Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities

About the Journal

Pertanika is an international peer-reviewed journal devoted to the publication of original papers, and it serves as a forum for practical approaches to improving quality in issues pertaining to tropical agriculture and its related fields. Pertanika began publication in 1978 as the Journal of Tropical Agricultural Science. In 1992, a decision was made to streamline Pertanika into three journals to meet the need for specialised journals in areas of study aligned with the interdisciplinary strengths of the university.

The revamped Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities (JSSH) aims to develop as a pioneer journal for the Social Sciences with a focus on emerging issues pertaining to the social and behavioural sciences as well as the humanities, particularly in the Asia Pacific region. Other Pertanika series include Pertanika Journal of Tropical Agricultural Science (JTAS); and Pertanika Journal of Science and Technology (JST).

JSSH is published in **English** and it is open to authors around the world regardless of the nationality. It is currently published four times a year i.e. in **March**, **June**, **September** and **December**.

Goal of *Pertanika*

Our goal is to bring the highest quality research to the widest possible audience.

Quality

We aim for excellence, sustained by a responsible and professional approach to journal publishing. Submissions are guaranteed to receive a decision within 12 weeks. The elapsed time from submission to publication for the articles averages 5-6 months.

Indexing of *Pertanika*

Pertanika is now over 33 years old; this accumulated knowledge has resulted Pertanika JSSH being indexed in SCOPUS (Elsevier), EBSCO, Thomson (ISI) Web of Knowledge [CAB Abstracts], DOAJ, Google Scholar, ISC, Citefactor, Rubriq and MyAIS.

Future vision

We are continuously improving access to our journal archives, content, and research services. We have the drive to realise exciting new horizons that will benefit not only the academic community, but society itself.

We also have views on the future of our journals. The emergence of the online medium as the predominant vehicle for the 'consumption' and distribution of much academic research will be the ultimate instrument in the dissemination of research news to our scientists and readers.

Aims and Scope

Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities aims to provide a forum for high quality research related to social sciences and humanities research. Areas relevant to the scope of the journal include: *Accounting, Agricultural & resource economics, Anthropology, Communication, Community and peace studies, Design and architecture, Disaster and crisis management, Economics, Education, Extension education, Finance, Gerontology, Hospitality and tourism, Human ecology, Human resource development, Language studies (education, applied linguistics, acquisition, pedagogy), Language literature (literary & cultural studies), Management, Marketing, Psychology, Safety and environment, Social and behavioural sciences, Sociology, Sustainable development*, and *Ethnic relations*.

Editorial Statement

Pertanika is the official journal of Universiti Putra Malaysia. The abbreviation for Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities is *Pertanika J. Soc. Sci. Hum.*

Pertanika Journal of

SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES

A special issue devoted to
Current Trends in Psychological Research in Malaysia

Vol. 21 (S) Dec. 2013
(Special Issue)

International Advisory Board

Preface

The past decade has seen rapid changes in the environment, locally and globally. These rapid changes have shaped and affected individuals and society in terms of behaviour, emotions and thoughts. Psychologists have done observations, have assessed and analysed situations to bring about understanding and to justify the necessity of interventions on the needs of individuals and the society. Research and publications have helped psychologists to improve their understanding of human needs and intervention techniques as well as behavioral models for the betterment of human beings.

It is therefore crucial for researchers in Malaysia to focus on the current trends in psychological research in the understanding of how changes have affected human beings. Findings on psychological interventions could help in managing the issues and problems thus ensuring well being in the society generally. An in-house workshop was organized by the School of Psychology and Human Development, Faculty Of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM), Bangi, Selangor from 28 and 29 May 2013. The theme of the workshop was "Current trends in psychological research in Malaysia". From a total of 17 research papers, 15 papers were selected based on the recommendations made by the reviewers.

The success of the publication of this special issue would not have been possible without the strong and endless support from the Dean of the Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, UKM, Professor Dr. Hazita Azman. My heartfelt appreciation goes to her. I also wish to thank Associate Professor Dr.Fatimah Omar, the Chairperson of the School of Psychology and Human Development of the Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities for ensuring that the academic staffs of the school are constantly reminded about their commitment towards research and publications in the field.

Special thanks to the Chief Executive Editor, UPM Journals, Dr Nayan Kanwal for his support and understanding on the needs in making the publication of this special issue possible. This has certainly motivated the team at UKM to persevere and work even harder.

Last but not least I wish to congratulate the authors of the articles for all their efforts and hard work. Let us all pray that we grow from strength to strength as researchers and practitioners of psychology for the benefit of all human kind..

Rohany Nasir
Guest Editor

December 2013

Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities
Vol. 21 (S) Dec. 2013

Contents

Current Trends in Psychological Research in Malaysia

SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES

Cultural Influences in Mental Health Help-seeking among Malaysian Family Caregivers

Mohd Suhaimi Mohamad*, Nasrudin Subhi, Ezarina Zakaria and Nur Saadah Mohamad Aun

School of Psychology and Human Development, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

Previous research has found that ethnicity and culture play a significant role in the stress and coping process for family caregivers. There has been limited amount of research focusing on Malaysian families' mental health concerns, yet some emerging evidence suggests that the caregiver's experience of living with the mentally ill showed some differences associated with the caregiver's place of dwelling and ethnic background. The purpose of this article is to describe the experience of the help-seeking process and cultural coping strategy utilised by Malaysian families in dealing with mental health issues. In this study, a purposive sample of 24 family caregivers was interviewed to explore the caregivers' help-seeking process and their coping strategies in reducing caregiving stress. Transcribed data were analysed using the qualitative framework-analysis technique. The findings of this study indicated that family caregivers still believe in supernatural and mystical factors when describing their relatives' mental illness. They used coping mechanisms based on religious and cultural beliefs as a vital strategy for managing the cultural issues associated with mental illness due to the limited mental health resources that are available in their community. All these findings provide future research directions to better understand the interaction between culture and mental health, as well as mental health care policies to address potential family and community social problems in the help-seeking process to cope with the stress of caregiving.

INTRODUCTION

Family caregiving in mental illness is a complex phenomenon of how families

provide care for a mentally ill relative throughout their life span. Many researchers have tried to unravel the dilemma of caring for family members with mental illness (Azhar, 2001; Harvey *et. al*., 2001; Lefley, 1996; Lopez *et. al*., 2004; Miller, 1997; Mohamad *et. al*., 2011; Szmukler *et. al*., 1996; Webb *et. al*., 1998). The term 'caregiving' itself is ubiquitous, but people generally take the meaning for granted. There is no exact definition of the term and the boundaries of what is included in the term are subjective. Nonetheless, Biegel *et al*. (1991) have defined family caregiving as "the provision of assistance and support by one family member to another as a regular and usual part of family interaction, and is in fact a normative and pervasive activity" (p.16). Families who provide care for their mentally ill relatives are influenced by various factors such as political, social, cultural contexts, related policies and services (Johnson, 2000; Milstein *et. al*., 1994; Nitsche *et. al*., 2010; Roick *et. al*., 2006; Solomon & Draine, 1995).

Throughout the world, families are the major caregivers for people with mental illness (Desjarlais *et. al*., 1997). The picture varies cross-culturally and with respect to both cultural and racial groups. Lefley (2002) suggested that the idea of family caregiving could be divided into two global cultural systems, 'individualism' or 'collectivism'. Kim *et. al*. (1996) stated that individualism gives primacy to individual rights and boundaries, conceptualizing each person as a separate entity from the group, whereas the socio-centric or collectivism

perspective focuses on family, group membership and social role obligations. Lefley (2002) suggested that these two systems have effects on families' roles in caregiving, perspectives on disability, and relationships with members who are mentally ill. The distinction between these systems may be particularly important in law, because they involve disparate worldviews regarding the rights and responsibilities of individuals compared to those of the family and social order. In a comparison of the perceived interpersonal obligations of an individualistic versus collectivist culture, Western society has an interpersonal moral code that stresses personal freedom of choice and individual responsibility, whereas Eastern society has a duty-based interpersonal moral code that emphasizes mandatory responsibilities towards others (Miller & Bersoff, 1998). These views are based on one's position compared to the other person in the social and familial matrix.

In the oriental culture, family is regarded as the most important cohesive unit in society. For example, traditionally, Chinese families always look after their mentally ill members instead of sending their sick family members to a mental hospital (Chang & Horrocks, 2006). These perceptions have been influenced by their belief and culture in the community. Yip (2005) discussed the Chinese family caregiver's inclination to assume the responsibility in caring for their family members with mental illness. Some of the Chinese families feel shame to disclose family members' mental illnesses to others

(Lee *et. al.*, 2005). Furthermore, Lau (1993) argued that Chinese families were unwilling to seek outside help in caring for family members with disabilities as it may result in shameful disgrace to the whole family. They may feel inadequate in asking for external help including professional intervention (Yip, 2005). Chinese family caregivers are deeply influenced by `familism' which means that Chinese individuals are accustomed to place family honour, family continuation, family prosperity, and stability above individual interests (Yang, 1995). Nevertheless, mentally ill family members can be or should be protected continuously by their families.

In addition, religious belief plays a significant role in caring for a family member with mental illness. Guarnaccia and Parra (1996) noted that a strong religious belief in the healing power of God is a factor affecting family caregivers' perceptions about curing their mentally ill relatives and that these beliefs are more strongly expressed by minority families. Similarly, Pirani *et. al.* (2007) explored the role of a Muslim shrine as a traditional multi-faceted resource in Pakistan and found that the Pakistani people perceived and used religious venues as major sources of help when dealing with physical, social, and mental-health problems. In addition, religion can also have an effect on family-relative relationships. For example, Haque (2005) stated that Islam is a way of life and not just a religion in the narrow sense of the term in prescribing behaviours in all areas of life including the family care giving role.

Flannelly and Inouye (2001) suggested that religion and spirituality may be positively linked with life satisfaction and quality of life. However, these ideas are predominantly based on Christian populations. Pirani *et al.* (2007) noted that individuals and families seek religious healing to improve their mental, physical, emotional, and spiritual health, thus, religious coping is utilized to deal with mental distress.

Based on their research, Aneshensel *et. al.* (1995) portrayed the caregiver's career in three stages: role acquisition, role enactment, and role disengagement. Within each of these stages the building blocks of the stress process theory, for example, primary and secondary stressors, stress proliferation, and stress containment (moderators of stress) are the result of caregiving roles. Godres (2005) noted that the family caregiver's role to people with mental illness is unpleasant and uncomfortable. This was further supported by Wasow (1995) who conducted in-depth interviews with twenty parents, children, siblings, grandparents, and extended relatives of family members with mental illness. His study explored the ways in which mental illness affects all the members of the family, not just the caregiver. Wasow (1995) suggested that families and practitioners need to learn from each other to understand the ripple effects of mental illness on all family members, not just the primary caregiver. The abnormal and dependent behaviours of the mentally ill relative could cause emotional and economic distress to his or her family (Magana *et. al.*, 2007).

On the other hand, Twigg and Atkin (1994) do not consider that the role of family caregivers to their family members with mental illness is necessarily unpleasant, but rather that it is the responsibility and sharing of one's life with another person. Thus, the nature of this type of care includes providing a home, coping with financial or public authorities, managing crises or hospitalisation periodically, and preventing the family member from falling into lethargy and self-neglect (Twigg & Atkin, 1994). For example, Endrawes *et. al.* (2007) found that Egyptian families tend to keep caring for their mentally ill relatives even though they experience feelings of powerlessness, lack of support, isolation, embarrassment, and stigma. They also found that Egyptians have a high sense of duty and obligation to maintain family ties and keep the family together despite the difficulties imposed by the illness of their relatives. Haque (2004) noted that 'caring for a sick family' is God's will and they believe that they will gain a reward either in this world or the afterlife for the good deeds that they do. This of course, reflects the collectivist nature of the Muslim society in general.

In line with the study above, which views caring as a rewarding experience, Chen and Greenberg (2004) conducted a study to examine family members' caregiving gains as a result of caring for their relatives with schizophrenic spectrum disorders, and the influence of formal and informal social support on these positive experiences. They found that formal support from mental health professionals through information

sharing and collaborative interactions, and informal support and contribution from other relatives, and support group participation have significant, positive associations with family members' experiences of caregiving gains. Although the satisfaction of caring is a cognitive and subjective process that may not be easily apparent to others, satisfaction may function as a coping resource, quality control measure, or "risk" indicator (Nolan *et. al.*, 1996). Therefore, it proves that the experience of caregiving is not necessarily negative. Therefore, this study is to understand the experience of the help-seeking process and cultural coping strategy utilised by Malaysian families in dealing with mental health issues.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

A qualitative, descriptive research method as suggested by Flick (2006) was undertaken to analyse the family caregiver's experiences with the use of community mental health services. Participants were recruited from two community clinics in Perak and Kedah. A formal ethical approval and administrative clearance was obtained from the National Medical Research Register, Ministry of Health of Malaysia. A written informed consent was obtained from each participant. Subsequently, the participants were given a choice to select the interview site based on their convenience whether in their homes or in the community clinics. The interview took approximately 45 minutes and it was audio-taped.

Sample

Twenty-four family caregivers volunteered to participate in the study. Two thirds were Malays, with six Chinese and two Indians. Most of the Malays live in the rural area and all but one of the Chinese live in the urban area. All Indians live in the urban area. The caregivers were recruited equally from both the urban and rural areas. More female (14) than male (10) caregivers were interviewed. Most were parents with two thirds being mothers. An equal number of husbands and wives were recruited in this study. There were five siblings, two brothers and three sisters of schizophrenic patients. Most of the caregivers were aged 50 years old and above. Only one of the caregivers was younger, below 40 years old who is a wife to a mentally ill husband. These participants have been providing care for their mentally ill family member for a period of one year to more than 20 years. The average of caring duration was 12 years.

Data Collection

This study used a semi-structured interview because it allows a less rigid format of data collection with open-ended questions to elicit more qualitative information. The researcher conducted semi-structured interviews with the main caregivers. The main caregiver was defined as the family member who spends most of their time with the relative and it must be proven by the relative as being one without whom the relative would not be able to maintain their position of living in the community. The semi-structured interview enabled exploration of the mental health help-seeking process from the caregivers' perspectives with respect to their caring roles toward people with mental illness in their home settings. Data collection stopped when it reached the point of data saturation, in which no new information about their experiences emerged.

Data Analysis

Each interview was transcribed. The researcher reviewed the transcripts while listening to tapes and conducted the transcription to make sure that the interview content was complete. A second reading of the transcripts was then completed to obtain a general impression of the caregivers' experiences of services used, particularly to the benefits and barriers experienced by the caregivers. The data analysis was conducted using N-Vivo to assist in organizing the emerging free nodes. Later, all emerging nodes were clustered under the tree nodes. The framework analysis suggested by Ritchie *et al.* (2003) was applied. There were five stages of framework analysis:

1. Familiarisation with data (becoming thoroughly immersed in the material collected)

2. Indexing data (labelling key issues that emerge across a set of data)

3. Devising a series of thematic charts (allowing the full pattern across a set of data to be explored and reviewed)

4. Mapping and interpreting data (looking for associations, providing explanations, highlighting key characteristics and ideas)

5. Developing a thematic framework (identifying key issues from data)

The same framework was used to map the themes and sub-themes into different groups such as urban versus rural and Malay versus non-Malay to see the similarities and differences between the caregivers' answers. Later, the main theme of caregiving experiences was further examined using all the frameworks to identify categories and patterns in caregivers' responses. Verbatim quotes from study respondents were selected to illustrate the identified themes and categories. The frequency of themes emerged was also recorded to see which issue or idea was commonly discussed by caregivers.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

One major category of help-seeking process and three categories of cultural beliefs about coping were identified from the data analysis which included: (1) family caregiver's help-seeking process, (2) help seeking based on ethnic beliefs, (3) help seeking based on cultural beliefs and (4) traditional healing. Descriptions of these categories with supporting data are given below.

Family Caregiver's Help-seeking Process

In order to understand the life experiences of family caregiving to a person with mental illness, it is important to understand the caregiver's appraisal concerning the problems relating to the help seeking process and how they are coping with their stress. Their experiences of living with mental illness showed some differences associated with the caregiver's area of residence and ethnic background in their help-seeking process and coping strategies. To understand how appraisal and coping processes ultimately affect adaptation outcomes, we must first understand how these processes affect the experiences of stressful encounters in an individual's life. Specifically, the primary appraisal can be affected by the past experiences of the stressful encounter with its adaptive outcomes. Not surprisingly, if the family caregivers provided a historical perspective about their experiences of caring as a response to their help-seeking process, this information is treated as individual factors because it varies between each caregiver. The historical perspectives of caregivers can explain how their current understanding about mental illness were shaped based on their knowledge and beliefs as well as what they had learnt in the past. Possibly, caregivers who used the mental health services might agree or disagree with the treatment of their mentally ill relatives. Those who agreed will choose to send their relative to undergo a formal mental health assessment and treatment from a mental health service agency but those who did not agree will seek alternative treatment or traditional healing. Family caregivers in this study experimented treatment using traditional ways. The Malay caregivers especially perceived traditional healing as complementary. Most of the caregivers looked for alternatives or new treatments while searching for the best treatment. When

they were satisfied with the treatment they continued with it, although some pursued other treatments for better outcomes, until they reached their own level of satisfaction for help-seeking.

Help-seeking Based on Ethnic Beliefs

The complexity of the caregivers' help-seeking experiences for a person with severe mental illness might be valued by understanding their ethnic beliefs. In Malaysia, mental illness such as schizophrenia is interpreted differently by the public compared to the people who have been diagnosed with schizophrenia. Furthermore, their families might not receive equal justice compared to other medical diseases. Community members are likely to believe that mental illness is a lifetime disease and cannot be treated. Furthermore, undergoing mental health treatment and medications are viewed by many people as a start to severe personality changes and drug dependency which then form more worries among families and community. Misunderstandings of people with mental illness are often dangerous, harmful, violent and worsens the situation not only to those suffering but also their families (Sorketti *et. al*., 2012). It is even worse when the mental health service users and families have been stigmatised because of mental illness. Thus, for every individual suffering severe mental illness there is a family and social support system that will be affected. Not only does the family have to deal with an illness that cannot be entirely cured, they also have to shoulder the stigma and perception attached to it. Social isolation may result from the fear and stigma, ~~thus~~, consequently curbing the family's ability to obtain social support.

Some people still believe in supernatural and mystical factors associated with mental illness. To them, mental illness is the result of individual internal factors which become apparent in a particular belief such as the illness is a "curse from God" or the punishment of the past sins (karma), loss of mind strength, incitement of "Jin", the imbalance of "chi" and the incitement of the evil spirits (manifestations of evil spirits). Such beliefs are observed across ethnicity (Haque, 2001, 2005; Tan, 2007; Yeap, 2008). These superstitious beliefs are not exclusive as some caregivers in this study also believe in these things, which influence their thinking when describing their relatives' mental illness. For instance, some of the older caregivers believed that their relatives had been victimised by evil doers who had used black magic on them. The black magic was said to cause the victim to become insane.

