[ ] Others (Please specify) ..................................

[ ] None above is true about me. I never committed any antisocial, delinquent behaviours or against the law.

Make sure you have answer all the questions

THANK YOU
APPENDIX C

(Malay Version)

Pandangan Mengenai Perapatan Ibubapa dan Tingkahlaku Individu

Anda dijemput untuk mengambil bahagian di dalam kajian tingkahlaku perapatan. Kajian ini dikendalikan oleh Affizal Ahmad, penuntut Doktor Falsafah dari University of Surrey, England.

Tujuan kajian:
Tujuan kajian perapatan ibubapa-anak ialah untuk memahami apakah faktor-faktor yang mempengaruhi remaja bertingkahlaku dalam cara yang berbeza. Kajian ini berfokus kepada pelbagai pengalaman dan persekitaran yang telah dialami oleh remaja, merangkumi hubungan dengan ibubapa dan keluarga. Pengkaji berminat untuk mengetahui perasaan dan fikiran anda terhadap perapatan ibubapa dan keluarga, serta tingkahlaku anda khususnya.

Dengan bantuan seramai 200 remaja seperti anda, pengkaji akan dapat memahami perbezaan dari segi persekitaran, hubungan dan sikap di antara remaja yang berbeza, serta melihat bagaimana perkara ini boleh dikaitkan dengan tingkahlaku remaja.

Apa yang perlu anda lakukan:
Anda akan diberi satu set soalselidik untuk dilengkapkan. Tiada jawapan yang betul atau salah. Pengkaji hanya berminat untuk mengetahui bagaimana fikiran dan perasaan anda terhadap diri anda, perapatan ibubapa dan keluarga anda umumnya.

Kerahsiaan:

Kebaikan:
Kajian ini adalah kajian ilmiah dan bukan sessi kaunseling. Walau bagaimanapun, anda akan dapat mempelajari sesuatu mengenai diri anda apabila anda menjawap soalselidik ini. Anda juga akan berasa puas hati dengan mengetahui bahawa anda telah dapat membantu orang lain memahami keperluan perapatan anak dan ibubapa yang baik.

Sila bertanya jika anda ada soalan. Sekiranya anda bersetuju untuk mengambil bahagian dalam kajian ini, sila tandatangan borang akuan menyertai kajian ini di mukasurat berikutnya.

Terima kasih.
**APPENDIX C**

**Maklumat Peribadi**

**Arahan:** Tandakan ( / ) pada jawapan yang sesuai, atau tulis pada ruang yang disediakan.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pertanyaan</th>
<th>Jawapan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Umur</td>
<td>14 tahun [ ] 15 tahun [ ] 16 tahun [ ] 17 tahun [ ] 18 tahun [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jantina</td>
<td>Lelaki [ ] Perempuan [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bilangan dimasukkan ke sekolah ini?</td>
<td>Kali pertama [ ] Kali ke-2 [ ] Lebih dari 2 kali [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bilangan dimasukkan ke sekolah pemulihan akhlak lain?</td>
<td>Kali pertama [ ] Kali ke-2 [ ] Lebih dari 2 kali [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adakah anda telah tinggal bersama kedua ibubapa?</td>
<td>Ya [ ] Tidak [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jika tidak, nyatakan kenapa?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adakah anda telah tinggal dengan ibu sahaja?</td>
<td>Ya [ ] Tidak [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sejak umur berapa tahun?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adakah anda telah tinggal dengan bapa sahaja?</td>
<td>Ya [ ] Tidak [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sejak umur berapa tahun?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adakah anda telah tinggal dengan ibu &amp; bapatiri?</td>
<td>Ya [ ] Tidak [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sejak umur berapa tahun?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adakah anda telah tinggal dengan bapa &amp; ibutiri?</td>
<td>Ya [ ] Tidak [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sejak umur berapa tahun?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bilangan adik-beradik</td>
<td>Anda anak ke [ ] dalam keluarga.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ibu/ibutiri bekerja?</td>
<td>Ya [ ] Tidak [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jika bekerja, pendapatan bulanan beliau</td>
<td>Kurang dari RM500 [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM501 hingga RM1,000 [ ]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM1,001 hingga RM2,000 [ ]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bapa/bapatiri bekerja?</td>
<td>Ya [ ] Tidak [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jika bekerja, pendapatan bulanan beliau</td>
<td>Kurang dari RM500 [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM501 hingga RM1,000 [ ]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RM1,001 hingga RM2,000 [ ]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sebelum datang ke sekolah ini, anda …</td>
<td>Bersekolah [ ] Bekerja [ ] Mengganggur [ ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tahap tertinggi persekolahan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nota penyelidik:</strong> Kesalahan pelatih (merujuk pada Rekod Rasmi Pelatih)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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APPENDIX C

Arahan: Berikut adalah kenyataan secara umum terhadap tiga gaya hubungan ibubapa-anak. Sila baca setiap kenyataan berikut dan bulatkan huruf yang menggambarkan gaya hubungan yang paling tepat atau yang paling hampir kepada bentuk hubungan yang anda rasakan bersama ibu dan bapa anda.

Hubungan Anda Dengan Ibu Anda


Hubungan Anda Dengan Bapa Anda


**APPENDIX C**

**Arahan:** Berikut adalah beberapa kenyataan mengenai keluarga. Baca dan cuba kaitkan dengan ahli keluarga anda samada kenyataan itu benar atau tidak benar dengan situasi keluarga anda. Pengkaji hanya ingin mengetahui bagaimana pandangan anda terhadap ahli keluarga anda. Bulatkan 'B' (Benar) bagi kenyataan yang benar pada sebahagian besar ahli keluarga anda, dan bulatkan 'T' (Tidak benar) jika kenyataan itu menggambarkan situasi yang tidak benar untuk sebahagian besar ahli keluarga anda.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Kenyataan</th>
<th>Benar</th>
<th>Tidak benar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga saya sangat membantu dan menyokong antara satu sama lain.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga saya sering menyimpan perasaan mereka sendiri.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Kami banyak bertengkar dalam keluarga.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Kami jarang membuat kerja bersendirian dalam keluarga.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Kami rasa adalah penting menjadi yang terbaik dalam sebarang perkara yang kami lakukan.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Kami sering bercakap mengenai hal politik dan masalah sosial.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Kami menghabiskan masa hujung minggu dan waktu petang di rumah.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga saya agak kerap menunaikan sembahyang berjemaah atau mendengar ceramah ugama di masjid/masrasah.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Semua aktiviti dalam keluarga kami dirancang dengan berhati-hati.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga saya jarang diberi arahan.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Kami sering kelihatan membuang masa ketika di rumah.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Kami memperkatakan apa sahaja yang kami mahu di rumah.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga saya jarang marah secara terbuka.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Di dalam keluarga, kami sangat digalakkan untuk berdikari.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Meneruskan hidup ini sangat penting dalam keluarga kami.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Kami jarang pergi menonton wayang atau konsert.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Kawan-kawan selalu datang untuk berziarah atau makan bersama di rumah kami.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Kami tidak berdoa di dalam keluarga.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Kami biasanya sangat kemas dan terurus.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Terdapat sedikit sahaja peraturan yang harus diikuti dalam keluarga kami.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Kami memberi sepenuh tenaga ketika melakukan kerja-kerja di rumah.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Sukar untuk menenangkan keadaan di rumah tanpa membuat seseorang berasa marah.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga kadang-kadang menjadi sangat marah dan membaling barang-barang di rumah.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Kami hanya memikirkan untuk keluarga kami sahaja.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Berapa banyak orang lain memperoleh wang yang tidak penting pada kami.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Mempelajari tentang sesuatu perkara yang baru dan berbeza sangat penting pada keluarga kami.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Tidak ada seorang pun di dalam keluarga kami yang aktiv dalam sukan seperti sepak takraw, badminton dan sebagainya.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Kami selalu bercakap mengenai makna ugama Islam terhadap sambutan hari raya, kehiduan selepas mati, dan sebagainya.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Adalah sukar untuk mencari barang-barang apabila anda mengkehendakinya di dalam rumah kami.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Ada seorang ahli keluarga yang selalu membuat keputusan dalam keluarga kami.</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Perkataan/Peristiwa</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>T</td>
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<td>31.</td>
<td>Terdapat perasaan bersatuhati dalam keluarga kami.</td>
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<td>32.</td>
<td>Kami memberitahu di antara satu sama lain tentang masalah-masalah peribadi kami.</td>
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<td>33.</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga sukar menunjukkan kemarahan.</td>
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<td>34.</td>
<td>Dalam keluarga, kami datang dan pergi sesuka hati kami.</td>
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<td>35.</td>
<td>Kami percaya pada persaingan dan &quot;semoga orang yang terbaik akan menang&quot;.</td>
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<tr>
<td>36.</td>
<td>Kami tidak berminat dalam aktiviti kebudayaan.</td>
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<td>37.</td>
<td>Kami sering pergi berkelah, menziarah saudara-mara, atau pulang ke kampung bersama-sama.</td>
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<td>38.</td>
<td>Kami tidak percaya pada syurga dan neraka.</td>
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<td>40.</td>
<td>Terdapat peraturan tertentu dalam membuat sesuatu kerja di rumah.</td>
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<td>41.</td>
<td>Kami jarang membuat sesuatu kerja di rumah secara sukarela.</td>
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<td>42.</td>
<td>Jika kami fikir untuk melakukan sesuatu dengan serta merta, kami sering terus melakukan.</td>
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<td>43.</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga sering mengkritik antara satu sama lain.</td>
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<td>44.</td>
<td>Terlalu sedikit peluang untuk bersendirian dalam keluarga kami.</td>
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<td>45.</td>
<td>Kami selalu berusaha untuk melakukan sesuatu perkara yang lebih baik di masa hadapan.</td>
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<tr>
<td>46.</td>
<td>Kami kurang mengadakan percakapan yang bersifat intelek.</td>
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<td>47.</td>
<td>Setiap orang dalam keluarga kami mempunyai satu atau dua hobi.</td>
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<td>48.</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga mempunyai pendapat yang tegas mengenai perkara yang betul atau salah.</td>
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<td>49.</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga kami sering berubah fikiran.</td>
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<td>50.</td>
<td>Dalam keluarga kami, mengikut peraturan sangat dititikberatkan.</td>
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<td>51.</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga sangat membantu antara satu sama lain.</td>
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<td>52.</td>
<td>Seseorang akan berasa marah jika ada orang membuat aduan terhadap keluarga kami.</td>
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<td>53.</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga kadang-kadang memukul antara satu sama lain.</td>
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<td>54.</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga sering bergantung pada diri sendiri apabila berhadapan dengan masalah.</td>
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<td>55.</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga kami kurang bimbang mengenai kenaikan pangkat, markah peperiksaan, dan sebagainya.</td>
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<td>56.</td>
<td>Seseorang dalam keluarga kami bermain alat muzik.</td>
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<tr>
<td>57.</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga kami kurang terlibat dalam aktiviti rekreasi di luar kerja atau sekolah.</td>
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<td>58.</td>
<td>Kami percaya ada beberapa perkara yang telah ditakdirkan.</td>
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<td>59.</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga saya mempastikan bilik mereka sentiasa kemas.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>60.</td>
<td>Setiap orang mempunyai hak yang sama untuk membuat keputusan dalam keluarga.</td>
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<tr>
<td>61.</td>
<td>Terdapat sedikit semangat berkumpulan dalam keluarga kami.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>62.</td>
<td>Wang dan urusan membayar bil diperkatakan secara terbuka dalam keluarga kami.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>63.</td>
<td>Jika ada perbalahan dalam keluarga kami, kami berusaha untuk menyelesaikannya secara baik.</td>
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<tr>
<td>64.</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga kami sangat menggalakkan setiap orang supaya mempertahankan hak masing-masing.</td>
<td></td>
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<td>65.</td>
<td>Dalam keluarga kami, kami tidak mencuba bersungguh-sungguh untuk</td>
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APPENDIX C

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>66.</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga kami sering pergi ke perpustakaan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67.</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga kadang-kadang menghadiri beberapa kursus untuk pelajaran yang mereka minati (luar dari sekolah).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>68.</td>
<td>Dalam keluarga kami, setiap orang mempunyai pendapat yang berbeza mengenai perkara yang betul atau salah.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>69.</td>
<td>Tugas atau peranan setiap orang sangat jelas dalam keluarga kami.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70.</td>
<td>Kami boleh membuat apa sahaja yang kami suka dalam keluarga kami.</td>
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<tr>
<td>71.</td>
<td>Kami benar-benar dapat hidup bersama dengan baik antara satu sama lain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72.</td>
<td>Kami selalunya berhati-hati mengenai sesuatu yang kami perkatakan di antara satu sama lain.</td>
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<tr>
<td>73.</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga saya sering cuba mengatasi antara satu sama lain.</td>
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<tr>
<td>74.</td>
<td>Sukar untuk menjadi diri sendiri yang sebenar tanpa menyakiti perasaan orang lain dalam rumah kami.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75.</td>
<td>“Bekerja sebelum bermain” adalah peraturan dalam keluarga kami.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76.</td>
<td>Menonton TV lebih penting daripada membaca dalam keluarga kami.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>77.</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga kami kerap keluar rumah.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>78.</td>
<td>Al-Quran adalah kitab yang paling penting dalam rumah kami.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>79.</td>
<td>Wang tidak diuruskan dengan berhati-hati dalam keluarga kami.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80.</td>
<td>Peraturan tidak boleh diubah-ubah dalam rumah kami.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81.</td>
<td>Terdapat banyak masa dan perhatian diberi untuk setiap ahli keluarga kami.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>82.</td>
<td>Terdapat banyak perbincangan mengejut dalam keluarga kami.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83.</td>
<td>Dalam keluarga, kami percaya kami tidak mendapat apa-apa dengan menyuarakan pendapat kami.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>84.</td>
<td>Kami sebenarnya tidak digalakkan bercakap untuk diri sendiri dalam keluarga kami.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>85.</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga sering dibanding-bandingkan dengan orang lain tentang kebolehan mereka membuat kerja atau belajar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>86.</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga kami benar-benar meminati muzik, seni dan bacaan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>87.</td>
<td>Hiburan utama kami ialah menonton TV dan mendengar radio.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>88.</td>
<td>Ahli keluarga kami percaya bahawa jika kita membuat dosa, kita akan menerima hukuman.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>89.</td>
<td>Selalunya pinggan mangkuk akan terus dibasuh selepas makan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90.</td>
<td>Kami tidak boleh lari jauh daripada ahli keluarga kami.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