Caregivers also described a bad *dukun or bomoh* (a local traditional shaman) who had cast a spell on their family members. They claimed that the *dukun* was paid by someone who was jealous and unhappy with their families. Some of the caregivers often associated the relative's altered behaviour to black magic. For instance, an older caregiver admitted that his relative started behaving oddly after coming back from a night class and that the person might be possessed by an evil spirit. Consequently, there was also the issue of taboo described by the caregiver

about his relative's mental illness. For instance, a Malay husband explained that his wife's illness was perceived as a taboo when she broke the rules of "Saka". Saka is a superstitious belief in Malay society about genies or fairies that act as guardians of their owners. In Malay customs, the rule of the *saka* is to protect its owner, usually a woman, from her enemies. His statement is illustrated below:

> *She became ill after she walked under the clothes' line. It's speculated that she has saka and one of the taboos for that person is to walk under the clothesline. I think that is what my in-laws believe about her illness.*

Another Chinese caregiver perceived that her sister had been possessed by the spirit of dead people because of her ignorance of the ' do's' and 'don'ts' dictated by her great grandparents:

> *For me she is like this because of her ignorance of what my great grandparents reminded us about. I believe that if she did not follow the bad influence of her friends, she wouldn't be possessed by the bad spirit. If she had stayed away from those bad influences, she would be fine. Now it's too late, my great grandparents are upset with her.*

There was an Indian caregiver who described the *karma* associated with the relative's mental illness. She believed that her relative led an unrighteous life because he was very arrogant and did not care about other people in the past. Her statement is illustrated below:

> *He used to treat us badly as a family. He was such an arrogant child and never cared about us. He never helped his brothers, never sent money to us. After he was dumped by his girlfriend and left alone after all his friends got married, he started to have depression. I believe it all happened because God punished him for his bad behaviour as a human being.*

Help-seeking Based on Cultural Beliefs

Caregivers in this present study used help-seeking process based on religious and cultural beliefs. A cultural belief is a coping mechanism and it is an important strategy for managing the cultural issues associated with mental illness.

Religious Coping

Many of the caregivers stressed the importance of religious coping in managing their caregiving experiences of a person diagnosed with schizophrenia. Caregivers sought religious support to cope with their stressful life. For instance, one Malay caregiver has a strong belief concerning spiritual healing, especially when dealing with mental illness. A mother who believes in spiritual coping stated that her daughter's

spirit will be restored to fight the mental illness when using specific tools that contain spiritual power:

> I used to bring her to the ustaz (the religious figure in Muslim society) to get air-penawar (so called 'holy water' for Muslims). It's important to raise her spirit. Besides, I also took the water for my grandchildren to improve their memory and to help them excel in their studies.

Another mother commented that the *air-penawar* was used to boost her relative's confidence but that it was only temporary and serves as a complement to conventional medicine. It was believed that the *air-penawar* supposedly contains spiritual powers to control her relative's difficult behaviour. Some caregivers used spiritual healing to treat their relative because of its availability as a resource in their community, especially when they were unable to access other forms of community services. A caregiver who is a Malay father recounted that he used to recite *doa* (prayers) and worship *Allah* (the standard Arabic word for God that is mostly used by Muslims) on a daily basis for his relative's recovery. Most of the Muslim caregivers believe that *Allah* will help them throughout their life, for both the good and bad. For instance,

> I never fail to pray and worship Allah. I believe that by glorifying Allah continuously my doa (prayers) will be granted. Only with His

> [refers to Allah] permission will they recover.

This study found that the coping strategy pertaining to religious beliefs used by respondents was similar to earlier findings by Pirani *et. al*. (2007). Individuals and families seek religious healing to improve their mental, physical, emotional and spiritual health. In other words, religious coping is utilized to deal with mental distress.

In addition, some Chinese caregivers recounted that they used religious coping to deal with their relative's illness and their own problems. Some of the Chinese caregivers who were Buddhists assumed that their relatives were living with mental illness due to the impurity of their soul. Therefore, they brought their relatives to the temple and worshipped Buddha for recovery. Another Chinese caregiver who was a Christian noted that he regards the church as a good place for him to provide therapy for his relative through socialising with other members of the church. This is because, Christianity emphasizes on the relationship; relationship within the trinity of God, family relationships, and relationships with others (Maniam, 2001). A Chinese Christian said:

> I take her to church every weekend so that she can talk to other people. I believe that by following the church activities, she will mix around with other young people and she can practice to be a good

leader. This is because I notice that she likes to be a leader. I think this is a good form of therapy for her.

Consequently, from an Indian perspective, an Indian caregiver who was a Hindu, recounted that spiritual healing in the Hindu temple can enhance her relative's good health:

I used to go to India to treat him. We went to the famous Hindu temple in Gujarat. When we went there, we did a Pooja *[a Hindu prayer to God] and followed all the rituals conducted by the* Swami *[is primarily a Hindu honorific title for either male or female priestess]. I believed that the healing process would be more effective in such an environment. However, before we finished the three* poojas *he already ran away from the temple. Then the treatment became unsuccessful.*

One of the Chinese caregivers who was a sister of a mentally ill person testified that she used religious support for her own self. She said that she felt released and relaxed after the precept and meditation practices at the Buddhist temple. Most of the caregivers used religious coping to manage their relative's illness and their own problems. Each ethnic group has their own way of religious coping, which depends on their religious beliefs. Caregivers who have religious beliefs seem to be more positive with their caregiving experiences. This is because religion might genuinely promote positive psychology in human beings. People who used the religious coping method might have a boundary to control themselves, especially when facing tough and stressful situations. Previous literatures have stated that the religious coping style might promote better health because religious believers managed to control their behaviour when responding to any influential situations such as a life threatening event. Furthermore, religious and spiritual coping influence psychological distress and promote good health (Pargament *et. al.*, 2004). Therefore, caregivers who applied religious coping strategies might transform their stress in positive ways, which might reduce or buffer the psychological distress of caregiving.

Traditional Healing

In the community setting, caregivers demonstrated that they seek traditional healers for treating their relative. They believed that traditional healing is not limited to utilising therapeutic, physical means or prescribing a dose of medicine or herbs. However, it is a holistic approach that caters for the spiritual and psychological needs of their relative, together with other modes of treatment. Commonly, a traditional healing system is regarded as alternative medicine. A traditional healer in Malaysia is called a *bomoh*, *dukun*, or *pawang* who practises alternative medicine incorporating the therapeutic usage of herbs, metals and animal parts. It has been noted that the traditional healers, especially the elders who are called *tok*, are treated with great respect, particularly in rural societies.

The traditional help seeking process is a kind of 'trial and error' to find an effective way to treat the relative's mental illness. During this process, caregivers usually depend on the intermediate community resources that are available. Some of the caregivers tried other alternative treatments as recommended by people in their support networks. For instance, another Malay caregiver also confessed that she has had the experience of using a bomoh because initially she thought that her mental illness was caused by the possession of an evil spirit. Her action in seeking alternative treatment was highly influenced by friends. It is also noted that some of the caregivers were not fully satisfied with the traditional treatment that they had sought. They recalled their experience of traditional healing as *bomoh-shopping* (shopping around for traditional healer) as their coping strategy to search for better traditional healers. Therefore, some of the caregivers might use both treatments, in which the alternative medicine is regarded as complementary to the modern medicine. However, those who found that the traditional treatments failed would rely on the mental health services for treating their relatives. For example:

> *Yes, previously I used to take them to the bomoh. I tried so many bomohs, it's kind of bomoh-shopping. Any recommended bomoh I tried… and none of them were effective. For me it was a waste of money, especially when I realised that it is not a spirit possession, but something else like*

genetic disease. It was then that I decided to take them to the doctor and started to use the prescribed medication. Only after that did I find some improvement with them.

Another caregiver also testified that the traditional healing was not effective and just a waste of money and energy in the attempt to find better treatment. This situation caused him to choose mental health services to cure his brother. At the same time, a caregiver reported that she faced difficulty in pursuing medical treatment for her daughter's mental illness because her husband was more inclined to use traditional treatment. Thus, this discrepancy had caused stress and conflict within the family. It is noted that some of the caregivers used traditional healing because of the influence of other family members who believe in traditional treatments, especially to treat illnesses (e.g., schizophrenia) which has highly been associated with superstition. For example, one Malay caregiver who is a husband to a mentally ill wife claimed that his family-in-laws wanted to treat his wife using traditional healing because they thought this mental illness was *Saka* and he accepted it without question as long as it did not harm his wife.

In addition, one Indian caregiver described that she practices alternative *Ayurvedic* medicine to treat her sister's illness while staying at home. Some of the caregivers recounted that the traditional healers use different treatments to cure their

relatives' mental illness. They mentioned that the *bomoh* used authentic sources as a form of spiritual therapy. For example:

> I used to bring the tok bomoh to my house to treat her. I saw the tok bomoh use lemon extract and local boreholes [boreholes are scarce, as rain and river water are the main sources of water supply in Malaysia] in the treatment. Then, the tok bomoh recited Quranic verses over her and cast magic spells into the water too.

Similarly, another caregiver also reported that the *bomoh* cast a magic spell on a stone and performed a massage therapy for treating his son's mental illness. One example about the *bomoh's* treatment given by a Malay caregiver who lives in the rural area described the bomoh who used a catfish to treat the relative's illness but the effect of the treatment was only temporary. Most of the caregivers who used the traditional treatments are Malay and the majority live in the rural areas. This might be because of their cultural beliefs and the limited resources available in their community for treating mental illness. Generally, caregivers who live in the urban areas are more exposed to other mental health services that provide them with more choices to treat their mentally ill relative.

Some of the Malay caregivers in this study showed that they are optimistic about the traditional treatments because of their positive attitude to keep searching for the best healers and even use them to complement mental health services. However, some of the caregivers disagree with the traditional treatments and only believe in the treatment provided by mental health services. Nevertheless, caregivers have their own right to choose what treatment suits their preferences in treating their relative. Usually they will try various treatments before deciding on the most reliable treatment. This is an important experience in ways of coping based on their cultural beliefs. Caregivers made judgements concerning their support systems that might be convenient and reliable in their environment. In other words, the cultural beliefs shaped their coping strategy and influenced their secondary appraisals to reduce their psychological distress. Therefore, this type of coping strategy can mediate the stress of caregiving. All these strategies are treated as mediating factors to mediate the caregiver's appraisals as a means to reduce their psychological distress. Cultural coping strategies are important factors in caregivers' reappraisal about their experiences of caregiving in Malaysia.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this paper is divided into two parts. First, is the explanation of the help seeking process among caregivers when they first began to face stressful life situations. Second, caregivers from different ethnic groups have their own ways of help-seeking and coping strategies. Most of the caregivers in this study used cultural coping, which can promote a positive

experience of caregiving because, in some way, it reduced their distress. At the same time, cultural coping is related to religious beliefs or religious healing. Cultural help-seeking was found to be more acceptable, in fact produced faster recovery than mental health treatment for caregivers in this study. Even though their relatives were treated in the mental health care system, their help-seeking process is a sociocultural approach which takes into account the social system of both families' and caregivers' values and beliefs. These values and beliefs are synonymous to cultural and religious influences. It can be concluded that the caregivers have their own way of seeing things and reacting to their stressors. All the caregiver's needs have to be calculated and targeted in their own right.

REFERENCES

Aneshensel, C. S., Pearlin L. I., Mullen, J. T., Zarit, S. H., & Whitlatch, C. J. (1995). *Profiles in caregiving: The unexpected career*. San Diego: Academic Press.

Azhar, M. Z. (2001). Mental illness and Malay culture: A study of Kelantan Malays. In A. Haque (Ed.)*, Mental health in Malaysia: Issues and concerns* (pp. 197-219). Kuala Lumpur: University of Malaya Press.

Biegel, D. E., Sales, E., & Schulz, R. (1991). *Family caregiving in chronic illness: Alzheimer's disease, cancer, heart disease, mental illness, and stroke*. Family caregiver applications series, 1. Newbury Park, Calif: Sage Publications.

Chang, K. H., & Horrocks, S. (2006). Lived experiences of family caregivers of mentally ill relatives. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 53*(4), 435-443. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2648.2006.03732.x/pdf

Chen, F. P., & Greenberg, J. S. (2004). A positive aspect of caregiving: The influence of social support on caregiving gains for family members of relatives with schizophrenia. *Community Mental Health Journal, 40*(5), 423-35. doi:10.5498/wjp.v2.i3.43

Desjarlais, R., Eisenberg, L., Good, B., Kleinman, A., Fox, J., & Dembling, B. (1997). World mental health: Problems and priorities in low-income countries. *Contemporary Psychology, 42*(1), 48. doi:full/10.1056/NEJM199511023331821

Endrawes, G., O'Brien, L., & Wilkes, L. (2007). Egyptian families caring for a relative with mental illness: A hermeneutic study. *International Journal of Mental Health Nursing, 16*(6), 431-440. doi:10.1111/j.1447- 0349.2007.00498.x

Flannelly, L., & Inouye, J. (2001). Relationships of religion, health status, and socioeconomic status to the quality of life of individuals who are HIV positive. *Issues in Mental Health Nursing, 22*(3), 253-272. doi/pdf/10.1080/01612840118936

Flick, U. (2006). *Designing qualitative research*. London: SAGE.

Godress, J., Ozgul, S., Owen, C., & Foley-Evans, L. (2005). Grief experiences of parents whose children suffer from mental illness. *The Australian and New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry, 39*(1), 88-94. doi: 10.1111/j.1440-1614.2005.01518.x

Guarnaccia, P. J., & Parra, P. (1996). Ethnicity, social status, and families' experiences of caring for a mentally ill family member. *Community Mental Health Journal, 32*(3), 243-260.

Haque, A. (2001*). Mental health in Malaysia: Issue and concerns.* Kuala Lumpur: University Malaya Press.

Haque, A. (2004). Religion and mental health: The case of American Muslims. *Journal of Religion and Health, 43(1),* 45-58.

Haque, A. (2005). Mental health concepts and program development in Malaysia. *Journal of*

Mental Health, 14(2)*,* 183-195. doi: http://dx.doi. org/10.1080/09638230500059997

Harvey, K., Burns, T., Fahy, T., Manley, C., & Tattan, T. (2001). Relatives of patients with severe psychotic illness: Factors that influence appraisal of caregiving and psychological distress. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology, 36*(9), 456-461. doi:10.1007/s001270170024

Johnson, E. D. (2000). Differences among families coping with serious mental illness: A qualitative analysis. *The American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 70*(1), 126-134. doi: 10.1037/ h0087664

Kim, U., Triandis, H. C., Kagitcibasi, C., Choi, S.-C., Yoon, G., & Stalder, D. R. (1996). Individualism and collectivism: Theory, method, and applications. *Contemporary Psychology, 41*(12)*,* 12-18.

Lau, C. C. (1993). The Chinese family and gender role in transition. In Chan, J. Y., & Brosseau, M. (Eds.). *Chinese review* (pp. 201-218). Hong Kong: Chinese University Press.

Lee, S., Lee, M. T. Y., Chiu, M. Y. L., & Kleinman, A. (2005). Experience of social stigma by people with schizophrenia in Hong Kong. *The British Journal of Psychiatry, 186*, 153-157. doi: 10.1192/bjp. 186.2.153

Lefley, H. P. (1996). *Family caregiving in mental illness.* Family Caregiver Applications Series, 7. Newbury Park, Calif: Sage Publications.

Lefley, H. P. (2002). Ethical issues in mental health services for culturally diverse communities. In Backlar, P., & Cutler, D. L. (Eds.), *Ethics in community mental health care* (pp. 3-22). New York: Kluwer Academic/Plenum Publishers.

Lopez, S. R., Hipke, K. N., Polo, A. J., Jenkins, J. H., Karno, M., Vaughn, C., & Snyder, K. S. (2004). Ethnicity, expressed emotion, attributions, and course of schizophrenia: Family warmth matters. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 113*, 428-439. doi: 10.1037/0021-843X.113.3.428

Maniam, T. (2001). Coping with mental disorders in the Malaysian Christian community. In A. Haque (Ed*.), Mental health in Malaysia: Issues and concerns* (pp. 221-241). Kuala Lumpur: University of Malaya Press.

Magaña, S. M., Ramírez, G. J. I., Hernández, M. G., & Cortez, R. (2007). Psychological distress among Latino family caregivers of adults with schizophrenia: The roles of burden and stigma. *Psychiatric Services, 58*(3), 378-384. doi: 10.1176/appi.ps.58.3.378

Miller, B. (1997). Is there anything left to say about family caregiving? *Family Relations, 46*(4), 451-453.

Miller, J., & Bersoff, D. (1998). The role of liking in perceptions of the moral responsibility to help: A cultural perspective. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 34*(5), 443. doi: http://dx.doi. org/10.1006/ jesp.1998.1359

Milstein, G., Guarnaccia, P., & Midlarsky, E., (1994) *Ethnic differences in the interpretation of mental illness: Perspectives of caregivers.* Brunswick, New Jersey: Rutgers University

Mohamad, S. M., Subhi, N., Kamaruzaman Jusoff, Wan Azreena, W. J., Sheau Tseuy Chong, Fauziah, I., Lukman, Z. M., Sarnon, N., Nen, S., Hoesni, S. M., & Alavi, K. (2011). Psychological outcomes of family caregivers of mental illness patients. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, *12*, 1-6.

Nitsche, I., Kallert, T. W., & Koch, R. (2010). Which factors influence the psychological distress among relatives of patients with chronic functional psychoses? An exploratory study in a community mental health care setting. *Journal of Public Health, 18*(2)*,* 105-117.

Pargament, K. I., Koenig, H. G., Tarakeshwar, N., & Hahn, J. (2004). Religious coping methods as predictors of psychological, physical and spiritual outcomes among medically ill elderly patients: A two-year longitudinal study. *Journal*

of Health Psychology, 9(6), 713-730. doi: 10.1177/1359105304045366

Pirani, F. M., Papadopoulos, R., Foster, J., & Leavey, G. (2007). I will accept whatever is meant for us. I wait for that—day and night: The search for healing at a Muslim shrine in Pakistan. *Mental Health, Religion & Culture*, 1-12.

Ritchie, J., Spencer, L., & O'Connor, W. (2003). Carrying out qualitative analysis. In Ritchie, J., & Lewis, J. (Eds.), *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*. London: Sage Publications.

Roick, C., Heider, D., Toumi, M., & Angermeyer, M. C. (2006). The impact of caregivers' characteristics, patients' conditions and regional differences on family burden in schizophrenia: A longitudinal analysis. *Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica, 114*(5), 363-374. doi.org/10.1111/j.1600-0447.2006.00797.x

Solomon, P., & Draine, J. (1995). Subjective burden among family members of mentally ill adults: Relation to stress, coping, and adaptation. *The American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 65*(3), 419-427. doi: 10.1037/h0079695

Sorketti, E. A., Zainal, N. Z., & Habil, M. H. (2012). The characteristics of people with mental illness who are under treatment in traditional healer centres in Sudan. *International Journal of Social Psychiatry, 58*(2), 204-216. doi: 10.1177/0020764010390439

Szmukler, G. I., Burgess, P., Herrman, H., Benson, A., Colusa, S., & Bloch, S. (1996). Caring for relatives with serious mental illness: The development of the experience of caregiving inventory. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology, 31*, 3-4. doi:10.1007/BF00785760

Tan, C. K. (2007). The rational use of antipsychotics in Malaysia - A rethinking following the case studies. *Jurnal Psikiatri Malaysia*, 16(2).

Twigg, J., & Atkin, K. (1994). *Policy and practice in informal care*. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Wasow, M. (1995). *The skipping stone*. Palo Alto, CA: Science and Behaviour Books.

Webb, C., Pfeiffer, M., Mueser, K. T., Gladis, M., Mensch, E., DeGirolamo, J., & Levinson, D. F. (1998). Burden and well-being of caregivers for the severely mentally ill: The role of coping style and social support. *Schizophrenia Research, 34*(3), 169-180. doi: 10.1016/S0920-9964(98)00089-9

Yang, K. S. (1995). Chinese social orientation: An integrative analysis. In Lin, T. Y., Tseng, W. S., & Yeh, E. K. (Eds.) *Chinese societies and mental health* (pp. 19-39). Hong Kong: Oxford University Press.

Yeap Kah Min Reiko. (2008). *Common misconceptions and attitudes towards psychology and mental health: A Malaysian context*. (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). Universiti Malaya, Kuala Lumpur.

Yip, K. S. (2005). Family caregiving of clients with mental illness in the People's Republic of China. *International Journal of Psychosocial Rehabilitation, 10*(1), 35-42.

Missing Children and Parental Struggle: From Chaos to Coping

Salina Nen*, Khadijah Alavi, Fauziah Ibrahim, Suzana Mohd Hoesni and Norulhuda Sarnon

School of Psychology and Human Development, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

The aim of this qualitative study was to explore parental experiences in handling missing/runaway children below the age of 12. Data was collected using in-depth interviews and later analyzed using thematic analysis. The parents were identified from the police data of reported missing/runaway children from years 2009 and 2010. Two main themes emerged from parents' reaction to missing children: negative psychological responses and disruption of daily activities. Fear for the child's safety, worry and anxiety were the most commonly reported feelings. Most parents reported that they felt "their world turned upside down" when their children went missing. Parents relied heavily on social support such as families, neighbors, friends of their children, and the police to locate missing/runaway children. Seeking information and visiting children's favorite places appeared as important strategies used by parents. Parents showed that they trusted close social networks more than the police in assisting them. This study emphasizes the importance of mutual understanding between parents and authorities with regards to managing a crisis situation such as this one. Psychoeducation programmes for both parents and authorities are needed to improve collaboration, to better understand and cope with challenging situations related to missing/runaway children.

Keywords: Missing children, runaway children, parent's trauma, coping strategy

INTRODUCTION

The phenomenon of missing children under the age of 18 has been reported worldwide and is becoming a huge global concern. It has been estimated that at least eight (8) million children go missing each year (International Centre for Missing and

Exploited Children, 2013). For example, an estimated 800,000 children younger than 18 years old of age are reported missing each year in the United States; 230,000 in the United Kingdom from 2009-2010; 100,000 in Germany; 50,000 in Canada; 45,000 in Mexico; 40,000 in Brazil; 39,000 in France; and 20,000 in Spain (International Centre for Missing and Exploited Children, 2013). In Malaysia, statistics indicated that a total number of 1,383 children below the age of 18 were reported missing from 2010-2011 (Utusan Malaysia, 2011). From the statistics, it can be estimated that about four (4) children under the age of 18 may have gone missing each year (Utusan Malaysia, 2011). The prevalence of missing children involving children under 12 years of age has increased from 50 cases in 2009 to 54 cases in 2010 (the Royal Police of Malaysia, 2011). The case is more serious among teenagers (13 to 18 years old) who marked up most of the total number of missing/runaway children in Malaysia. Although the number of children missing from home is still relatively small, what is worrying is that most cases are due to family problems (Mstar, 2011).

To the general public, the definition of missing children may seem relatively easy, which is children who run away from home (Wilson, 2000). However, for most of the researchers who are studying this issue, defining missing children can be complicated due to a multitude of factors surrounding the phenomenon. Children were reported to be missing for many reasons. Some children went missing from

their homes because they ran away from home, some have been thrown out by their caretakers; meanwhile some went missing due to abduction. The National Incidence Studies of Missing, Abducted, Runaway and Throwaways Children (NISMART) divided the data for missing children into eight categories: (1) Runaway/thrown-away; (2) non-family abduction; (3) family abduction; (4) custodial interference; (5) lost and voluntarily missing; (6) missing due to injury; (7) missing due to false alarm situations; and (8) sexual assauls (Hanson, 2000). The categories developed by NISMART are based on a comprehensive data obtained from various sources including a large telephone survey of household, a survey of youth residential facilities, a study of returning runaways, a survey of the police records, a reanalysis of the Federal Bureau of Investigation data on child homicides, and a reanalysis of data from the Study of the National Incidence and Prevalence of Child Abuse and Neglect (Wilson, 2000). Conversely, Malaysia does not yet have a comprehensive study about the phenomenon. As a result, the data is incomplete and therefore may fail to accurately explain the causes and dimensions of missing children. To date, the data of missing children in Malaysia relies heavily on police reports.

Besides, there are two distinct types of running away behaviors which are (1) episodic running away; and (2) chronic running away. Episodic running away refers to running away behavior that is triggered by an event. There is no consistent pattern

of this type of behavior and children are not using it as a problem solving strategy at all times. It may be used to avoid some consequence, humiliation or embarrassment. Meanwhile, chronic running away refers to running away behavior that is used to gain power in the family. It is perceived as a form of power struggle, manipulation, or acting out. Thus, to understand these multilayered definitions and factors, a comprehensive study is warranted to better address the issue. This is an important issue and each individual has a role to play in tackling the problem.

Table 1 shows descriptive statistics of missing children cases (below the age of 12) reported for the year 2009 and 2010. The main reason for missing children in the majority of the cases failed to be determined or was somewhat left unknown. However, frequently cited reasons for missing children included parental conflict, family violence, peer influence, demand for more freedom, loss of interest in studies, and taken away by family members. Similarly, Siti Nor *et. al.*'s (2009) study indicated that the common causes of runaway children include peer influence, demands for more freedom and escape from strict parental control.

Research from other countries also showed consistent findings in which family crisis or conflict was the leading cause for missing children/run away children. The most frequently cited reason contributing to missing/runaway children was a lack of supportive and functional families, followed by peer influence. Studies indicated that family crisis such as divorce, separation, abuse and neglect are all factors which increase the risk of children running away from home (Rotheram-Borus, 1996; Milburn *et.al.*, 2006). Meanwhile, Springer's (2001)

Table 1
Missing Children Reported in 2009 and 2010

Reasons	2009		2010		TOTAL	
	1-6 year old	7-12 year old	1-6 year old	7-12 year old	2009	2010
Unknown	9	25	4	30	34	34
Taken by the father	0	2	1	0	2	1
Follow friends	0	7	0	5	7	5
Wants more freedom	0	5	0	5	5	5
Neglect by family	0	1	0	3	1	3
Follow boyfriend	0	0	0	1	0	1
Parental conflict	0	0	1	2	0	2
Family violence	0	0	0	0	0	1
Taken by family members	0	0	0	1	0	0
Taken by acquaintance	0	0	1	0	0	1
Lost interest in studies	0	1	0	0	1	0
Total	9	41	7	47	50	54

Source: Royal Police of Malaysia, 2011

findings support the notion that children missing/run away from home was related to negative environments such as to escape from physical abuse or negative family situations. Negative family environments such as alcohol and/or drug abuse were identified as contributing factors as to why children run away from home (Teare *et. al.,* 1994). Few studies associated missing/running away children with the motivation to more desirable or adventuresome social situations (Lindsey *et. al.*, 2000; Zide & Cherry, 1992). However, it is notable to mention that missing/running away behavior may also indicate poor problem solving skills among these children. They may run out of problem solving skills and perceive running away from home as an immediate solution. For example, research by Lightfoot *et. al.* (2011) showed that higher levels of problem solving and planning skills were strongly related to lower levels of multiple problem behaviors in homeless youth. The finding is consistent with the study done by Dumain (2010) who researched optimism, hope, problem solving, and runaway behavior in adolescents in the dependency system in Canada. The study found that runaway adolescents had dysfunctional problem-solving skills, including negative problem orientation, impulsivity/carelessness styles, and displayed avoidant problem-solving styles.

Runaway is associated with many social, economic and psychological consequences. For example, runaway children are at risk for being sexually abused, exploited and exposed to hunger, diseases and criminal activities. This problem also causes an economic burden to the government directly or indirectly. When children go missing, hundreds, if not thousands of relatives and families are affected. Parents are left with unimaginable nightmares, wondering what has happened to their loved ones who, in some cases may never return. Most parents find themselves in "a world turned upside down". These parents, who face a sudden crisis situation such as this one, encounter an immediate demand to respond to missing issues and coping strategies. There is a general expectation that parents should protect their children from harm. When something as bad as this happens, most of the parents are unprepared psychologically to cope with it. As Maxwell (1994) put it, a sudden loss of a child may be more difficult to grieve than anticipated death. The effect of a loved one going missing cannot be underestimated as the real damage to emotional, physical and financial can be huge.

The purpose of this article was to examine two aspects of the study: the experience of missing/runaway children from parents' perspectives and coping strategies used by parents to deal directly with the loss. As for the research questions, the following questions were to be examined: (1) What are the psychological responses parents experienced following their missing/runaway child? and (2) What are the coping strategies that parents of missing/runaway children used to deal with the sudden loss?

METHODOLOGY

Respondents

Respondents were parents of children who had been reported missing/runaway between the year 2009 and 2010. The list of these missing children and their detailed information (e.g. home address and parents contact numbers) were obtained from the Crime Division, the Royal Police of Malaysia Bukit Aman. This information was the main source used by the researchers to locate all respondents in the study which summed up to 104.

Location

This research was conducted in all states in Peninsular Malaysia and Sabah with the exception of Sarawak, where no missing children cases were reported in those years. For research convenience, these locations were clustered into four (4) major regions, namely Northern Zone (Perlis, Kedah, Pulau Pinang, Perak); Eastern Zone (Pahang, Terengganu, Kelantan), Southern Zone (Negeri Sembilan, Melaka, Johor), and Middle Zone (Selangor, Kuala Lumpur) and East Malaysia Zone (Sabah). Please refer to Table 2 for details.

TABLE 2
Number of Missing Children by States 2009 – 2010

State	2009	2010
Perlis	2	3
Kedah	1	0
Pulau Pinang	0	1
Perak	0	1
Selangor	6	18
Kuala Lumpur	35	13

TABLE 2 (continue)

Negeri Sembilan	0	0
Melaka	3	7
Johor	0	4
Pahang	0	3
Terengganu	1	1
Kelantan	0	0
Sarawak	0	0
Sabah	2	3
Total	50	54

Source: The Royal Police of Malaysia, 2011

Procedures

This research used semi structured interviews for collecting data. Parents were separately interviewed. Semi structured interviews were selected to elicit discussion of specific topics that were identified beforehand. This approach enabled researchers to elicit in-depth information concerning participants' perceptions and their willingness to discuss topics beyond the core semi-structured questions, if any. Questions were divided into two main sections. The first section focused on questions relating to respondents psychological response following missing/runaway children incident. Meanwhile, the second section focusing on coping strategies which were applied by parents to deal with the sudden loss.

Data analysis

Data from the interview was analysed using thematic analysis procedures. This process included examining the transcripts to identify major themes arising from the core questions. Major categories were identified and then followed by developing subcategories to specifically

illustrate component of the broad categories. Coders worked independently and then came together to resolve discrepancies. Established main and subcategories then were compared among the coders to reach a consensus concerning specific categories and their definitions. This process was done repeatedly until the research team reached a general consensus concerning main categories and subcategories established from the data.

RESULTS

Psychological Effects

The first few days were reported to be incredibly confusing for most parents. Parents were shocked, in panic, anxiety and fear. Parents at the early stage reported feelings of fear and anxiety about their children's fortune, their situation and whereabouts. Safety was the priority concern for most parents. The agony of not knowing and uncertainty were unbearable and stressful. During the crisis, parents lived in a constant state of high alert, waiting for their children to return home or for any news. Parents were alternately anxious, angry, in denial and guilt; mixed feelings to be experienced at the same time. These responses triggered other psychosomatic symptoms associated with the trauma experience such as sleep difficulties, loss of appetite, frequent urination and agitation. These were worsened by parents thinking that their children might be at risk of being a victim of crime.

"As a father of course I felt worry, anxious because, I never experienced this (missing/runaway children), I read paper, I watched movie about this kind of thing, I know how terrible this could be. But when this hit you, I felt like I wanted to go to toilet all the time."

(Ibrahim)

"Afraid others would try to kidnap my child…afraid that they would ask for ransom…and demand for money. It was hard when our children gone missing… I couldn't sleep… how could I? I didn't know where he spent the night. You're simply lost."

(Ding)

"Not just panicked. I couldn't think straight, and then news about children got kidnapped and murdered. That made me crazy. I couldn't think about anything else."

(Jihat)

"I had no idea where she went… if she was okay, then thank god. But what if someone did something bad to her?"

(Chandra)

"I felt worry. Worry because you heard so many bad things about children who went missing. Angry, couldn't sleep, frantically searching everywhere. You terribly worried because she disappeared just like that. She went out without telling me."

(Farah)

"My feelings... this shouldn't have happened… first time happened to me. I was in chaos."

(Steven)

"I couldn't sleep… I couldn't eat… everything. I felt so stressful. I couldn't do anything. I just cried. I prayed to God… I read Quran… that's all I can do. I felt like my world just ended. I know how it feels like missing your children. Although he's not my real son, but I still felt miserable… I couldn't accept it."

(Daniel)

"He always returned to home… I think it's every parent's nightmare when their children failed to return home. Of course you are worry."

(Ismail)

Parents recalled that emotional and physical responses were highest immediately following the missing. According to Rinear (1984), this is a normal response to crisis and gradually will return to normalcy with the passage of time.

Disruption to Daily Activities

Disruption to daily activities for parents was unavoidable as parents tried to gather information, asked for social support and planned strategies in managing the crisis situation. At this stage of mind, it was very difficult for parents to focus on anything mentally. Parents' thoughts were with their children.

"I was at my office and I had an important meeting. Then I went out searching for my son. I felt I was not there in the meeting."

(Ding)

A father confessed that he was almost involved in an accident due to failure to stop at a red traffic light. It is understandable that when parents were caught in their reeling emotions, it disabledthem to respond to intellectual challenges surrounding them and this sometimes can be very dangerous.

"You couldn't concentrate; everything else seemed blurry, like when you're driving a car or something. That's really bad. One time, I almost hit another car because I failed to stop at a red traffic light, very dangerous to myself. Luckily I was with my neighbour and my older son. You couldn't go out alone in such situation."

(Ibrahim)

Efforts by Parents to Locate their Missing/ Runaway Children

A social support system has been described as "a set of personal contacts through which the individual maintains his social identity and receives emotional supports, material aid and services, information and new social contacts" (Walker *et al.*, 1977; in Malson, 1983). Parents in this study worked very hard to locate their missing child and they used every available support they could possibly get which consisted of police, family members, office colleagues and even neighbors. In this context, social support acts through providing necessary resources through mutual act, social network, sharing problems, problem solving and helping people to cope with crisis. Through this social support, parents did not only receive energy and resource but most importantly emotional support.

> *"After I returned from work, me and my older son, we went out late that night to search for him. I tried looking for him in places he usually went to play. After a few hours, I asked the police what should I do next, should I just report straight away or should I wait. The police told me, don't wait and just do it (report)."*
>
> (Ibrahim)

> *"All my family members, they all helped us. We divided into several groups and each group looked for different places… all men. One group went to Batu Caves, one group searched at Taman Koperasi, one group was here, and another group went to Datuk Senu, Jalan Ipoh. After we failed to locate him, we went to the police to report he was missing."*
>
> (Chandra)

Besides using social support such as neighbors, colleagues and family members, another important source parents usually used in helping them to locate their children was through friends and/or classmates of their children. This is understandable due to the close relationship teenagers usually have with their peers. The knowledge that their peers have about missing/runaway children might help parents to locate their children faster. There are ample cases where parents managed to locate their child's whereabouts with the help or information provided by their child's friends. However, this also caused more trouble especially when information provided was misleading or inaccurate.

> *"We were searching for him until early in the morning. We're getting anxious… then we tried his friends. Then the father of his friend said "my son also did not return home." Okay fine, then I called my husband."*
>
> (Syafik)

> *"I asked his friends. They said they don't know. Some said they saw*

him watched soccer, some said he followed other friends.. and some even said they saw him in a car with someone."

(Ismail)

Location

The most frequent location sought by parents was a place where their child always spent their time. Among places frequently reported by parents were shopping malls and public spheres. Parents sometimes had to travel long distances, spend a lot of time and energy with the hope they would successfully locate their child. Most parents did not mind missing their work for a few days to search for their children.

"I just circled around the place for so many time. Then a boy told me "aunty, I just saw him near here."

(Jihat)

"We tried all Sentul area…"

(Chandra)

"I asked his friend. Is he returned home? They said no, he went straight to KLCC. He spent the night at KLCC. I didn't know, maybe he couldn't catch up the last train and was left behind. We waited for him the next day. We went to his friend's house; we asked whether he went there, but none. I frantically searched for him and I even missed

my work. I tried cyber café, I went to Puduraya but I couldn't find him."

(Syafik)

DISCUSSION

This study indicated that, except for the police, most parents did not access any support service which was available to them. The only authority figure they found useful was the police for law enforcement action on missing children. There were two possible explanations relating to parents' action: (1) parents were not aware of any available support services that specifically handles missing/runaway child within their community and, (2) no such services which exists in the community. In 2007, the Ministry of Women, Family and Community Development s introduced a telephone service – NUR Alert (15999). NUR Alert was modeled after the United States' Amber alert; an emergency response system that galvanized the authorities and the community via a comprehensive network to locate missing (Khairudin Murad, 2013). NUR Alert also provides services for others including child abuse, single mother cases, juvenile problems and many more cases.

NUR Alert is responsible to spread information quickly and as fast as possible to help trace missing children (below 12 years of age) who could be victims of crime or abuse (Malaysian Communication and Multimedia Commission, 2011). Despite being a great initiative, NUR Alert has drawn criticism from people in the society.