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1. Ada ketikanya, saya fakir saya seorang yang tidak baik dalam semua perkara.
   A = Sangat tidak setuju  B = Tidak setuju  C = Setuju  D = Sangat setuju

2. Saya merasakan bahawa saya mempunyai beberapa kualiti yang baik.
   A = Sangat tidak setuju  B = Tidak setuju  C = Setuju  D = Sangat setuju

---
APPENDIX C

3. Saya mampu melakukan sesuatu sama seperti yang dilakukan oleh orang lain.
   A = Sangat tidak setuju  B = Tidak setuju  C = Setuju  D = Sangat setuju

4. Saya merasakan saya tidak mempunyai banyak perkara yang boleh dibanggakan.
   A = Sangat tidak setuju  B = Tidak setuju  C = Setuju  D = Sangat setuju

5. Ada ketikanya, saya benar-benar merasa tidak berguna.
   A = Sangat tidak setuju  B = Tidak setuju  C = Setuju  D = Sangat setuju

6. Saya merasakan bahawa saya seorang yang berguna, sekurang-kurangnya sama seperti orang lain.
   A = Sangat tidak setuju  B = Tidak setuju  C = Setuju  D = Sangat setuju

7. Saya berharap saya boleh mempunyai rasa hormat yang lebih pada diri sendiri.
   A = Sangat tidak setuju  B = Tidak setuju  C = Setuju  D = Sangat setuju

8. Secara keseluruhannya, saya mudah merasakan bahawa saya seorang yang gagal.
   A = Sangat tidak setuju  B = Tidak setuju  C = Setuju  D = Sangat setuju

9. Saya mengambil sikap yang positif terhadap diri sendiri.
   A = Sangat tidak setuju  B = Tidak setuju  C = Setuju  D = Sangat setuju

10. Secara keseluruhannya, saya berpuashati dengan diri sendiri.
    A = Sangat tidak setuju  B = Tidak setuju  C = Setuju  D = Sangat setuju

Arahan: Berikut adalah kenyataan mengenai tingkahlaku dan sikap terhadap ugama. Sila bulatkan satu jawapan yang paling tepat menerangkan diri anda.

Sebelum memasuki Sekolah (namakan sekolah tersebut) ini, ...

1. Berapa kerap anda mengeijakan sembahyang fardhu?
   A = Tidak pernah  B = Kadang-kadang  C = Setiap masa

2. Berapa kerap anda berpuasa di bulan Ramadhan?
   A = Tidak pernah  B = Kadang-kadang  C = Setiap masa

3. Pentingnya ugama itu telah ada dalam hidup anda?
   A = Tidak pernah  B = Kadang-kadang  C = Setiap masa

4. Pentingnya menunaikan sembahyang lima waktu itu telah ada dalam hidup anda?
   A = Tidak pernah  B = Kadang-kadang  C = Setiap masa

5. Pentingnya berpuasa di bulan Ramadhan itu telah ada dalam hidup anda?
   A = Tidak pernah  B = Kadang-kadang  C = Setiap masa

6. Pentingnya menunaikan sembahyang berjemaah di masjid/madrasah telah ada dalam hidup anda?
   A = Tidak pernah  B = Kadang-kadang  C = Setiap masa

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APPENDIX C

7. Pentingnya menghadiri atau mendengar ceramah ugama di masjid/madrasah telah ada dalam hidup anda?
   A = Tidak pernah   B = Kadang-kadang   C = Setiap masa


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sangat kerap</th>
<th>Agak kerap</th>
<th>Kadang-kadang</th>
<th>Tidak kerap</th>
<th>Hampir tidak pernah</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Saya mengganggu orang ketika mereka sedang bercakap atau sibuk.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Saya memberi tahniah dan galakkan pada orang lain.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Saya mempersendakan orang lain atau bertingkahlaku tidak sopan apabila saya tahu saya tidak patut melakukannya.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Saya cuba membawa seseorang ke dalam masalah dengan cara ajak bergaduh atau bertengkar, atau memburuk-burukkan mereka.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Saya akan mendapatkan pertolongan atau nasihat apabila saya memerlukannya.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Saya benci pada kekalahan dan saya akan marah jika saya tidak menang. Saya akan menipu jika ianya dapat membantu saya untuk menang.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Saya bertanya khabar atau bercakap dengan seseorang walaupun kepada orang yang kurang terkenal.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Saya mengejek, mengganggu seseorang dengan mentertawa atau mengajuk perbuatan mereka.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Saya seorang yang berpakaian sejak, bersih dan kemas dalam penampilan diri.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Saya kata “Saya minta maaf” apabila saya patut berbuat demikian.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>Saya menarik, menolak, mengugut, atau membuli orang lain.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>Saya cuba bersopan-santun. Saya membalas percakapan, senyuman dan sebagainya.</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>Saya suka memberitahu orang lain mengenai perkara yang telah saya lakukan, walaupun perbuatan yang melanggar undang-undang.</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>Saya terus bercakap atau tidak duduk diam, walaupun setelah saya disuruh diam.</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>Saya boleh menyampaikan pendapat saya, atau tidak bersetuju dan mengkritik orang lain tanpa</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>Saya rasa marah jika saya tidak boleh dapat atau buat sesuatu perkara yang saya kehendaki dengan segera.</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>Saya bercakap dengan kuat dan membuat bising pada masa atau tempat yang tidak sepatutnya.</td>
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<td>Saya menolong orang, walaupun kerja itu tidak memberi keuntungan pada diri saya.</td>
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<td>Saya bertengkar atau bergaduh dengan orang lain.</td>
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<td>Saya membuat kerjasekolah atau tugasana saya dengan kemais dan berhati-hati.</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>Apabila saya dinasihati, saya membuat pelbagai alasan, meletakkan kesalahan pada orang lain, atau mengatakan bahawa mereka tidak berlaku adil pada saya.</td>
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<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Saya bercakap apa yang saya fikir dan rasa tentang sesuatu perkara. Saya meluahkan pendapat saya secara terbuka.</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>23</td>
<td>Saya menjaga peralatan dan hartabenda saya serta orang lain dengan baik.</td>
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<td>Saya tidak suka pada sesi kaunseling individu atau kumpulan.</td>
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<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Saya menyempurnakan kerja saya; Saya membuat banyak kerja dalam masa yang ditetapkan.</td>
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<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Orang lain boleh berunding dengan saya; Saya mudah mesra dan menerima pendapat mereka.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Saya cuba melakukan sesuatu kerja atau tugasana sehingga selesai.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Saya memberi galakkan kepada orang lain untuk melanggar peraturan atau membantah pihak yang berkuasa.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Saya membuat sesuatu keputusan dengan mudah tanpa bertanya orang lain apa yang patut saya lakukan.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Saya bangun pagi, pergi ke sekolah atau kerja tepat pada masanya.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>Saya tidak suka pada kaunselor, polis, atau pihak yang berkuasa, dan saya memberitahunya pada orang lain.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>Saya beralih kepada kerja atau tugasana seterusnya tanpa disuruh; Saya menggunakan masa yang terluang dengan sebaiknya.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Saya meminta pertolongan seseorang, walaupun untuk melakukan kerja yang sedikit dan mudah.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>Saya telah menjadi ketua kumpulan dan menolong ahli kumpulan menyusun barang-barang dan pastikan semua kerja disempurnakan.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>Saya cenderung untuk menentang pihak berkuasa; Saya bertengkar atau tidak menurut arahan mereka.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>Saya memulakan kerja atau tugas harian saya tanpa</td>
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<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Perkara</td>
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<td>37</td>
<td>Jika saya menghadapi masalah dengan orang lain, saya merujuk kepada seseorang seperti guru atau kaunselor untuk melakukan sesuatu terhadap perkara tersebut.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>Saya menyiapkan tugas atau kerjasekolah pada masa yang ditetapkan.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>Orang lain menghadapi masalah memahami apa yang saya cakap. Saya gagap, kelam-kabut atau tidak bercakap dengan jelas.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>Saya bercakap benar. Saya bercakap sesuatu perkara tanpa menipu atau mengubah fakta.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>Apabila saya rasa tertekan atau harus melakukan sesuatu kerja yang sukar, saya berasa sedih, marah dan gementar.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>Ketika mesyuarat atau berbincang dalam kumpulan, saya mengeluarkan pendapat dan pandangan saya pada perkara yang dibincangkan.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>Saya mencuri atau mengambil barang-barang tanpa kebenaran.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>Apabila seseorang lain menghadapi masalah memahami apa yang saya cakap. Saya gagap, kelam-kabut atau tidak bercakap dengan jelas.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>Saya mencari dan menggunakan bahasa yang kasar atau lucah.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>Saya boleh mempersendakan atau mengejek orang lain tanpa merasa sedih atau gementar.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>Saya menjadi gelisah dan kecil hati apabila saya dikritik atau diperbetulkan.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>Saya bukan seorang yang suka berdalih. Apabila meminta sesuatu, saya akan bercakap dengan terus-terang.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>49</td>
<td>Saya boleh mempersendakan atau mengejek orang lain tanpa merasa sedih atau gementar.</td>
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<td>50</td>
<td>Saya boleh mempersendakan atau mengejek orang lain tanpa merasa sedih atau gementar.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>51</td>
<td>Saya boleh mempersendakan atau mengejek orang lain tanpa merasa sedih atau gementar.</td>
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<td>52</td>
<td>Saya boleh mempersendakan atau mengejek orang lain tanpa merasa sedih atau gementar.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>53</td>
<td>Saya bercakap dengan seseorang, saya boleh memandang pada mukanya.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>54</td>
<td>Saya melakukan sesuatu yang saya tahu ianya salah atau bertentangan dengan peraturan.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>55</td>
<td>Saya mempunyai pendapat yang baik terhadap diri sendiri.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>56</td>
<td>Saya suka menghabiskan masa dengan orang yang mungkin datang dari suatu kumpulan atau telah melakukan perkara yang bertentangan dengan undang-undang.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>57</td>
<td>Apabila saya disuruh melakukan sesuatu, saya</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>58</td>
<td>Saya rasa sedih dan ingin mengatasi masalah itu sendiri apabila sesuatu perkara tidak berlaku dengan betul, atau bila orang mengkritik dan mengegarkan saya.</td>
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<tr>
<td>59</td>
<td>Orang yang sebaya dengan saya menyukai saya, mereka mahu saya ada bersama mereka.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>Saya seorang yang panas baran dan cepat marah.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61</td>
<td>Saya bercakap secara bebas dengan seseorang seperti kaunselor atau guru mengenai diri saya, rancangan saya, masalah saya, dan sebagainya.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62</td>
<td>Saya seorang yang lambat bertindak dan kurang bersemangat.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63</td>
<td>Saya mudah mesra dengan orang lain dalam aktiviti rekreasi berkumpulan.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>Saya lebih suka menjauhkan diri daripada orang seperti guru dan kaunselor atau apa sahaja aktiviti di mana mereka juga mengambil bahagian.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>65</td>
<td>Saya seorang yang periang.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>66</td>
<td>Saya menjadi marah dan kasar apabila saya dikecewakan atau keinginan saya ditentang.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67</td>
<td>Saya bekerja secara baik dengan orang lain dan mudah menyesuaikan diri dengan orang di dalam kumpulan.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>68</td>
<td>Saya terlibat dengan pergaduhan fizikal.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>69</td>
<td>Saya mencari peluang untuk berbual-bual dengan orang dewasa.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>70</td>
<td>Saya lebih suka bersendirian daripada duduk bersama dalam kumpulan.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>71</td>
<td>Saya boleh menerima kritikan atau ejekan tanpa marah atau kecil hati.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>72</td>
<td>Orang lain mengejek dan memburuk-burukkan saya.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>73</td>
<td>Saya mengambil bahagian dalam aktiviti sosial dan cuba melibatkan diri dalam kerja atau aktiviti berkumpulan.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>74</td>
<td>Saya tidak mempercayai orang-orang seperti guru atau kaunselor.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>75</td>
<td>Sekiranya saya mempunyai masalah dengan ahli keluarga, kerja, atau masalah di sekolah, saya lebih suka membuat sesuatu kerja daripada duduk diam sahaja.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>76</td>
<td>Saya seorang yang bijak menilai apa yang saya boleh buat dan apa yang saya tidak boleh buat.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>77</td>
<td>Saya membuat perancangan yang bijak untuk kerja atau sekolah. Ia itu, saya tidak meletakkan matlamat yang terlalu tinggi atau terlalu rendah.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>78</td>
<td>Saya faham apa yang perlu saya lakukan untuk mengelakkan masalah dengan pihak polis, kaitangan sekolah, atau mana-mana pihak.</td>
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</table>
APPENDIX C

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>berkuasa.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>79</td>
<td>Saya faham cara yang baik bagaimana untuk mesra dengan ibubapa saya atau orang lain di rumah saya.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>Saya membuat rancangan, menetapkan matlamat, dan cuba melengkapkan diri sendiri untuk masa depan.</td>
<td>1</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Arahan: Berikut adalah senarai beberapa aktiviti yang mungkin anda telah lakukan. Bulatkan setiap aktiviti tersebut (walaupun anda tidak pernah ditangkap ketika melakukan aktiviti itu) dengan jawapan yang betul. Sila beri jawapan yang jujur.