For example, many parents and/or adults still do not know about NUR Alert or have heard about it. Some may know about NUR Alert but they do not know the functions and responsibilities of the service. Khairudin Murad (2013) in his study on the effectiveness of the NUR Alert information campaign found that only 31.7 percent of respondents were aware of the NUR Alert campaign. Traditional media for campaigning (billboard advertisement, television and radios) rather than new media (Facebook, Twitter) contributed to the lack of awareness of the NUR Alert campaign in the society (Khairudin Murad, 2013). Hence, the government is urged to fully utilize new media as a fast and cheap social media campaign against missing/running away children from home.

Parents relied heavily on available social support which came mostly from family members, neighbors, colleagues and friends. This indicated that parents who do not have good social support were at a higher risk of bearing the emotional impact and worry of their missing child alone. Empirical studies have shown a strong relationship between social support and well being (Harknett, 2006; Henley *et al*., 2005; Ryan *et al*., 2009; Thoits, 1985). A comprehensive study by Lin (1986) on social support and well being argued that real and perceived support, both instrumental and expressive, whether from the community, social networks, and intimate friends generate the feeling of bonding, contributes to the sense of belonging and social identity. Undoubtedly, the emotional issues parents and families went through

were also huge. These emotional impacts clearly resulted in physical symptoms such as sleeplessness, stress and deteriorating health. Symptoms reported by respondents in the study indicated common reactions to crisis. According to Wainrib and Bloch (1998), disbelief, emotional numbness, nightmares or sleep disturbances, anger, moodiness, irritability, forgetfulness, flashbacks, survivor guilt, hypervigilance, loss of hope, social withdrawal, increased use of alcohol and drugs and isolation from others are signs, symptoms, and reactions are common psychological responses to a crisis or traumatic event. Hence, crisis counseling can be very beneficial to help parents who dealing with crisis such as this. Psychological support must be available for parents to access as untreated distress and discomfort can lead to more serious psychological conditions including Post Traumatic Stress Disorders (PTSD). In addition to these emotional issues, parents found themselves carrying the financial burden of undertaking research activities and this led to losing the person's income. Parents were putting themselves at risk of losing a job.

This study highlighted some of the difficulties families faced in handling missing/runaway children and the needs of families to be helped by specialist groups. Most parents do not have knowledge about the proper ways and actions that can be taken when facing this kind of crisis situation. Thus, it is suggested that: (1) partnership between the police, other agencies, local authorities and the voluntary sector should

be established to enhance the effectiveness of support in their area; (2) enhance public awareness through education on missing children in community settings; and (3) establish a standard protocol as guidelines to help parents better cope with crisis situations and to better inform procedures, roles and responsibilities that involve multi-disciplinary agencies. Another issue worth noting here is addressing issues of missing/runaway children who return home. In cases that involved children who ran away from home, any family conflict contributing to the problem should be addressed immediately. Parents' failure to identify the core problem contributing to their children going missing from home may result in repeat runaway behavior.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

REFERENCES

Dumain, K. (2010). *Optimism, hope, problem solving, and runaway behavior in adolescents in the dependency system.* Dissertation abstract. Retrieved July 20, 2013 from http://udini. proquest.com/view/optimism-hope-problem-solving-and-goid:734722401/

Khairudin Murad. (2013). *Social media championing missing child cases: A case study of the effectiveness of NUR Alert information campaign.* Retrieved July 26, 2013 from http://ibac-conference.org/BAI2013/Papers/4.MIS/4621.. doc.pdf

Hanson, L. (2000). Second comprehensive study of missing children. *Juvenile Justice Bulletin*, 1-4.

Harknett, K. (2006). The relationship between private safety nets and economic outcomes among single mothers. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 68*, 172–191.

Henley, J. R., Danziger, S. K., & Offer, S. (2005). The contribution of social support to the material wellbeing of low-income families. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 67*, 122–140.

Hombrados-Mendieta, I., Garcia-Martin, M. G., & Gomez-Jacinto, L. (2012). *The relationship between social support, loneliness, and subjective well-being in a Spanish sample from a multidimensional perspective.* Retrieved July 27, 2013 from http://webdeptos.uma.es/psicologiasocial/docs_magarcia/37_2012_social_Indicators_research_soc_support_loneliness_and_subj_well_Being.pdf

International Centre for Missing and Exploited Children. (2013). *The global problem of international child abduction.* Retrieved July 21, 2013, from http://www.icmec.org/missingkids/servlet/PublicHomeServlet

Izra Abdul Rahman. Punca kanak-kanak hilang (2011). *The Star*. Retrieved July 20, 2013 from http://mstar.com.my/cerita.asp?sec=mstar_mingguan&file=/2011/5/30/mstar_mingguan/20110530105934

Polis DiRaja Malaysia. (2011). *Laporan Polis DiRaja Malaysia 2011*. Polis DiRaja Malaysia.

Lin, N. (1986). Conceptualizing social support. In N. Lin, A. Dean., & W. M. Ensel, (Eds.) *Social support, life events and depression* (pp. 17–30). Londres: Academic Press

Lindsey, E. W., Kurtz, D., Jarvis, S., Williams, B., & Nackerud, L. (2000). How runaway and homeless youth navigates troubled waters: Personal strengths and resources. *Child & Adolescent Social Work Journal, 17(2)*, 115-140.

Malaysian Communication and Multimedia Commission. (2011). Announcement on NUR Alert through Multimedia Messaging Message (MMS). Retrieved July 29, 2013 from http://www.skmm.gov.my/Media/Announcements/Annoncement-on-NUR-Alert-Through-Multimedia-Messag.aspx

Malson, M. (1983). The social support systems of black families. *Marriage and Family Review, 5(4)*, 37–57. http://dx.doi.org/10.1300%2FJ002v05n04_04

Maxwell, A. P. (1994). *Parental bereavement and coping in two types of loss: Sudden infant death syndrome and non-familial abduction*. Dissertation Abstract.

Milburn, N. G., Ayala, G., Rice, E., Batterham, P., & Rotheram-Borus, M. J. (2006). Discrimination and existing homelessness among homeless adolescents. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, (12),* 658-672.

Rinear, E. E. (1984). *Parental response to child murder: An exploratory study*. Dissertation Abstract.

Roberts, A. R. (2000). An overview of crisis theory and intervention model. In A.R. Roberts (Ed.) *Crisis intervention handbook*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Rotheram-Borus, M. J., Mahler, K. A., Koopman, C., & Langabeer, K. (1996). Sexual abuse/history and associated multiple risk behavior in adolescent runaways. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 66*, 390-400. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037%2Fh0080189

Ryan, R. M., Kalil, A., & Leininger, L. (2009). Low-income mothers' private safety nets and children's socioemotional well-being. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 71*, 278–297.

Sharilfuddin Saari, & Wan Noor Hayati Wan Alias. (2011). Purata empat hilang setiap hari. *Utusan Malaysia*. Retrieved July 20, 2013, from http://www.utusan.com.my/utusan/info.asp?y=2011&dt=0206&pub=Utusan_Malaysia&sec=Laporan_Khas&pg=lk_01.htm

Siti Nor, Rumaya, Rozumah & Mansor. (2009). Laporan akhir Kajian Profil dan Faktor Kanak-Kanak dan Remaja Lari daripada Rumah. Institut Sosial Malaysia, Kementerian Pembangunan Wanita, Keluarga dan Masyarakat di bawah Perundingan Universiti Putra Malaysia.

Springer, D. W. (2001). Runaway adolescents: Today's Huckleberry Finn crisis. *Brief Treatment and Crisis Intervention, (1)*, 131-151. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093%2Fbrief-treatment%2F1.2.131

Teare, J. F., Autheir, K., & Peterson, R. (1994). Differential patterns of post-shelter placement as function of problem type and severity. *Journal of Child and Family Studies, (3),* 7-22. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007%2FBF02233908

The Star online. (2012). *NUR Alert cannot be activated immediately if child goes missing*. Retrieved July 23, 2013 from http://www.thestar.com.my/News/Nation/2012/04/08/NUR-alert-cannot-be-activated-immediately-if-child-goes-missing.aspx

Thoits, P. A. (1985). Social support processes and psychological well-being: Theoretical possibilities. In I. G. Sarason & B. Sarason (Eds.), *Social support theory, research and applications* (pp. 51–72). The Hague: Martinus Nijhof.

Wainrob, B. R., & Bloch, E. L. (1998) *Crisis intervention and trauma response: Theory and practice*. New York: Springer Publishing Company.

Wilson, W. J. (1996). *When work disappears*. New York: Knopf. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307%2F2152085

Zide, M. R., & Cherry, A. (1992). A typology of runaway youth. *Youth & Society, 34(4)*, 441-467. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007%2FBF00755230

Measuring Self-esteem, Resilience, Aggressive Behavior and Religious Knowledge among Women Drug Inmates in Malaysia

Fauziah Ibrahim*, Salina Nen, Ezarina Zakaria, Azmi Abdul Manaf, Mohd Suhaimi Mohamad and Chong Sheau Tsuey

School of Psychology and Human Development, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

Drug abuse remains a significant challenge that is preventing further progress and excellence of women in many ways. Therefore, the Malaysian government has made serious efforts at addressing the problem. Such action is intended to re-empower women whose lives are affected by drugs to live healthier, more prosperous lives and make a meaningful contribution to the economic development of the country and the world at large. This study was conducted to measure the level of identity (self-esteem, resilience, aggressive behavior and religious knowledge) among women drug inmates who undergo drug treatment and rehabilitation programs at rehabilitation centres in Malaysia. This study was conducted using a quantitative method which included a cross-sectional survey design. A total sample of 120 women inmates from rehabilitation centres located in Bachok, Kelantan were selected as respondents. The study found that most women inmates who were undergoing drug rehabilitation programs during the study showed a moderate level of self-esteem (67.2 percent), resilience (77.3 percent), aggressive behavior (80.7 percent) and religious knowledge (69.7 percent). The implication of the research findings is that current rehabilitation centres in Malaysia face a huge responsibility to rebuild the identity of women inmates following their release. Besides the need for social support and policy, concern over strengthening women inmates' self confidence and character are also crucial.

Keywords: Self-esteem, resilience, aggressive behavior, religious knowledge, women drug inmates

INTRODUCTION

The world has long recognised the importance of women's role in the society. In many countries, women play a major role

in the national and economic development through their social and economic activities. For example, their domestic role as mothers made immense contributions in shaping future generations. Meanwhile, women in developing countries generate significant economic growth through their engagement in income generating activities such as food crop production, food processing distribution, and small scale businesses. In Malaysia, women have achieved significant progress since independence in 1957. Women in Malaysia have achieved great progress in education, health, economics and politics although more improvement is needed in certain areas such as in power sharing and decision making. The Malaysian government proved its commitment towards empowering women when the development planning for the advancement of women in Malaysia was introduced in the Sixth Malaysian Plan. However, this effort is under threat and has become a national concern when more women in Malaysia have been reported to be involved with drug abuse. The fact is more frightening when current studies have shown that women are more sensitive to the consumption and long time effects of drugs than men. These effects include cognitive and neurological effects, organ damage, breast cancer and reproductive consequences (US Department of Health and Human Services, 2009). Study conducted by Lyons *et. al.*, (2008) and Grella *et. al.* (2005) found that a high rate of depression has been found among drug users who are at greater risk of suicide than those who do not misuse drugs. Despite recognition

of the issue, women are continuously experiencing barriers to receive better support and treatment within the society. Reports have also shown that women substance abusers experience a number of barriers such as receiving treatment, child care responsibilities, stigmatization and inability to pay for treatment (Brady & Ashley, 2005; Razani, 2007). These unique issues suggest that more specific studies to examine drug addicts among women should be specifically considered. Efforts curbing the spread of drug abuse among women should be seriously addressed by implementing prompt action to overcome the problem and finding the best solution.

Malaysia is one of the countries that is committed towards achieving a drug-free country status by 2015 (Fauziah *et. al.*, 2012a). The government, on February 19, 1983, declared drug abuse as a national disaster and endeavor using stringent law enforcement together with rehabilitation programs for addicts (Fauziah & Naresh, 2009). Despite continuously facing various challenges and obstacles in achieving the goal, Malaysia has never given up the fight against drug problems by using various approaches which include prevention, enforcement, arrests and drug rehabilitation for drug addicts. Women's involvement in drug abuse not only has negative impacts on themselves, it also leads to other social problems such as moral decadence, prostitution and household destruction (Wilson & Kelling, 1982; Jamaludin *et. al.*, 2009). Drug abuse among women can cause a variety of health problems such as HIV/

AIDS (Gauya, 2005; Razzaghi *et. al*., 2006; Wells *et. al*., 2006). For example, Ministry of Health Malaysia in their report has found that cases of HIV/AIDS among women increased from 737 in 2005 to 975 in 2006 (Ministry of Health Malaysia, 2007). There are also studies which found that women's involvement in drug abuse may affect the well-being of their children (Lukman *et. al*., 2011) and may leave her more vulnerable to violence/attacks by others (Poole & Dell, 2005; EMCDDA, 2008; Institute of Alcohol Studies, 2008) . Furthermore, a study conducted by Keen *et. al*. (2000) also found that the children of mothers with substance abuse problems are less likely to remain with their birth mother, more likely to show developmental delay and are significantly more at risk to abuse and neglect than the general population. As a group, the children of drug misusing parents normally perform less well academically and socially (Keen & Alison, 2001).

As a whole, the problems associated with drug abuse are handled by the National Anti-Drugs Agency under the Ministry of Home Affairs. This agency is responsible for leading the formulation of policies relating to drugs including implementing prevention programmes, medical care treatments and rehabilitation programmes, upgrading the drug information system and evaluaing the effectiveness of the country's antidrug programmes in order too increase the regional and international cooperation in the effort of eradicating the threat of drugs and lastly to provide secretariat service to the National Drug Council (AADK, 2013).

The statistics released by the National Anti-Drugs Agency revealed that in January to November 2012, a total number of 8,468 addicts were detected compared to the same period in 2011 which is a total of 10,383 people. Based on that number, 4,948 people (or 58.45 percent) were new addicts in the year 2012. Meanwhile, statistics released by the National Anti-Drugs Agency of Malaysia showed that the number of repeated offenders being registered is 2,156 people (34.33 percent). Based on the type of drugs in January-November 2012, statistics showed that heroin had the highest number of users compared to other type of drugs with a total number of 4,080 followed by morphine (2,657) users (AADK, 2013). On average, a total number of 15 new addicts and 11 relapse offenders were detected every day between January-November 2012 (AADK, 2013).

As for gender, statistics from January-November 2012 showed that a total number of 158 drug cases involving women were recorded in Malaysia. Of these cases, three states recorded the high number of women drug addicts which are Sarawak and Perak (24 cases for each state), Johor (20 cases) and Kuala Lumpur (19 cases). Although the number of women cases have dropped slightly, this does not mean that the issue can be taken lightly. There are several factors that have been identified to cause women involvement in drugs and these include self-weakness and family factors (Jamaluddin *et. al*., 2009) and the lack of resilience (Sapora, 2008). There are also a number of researchers who stated

that there is a relationship between poor self-esteem with a tendency to engage in social problems, deviant and delinquent behavior (Harter, 1993; Chen *et. al*., 1998; Byrne, 2000). Some researchers also found that women's involvement with drugs addiction poses a threat to the future of the nation (Chawarski & Schottenfeld, 2006; Chawarski & Schottenfeld, 2007; Habil, 2001).

Taylor and Husizer (1998) in their study found that an individual who was identified using a variety of drugs was more prone to aggressive behavior. The findings were also supported by other studies in which the uses of various types of drugs, especially cocaine and amphetamines have negative effects in increasing aggressive behavior among its users (Boles & Miotto, 2003; Davis, 1996; Moore & Stuart, 2003; Chermack & Blow, 2002; MacDonald *et. al*., 2008). Similarly, a study conducted in Malaysia by Fauziah (2012b) found that adolescents who used heroin and morphine were more likely to show aggressive behaviors. Due to the negative impact of drugs on human behavior, it is crucial to resolve this problem immediately.

In preventing drug abuse, identifying protective factors is crucial. Previous studies have identified several protective factors against drug abuse and those factors include strong family bonds, parental involvement and monitoring, success in school performance, pro-social institutions (e.g. such as family, school, and religious organizations) and conventional norms concerning drug use. For example, several studies have shown that people with spiritual or religious involvement are less likely to be involved in drugs. In other words, religious involvement acts as a protective factor against negative behavior such as involvement in drug misuse (Donahue & Benson, 1995; Francis, 1997; Steinman, 2004). The findings are consistent with studies by Poulson *et. al*., (1988), Greenwald (2000) and Stylianou (2004) who found that individuals who were practicing their religion were less likely to engage in risky behaviors.

Apart from religious knowledge, a number of studies have identified that several risk factors were associated with women's drug abuse and criminal activities. These factors include parental issues, childhood abuse and neglect, mental illness, social support and association with other drug users (Willis & Rushforth, 2003). Apart from these, a special focus on women's offender characteristics is also vital in helping to formulate drug rehabilitation programs as it provides information and knowledge about internal resources (e.g. resilience, self-esteem, religious knowledge) that can be used in their recovering process. The results of the current study will not only provide the latest input related to the level of women's identity of drug abuse, but also be able to assist the National Anti-Drug Agency to make improvemens to the existing module of drug rehabilitation programs. This study is also beneficial to help the country to mobilize the role of women in a holistic manner and to help counselors, social workers and psychologist

who work in related issues or settings. In general, the objective of this research is to measure the level of identity of self-esteem, resilience, aggressive behavior and religious knowledge among women who are undergoing drug rehabilitation programs at drug rehabilitation centers.

METHODS

This research was conducted using cross-sectional survey and analyzed using descriptive analysis. The primary data were obtained through a survey using self-administered questionnaires. The level of self-esteem, resilience, aggressive behavior and religious knowledge score among women drug inmates involved in drug abuse activities were measured based on the minimum score interpretation as shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
Interpretation of the mean score on the level of self-esteem, resilience, aggressive behavior and religious knowledge among women drug inmates involved in drug abuse activities

Mean score	Interpretation of the mean score
< .20	low level
2.01-3.00	moderate level
3.01-4.00	high level

Four standardized questionnaires were used to collect the data and they were:

Self-esteem scale: This 10-item scale assesses respondents' self-esteem using a 4 Likert scale that ranged from (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) agree and (4) strongly agree. The scale showed moderate high reliability with Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.63.

Resilience scale: This 10-item scale measures levels of resilience and was specifically developed by the researchers for women drug inmates. This self-report questionnaire using a 4 Likert scale ranged from (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) agree and (4) strongly agree. The Cronbach alpha for the scale was 0.82, indicating a high reliability.

Aggressive behavior scale: This scale was also developed by the researchers to measure aggressive behaviors among women drug inmates. The scale consisted of 11-items (both positive and negative items combined). This self-report questionnaire using a 4 Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) agree and (4) strongly agree. Cronbach alpha coefficient of this scale was 0.74, indicating a moderately high reliability.

Religious knowledge scale: This 7-item scale measures religious knowledge among women drug inmates. Responses were measured using a 4 Likert format scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) agree and (4) strongly agree. Cronbrach alpha for the scale was .614, indicating a moderately high reliability.

Population

In this study, the population referred to the women who were positively identified as

involved with drug abuse cases and they came from different ethnic backgrounds. A total number of 120 women drug inmates who are undergoing the National Anti-Narcotic Agency of Malaysia drug rehabilitation program at the time of study were specifically chosen to participate.

Data Collection

A pilot study and pre-test analysis were completed before the data collection process began. Prior to the data collection process, written permission from the Director General of the National Anti Narcotics Agency was sought by the researcher. In the permission letter, the research objectives, purposes and procedures were thoroughly explained. Once the permission was granted, questionnaires were then distributed randomly to women inmates. Researchers were assisted by drug rehabilitation officers in distributing the questionnaires and collecting the data. All rehabilitation officers involved in the study were briefed about the research objectives and procedures. As a response to the illiteracy problem traced among inmates and to conduct a smooth data collection process, respondents were divided into two categories: (1) respondents who could read/write and (2) respondents who could not read/write. The latter group was assisted by rehabilitation officers to answer the questionnaires. However, both groups were carefully monitored during the process. All the data were then analyzed using descriptive statistics through the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 15.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Self-esteem refers to the assessment of the behavior of women inmates, their characters and inner potentials. According to Bee and Boyd (2002), self-esteem refers to a comprehensive evaluation or assessment of an individual against value and their self-esteem. The findings show that the majority of women drug inmates involved in this study exhibited a moderate level (67.2 percent) to low level of self-esteem (26.1 percent). Only 6.7 percent of 120 respondents demonstrated a high level of self-esteem as shown in Table 2.

The results of this study indicated that the majority of women inmates who underwent the rehabilitation program have a moderate level of self-esteem and this reflects the need to strengthen the female inmates' self-esteem in order to assist them in the recovering process. Meanwhile, a study conducted by Harter (1993) and Chen *et. al.* (1998) found that individuals with low self-esteem had a high tendency to engage in social problems. In contrast, Gruinstein and Nutbeam (2007), Newman (2002), and Hughes and David (1989) found that individuals with high self-esteem were more likely to build their resilience well. These studies were consistent with Byrne *et. al.* (1981) who suggested that individuals involved with deviant and delinquent behavior are usually those who have low self-esteem. Specific effort in improving women inmates' self-esteem therefore is needed to restore these women's capacity to rebound following their drug addict episode. The application of strong self-esteem in

the process of drug treatment, will also help to expose women inmates on how to evaluate themselves and be able to build positive values. Therefore, the aspect of self-esteem should be addressed to ensure that women inmates are able to continue to be independent and able to live healthy lives without drugs.

Resilience refers to the coping ability among women drug inmates in managing/handling negative influences. A study conducted by Meichenbaum (2005) found that individuals with strong resilience are those who have a positive personality. Findings of this study show that the majority (77.3 percent) of drug inmates exhibited a moderate level to a high level of resilience (22.7 percent) (Table 3). No respondents in the study showed a low level of resilience and this might indicate the success of the Malaysia rehabilitation program in strengthening personal resilience among women inmates who underwent drug treatment and rehabilitation programs at rehabilitation centres in Malaysia. Indeed, individual resilience is an important

TABLE 2
Level of self-esteem among women drug users

Self-esteem	
High	6.7
Moderate	67.2
Low	26.1
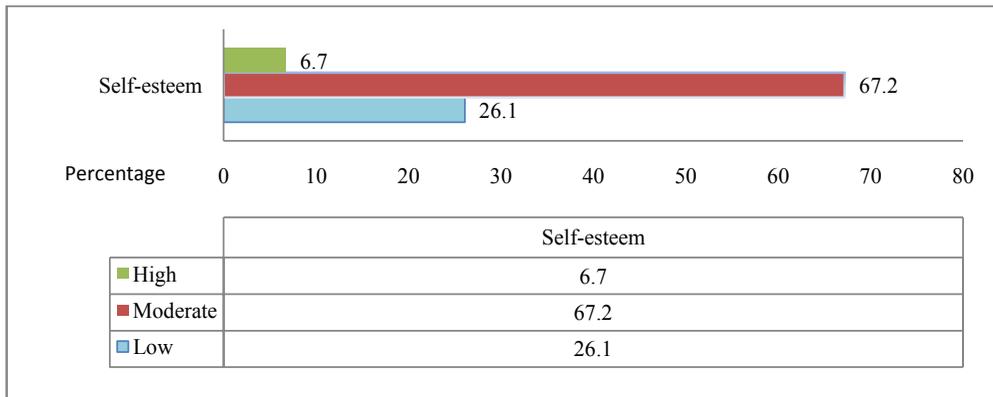
TABLE 3
Level of resiliency among women drug users

Resilency	
High	22.7
Moderate	77.3
Low	0
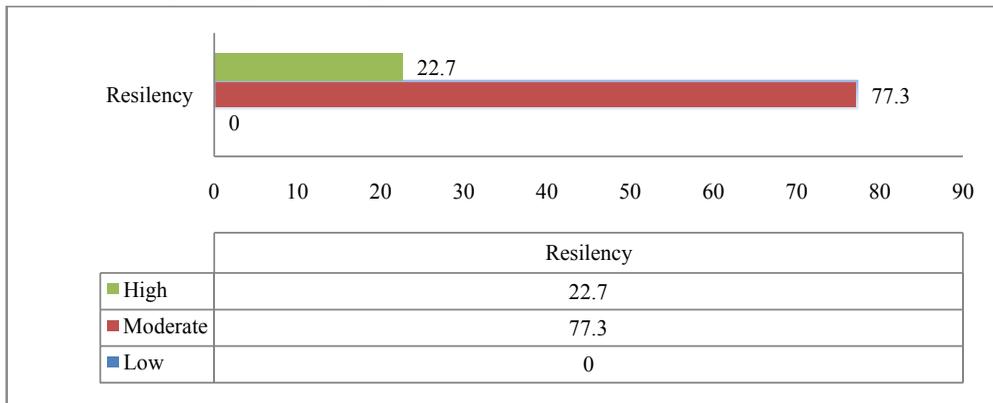
aspect in determining treatment success as resilience is widely accepted as a one of protective factors against anti-social behaviors. According to Sapora (2008), a lack of resilience in facing the challenges of life is caused by individual involvement in negative and high risk activities such as engaging in drug abuse. Therefore, to strengthen the resilience among women inmates, strategies to defend themselves against negative influences need to be taught to them when they undergo treatment and rehabilitation in an institution.

Aggressive behavior refers to the act of aggression, attacking behavior and attitude towards the hostility inherent among drug women inmates involved in this study. The findings show that the majority (95 percent) of respondents have a moderate level of aggressive behavior (74 percent) to high levels (21 percent). Only 6.7 percent of them showed a low level of aggressive behavior as shown in Table 4.

A high percentage rate of aggressive behavior among women inmates showed that the majority of them needed immediate intervention in dealing with their aggressive behavior. Positive behavior change among women inmates is much needed to build a strong identity and get respect from the society. A study conducted by Fauziah *et. al.* (2012b) found that drug addicts who show aggressive behavior are comprised of those who use heroin and morphine. While a study conducted by Azizi *et. al.* (2008) found that aggressive behavior was influenced by the conditions of social environment such as interaction with family members, interaction with peers and mass media exposure. Since the results of this study showed that the majority of women drug inmates still showed negative behavior, serious steps are needed to address the problem immediately. The results of this study suggest that women inmates who demonstrated high levels of aggressive behavior can be offered evaluation and psychotherapy by counselors to help them control their aggressive behaviors. The intervention and follow up can be continued even after they are released from the rehabilitation centers to ensure that they do not relapse.

TABLE 4
Level of aggressive behavior among women drug users

	Aggressive Behavior
High	12.6
Moderate	80.7
Low	6.7
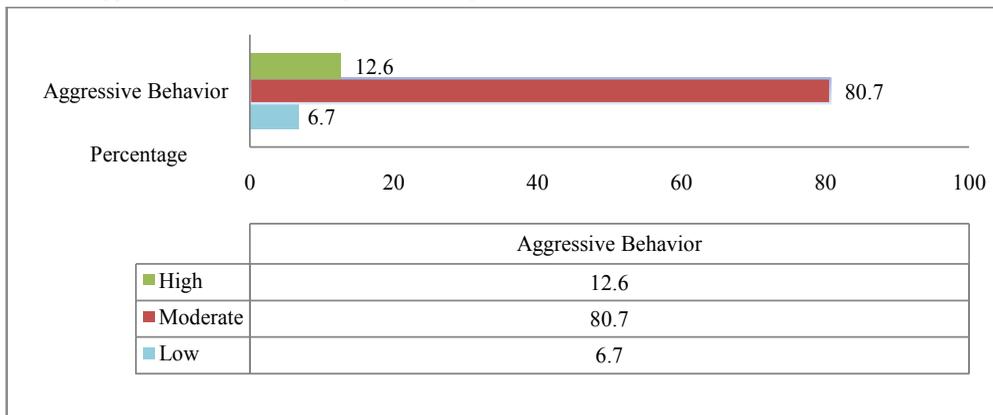
Religious knowledge refers to knowledge of basic religious education, beliefs and religious practices by women respondents in the study. Research findings demonstrated that the majority of women drug users (69.7 percent) have a moderate level of religious knowledge to a high level (28.6 percent). Only 1.7 percent of the inmates still showed a low level of religious knowledge (Table 5). Although most of the women inmates have a good knowledge of religion, an effort to provide guidance and strengthen their religious knowledge should be enhanced. This is due to the exposure of the religious aspect is part of the element in efforts to strengthen inmates from being further drawn into drug addiction. Several western studies found that religion is able to act as a protective factor against negative behaviors including drug abuse among young people (Donahue & Benson, 1995; Francis, 1997; Steinman, 2004). Individuals with higher religious knowledge and practices are usually more able to organize their lives in a peaceful manner (McCullough & Willoughby, 2009). Conversely, several other studies have found that low levels of religious knowledge among the youth expose them to risky activities that could damage their character and identity (Kogan *et. al.*, 2005; Stylianou, 2004; Greenwald, 2000; Sharifah *et. al.*, 2010). Meanwhile, a local study found that moderate religious knowledge contributed to drug abuse activities among 200 young people involved with drugs (Fauziah et al., 2012c). Therefore, the emphasis of religiosity among women inmates is needed to help them to build strong characters and later be able to contribute something useful to the religion, race and nation.

It is widely known that most religions in the world have strong emphasis on abstinence from alcohol and drugs. Studies worldwide have proven that teaching on drug/alcohol abstinence can delay or prevent people from taking alcohol or drugs although the amount of alcohol or drugs intake is no different from other groups without exposure to teaching ondrug/

TABLE 5
Level of religious knowledge among women drug users

Religious knowledge	
■ High	28.6
■ Moderate	69.7
■ Low	1.7
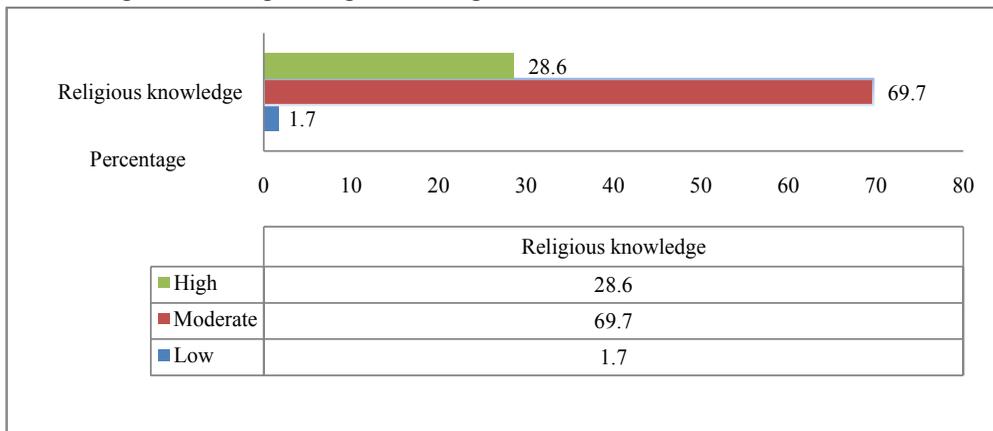
alcohol abstinence (e.g. Hawks & Bahr, 1999). The religious and spirituality aspects in preventing drug abuse have long been established. It is assumed that moral teaching or orders in spirituality or religious teaching may influence the decrease of substance use among its people. It is also believed that spirituality and religious teaching provide opportunities to acquire learned competency and organizational ties between its people. Thus, teaching on drug-abstinence may be useful in prevention and treatment efforts and therefore should be included and intensified in every rehabilitation program.

CONCLUSION

Overall, findings suggest that strengthening women drug offenders' characters with specific focus on self-esteem, resilience and religious knowledge deserves special attention. More research is needed to explore these issues with the intention that future knowledge can be used to formulate a more holistic rehabilitation program that can address group needs uniquely. This study highlights that the existing general rehabilitation program maybe too basic and unable to reach its target due to its inability to identify the special needs of various inmates (e.g. women and men). It is hoped that these findings would provide more understanding of women's drug use in Malaysia and their special needs and concerns. These findings also hopefully will provide a clearer picture of women's drug use that later can be used to strengthen drug prevention and rehabilitation programs in Malaysia.

REFERENCES

Agensi Antidadah Kebangsaan. (2013). *Laman Web Statistik Penyalahgunaan Dadah.* Retrieved August 20, 2012 from http://www.adk.gov.my/utama.html

Azizi Yahaya, Sharin Hashim, Yusof Boon, & Zurhana Muhamad. (2008). *Tip menangani buli di sekolah*. Kuala Lumpur: PTS Publications & Distributiors Sdn. Bhd.

Bee, H., & Boyd, D. (2002). *Lifespan development* (3rd Ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Boles, M., & Miotto, K. (2003). Substance use and violence: A review of the literature. *Aggression and Violent Behaviour, 8*(1), 55-174. doi.org/10.1016/S1359-1789(01)00057-X

Byrne, B. (2000). Relationships between anxiety, fear, self-esteem, and coping strategies in adolescence. *Adolescence, 35(*137), 201-216.

Byrne, C. J., Azarovitz, T. R., & Sissenwine, M. P. (1981). Factors affecting variability of research trawl surveys. *Can. Spec. Publ. Aquat. Sci, 58,* 238-273.

Brady, T., & Ashley, O. S. (2005). *Women in substance abuse treatment: Results from the Alcohol and Drug Services Study (ADSS)*. Department Of Health And Human Services. Rockville: National Clearinghouse for Alcohol and Drug Information.

Chen, C., Greenberger, E., Lester, J., Dong, Q., & Guo, M. (1998). A cross-cultural study of family and peer correlates of adolescent misconduct. *Developmental Psychology, 34*(4), 770-781. doi:10.1037/0012-1649.34.4.770

Chermack, S., & Blow, F. (2002). Violence among individuals in substance abuse treatment: The role of alcohol and cocaine consumption. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence, 66*(1), 29-37. doi:10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2010.06.005

Chawarski, M. C. M., & Schottenfeld, R. S. M. (2006). Heroin dependence and HIV infection in Malaysia. *Drug Alcohol Dependence, 82*, 39-42.

Chawarski, M. C. M., & Schottenfeld, R. S. M. (2007). Behavioural drug and HIV risk reduction counselling (BDRC) with abstinent-contigent take-home buprenorphine: A pilot randomised clinical trial. *Drug Alcohol Dependence, 94*, 281-298.

Donahue, M., & Benson, E. L. (1995). Religion and the well-being of adolescents. *Journal of Social Issues, 51*(2), 145-160. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4560.1995.tb01328.x

Davis, W. M. (1996). Psychopharmacologic violence associated with cocaine abuse: Kindling of a limbicdys control syndrome? *Progress in Neuro-Psychopharmacology and Biological Psychiatry, 20(8),* 1273-1300. doi:10.1016/s0278-5846(96)00126-1

EMCDDA. (2008). *Sexual assaults facilitated by drugs or alcohol. Lisbon: European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction*. Retrieved from http://www.emcdda.europa.eu/publications/technical-datasheets/dfsa

Fauziah Ibrahim, & Naresh Kumar. (2009). Factor effecting drug relapse in Malaysia: An Empirical Evidence. *Asian Social Science, 5*(12)*, 37-44.

Fauziah, I., Nen, S., Nur Saadah, M. A., & Sarnon, N. (2012a). A profile of male adolescents background and experiences in substance abuse.

Asian Social Science, 8*(12), 109-116. doi: 109-119. doi:10.5539/ass.v8n12p109.

Fauziah, I., Mohamad, M. S., Chong, S. T., & Azmi Abd Manaf. (2012b). Substance abuse and aggressive behavior among adolescents. *Asian Social Science*, *8*(9), 92-97. doi:10.5539/ass.v8n9p92.

Fauziah Ibrahim, Sarnon, N., Alavi, K., Mohamad, M. S., Akhir, N. M., & Nen, S. (2012c). Memperkasakan pengetahuan agama dalam kalangan remaja bermasalah tingkah laku: Ke arah pembentukan akhlak remaja sejahtera. *Jurnal e-BANGI*(7-Special Issues)*, 84-93. ISSN: 1823-884x

Francis, L. J. (1997). The impact of personality and religion on attitudes towards substance use among 13-15 year olds. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence, 44*(2-3), 95-103. doi:10.1016/s0376-8716(96)01325-7

Gouya, M. M. (2005). National report on HIV and AIDS cases. In *Disease Management Center MoHaME*. Tehran: Islamic Republic of Iran.

Grella, C. E., Scott, C. K., & Foss, M. A. (2005). Gender differences in long-term drug treatment outcomes in Chicago PETS. *Journal Substance Abuse Treatment, 28*(Suppl 1): S3-12. doi: 10.1016/j.jsat.2004.08.008

Greenwald, S. (2000). Religiosity and substance use and abuse among adolescents in the National Comorbidity Survey. *Journal of American Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, *39*(9), 1190-1197.

Grunstein, R., & Nutbeam, D. (2007). The impact of participation in the Rock Eisteddfod challenge on adolescent resiliency and health behaviours. *Health Education, 107*(3), 261-275. doi:10.1108/09654280710742564

Habil, H. (2001). *Managing heroin addicts through medical therapy*. Kuala Lumpur: University Malaya Press

Harter, S. (1993). Cause and consequences of low self esteem in children and adolescents. In R. F. Baumeister (Ed.). *Self-esteem: The puzzle of low self-regard*. (pp. 87-116). New York: Plenum.

Hawks, R. D., & Bahr, S. H. (1999). Religion and drug use. In D. K. Judd (Ed.), *Religion, mental health mid the Latter-day Saints* (pp. 169177). Salt Lake City. UT: Bookcraft.