1. Pernahkah anda mencederakan seseorang dengan teruk sehingga orang itu perlu dibalut atau dirawat oleh doktor?
   A = Tidak pernah  B = Jarang sekali  C = Kadang-kadang  D = Kerap

2. Pernahkah anda terlibat dalam pergaduhan yang serius dengan pelajar di sekolah?
   A = Tidak pernah  B = Jarang sekali  C = Kadang-kadang  D = Kerap

3. Pernahkah anda mendapatkan sesuatu dengan cara memberitahu seseorang sesuatu yang buruk akan berlaku padanya jika dia tidak beri apa yang anda minta?
   A = Tidak pernah  B = Jarang sekali  C = Kadang-kadang  D = Kerap

4. Pernahkah anda memukul guru?
   A = Tidak pernah  B = Jarang sekali  C = Kadang-kadang  D = Kerap

5. Pernahkah anda mengambil bahagian di dalam pergaduhan di mana kumpulan kawan-kawan anda sedang bergaduh dengan satu kumpulan yang lain?
   A = Tidak pernah  B = Jarang sekali  C = Kadang-kadang  D = Kerap

6. Pernahkah anda menggunakan pisau, senapang atau apa sahaja senjata untuk mendapatkan sesuatu daripada seseorang?
   A = Tidak pernah  B = Jarang sekali  C = Kadang-kadang  D = Kerap

7. Pernahkah anda mengambil motorsikal yang bukan dimiliki oleh ahli keluarga anda tanpa kebenaran daripada tuan punya?
   A = Tidak pernah  B = Jarang sekali  C = Kadang-kadang  D = Kerap

8. Pernahkah anda mengambil kereta yang bukan dimiliki oleh ahli keluarga anda tanpa kebenaran daripada tuan punya?
   A = Tidak pernah  B = Jarang sekali  C = Kadang-kadang  D = Kerap

9. Pernahkah anda mengambil sesuatu yang bukan milik anda, yang bernilai kurang daripada RM50.00?
   A = Tidak pernah  B = Jarang sekali  C = Kadang-kadang  D = Kerap

10. Pernahkah anda menceroboh masuk ke dalam kawasan tanah atau rumah seseorang atau bangunan di mana anda tidak seharusnya berada dalam kawasan tersebut?
    A = Tidak pernah  B = Jarang sekali  C = Kadang-kadang  D = Kerap

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APPENDIX C

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
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<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Pernahkah anda membakar dengan niat ke atas hartabenda orang lain?</td>
<td>A = Tidak pernah</td>
<td>B = Jarang sekali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Pernahkah anda mengambil sesuatu yang bukan milik anda, yang bernilai lebih daripada RM50.00?</td>
<td>A = Tidak pernah</td>
<td>B = Jarang sekali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Pernahkah anda mengambil sesuatu bahagian kereta tanpa kebenaran tuan punya kereta itu?</td>
<td>A = Tidak pernah</td>
<td>B = Jarang sekali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Pernahkah anda terlibat dalam perlumbaan motosikal haram?</td>
<td>A = Tidak pernah</td>
<td>B = Jarang sekali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Pernahkah anda menyimpan sesuatu yang anda ketahui ianya adalah barang curi?</td>
<td>A = Tidak pernah</td>
<td>B = Jarang sekali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>Pernahkah anda menghidu gam, cat, gasolin, dan lain-lain bahan yang mengkhayalkan?</td>
<td>A = Tidak pernah</td>
<td>B = Jarang sekali</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>Pernahkah anda mengedar dadah?</td>
<td>A = Tidak pernah</td>
<td>B = Jarang sekali</td>
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</tbody>
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26. Pernahkah anda merogol atau melakukan keganasan seks pada seseorang?
   A = Tidak pernah   B = Jarang sekali   C = Kadang-kadang   D = Kerap

27. Pernahkah anda terlibat dalam pembunuhan?
   A = Tidak pernah   B = Jarang sekali   C = Kadang-kadang   D = Kerap

28. Pernahkah anda terlibat dalam rompakan tanpa senjata?
   A = Tidak pernah   B = Jarang sekali   C = Kadang-kadang   D = Kerap

29. Pernahkah anda terlibat dalam rompakan bersenjata?
   A = Tidak pernah   B = Jarang sekali   C = Kadang-kadang   D = Kerap

Sebelum memasuki sekolah ini, apakah kegiatan masa lapang anda?
Sila tandakan ( / ) pada kenyataan yang benar dengan diri anda. Anda boleh tanda lebih dari satu kenyataan.

[ ] Menghabiskan masa bersama ahli keluarga di rumah
[ ] Menonton TV & video bersama rakan-rakan
[ ] Menonton wayang bersama ................... (sila isikan ruang ini jika perlu)
[ ] Berkunjung ke pusat-pusat hiburan
[ ] Berkunjung ke pusat-pusat permainan
[ ] Melepak di pusat-pusat membeli belah
[ ] Melepak di tempat-tempat rehat awam
[ ] Membaca
[ ] Bersukan
[ ] Memancing
[ ] Kreativiti @ seni (menjahit, melukis, bermain muzik, dan sebagainya)
[ ] Lain-lain (Sila nyatakan) ...........................................

Kenapa anda melakukan tingkahlaku delinkuen atau melanggar undang-undang?
Sila tandakan ( / ) pada kenyataan yang benar pada diri anda. Anda boleh tanda lebih dari satu sebab.

[ ] Keinginan sendiri untuk mencuba
[ ] Menurut perlakuan kawan
[ ] Terpaksa kerana inginkan wang atau memiliki sesuatu benda
[ ] Membalas dendam
[ ] Ingin membuktikan keahlian
[ ] Ingin mendapat pujian atau menunjukkan kekuatan
[ ] Dicabar oleh kawan-kawan`
[ ] Untuk mendapat keseronokan dan kepuasan diri
[ ] Keluar dari masalah dan tekanan
[ ] Lain-lain. (Sila nyatakan) .................................

Pastikan anda telah menjawab semua soalan
TERIMA KASIH
Perceptions of Parental Attachment and Individual Behaviour

You are invited to take part in a study of attachment behaviour. Affizal Ahmad, who is studying for a PhD at the University of Surrey in England, is conducting this research.

The purpose of the study:
The aim of the parent-child attachment study is to better understand which factors influence adolescence to behave in different ways. The study focuses on a variety of different experiences and environments that adolescents have, including relationships with parent and family. In this study, the researcher is interested in the way you think and feel about your parent and family attachment in general, and your behaviour in particular. These thoughts and feelings may show some finding of general adolescence ways of behaviour.

Through the help of around 200 adolescence like yours, the researcher will explore the different environments, relationships, and attitudes in different adolescents, and see how these may be associated with adolescence’s behaviours.

What you will be asked to do:
You will be given a set of questionnaire to be completed. There is no right or wrong answer. The researcher only interested in the way you think and feel about you yourself, your parent and family attachment in general.

Confidentiality:
You may be anxious that what you say will be shared with others. Your responses will be kept strictly confidential. This means that what you marked will not be passed on to anyone outside the study, including your parent or family members, teacher or counsellor in this school. In the records, the researcher will use a code number instead of your name. In reports of the study, the researcher will combine the information from everyone so that it will be impossible to identify individuals.

Benefits:
The study is part of a research project and not a counselling session. However, you may find you learn something about yourself through answering the questionnaire. You will also have the satisfaction of knowing that you have helped to make a difference for future children and parent attachment needs.

Please ask if you have any questions. If you decide you would like to take part, then please sign the consent form on the next page.

Thank you.
APPENDIX C

Personal Data

Instructions: Tick (✓) the appropriate answer, or write the answer in each question.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>14 year-old [ ]</th>
<th>15 year-old [ ]</th>
<th>16 year-old [ ]</th>
<th>17 year-old [ ]</th>
<th>18 year-old [ ]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male [ ]</td>
<td>Female [ ]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you ever been entered to any rehabilitation school?</td>
<td>Yes [ ]</td>
<td>No [ ]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you live with both parents? If no, describe why?</td>
<td>Yes [ ]</td>
<td>No [ ]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you live with mother only? Since what age?</td>
<td>Yes [ ]</td>
<td>No [ ]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you live with father only? Since what age?</td>
<td>Yes [ ]</td>
<td>No [ ]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you live with mother &amp; stepfather? Since what age?</td>
<td>Yes [ ]</td>
<td>No [ ]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you live with father &amp; stepmother? Since what age?</td>
<td>Yes [ ]</td>
<td>No [ ]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of siblings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>You are no. [ ] in the family.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother/stepmother working</td>
<td>Yes [ ]</td>
<td>No [ ]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If working, her monthly income is</td>
<td>Less than RM500 [ ]</td>
<td>RM501 to RM1,000 [ ]</td>
<td>RM1,001 to RM2,000 [ ]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father/stepfather working</td>
<td>Yes [ ]</td>
<td>No [ ]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If working, his monthly income is</td>
<td>Less than RM500 [ ]</td>
<td>RM501 to RM1,000 [ ]</td>
<td>RM1,001 to RM2,000 [ ]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Researcher's note: Name of the school and class: ___________________________
APPENDIX D

Questionnaires of Study 4
The 'Interview Protocol' of Study 4

Note:
1. The Consent Form used in Study 4 is the same as used in Study 2.
2. Refer AQ questionnaire in Appendix C.
APPENDIX D

The Interview Questions

How they ended-up where they were?

1. Can you please tell me one by one sequentially, the socially deviant acts and delinquent activities you have done, and at what age was it happened?
2. How many times have you admitted to a rehabilitation institution? Where and when? What was the sentence charged to you?
3. Can you tell me the reason of doing such offences? (Interviewer has to repeat the offences mentioned by the interviewees)
4. How do you feel when first admitted to this institution? Do you think you deserve to be admitted here? Why?
5. How do you think you have changed since coming to this ‘school’?

About themselves and experiences?

1. Before admitted to this ‘school’, were you schooling or working? Explain.
2. Can you recall your past sweet memories while living together with your parents? (Next, your past bitter memories). If you had to think of words to describe your mother/father, what words come to your mind? Explain why?
3. Before admitted in this ‘school’, what was your activity during weekend or spare time? Explain.
4. What is the best thing you have done? Who helped, encourages and supported you? (Next, what is the worst thing you have done? Who helped, encourages and supported?).
5. How do you see the important of religion have been applied in your daily life? Explain.
6. Do you see things happen in your life are because of your own choice, your parent’s fault, other people fault, or faith? Explain.
7. Do you think breaking the law or committed antisocial and/or delinquent activities is a big deal or otherwise? Explain why?
8. If you had to think of words to describe yourself, what words come to your mind? Explain why?

About other people?

1. Who do you think is most important to you? Why?
2. Can you tell something about your close friends, neighbour, teacher or other people surrounding you? What are the factors that you think make them a better/worst people?
3. Do you have unforgettable experience while being with your past friends/other peoples? Explain
4. Who do you most admire? (They may say a film star or pop star). Why? Who in your life do you admire (someone you know in real life from your friends, relative, neighbour; who do you most admire)? Why?
Panduan Interview

Bagaimana mereka mengakhiri kesilapan mereka sebelum berada di sini?

1. Boleh anda beritahu saya satu-persatu secara urutan, aktiviti-aktiviti devian dan delinkuen yang pernah anda lakukan, dan umur anda ketika kejadiannya itu?
2. Berapa kali anda telah dimasukkan ke pusat/sekolah pemulihan akhlak ini? Di mana dan bila? Apakah tuduhan yang dikenakan kepada anda?
5. Bagaimana anda fikir anda telah berubah semenjak anda dimasukkan ke sekolah ini?

Tentang diri dan pengalaman mereka

4. Apakah perkara yang terbaik pernah anda lakukan? Siapa yang membantu dan menyokong anda? (Kemudian, apakah perkara yang terburuk pernah anda lakukan? Siapa yang membantu dan menyokong anda?).
6. Adakah anda melihat sesuatu yang berlaku dalam hidup anda ini disebabkan oleh pilihan anda, kesalahan ibubapa, orang lain, atau takdir? Jelaskan.
7. Adakah anda fikir melanggar undang-undang atau melakukan aktiviti-aktiviti antisocial dan/atau delinkuen merupakan suatu masalah yang besar atau sebaliknya? Jelaskan mengapa?
8. Jika anda harus memikirkan perkataan untuk menjelaskan tentang diri anda, apakah perkataan yang keluar dari fikiran anda? Jelaskan mengapa?

Mengenai orang lain?