Hughes, M., & David, H. D. (1989). Self perception of black Americans: Self-esteem and personel efficacy. *American Journal of Sociology, 95*(1), 132-159. doi: 10.1086/229216

Institute of Alcohol Studies (2008). IAS Factsheet: Women and Alcohol. Retreived January 3, 2013 from http://www.ias.org.uk/resources/factsheets/women.pdf

Jamaludin Hj. Ahmad, Nor Asida Shafii, & Tajul Aripin Sulaiman. (2009). Faktor penagih dadah dalam kalangan penagih dadah wanita, PUSPEN Bachok, Penjara Kajang dan Pusat Khidmat, Agensi AntiDadah Kebangsaan, KL. *Jurnal Agensi AntiDadah Kebangsaan (AADK)*. Putrajaya: KL

Lukman, Z. M., Nasir, R., Fauziah, I., Sarnon, N., Chong, S. T., Mostafa Kamal, M., Mohamad, M. S., Zainah, A. Z., Subhi, N., Fatimah, O., Nen, S., Hoesni, S. M., Khairudin, R., & Rusyda, H. M. (2011). The relationship between dysfunctional family and the involvement of children in prostitution. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, *12*(Special Issue), 7-12.

Lyons, S., Lynn, E., Walsh, S., & Long, J. (2008). *Trends in drug-related deaths and deaths among drug users in Ireland, 1998 to 2005*. Dublin: Health Research Board. Retrieved from http://www.hrb.ie/uploads/tx_hrbpublications/HRB_Trend_Series_4_01.pdf

Kogan, S. M., Luo, Z., Murry, V. M., & Brody, G. H. (2005). Risk and protective factors for substance use among African American high school dropouts. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors*, *19(*4), 382-391. doi: 10.1037/0893-164x.19.4.382

Keen, J., & Alison, L. H. (2001). Drug misusing parents: Key points for health professionals. *Archives of Disease in Childhood*, *85*(4), 296-299. doi:10.1136/adc.85.4.296

Keen, J., Oliver, P., Rowse, G., & Mathers, N. (2000). Keeping the families of heroin addicts together: Results of 13 months' intake for community detoxification and rehabilitation at a family centre for drug users. *Family Practice*, *17*(6), 484-489.

MacDonald, S., et al. (2008). Predicting violence among cocaine, cannabis and alcohol treatment clients. *Addictive Behaviors, 33*(1)*,* 201-205. doi.org/10.1016/j.addbeh .2007.07.002

McCullough, M. E., & Willoughby, B. L. B. (2009). Religion, self-control, and self-regulation: Associations, explanations, and implications. *Psychological Bulletin, 135*(1), 69–93. doi: 10.1037/a0014213

Meichenbaum, D. (2005). 35 years of working with suicidal patients: Lessons learned. *Canadian Psychology*, *46*(2), 64-72.doi:10.1037/h0087006

Ministry of Health Malaysia.(2007). Health Report. Putrajaya: Kuala Lumpur

Moore, T. M., & Stuart, G. L. (2003). Review of the literature on marijuana and interpersonal violence. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 10*(2), 171-192. doi:10.1016/j.avb. 2003.10.002

Newman, T. (2002). *Promoting resilience in children and young people during periods of transition*. Scottish Executive: Edinburgh. ISBN:0969-613X

Poulson, R. L., Eppler, M. A., Satterwhite, T. N., Wuensch, K. L., & Bass, L. A. (1988). Alcohol consumption, strength of religious beliefs and risky sexual behavior in college students. *Journal of American College Health*, *46*(5), 227-232. doi: 10.1080/07448489809600227

Poole, N., & Dell, C. A. (2005). *Girls, women and substance use*. Ottawa: Canadian Centre on Substance Abuse & BC Centre for Excellence for Women's Health.

Razzaghi, E., Nassirimanesh, B., Afshar, P., Ohiri, K., Claeson, M., & Power, R. (2006). HIV/AIDS harm reduction in Iran. *Lancet, 368*, 434-435.

Razani, N., Mohraz, M., & Kheirandish, P. (2007). HIV risk behavior among injection drug users in Tehran, Iran. *Addiction, 102,* 1472-1482.

Sapora Sipon. (2008). Gejala sosial di kalangan remaja. *Dewan Budaya*, *8*(3). Kuala Lumpur.

Stylianou, S. (2004). The role of religiosity in the opposition to drug use. *International Journal of Offender Therapy & Comparative Criminology, 48*(4), 429-448. doi:10.1177/0306624x 03261253

Steinman, K. J. (2004). Religious activity and risk behavior among African American adolescents: Concurrent and developmental effects. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 33(3-4)*, 151-161. doi.org/10.1023/B:AJCP.0000027002.93526.bb

Syarifah, M. N., Turiman, S., Syamsilah, R., Rahil, M., Haslinda, A., Ismi Arif, I., & Mursyid, A. (2010). Laporan kajian fenomena merempit dan potensi remaja lasak di FELDA. Kementerian Pengajian Tinggi Malaysia.

Taylor, S. P., & Hulsizer, M. R. (1998). *Psychoactive drugs and human aggression*. Academic Press.

US Department of Health and Human Services. (2009). *Special Feature on Medical Technology*. Washington: Government Printing Office.

Wells, R. S., Fisher, D. G., Fenaughty, A. M., Cagle, H. H., & Jaffe, A. (2006). Hepatitis A prevalence among injection drug user. *Clinical Laboratory Science, 16*(1), 12-17.

Willson, J. Q., & Kelling, G. L. (1982). Broken Window's. *Atlantic Monthly,* 29-38.

Willis, K., & Rushforth, C. (2003). The female criminal: an overview of women's drug use and offending behaviour. *Trends and Issues in Crime and Criminal Justice,* 264. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology.

Police Involvement in the Needle and Syringe Exchange Programme (NSEP): The Malaysian Experience

Zakaria, E.*, Baba, I., Azman, A., Sarnon, N., Fauziah, I. and Wahab, H. A.

School of Psychology and Human Development, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

The Needle and Syringe Exchange Programme (NSEP) in Malaysia is a fully Government-supported programme carried out multi-sectorally to reduce the spread of HIV/AIDS among drug users. However, NSEP contravenes the Malaysia Dangerous Drugs Act for which the enforcement is under the purview of the Royal Malaysia Police (RMP). This article attempts to highlight the challenges faced by the RMP in supporting the NSEP. Five police officers from the Narcotics Crimes Investigation Department were selected for in-depth interviews. Results show police officers had seized the NSEP's objective, philosophy and intervention. However, they were not informed on how exactly the NSEP operates in the field. The findings also showed disagreement between law enforcement terms of reference and the NSEP strategies. Much effort is needed to integrate the NSEP into law and the stakeholders' have to deliberate continually and provide accurate information on the NSEP implementation at all levels. It is also hoped to increase multi-sectoral participation based on punitive prohibition for drug offence in Malaysia.

Keywords: Police involvement, NSEP, law enforcement, multi-sectoral participation

INTRODUCTION

Many studies have been conducted on the Needle and Syringe Exchange Programme (NSEP) throughout the world since the inception of the NSEP. Most of the researchers applied the philosophy of harm reduction and the efficacy of the programme, as their inquiry focused on two main aspects: (i) the reduction of HIV/AIDS cases in countries that implement harm reduction intervention (Mc Donald, Law, Kaldor, & Dove, 2003 ; Commonwealth Department of Health and Ageing, 2002;

Burrows, 2000 ; Schechter, Strathdee, Cornelisse *et. al*., 1999), and (ii) the change of attitudes among intravenous drug users (IDU) participants, from sharing to not sharing needles as well as a number of IDU success cases that overcame addiction and shifted to methadone therapy (Braine *et. al*., 2004; Des Jarlais *et. al*., 2000; Joseph *et. al*., 2000; Wong *et. al*., 2003; Valente *et. al*., 2001). However, the understanding on multi-sectoral implementation of the NSEP is still at a minimal level. Besides, there is still a lack of studies on the coordination issues among the stakeholder agencies. In fact, most of the existing studies do not pay much attention to coordination and were mostly done in countries where the political establishment opposes NSEP (Philbin et al., 2008; Centre for Harm Reduction, 2003a; Wong *et. al*., 2003; Burrows, 2000). On the contrary in Malaysia the NSEP has been a fully government project since 2007. Does the NSEP, a government initiative in Malaysia, face the same challenges as in countries where the program receives no government or county political support? This article will provide empirical discussion in answering all the above questions by discussing the impact that law enforcement, particularly the Royal Malaysia Police (RMP) has on the efforts of implementing NSEP in Malaysia.

HISTORY OF THE NSEP IN MALAYSIA

The NSEP programme in Malaysia began with a 2006 pilot project by the Ministry of Health (MOH) (United Nations Regional Task Force Report - Malaysia, December 2006). The NSEP became a fully government project since 2007 after the success of the 2006 pilot project. MOH plays a vital role of a leading agency in NSEP on behalf of the government, with the support of stakeholders such as the Malaysian AIDS Council and the Royal Malaysian Police (RMP) as the enforcement agency. In Malaysia, multi-sectoral agency participation is important in implementing the NSEP successfully. Generally, the NSEP in Malaysia provides two main services: i) providing support, including counselling and references at the Drop In Centre (DIC), and ii) exchange of needles and syringes through field outreach. There are three DICs that performed the NSEP directly during the pilot project, namely the AIDS Action Research Group (AARG) in Penang, the Ikhlas Drop-in Centre in Kuala Lumpur, and the Intan Life Zone Centre in Johor Bahru.

The Malaysian NSEP received full government support to reduce the spread of HIV/AIDS among hardcore addicts. A set of Standard Operating Procedures (SOP) have been drafted to accelerate the program coverage and lessen any obstruction due to the controversies surrounding NSEP. A group of stakeholders were involved in drafting the Malaysian NSEP SOP. The stakeholders' collaboration highlights the importance of multi-agency participation

in the HIV/AIDS prevention program accordingly. (Eke *et. al*., 2006; Reid *et. al*., 2004). Public debate on drug abuse, 'war against drugs' and the harm caused by the misuse of drugs has moved from the conservative prohibitionist perspective to one of multi agencies working together for a better public health and safety policy (Kutin & Alberti, 2007). The harm minimization and social justice approach has instigated the conservative 'war against drugs' perspective, which promotes inter-agency collaboration and the 'client in need' intervention toward improving public health. Hence, a more client oriented outcome is expected from this approach, which is directed not only at the IDU but covers the wellbeing of a larger community as well. However, the real situation on the field is different. The link between key groups such as the police, prison, government and non-government agencies that focuses on drug user rehabilitation has not been fully utilised in the NSEP (United Nations Regional Task Force Report - Malaysia, December 2006). The importance of these agencies has not yet been optimised in the Malaysian context. The agencies still are not able to fully comprehend their roles in increasing the efficacy of the programme (Guganes, 2009; NSEP Project Manager in AARG Penang, interview 2008). Until today, only the Ministry of Health has been at the forefront in providing treatment and implementing the HIV/AIDS infection reduction programme in Malaysia (United Nations Regional Task Force Report - Malaysia, December 2006). But an inter-agency coordination still remains unclear.

Malaysia practices a strict law and rehabilitation policy, as well as drug war campaigns and total abstinence which clearly is shown under the implementation of the Malaysian Dangerous Drugs Act. The support of law enforcers particularly police is important in maximising the effectiveness of NSEP and other harm reduction programs (Griffin, 1995). Nevertheless, implementing NSEP and calling for the existing policing protocols to support the harm reduction approaches such as agreements that police not patrol directly outside the NSEP area contravenes the enforcement of the Dangerous Drugs Act in Malaysia where enforcing the law is under the purview of the Royal Malaysia Police (RMP). Law-enforcement agencies, particularly the police were not supportive of NSEP, as the program was seen to condone drug abuse (Burris, 2009; Kutin & Alberti, 2007; Midford *et. al*., 2002). This research aims at investigating the challenges that the police face as an enforcement agency to support and collaborate with a program that contravenes Dangerous Drugs Act.

METHODOLOGY

This exploratory study used a qualitative approach and chose the RMP agency as a unit of analysis. Five respondents representing the RMP were interviewed for an average of one hour to one and half hours. Approximately two-to-three interviews were conducted for each respondent. The interviewing guide was developed based on the empirical studies on the harm reduction programme (Mogg & Levy,

2009; Philbin *et. al.*, 2008; Open Health Institute, 2006; Eke *et. al.*, 2006; Dolan *et. al.*, 2005; Reid *et. al.*, 2004; Centre for Harm Reduction, 2003a, 2003b; Commonwealth Department of Health and Aging, 2002; Des Jarlais, 1995) and the conceptual framework of inter-agency coordination in social services (Johnson & Yanca, 2007; Netting & Williams, 1996; Jenning & Krane, 1994; Hammer, 1990). This study applied the data analysis method by Netting and Williams (1996), Braun and Clarke (2006) and Blaikee (2007). In the tradition of grounded theory (Glasser & Strauss, 1967) the interview scope was designed semistructuredly to allow respondents the opportunity to describe their agencies' as well as their own professional experiences in handling issues pertinent to the NSEP in Malaysia. Generally, the qualitative data analysis method requires the researcher to search and identify a number of sub-themes beforehand and later, from this group of subthemes, a larger theme would be shaped, thereby shaping the main themes. This theme-shaping analysis from the interview data is known as an inductive analysis method. Comparison is then made to highlight similarities and differences between themes. Data segments with similarities are later labelled under the same group. Differences between each segment of data are also identified and categorized into different groups.

RESULTS

Results from the analysis exhibited two main themes on the challenges of encouraging

RMP's involvement in the NSEP. The two themes are: i) limitation of complete information regarding the needle and syringe exchange process thus implicating the low involvement and comprehension of the police force, and ii) the contradicting stance of NSEP implementation with laws and police delegation. This article examines the level of police involvement in order to have a better understanding on their role in the program.

RMP's Involvement and Police Personnel Comprehension of the NSEP

The RMP Narcotics Department serves as the enforcement agency for the NSEP. The RMP cooperates by not entering certain outreach areas when the programme personnel performed the needle and syringe exchanges. This is to allay the Intraveneous Drug Users-IDUs fears of going to these exchanges if at the same time they could detect police presence. The RMP also supports the NSEP as a government programme by distributing the Standard Operating Procedures (SOP) to agency personnel. This is done to inform the RMP members on duty in drug operations about the NSEP areas. Furthermore, the SOP is also distributed to direct key agencies so each agency would be aware and alert of each other's roles. For instance,

> *The RMP has representatives involved with the National AIDS Task Force (NATF). We follow government policies along with other agencies. The NGOs carry out the NSEP and the methadone*

(therapy). But the RMP are involved in the enforcement of both the NSEP and the methadone therapy. We have standard operating procedures (SOP) as guidelines for the harm reduction in Malaysia. This is the police guideline for the programme. What can and cannot be done. So when policemen read this guideline he would be aware. We inform all policemen…all policemen were notified. These police officers have the same power to arrest addicts. Those suspected or supposed to commit crimes including narcotic crimes are under the purview of the police.

The RMP was involved in developing the SOP for the NSEP task from the beginning to ensure that there was no contradiction in the guidelines for the harm reduction programme. They recognized that this task was not easy and would take more time to implement. However, all respondents highlighted that they could not ascertain the level of comprehension and acceptance of other members in the agency regarding the NSEP, even with the SOP as their guidelines:

We distribute the SOP and provide explanation and when the officers return to their divisions, they have to explain to the other members. But even with the distribution, we understand that not all of them read the SOP.

Collectively, the respondents voiced out the issues of information channel, comprehension and acceptance of police officers as a challenging task at the beginning of the NSEP implementation. Even though there was a consistent comprehension of the harm reduction among respondents, in which analysis revealed that the RMP's knowledge was not enough, they need more knowledge on how the NSEP can perform on the field. They gained no source of information particularly on how the needle and syringe was exactly exchanged and whether the IDUs really practiced safe injection methods. For example,

Addict comes, the needle that he used is dumped there, he takes a new one and then he left. Is it like that program right? But after they left, whether they used or sold, we don't know. Nobody control what?

Without complete and precise information, the police officers tend to have doubts on the NSEP clients' ability to follow the program appropriately as they should be. They did not believe that the IDUs were misused because the idea was to give them clean needles but proper monitoring cannot be ensured. This statement explains thiss clearly below:

One does not have a strong ability to quit. So there is an inclination for addicts to manipulate the programme. He will sell the drugs as he could use the Identity Document, ID-each drug addicts who joins

NSEP will be given an Identity Document Card which ratify them as program user. We are not really sure how far he does not share the needles. Drugs are difficult to get! They are close to each other. Can we ensure the programme user realise how sharing leads to disease?

A low level of agency knowledge of the NSEP implementation on the field is analysed as a significant challenge prior to inter-agency cooperation. The questions that are considered important to police officers are: i) how the needles are exchanged, ii) whether counselling is carried out as stated in the module, and iii) how monitoring is carried out. This includes how far the implementers know that the needles are not shared and to what extent the NSEP's clients determine safe practices for needle and syringe use.

Law Enforcement and Police Duty

Extensively, the NSEP is challenged by the prohibitionist ideology that adheres to the philosophy where drug abuse cases can only be handled with punishment and conviction. The idea of punishment as the IDU's rehabilitation method is influenced by a mixture of religion, culture, and social mores of the legislators. Even though the NSEP's main focus is on the containment of the HIV/AIDS spread, but as it targets the IDUs, it can not be discussed independently of drug abuse rehabilitation. The Malaysian drug laws themselves are prohibitionist by definition.

This study found that law enforcement in Malaysia faces challenges in coordinating the social network agency. It is because the NSEP requires the participation and cooperation of the RMP. The RMP is the main law enforcement agency in Malaysia in eradicating drug abuse, including arresting the IDUs. They are involved with the NSEP to provide cooperation in which they would not enter the outreach areas when the NSEP workers exchanged needles. This was done to prevent the IDUs from feeling afraid to exchange their needles when they sensed the presence of the police officers.

The main reason for the challenges in inter-agency coordination is the contradiction between the importance of obeying the law and the need of the NSEP to achieve their target of HIV/AIDs reduction in Malaysia. Although the role of the agencies can be synchronised through understanding and choice, it has not obtained any success due to the difference between the public and the agency's goals.

The law is the main problem of agency coordination and agency role synchronisation. It falls back to law. Possession of drugs, even in a small amount, is against the law. We have to look at the whole scenario when the NSEP is implemented. Whether we received proper or improper advice from a legal sense could not be ascertained as there is no participation from the legal body in this NSEP task force.

Respondents of this study also claimed that there was no legal representative while developing the NSEP task force. This is why confusion occurs when the RMP as the law enforcement agency is being assumed as the legislative body. For instance,

When we say law we mean the legislative, not the police. They are the experts. The question is whether or not our action is legal. Can they order the police to not go to NSEP area? Can they issue directives to not arrest their client? No, they cannot issue such directives. Why should they be privileged? There are so many unclear points by the implementers on the procedures. Even though we have the SOP, but it is more on the technical matter. It should also involve legal matter.

The respondents also highlighted the challenges in implementing the NSEP as a result of the public's misperception towards the RMP. If they do not take any action on the NSEP's clients, the drug distribution and addiction problems will remain unresolved in the society. However, they claimed that the NSEP did not include the issues of drug distribution and addiction which made them concerned about police involvement in the NSEP.