1. Siapakah yang anda fikir sangat penting kepada anda? Kenapa?
2. Boleh anda memberitahu serba-sedikit mengenai kawan baik anda, jiran, guru atau orang-orang disekeliling anda? Apakah factor-faktor yang anda fikir mereka itu adalah orang yang baik atau buruk?
4. Siapakah orang yang paling anda suka? (Mereka mungkin bintang filem atau bintang popular). Kenapa? Siapakah dalam hidup anda yang paling anda suka (seseoorang yang anda kenali dalam hidup anda seperti kawan, saudara-mara, jiran)? Mengapa?
APPENDIX E

Tables of Study 3
### Table 14:
Distribution of Mother and Father Attachment Style between Male in YRC A and B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attachment style</th>
<th>YRC A % (n)</th>
<th>YRC B % (n)</th>
<th>Chi-square value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secure</td>
<td>20.3 (13)</td>
<td>18.5 (5)</td>
<td>.040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambivalent</td>
<td>25.0 (16)</td>
<td>25.9 (7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance</td>
<td>54.7 (35)</td>
<td>55.6 (15)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secure</td>
<td>15.6 (10)</td>
<td>11.1 (3)</td>
<td>.322</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambivalent</td>
<td>48.4 (31)</td>
<td>51.9 (14)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance</td>
<td>35.9 (23)</td>
<td>37.0 (10)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 15:
Distribution of Mother and Father Attachment Style between Female in YRC C and D

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attachment style</th>
<th>YRC C % (n)</th>
<th>YRC D % (n)</th>
<th>Chi-square value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secure</td>
<td>21.7 (5)</td>
<td>19.4 (6)</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambivalent</td>
<td>43.5 (10)</td>
<td>45.2 (14)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance</td>
<td>34.8 (8)</td>
<td>35.5 (11)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secure</td>
<td>8.7 (2)</td>
<td>12.9 (4)</td>
<td>.249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambivalent</td>
<td>52.2 (12)</td>
<td>48.4 (15)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance</td>
<td>39.1 (9)</td>
<td>38.7 (12)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 16:
Distribution of Mother and Father Attachment Style between Male and Female Delinquent Institution Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attachment style</th>
<th>Male % (n)</th>
<th>Female % (n)</th>
<th>Chi-square value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secure</td>
<td>19.8 (18)</td>
<td>20.4 (11)</td>
<td>6.63*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambivalent</td>
<td>54.9 (50)</td>
<td>35.2 (19)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance</td>
<td>25.3 (23)</td>
<td>44.4 (24)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secure</td>
<td>14.3 (13)</td>
<td>11.1 (6)</td>
<td>.325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambivalent</td>
<td>36.3 (33)</td>
<td>38.9 (21)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance</td>
<td>49.5 (45)</td>
<td>50.0 (27)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at the .05 level
APPENDIX E

Table 17: Distribution of Mother and Father Attachment Style between Male and Female Non-delinquent Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attachment style</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Chi-square value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% (n)</td>
<td>% (n)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mother</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secure</td>
<td>82.0 (41)</td>
<td>90.0 (45)</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambivalent</td>
<td>18.0 (9)</td>
<td>10.0 (5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Father</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secure</td>
<td>54.0 (27)</td>
<td>58.0 (29)</td>
<td>.241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambivalent</td>
<td>38.0 (19)</td>
<td>36.0 (18)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance</td>
<td>8.0 (4)</td>
<td>6.0 (3)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX F

A Dictionary of Word and Proverb Used by the Interviewees in Study 2 and 4, and Other Parts of This Thesis
Malay (English)

A
Anjing dengan tahi (Dog with dung) - Malay proverb means one's who have had bad behaviour will never stop of doing it even at least for a small offence.
Arak – Alcoholic drinks, e.g., wine, beer.
Awek (Girl or girlfriend) - This is a colloquialism used by interviewee to refer to a girl, either his special girlfriend or other girl.

B
Bapak borek, anak rintik - Malay proverb means “as father as son”.
Balak (Log) – This is colloquialism used by interviewee referring to her boyfriend.
Bohsia (Young prostitute) – Specific for girl who having or serving sex for man without being paid.

G
Gila betina (Mad with female) – This is a harsh word to refer to man whom enjoy having a relationship with many women.
Gila talak (Mad with divorce) – This is a harsh word to refer to man who prefers disown one’s wife and thus end the marriage, and then get married again with the same woman, and keep continuing it again and again.

H
Haruan makan anak (Haruan eat his own baby) – Haruan is a name type of the river fish who will kill his own babies once they were born. Malay proverb means a father who rapes his own children.

J
Jaga tepi kain orang (Guard others skirt edge) – Malay proverb means people who prefer to know or busy of what other peoples doing, and cannot stop of doing it.
Jantan (This is a harsh word to refer to man. This word usually used to acknowledge male animal).

K
Kaki perempuan (Woman leg) – Malay proverb means man who prefers to have a relationship with many women.
Kaki rogol (Rape leg) – Malay proverb means man who did crime of forcing another person (female) to submit to sex acts, especially sexual intercourse.
Keras kepala (Hard head) – Malay proverb means a person who is stubborn.
Kojol (Die) – This is a harsh word to refer to unsuccessful condition.

L
Lah – Individual used ‘lah’ at the end of the word to express the strong feeling of that word.
Liar (Wild) – This word refers to uncontrolled or bad behaviour.
APPENDIX F

M
Main (Play) - Rape or making love.
Makan gaji buta (Eating blind salary) - Harsh word means earn the salary without doing their work properly.
Mat motor (Motorbike man) – A man who always racing motorbike for the purpose of enjoying himself or being together with his friends.
Mulut celupar (Bad mouth) – Harsh word means a person who used rude, harsh or swear word while talking.
Mulut jalang (Bitch mouth) - Harsh words means a person who likes to tell others about one’s weaknesses or badness.
Mulut murai (Magpie mouth) - Malay proverb that means a person who likes to talk all the times.
Mulut manis, tapi hati jahat (Sweet mouth, but evil heart) – Malay proverb which means a person who being so nice while talking, but at the same time have a bad intention of it.
Mampus (Die) – Harsh word means in deep trouble.

P
Parti seks (Sex party) - Have sex with many peoples in succession.
Pilih bulu (Select the feather) - Discrimination
Pijak kepala kita (Step on our head) – Malay proverb means somebody whom act too much and lost of respects to other people.

R
Rokok daun (Leaf cigarette ) – Cigarette role from nipah leave.

S
Sampah masyarakat (Public garbage) – Malay proverb means a useless person.
Serang (Attack) – This is a harsh word used by the interviewee to refer to rape or sexual assault.