Furthermore, the respondents also addressed the issue of conviction as influencing their level of involvement in the NSEP. For example, there is no change or amendment of police duty that allows them

to excuse the NSEP's clients from legal action. The police are still answerable to the need to obey the law to carry out drug abuse eradication operations, including arresting the IDUs. Whereas the RMP understands why the IDUs are provided clean needles through the NSEP, it is not a licence to the IDUs to be immune to the law. For instance,

Drug laws in Malaysia is not amended, there is no new exception. So when these IDU's enter the harm reduction programme he is not exempted from law.

The NSEP's clients are still subject to legal conviction if they commit other crimes. It is clear that law enforcement officers in this study are firm in the enforcement of the Drugs Act and want the NSEP's clients to be held responsible for their behavior when involving crimes. The respondents emphasized that IDUs are also committing other crimes to support their addiction needs. Thus, they will never be exempted from the law. Indirectly, the RMP wants other agencies especially the implementers to understand that police duty in enforcing law has not changed. The police still have to perform their duties in combating drug abuse even for the NSEP's clients if they are found to be involved in any form of violation of the law. Since there is no provision under the law excluding the NSEP's clients, the RMP was requested to exercise their discretion in this programme. However, discretion did affect the cooperation between the RMP and the NSEP's implementers. The concept

of discretion is complicated and strongly dependant on police interpretation and current circumstances especially concerning their duties in combating drug abuse.

DISCUSSION

Malaysia is well known in the Asian region and at international levels as a country with strict drug laws. The National Drug Policy (NDP) was launched in 1983 and revised in 1996 with a number of strategies. Focus is given to prevention, enforcement, treatment, rehabilitation and cooperation internally and internationally. This policy justifies the importance of the 1985 Dangerous Drugs Act which is still in use in Malaysia until today. The main component of the drug policy in Malaysia is zero tolerance. The main goal is towards a drug-free Malaysia by 2015. Efforts towards zero tolerance shape law enforcement in combating drugs. Law enforcement seeks to see a decline in crime, and increases in security and public safety (Beyrer, 2012). This is opposed to the harm reduction ideology practised as a step in reducing the HIV/AIDS and the blood-borne diseases among the IDUs. Harm reductionists on the other hand, aim to see declines in the social consequences of substance abuse particularly in reducing the spread of new HIV infections among drug users for the case of the NSEP.

Harm reductionisst try to change the criminal justice perspective which currently dominates the way Malaysia views drug problems to a more public health approach. Although the Malaysian government is supporting the NSEP as one of the country's intervention efforts to combat the spread of HIV/AIDS, the NSEP implementation remains controversial. This is especially true when discussing it from the legal aspect. As this research focuses more on the challenge of involving the RMP, which is the main law enforcement agency, the discussion considers how law is still a significant influence in reducing the RMP's support. The research finding shows how law enforcement can have an opposing effect on the NSEP and any prevention programs which try to address the legality of drug use. It points out the power police actions have on the program efficiency and treatment. A similar finding is also observed in the Gardiner, (2012) study on police attitudes and response towards the criminal justice system in California which has been radically changed from a crime control model to an addiction treatment model in dealing with drug offenders.

The Law enforcement agency, predominantly the police are found to have become less committed to NSEP when their terms of reference are subject to laws. Existing research confirmed that the police were not supportive of the NSEP markedly in the beginning when the program was introduced (Kutin & Alberti, 2007) as the program was seen to tolerate drug use. The NSEP implementation around the world seeks for police involvement by not carrying out patrols or person checks near needle exchange outreach spost. A similar type of collaboration is highlighted by the Malaysia NSEP as well. The outreach spot refers to a 30 meter radius space where the NSEP's

clients gather to exchange a used needle and syringe for new ones. The police is expected not to disturb the area during the exchange. Thus, this limits their operation to arrest IDUs who are in the specific areas. Police cooperation is regarded by the implementers as a strategy to encourage the IDUs to exchange needles without the fear of being arrested (Murphy et al., 2004). Most IDUs who participate in the NSEP are found to be those with life circumstances that put them at greater risk for crime and legal status. They were most likely e fear identification by the police. According to Murphy *et. al*. (2004), the most frequently mentioned hurdle by the IDUs to attending NSEP was the fear of police raids. Above all, police cooperation and discretion is seen by the harm reductionist as enormously significant in maximising the effectiveness of NSEP. On the contrary, laws involving drug offences have restricted the police from giving discretion to NSEP particularly when they were requested not to arrest and convict the NSEP clients subject to the criminal offense law. It is clearly stated under the acts that any individual detained or suspected of possessing drugs or found with any equipment containing drugs is subject to offenses under Malaysia Dangerous Drugs Act. The act shapes the agency's perception in evaluating drug abuse as a legal and security issue. Provision of needles in the NSEP is judged as providing kits to drug addiction. Even though the NSEP does not provide drugs, possession of this kit is considered a crime if drugs are found in the kit, especially the needle and syringe. One

thing that the police in this study agreed on unanimously, is that addicts are criminals mostly because they commit other crimes in order to support their addictive habit. Existing research supports their line of reasoning (Gardiner, 2012; Mazerolle *et. al*., 2007; Midford et al., 2002). The police contention plays as a fundamental rule on valuing the NSEP as condoning drug abuse. Given that, the NSEP is viewed as sending the message to IDUs that breaking the drug possession law is not a big deal as far as the harm of injecting behavior is minimized.

There is a major challenge to inter-agency coordination because of the differences in goals, policies, work procedures and decision-making techniques. It causes conflict when they have to conform to the law (Jennings & Krane, 1994 ; Hammer, 1990). Based on the findings, the NSEP implementing agency and the RMP could not find a common point in line with their respective roles. It seems difficult to hold on to the concept of discretion alone when it involves various matters pertaining to the law. This is especially when possession of drugs and needles are subjected to law enforcement. Coordination is inclined to face the issue of bureaucracy and problems caused by collaborative discrepancies between agencies. The aspect of value and law can prevent agencies from compromising. It is therefore important for implementing agencies to pay attention to the legal restraints on police roles and other rehabilitation agencies. Agencies should also take into account how best to tolerate and align their efforts to promote

NSEP. Tolerance is not only necessary in understanding the rationale of why the government has initiated the NSEP, but to be tolerant with the limits of other agencies especially in matters of law enforcement is nonetheless essential.

IMPLICATION AND CONCLUSION

According to Burris (2009), Williams, (2005), Midford *et. al.* (2002) and Sutton and James (1996), the Harm Reduction programme should take into account these efforts to ensure more participation of law enforcement like the police:

a. Form a framework to integrate current drug policies by focusing more on harm reduction

b. Ensure an effective method in evaluating the results of harm reduction intervention. This includes developing a universal information (data) collection system

c. Encourage and improve inter-sectoral cooperation as an integrated method in achieving the goal of reducing demand (drug supply) and harm reduction (due to drugs)

d. Form a common understanding between key agencies regarding the harm reduction module

e. Form an integrated training strategy between police and other agencies.

The idea to integrate the harm reduction programme with drug laws and the zero tolerance approach applied in most countries should be strongly emphasized. However,

the effort will require changes in existing social policies and drug laws. It is a time-consuming process but it can ensure the success of the NSEP. Therefore, this study attempts to propose the importance of fieldwork for local police by focusing on exposure and training. This suggestion is made based on observations of two harm reduction programmes in Geraldton and Mirrabooka, Western Australia that received better support and cooperation from the police officers (Midford *et. al.*, 2002). Besides that, there is a need to run interactive workshops for the police officers who are involved in the NSEP. This workshop should cover topics such as: i) harm reduction as an alternative to drug rehabilitation, and ii) the use of discretion in responding to the breaches of the law. Previously, this kind of workshop has raised awareness and improved the job of the police when dealing with the NSEP's clients (Midford *et. al.*, 2002; Sutton & James, 1996). Apart from that, the NSEP implementation in Malaysia has to focus on providing education to the public. This is important to reduce public misunderstanding about the NSEP and police involvement. There is an obvious need to promote awareness and better understanding of the harm reduction concept commencement through the NSEP. Indeed, valuing IDU as patients who suffer from abusing drugs instead of regarding them as criminal offenses need to be further inculcated not only in the society but also among law enforcement officers.

As a conclusion, building an effective multi-agency integration in expanding

NSEP is crucial. Efforts made in integrating the "law on books" with a more pragmatic approach even with a different perspective and agenda is considered as an important key to agency coordination. Nevertheless, it is important to acknowledge the reality of the bureaucracy of agencies with regards to law enforcement. Law can disrupt the coordination between agencies. Law is categorised as a technical hurdle especially when its enforcement is challenged by differences in perspectives and values held by agencies. Hence, this study suggests that the NSEP implementers in Malaysia should synchronise the interests of different agencies in order to ensure the success of inter-agency coordination.

REFERENCES

Beyrer, C. (2012). Afterword : Police, policing and HIV : New partnerships and paradigms. *Harm Reduction Journal*, *9,* 32.

Blaikie, N. (2007). *Approaches to social enquiry*. (2nd ed.) Malden, MA : Polity Press.

Braine, N., Des Jarlais, D. C., Purchase, D., Turner, C., & Ahmad, S. (2004). Long term effects of syringe exchange on risk behavior and HIV prevention. AIDS, *Education & Prevention*, *16*(3)*,* 264 – 275.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, *3*(2), 77 - 101. doi. org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa

Burris, S. (2009). Drug policing, harm reduction and health : Directions for advocacy. *International Journal of Drug Policy*, *20*(4)*,* 293 – 295. doi: 10.1016/j.drugpo.2009.04.001.

Burrows, D. (2000). *Starting and managing needle and syringe programmes*. New York: International Harm Reduction Network.

Centre for Harm Reduction. (2003a). *Comprehensive responses for HIV/AIDS prevention and care among drug users in India*. Macfarlane Burnet Institute for Medical Research and Public Health.

Centre for Harm Reduction. (2003b). *The manual for reducing drug-related harm in Asia*. Macfarlane Burnet Institute for Medical Research and Public Health.

Commonwealth Department of Health and Aging. (2002) *Return on investment in needle and syringe programs in Australia*. Canberra: Commonwealth of Australia Retrieved from www.health.gov.au/pubhlth/publicat/hac.htm

Des Jarlais, D. C., Perlis, T., Friedman, S. R., *et.al.*, (2000). Behavioral risk reduction in declining HIV epidemic : Injecting drug users in New York 1990 – 1997. *Journal of Public Health, 90*(7), 1112–1116. doi: 10.2105/AJPH.90.7.1112

Des Jarlais, D. C. (1995). Harm reduction: A framework for incorporating science into drug policy. *American Journal of Public Health, 85*(1)*,* 10-2. doi: 10.2105/AJPH.85.1.10

Dolan, K., Dillon, P., & Sillins, E. (2005). *Needle and syringe programs: Your questions answered.* Canberra, Australian Government Department of Health and Aging. Eke, A. N., Mezoff, J. S., Duncan , T., & Sogolow, E. D. (2006). Reputationally strong HIV prevention programs : Lessons from the front line. *AIDS Education and Prevention, 18*(2), 163–175. doi: 10.1521/aeap.2006.18.2.163

Gardiner, C. (2012). "An Absolute Revolving Door'': An evaluation of police perception and response to proposition 36. *Criminal Justice Policy Review*, 23(3), 275–303.

Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. New Brunswick, NJ: Aldine Transaction.

Griffin, M. (1995). Building on common ground. In M. Hamilton, T. King & A. Ritter. *Drug use in Australia : Preventing harm*. South Melbourne: Oxford University Press.

Guganes, P. (2009). *Working hand in hand with law enforcement agencies to ensure success of harm reduction efforts*. Paper Presented at the 9th International Congress on AIDS in Asia and the Pacific (ICAAP). Empowering People, Strengthening Networks. Nusa Dua, Bali Indonesia.

Hammer, B. (1990). Current perspectives on inter-organizational relationships. *Administration in Social Work, 14*(4)*,* 117-128. doi: 10.1300/J147v14n04_09

Jennings, E. T., & Krane, D. (1994). Coordination and welfare reform. *Public Administration Review*, *54*(4)*,* 341–348.

Johnson, L. C., & Yanca, S. J. (2007). *Social work practice : A generalist approach*. (9th ed.) Boston: Allyn & Bacon Pearson Education.

Joseph, G., Brown, C., Edgington, Edney & Garcia, (2000). What are the impact of needle exchange program on young injectors? *AIDS and Behavior, 4*(2), 137. doi: 10.1023/A:1009505322784

Kutin, J. J., & Alberti, S. (2007). Law enforcement and harm minimization. In : M. Hamilton, T. King & A. Ritter. *Drug use in Australia: Preventing harm*. South Melbourne : Oxford University Press.

Mazerolle, L., Soole, D. & Rombouts, S. (2007). Drug law enforcement: A Review of the evaluation literature. *Police Quarterly, 10*(2)*,* 115-153.

Mc Donald, M., Law, M., Kaldor, J., & Dove, G. J. (2003). Effectiveness of needle and syringe programs for reventing HIV transmission. *International Journal of Drug Policy*.

Midford, R., Acres, J., Lenton, S., Loxley, W., & Boots, K. (2002). Cops, drugs and the community : Establishing consultative harm reduction structures in two Western Australian locations. *International Journal of Drug Policy, 13*(3)*,* 185–192. doi:10.1016/S0955-3959(02)00031-2

Mogg, D., & Levy, M. (2009). Moving beyond non-engagement on regulated needle-syringe exchange programs in Australian prisons. *Harm Reduction Journal*, *6*, 7. doi:10.1186/1477-7517-6-7

Murphy, S., Kelley, M. S., & Lune, H. (2004). The health benefits of secondary syringe exchange. *Journal of Drug Issues, 34*(2)*,* 245-268

Netting, F. E ., & Williams, F. G. (1996). Case manager-physician collaboration : Implicationsfor professional identity roles and relationships. *Health and Social Work*, *21*(3)*,* 216–224. doi: 10.1093/hsw/21.3.216

Open Health Institute. (2006). *Harm reduction programs in the civilian and prison sectors of the Russion federation: Assessment of best practices*. Open Health Institute. Author.

Philbin, M. M., Lozada, R., Zuniga, M. L., Mantsios, A., Case, P., Magis-Rodriguez, C., Latkin, C. A., & Strathdee, S. A. (2008). A Qualitative assessment of stakeholder perceptions and socio-cultural influences on the acceptability of harm reduction programs in Tijuana, Mexico. *Harm Reduction Journal*, *20*(5)*,* 5-36. doi: 10.1186/1477-7517-5-36.

Reid, G., Adeeba, K., & Kaur Sran, S. (2005). *Rapid Situation Assessment of Malaysia 2004*. University of Malaya Kuala Lumpur: Infectious Disease Unit Publishers.

Schechter, M. T., Strathdee, S. A., Cornelisse, P. G., *et. al*., (1999). Do needle exchange programmes

increase the spread of HIV among injection drug users? An investigation of the Vancouver outbreak. *AIDS*, *1*(6)*,* F45-51.

Sutton, A., & James, S. (1996). *Evaluation of Australian drug anti-trafficking law enforcement*. Payneham, SA: National Police Research Unit.

United Nations Regional Task Force (2006). *Injecting Drug Use and HIV/AIDS in Asia and the Pacific Baseline Assessment* – Malaysia.

Valente, T. W., Foreman, R. K., Junge, B., & Vlahov, D. (2001). Needle exchange participation, effectiveness and policy : Syringe relay, gender and the paradox of public health. *Journal of Urban Health*, *78*(2)*,* 340 – 349. doi: 10.1093/jurban/78.2.340

Williams, M. (2005). Roundtable : Discussions on how partnerships can help address access to sterile syringe as an upstream social marketing challenge. *Social Marketing Quarterl*y, *11*(3-4)*,* 26-31.

Wong, K. H., Lee, S. S., Lim, W. L., & Low, H. K. (2003). Adherence to methadone is associated with a lower level of HIV-related risk behaviors in drug users. *Journal of Substance Abuse Treatment*, *24*(3)*,* 233-239. doi:10.1016/S0740-5472(03)00029-1

SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES

Exploring Love and Marital Satisfaction among Married Malay Males

Hoesni, S. M.*, Subhi, N., Alavi, K. and Wan Azreena, W. J.

School of Psychology and Human Development, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities,
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

As a result of love being an important reason for individuals to enter marriage, this study aims to explore the relationships between components of love and marital satisfaction. A total of 64 married urban Malay males who volunteered to participate in a larger study exploring the psychological aspects of close relationships were chosen in this study. Questionnaires consisting of questions relating to personal background, love and marital satisfaction were distributed. Completed questionnaires were collected and analyzed to determine relationships among variables. The results showed that there was a significant relationship between love, specifically, the passion component of love and marital satisfaction. The total number of children and age of spouse were also significantly negatively related to marital satisfaction. The results in this study indicated the importance of love especially the passion component of love in promoting marital satisfaction among married Malay individuals. Thus, this suggests future research to focus on love aspects in studying gender, marital relationships and psychological well-being.

Keywords: Love, intimacy, passion, commitment, marital satisfaction

INTRODUCTION

Love is viewed as one of the most important aspects in building a long term relationship, namely marriage. Love is not the only reason for marriage in contemporary western culture (Acevedo & Aron, 2009) but gradually has become an important reason for marriage in Asian culture including Malay marriages (Hoesni *et. al*., 2012). Besides love being an important factor for individuals to enter marriage, previous research also found that love is crucial in maintaining a healthy marital relationship and psychological well

being among married couples (Aron & Henkemeyer, 1995; Contreras & Hendrick, 1996; Lev-Wiesel & Al-Krenawi, 1999; Merves-Okin *et. al.,* 1991; O'Leary *et. al.,* 2012).

There have been many studies which have explored the relationship between love and marital satisfaction. One such study was carried out by Contreras and Hendrick (1996). They investigated marital love and satisfaction among Mexican American and Anglo American married couples. They found that Mexican American couples were less idealistic concerning romantic love compared to the Anglo American couples. The findings show that although Mexican and American couples showed love differently, married couples from both groups reported similar marital satisfaction. Another study carried out by Merves-Okin *et. al.* (1991) found that the perception of love within the marital relationship influences the marital satisfaction of the respondents. The findings showed that the more positively participants view their spouses' expression of love, the higher they reported of being satisfied within their marriage. These results imply that perception was more important than the actual behaviour of love responsesw they receive from their spouse. These findings also indicated that if participants perceived spouses as expressing more the intimacy component of love, they were more likely to report higher marital satisfaction. Thus, there is clear evidence on the relationships between how people perceive love and marital satisfaction. The more participants'

perceive that they are being loved, the more satisfied they were in their marriage. The more they perceive that their partner expresses love, the more satisfied they became in their marriage.