T
Tak sedar diri (Unconscious) – This is a harsh word used by the interviewee to refer to disrespectful person.
Talam dua muka (Two faces tray) - Malay proverb means people who cannot be trusted.
APPENDIX G

Figure for Study 2 and 3 on the Offences Committed by Participants
(Data were collected through the Juvenile Files)
APPENDIX G

Figure 1:
Distribution of Respondents in Study 2 by Offences

Figure 2:
Distribution of Respondents in Study 3 (Specific for Delinquent Institution Group) by Offences
APPENDIX H

Juvenile Courts Act, 1947 (Act 90)
(Selected sections only)
Section 6. Bail of juveniles arrested.
Where a person apparently a juvenile is arrested with or without a warrant, he shall be brought before a Juvenile Court and, where he cannot be brought forthwith before a Juvenile Court, the police officer or other person making the arrest shall without unnecessary delay take or send the person arrested before a Sessions Court Judge or a Magistrate who shall inquire into the case and –
(a) unless the charge is one of murder or other grave crime; or
(b) unless it is necessary in the interest of the person arrested to remove him from association with any undesirable person; or
(c) unless the Sessions Court Judge or Magistrate has reason to believe that the release of that person would defeat the ends of justice,
shall release the person on a bond, with or without sureties, for such amount as will, in the opinion of the Sessions Court Judge or Magistrate, secure the attendance of that person upon the hearing of the charge, being executed by himself or by his parent or guardian or other responsible person:
Provided that –
(i) where the person arrested is alleged triable by virtue of section 3A by a Sessions Court or Magistrates’ Court he may be brought before that Court instead of before a Juvenile Court; and
(ii) nothing in this subsection shall be deemed to affect the powers of a police officer to release the person arrested on bail or otherwise in accordance with the Criminal Procedure Code.

Section 8A. Submission of information by the police after arrest.
It shall be the duty of the police officer or other person making the arrest, immediately after the arrest of a juvenile, to inform the probation officer and the parent or guardian of the arrest and to cause to be transmitted to the probation officer a copy of the charge and other information necessary to enable the probation officer to take such action as may be necessary to obtain the information required for the purposes of section 10 (6).

Section 9. Parent or guardian may be required to attend.
Where a child or young person is charged with any offence or is for any other reason brought before a Juvenile Court, his parent or guardian may in any case, and shall if he can be found and resides within a reasonable distance, he required to attend at the Court before which the case is heard or determined during all the stages of the proceedings, unless the Court is satisfied that it would be unreasonable to require the attendance of the parent or guardian.

Section 10. Procedure in Juvenile Court
(1) Where a juvenile is brought before a Juvenile Court for any offence it shall be the duty of the Court as soon as possible to explain to him in simple language the substance of the alleged offence.
(2) After explaining the substance of the alleged offence, the Court shall ask the juvenile whether he admits the facts constituting the offence.
(3) If the juvenile does not admit the facts constituting the offence, the Court shall then hear the evidence of the witnesses in support thereof. At the close of the evidence in
chief of each witness the juvenile (and, if the court thinks fit, his parent or guardian) shall be asked if he wishes to put any questions to the witness, and, if he so wishes, he shall be permitted to do so.

(6) If the juvenile admits the offence or the court is satisfied that it is proved, he shall then be asked if he desires to say anything in extenuation or mitigation of penalty or otherwise. Before deciding how to deal with him the Court shall obtain such information as to his general conduct, home surroundings, school record, and medical history, as may enable it to deal with the case in the best interests of the juvenile, and may put to him any question arising out of the information. For the purpose of obtaining such information as aforesaid or for special medical examination or observation the court may from time to time release the juvenile on bail or remand him to a place of detention.

(7) If the juvenile admits the offence or the Court is satisfied that it is proved, and the Court decides that a remand is necessary for purposes of inquiry or observation, the court may remand him accordingly and may cause an entry to be made in the court records that the charge is proved and that the juvenile has been remanded.

Section 12. Powers of a Juvenile Court on proof of offence.

(1) Where a Juvenile Court is satisfied that an offence has been proved, the Court shall, in addition to any other powers exercisable by virtue of this Act or any other law for the time being in force, have power –

(a) to admonish and discharge the offender;
(b) to discharge the offender upon his entering into a bond to be of good behaviour and to comply with such order as may be imposed;
(c) to commit the offender to the care of a relative or other fit person;
(d) to order his parent or guardian to execute a bond to exercise proper care and guardianship;
(e) without making any other order, or in addition to an order under paragraph (c) or (d), to make a probation order under section 21;
(f) to order the offender to be sent to an approved school or Henry Gurney school;
(g) to order the offender to pay a fine, compensation or costs; and
(h) where the offender is a young person and the offence is punishable with imprisonment the Court may, subject to section 15(2), impose upon him any term of imprisonment which could be awarded by a Sessions Court or, if the Court considers that its powers are inadequate, commit him to the High Court for sentence.

Section 15. Restriction on punishment of children and young persons.

(1) No child shall be sentenced or ordered to be imprisoned for any offence or be committed to prison in default of payment of a fine, damages or costs.

(2) No young person shall be sentenced or ordered to be imprisoned if he can be suitably dealt with in any other way whether by probation, fine, or committal to a place of detention, approved school, or Henry Gurney School, or otherwise.

(3) A young person sentenced or ordered to be imprisoned shall not be allowed to associate with adult prisoners.
Section 26. Provision of approved schools.
(1) Such approved school as may be required for the purposes of this Act shall be provided or appointed by the Minister.
(2) The Minister may classify such approved schools according to the age of the persons for whom they are intended and in such other ways as he may think fit so as to secure that a person sent to an approved school is sent to a school appropriate to his case.

Section 28. Period of detention.
Where a Juvenile Court orders a juvenile to be sent to an approved school, the order shall be an authority for his detention therein for a period of three years.

Section 37. Children and young persons beyond control.
Where the parent or guardian of a child or young person proves to a Juvenile Court that he is unable to control him, the Court, if satisfied —
(a) that it is expedient so to deal with the child or young person; and
(b) that the parent or guardian understands the results which will follow from and consents to the making of the order, may order the child or young person to be sent to an approved school, a Henry Gurney School or an institution or home approved for the purpose by the Minister or may order him to be placed for a specified period, not exceeding three years, under the supervision of a probation officer or of some other person appointed for the purpose by the Court and any such order may require the child or young person to reside for a period not exceeding twelve months in a probation hostel.

Section 39. Committal to a Henry Gurney School.
(1) Where a young person is found guilty of any offence punishable with imprisonment.
   And it appears to the Juvenile Court —
   (a) that the offender is not less than fourteen and is under eighteen years; and
   (b) that by reason of the nature of the offence or of the offender's criminal habits or tendencies or association with persons of bad character, it is expedient that the offender should be subject to detention for such term and under such instruction and discipline as appears most conducive to his reformation and the repression of crime, it shall be lawful for the Court, to send the offender to a Henry Gurney School.
(2) Where a Juvenile Court orders a young person to be sent to a Henry Gurney School, the order shall be an authority for his detention for a period of three years from the date of the order ...

As referred to the above information, it is certain that each person who committed with offences as stated in the Act and law, will not be excused from penalisation, including those who are children and young people. Moreover, Section 9 mentions how it is important that the parent or guardian is informed and participates in their children cases.