The importance of married couples perceiving that love still exists in their marriage was also mentioned by Bonds-Raacke *et. al.* (2001) and Ruvolo and Veroff (1997). They suggested that the gradual decrease in romantic love that married couples once experienced may be perceived by a married individual as an experience of "deterioration of love". The experience of "deterioration of love" can eventually result in unhappy and unsatisfactory marriages. On the other hand, the well-being of a married individual who is not happy and dissatisfied can be badly affected.

For example, the research found that marital instability and distress can affect one's physical health (Kiecott-Glaser *et. al.,* 1993; Roberts *et. al.,* 2005). Findings also indicated that marital distress promotes depression among adults (Assh & Byers, 1996; Coyne *et. al.,* 1987; Horneffer & Fincham 1996; Ismail, 2004; Jackman-Cram *et. al.,* 2006; Low & Stocker, 2005).

The perception of "deterioration of love" within marriage can also influence other people in the family including children. Findings suggest that unhappy marriages cannot create a conducive environment for the development of family members (Crouter *et. al.,* 1999; Ismail, 2004; Webster-Stratton, 1990; Yela, 1999). Unhappy and depressed parents may not be able to play their parental roles as effectively (Webster-Stratton,

1990). Murray *et. al*. (2006) discovered that parents experiencing depression may not provide appropriate support for their children in even the simplest tasks such as helping their children with homework. A longitudinal study showed that children with parents experiencing marital distress and conflict prevented them from making positive adjustments in adulthood (Cui *et. al*., 2006). Furthermore, the depressed mood and marital conflict between parents were also found to harm children's adjustment (Low & Stocker, 2005). Krishnakumar *et. al*. (2003) found that children with parents who practice negative interactions were also prone to poor social skills in dealing with daily life crises. Moreover, other studies found that marital distress and destructive marital conflict contribute to other problems that are related to the dysfunctional and psychopathological behaviour of the married couples and children (Coie *et. al*., 1993; Olsofsky, 1995). Children of parents who experienced marital distress were more likely to suffer from internalizing problems such as anxiety and depression (Low & Stocker, 2005) and prone to juvenile delinquency (Patterson *et. al*., 1982) and conduct disorders (Fincham *et. al*., 1993; Webster-Stratton, 1990).

In addition, conduct disorder is described as "a pervasive adolescent disorder with clinically significant antisocial behaviours such as excessive non-compliance, aggression, stealing, lying, truancy, violence, destructiveness, cruelty, and sexually coercive behaviour" (American Psychiatric Association, 1994).

Unfortunately, it remains as one of the most difficult syndromes to treat clinically (Keiley, 2002). Studies have discovered that many children who display conduct disorder have parents who experience marital distress. Distressed parents were prone to showing irritaility, critical and punitive parenting skills towards their children and were harsh or inconsistent in disciplining and monitoring (Frick, 1994; Gottman & Katz, 1989; Webster-Stratton, 1990). "Deterioration of love" may also eventually lead to divorce. Studies carried out by Asmah (1979), Jones (1980, 1981, 1997) and Kling (1995) showed that divorce rates among Malays are increasing gradually albeit not significantly. The effects of divorce are harmful to the individuals within the broken marriage and also the children within the broken family. For instance, a longitudinal study carried out by Yu *et. al*. (2010) found that there were associations between divorce and poor quality parent-adult child relationships.

In addition, previous research also indicated that there were also differences between love types and gender. Many studies on love have also explored the nature of love experienced among males and females (Hendrick *et. al*., 1984; Hendrick & Hendrick, 1986; Parra *et. al*., 1998; Leon *et. al*., 1994; Dion & Dion, 1993). The findings indicate that females have the tendency to have a more pragmatic kind of love (*Pragma*) compared to a playful type of love (*Ludus*) reported by males. Gender has also been found to influence how love is perceived. One of the studies investigating

gender differences on love is the study by Leon *et. al.* (1995). They explored love types among 145 participants (53% male and 47% female) from a Latino community college in Los Angeles, United States. The love attitude scales (LAS) by Hendrick and Hendrick (1986) was completed by participants. The findings indicated that males were more prone to possess a game playing love, (*Ludus*) compared to females. Similar results were also found by Parra *et. al.* (1998) among Guatemalans. They compiled 81 completed questionnaires using love attitude scales to assess love among the participants and also found that males were prone to *Ludus*. However, Fehr and Broughton (2001) found no differences of love types between male and female. It was found that both males and females were prone to companionate love rather than passionate love.

On the other hand, culture has also been found to be an important factor in influencing the way people view love. To illustrate, comparison studies relating to love and culture have also been carried out to investigate the nature of love across different cultures (Dion & Dion, 1993; Gonzaga *et. al.*, 2006; Shaver *et. al.*, 1992). The results suggest that culture does play a crucial part in understanding the integral phenomenon of love. For example, researchers found that there are differences in how people perceive, express and experience love depending on their cultural roots (Contreras & Hendrick, 1996; Dion & Dion, 1993; 1996; Landis, 2000; Medora *et. al.*, 2002; Shaver *et. al.*, 1992; Stones & Philbrick, 1991; Yela, 1998).

From the above discussion, previous studies have shown that love, gender and culture can be viewed as important factors that can influence a person's experience of love, an individual's marital relationship and psychological wellbeing. The main objective of this study is to explore the relationships that exist between components of love and marital satisfaction specifically among married Malay males.

METHOD

Sample

A total of 64 married urban Malay males were chosen from a larger sample in a study exploring the psychological aspects of close relationships. The subjects were participants attending a self development seminar in Kuala Lumpur and volunteered to participate in the study.

Research Instruments

Questionnaires in this study consisted of questions relating to personal background, love and marital satisfaction.

Personal information

The demographic section consisted of questions relating to the personal background of participants. This included personal information such as gender, age, religion, education level, personal monthly income, total number of years of marriage and total number of children.

Love

Love was measured using a triangular love scale developed by Sternberg (1988). The scale consisted of 45 items that represent three love dimensions such as passion, intimacy and commitment. Responses were measured using a 7-Likert scale, *1 = 'strongly do not agree'* and *7 = 'strongly agree'*. Reliability for this scale is α=0.96 which reached over the minimum requirement of alpha Cronbach α=0.70 as suggested by Anastasi (1988).

Marital Satisfaction

Marital satisfaction was measured using the *Kansas Marital Satisfaction Scale* (Schumm *et. al*., 1986) which was adapted by Rumaya (1997) and Bullare (2005) for the Malaysian context. This scale consisted of four items and used a 7-Likert scale, *1 = 'strongly do not agree'* and *7 = 'strongly agree'*. Reliability for this scale is α=0.93 and passes the minimum requirement of alpha Cronbach as suggested by Anastasi (1988).

Analysis

The data in this study was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences version 21 for Windows (SPSS 21). Descriptive statistics were carried out to analyze the personal background of subjects using minimum, maximum, percentages, mean and standard deviation scores. The Pearson correlation was used to analyze relationships between variables and regression was used to determine the most influential factors contributing to marital satisfaction.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Descriptive Results

The subjects ranged from 20 years old to 60 years old with a mean age of 37.61 years . The subjects were also married for a total mean years of of 12.52 with children whose ages ranged from. They also earned a monthly income between RM1,000 to RM10,000 with a mean income of of RM4340.61. The academic qualification background ranged from primary education to masters postgraduate degrees.

Inferential Results

Results showed that there was a significant moderate relationship between love and marital satisfaction among subjects with r= 0.622**, p< 0.01. This showed that the more subjects love their spouses, the more satisfied they are with their marriage. Specifically, the analysis showed the highest significant dimension of love that relates to marital satisfaction is *passion* with r= 0.63**, p< 0.01. This is then followed by *intimacy* with r=0.594**, p< 0.01 and *commitment* with r= 0.511**, p< 0.01. These results indicated that the higher levels of passion, intimacy or commitment subjects have towards their spouse, the more satisfied they are in their marriage.

TABLE 1
Correlation between Love, components of love and Marital Satisfaction

	Marital Satisfaction
Love	0.62**
Intimacy	0.59**
Passion	0.63**
Commitment	0.51**

**p< 0.01

Hence, the regression analysis was carried out to identify the most influential dimensions of love towards marital satisfaction. Results found that passion significantly predicted marital satisfaction scores, $b = .14$, $t(62) = 6.38$, $p < .05$. To illustrate this finding, results in Table 2a showed that the value for correlation was strong where $R=0.63$, $F (1, 62) = 40.73$, $p<0.05$). This result showed that 40% of the passion variance can be explained by variability in the subjects' passion and marital satisfaction. In addition, the statistical value for F is 40.73 and significant at 0.05 level . This shows that there was a significant relationship between passion as a predictor towards marital satisfaction, (F $(1, 62) = 40.73$, $p<0.05$).

Analyses for age of spouse and marital satisfaction (Table 3) also showed a significant negative relationship with $r=$ $-0.25**$, $p<0.01$. This result shows that the older the spouse was, the less satisfaction subjects have towards their marriage. There was also a significant negative relationship between the total number of children and marital satisfaction with $r= -0.26**$, $p<0.01$. This result showed that there is a tendency of subjects to experience more marital satisfaction when they have less children.

Generally, results indicated that love plays an important role in how subjects in

TABLE 2a
Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.63[a]	.40	.39	1.75

a. Predictors: (Constant), passion

b. Dependent Variable: marital satisfaction

TABLE 2B
ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	125.18	1	125.18	40.73	.00[b]
	Residual	190.57	62	3.07		
	Total	315.75	63			

a. Dependent Variable: marital satisfaction

b. Predictors: (Constant), passion

TABLE 2C
Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	13.43	2.09		6.43	.00
	passion	.14	.02	.63	6.38	.00

a. Dependent Variable: marital satisfaction

this study report on how satisfied they are in a marriage. The results show that there is a positive relationship between love and marital satisfaction. To illustrate this set of results, the more subjects perceive love from the three components, namely passion, commitment and intimacy, the more satisfied they are in their marriage. However, it is shown that *passion* love component contributes most to marital satisfaction. This is then followed by *intimacy* and *commitment* love components. This result implies that the passion component of love suggested by Sternberg (1996) such as expression of romance, physical attraction and sexual comsummation are most important in determining how satisfied subjects report concerning their marriage compared to intimacy and commitment. Nonetheless, the intimacy component of love which inlcudes feelings of closeness, connectedness and bondedness in loving relationship and also commitment to maintain love suggested by Sternberg (1996) remain crucial for subjects in this study in perceiving marital satisfaction.

In addition, the findings also indicated that the total number of children and the age of the spouse has a negative relationship with marital satisfaction. These results show that the less children the subjects have, the more satisfied they are in a marriage and the older the spouse, the less subjects are satisfied with their marriages. This result supports the 40 year longitudinal study conducted by Vaillant and Vaillant (1993) where marital satisfaction moves in a U-shaped curve according to the age of the spouse and the stage of the family cycle. This shows that intervention efforts should be implemented after a certain period to increase the marital satisfaction. This finding indicates the importance of married couples, helping professions and related organizations taking action and increasing efforts to educate and increase the level of awareness of the need and importance of passion in a marriage.

Table 3
Correlation Between Spouse's Age and Marital Satisfaction Among Males

	Marital Satisfaction
Spouse's Age	-0.25*
Total number of children	-0.26**

**$p < 0.01$, *$p < 0.05$

CONCLUSION

In summary, the results of this study indicated the importance of love specifically, passion, within long term relationships such as marriage. Passion was found to be one of the most important components of love contributing to marital satisfaction. Conversely, the age of the spouse and total number of children were also negatively related to marital satisfaction. This result indicates the need for marital programs to increase the passion component of love within marriage. Since love was found to be one of the most important reasons for marriage (Hoesni *et. al*., 2012), serious attention should be focussed on increasing, maintaining and improving marital relationships within the community.

Hence, future researchers need to include love as one of the important components in studying marital relationships and well being.

REFERENCES

Acevedo, B. P., & Aron, A. (2009). Does a long-term relationship kill romantic love? *Review of General Psychology, 13*(1), 59 – 65.

Anastasi, A. (1988). *Psychological testing* (6th. Ed.). New York: Macmillan.

Aron, A. & Henkemeyer, L. (1995). Marital satisfaction and passionate love. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, *12*(1), 139-146.

Asmah, A. (1979). Pola perkahwinan pertama orang Melayu di Kuala Lumpur dan Petaling Jaya, tahun 1970an: Satu analisis awal. *Ilmu Alam, 8*, 1-7.

Assh, S. D., & Byers, E. S. (1996). Understanding the co-occurrence of marital distress and depression in women. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, *13*(4), 537-552.

Bonds-Raacke, J. M., Bearden, E. S., Carriere, N. J., Anderson, E. M., & Nicks, S. D. (2001). Engaging distortions: Are we idealizing marriage? *The Journal of Psychology, 135*(2), 179-184.

Bullare, F., & Ismail, R. (2005). Penilaian psikometrik Kansas Marital Stisfaction Scale di kalangan sampel ibu etnik Iranun, Sabah. *Jurnal Psikologi Malaysia, 19*, 33-41.

Coie, J. D., Watt, N. F., West, S. G., Hawkins, J. D., Asarnow, J. R., Markman, H. J., Ramey, S. L., Shure, M. B., & Long, B. (1993). The science of prevention: A conceptual framework and some directions for a national research program. *American Psychologist, 48*(1), 1013-1022.

Contreras, R. & Hendrick, S. S. (1996). Perspectives on marital love and satisfaction in Mexican and Anglo American couples. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 74*(4), 408-416.

Coyne, J. C., Kahn, J., & Gotlieb, I. H. (1987). *Depression, family interaction and psychopathology: Theories, methods, and findings*. New York: Plenum Press.

Crouter, A. C., Bumpus, M. E., Head, M. R., & McHale, S. M. (2001). Implications of overwork and overload for the quality of men's family relationships. *Journal of Marriage & Family, 63*(2), 404-417.

Cui, M., Conger, R. D., & Lorenz, F. O. (2005). Predicting change in adolescent adjustment from change in marital problems. *Developmental Psychology*, *41*(5), 812-823.

Dion, K. K., & Dion, K. L. (1993). Sex and ethno cultural comparisons in styles of love. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 17*, 463-473.

Fincham, F. D., & Bradbury, T. N. (1990). *The psychology of marriage: Basic issues and applications.*

Fehr, B., & Broughton, R. (2001). Sex and personality differences in conceptions of love: An interpersonal theory analysis. *Personal Relationships*, *8*, 115-136.

Frick, P. J. (1994). Family dysfunction and the disruptive behaviour disorders*: A review of recent empirical findings.* (pp. 203-226).

Gonzaga, G. C., Turner, R. A., & Keltner, D. (2006). Romantic love and sexual desire in close relationships. *Emotion*, *6*(2), 163-179.

Hendrick, C. Hendrick, S., Foote, F. H., & Slapion-Foote, M. J. (1984). Do men and women love differently? *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, *1*, 177-195.

Hendrick, C., & Hendrick, S. (1986), A theory and method of love. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *50*, 392-402.

Hoesni, S. M., Mohamad, M. S., Hafidz, S. W. M., Chong, S. T., & Subhi, N. (2012). Meneroka konsep cinta dalam perkahwinan dalam kalangan Melayu bandar yang akan berkahwin. *Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities (e-Bangi)*.

Horneffer, K. J., & Fincham, F. D. (1996) Attributional models of depression and marital distress. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 22*(7), 678-689.

Ismail, R. (2004). *Hubungan kesulitan ekonomi dengan kefungsian keluarga, hubungan perkahwinan dan tingkah laku keibubapaan etnik Rungus, Iranun dan Melayu*. Kota Kinabalu, Malaysia: Universiti Malaysia Sabah.

Jackman-Cram, S., Dobson, K. S., & Martin, R. (2006). Marital problem-solving behavior in depression and marital distress. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, *115*(2), 380-384.

Jones, G. W. (1980). Trends in marriage and divorce in Peninsular Malaysia. *Population Studies*, *34*(2), 279-292.

Jones, G. W. (1981). Malay marriage and divorce in Peninsular Malaysia: Three decades of change. *Population and Development Review*, *7*(2), 255-278.

Jones, G. W. (1997). Modernization and divorce: Contrasting trends in Islamic Southeast Asia and the West. *Population and Development Review*, *23*(1), 95-114.

Keiley, M. K. (2002). Attachment and affect regulation. *Family Process, 41*(3), 477-493.

Kiecolt-Glaser, J. K., Malarkey, W. B., Chee, M., Newton, T., Cacioppo, J. T. Mao, H. Y., & Glaser, R. (1993). Negative behavior during marital conflict is associated with immunological down-regulation. *Psychosomatic Medicine, 55*(5), 395-409.

Kling, Z. (1995). The Malay family: Beliefs and realities. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies, 26*(1), 43-65.

Krishnakumar, A., Buehler, C., & Barber, B. (2003). Youth perceptions of inter-parental conflict, ineffective parenting, and youth problem behaviors in European-American and African-American families. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 20*(2), 239-260.

Landis, D. (2000). Cross cultural aspects of passionate love: An individual differences analysis. *Journal of Cross Cultural Psychology, 31*(6), 752-777.

Leon, J., Philbrick, J., Parra, F., Escobedo, E., & Malgesini, F. (1994). Love-styles among university students in Mexico. *Psychological Reports,* 307-310.

Leon, J. L., Parra, F., Cheng, T., & Flores, R. E. (1995). Love-styles among Latino community college students in Los Angeles. *Psychological Reports, 77,* 527-530.

Lev-Wiesel, R., & Al-Krenawi, A. (1999). Attitude towards marriage and marital quality: A comparison among Israeli Arabs differentiated by religion. *Family Relations, 48*(1), 51-57.

Low, S. M., & Stocker, C. (2005). Family functioning and children's adjustment: Associations among parents' depressed mood, marital hostility, parent-child hostility, and children's adjustment. *Journal of Family Psychology*, *19*(3), 394-403.

Medora, N. P., & von der Hellen, C. (1997). Romanticism and self-esteem among teen mothers. *Adolescence,* 32.

Merves-okin, L., Amidon, E., & Bernt, F. (1991). Perceptions of intimacy in marriage: A study of married couples. *The American Journal of Family Therapy, 19*(2), 110–118.

Murray, L., Woolgar, M., Martins, C., Christaki, A., Hipwell, A., & Cooper, P. (2006) Conversations around homework: Links to parental mental health, family characteristics and child

psychological functioning. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology, 24*(1), 125-149.

O'Leary, K. D., Acevedo, B. P., Aron, A., Huddy, L., & Mashek, D. (2012). Is long-term love more than a rare phenomenon? If so, what are its correlates? *Social Psychological and Personality Science, 3*(2), 241-249.

Olsofsky, J. D. (1995). Children who witness domestic violence: The invisible victims. *Social Policy Report*, *9*, 1–16.

Parra, F., Brown, W. C., Huynh, P. D., Stubbs, E. C., & Amerson, K. C. (1998). Love styles among Guatemalans in a local village. *Psychological Reports*, *83*, 1199-1202.

Patterson, G. R., & Dishion, T. J. (1985). Contributions of families and peers to delinquency. *Criminology, 23*(1), 63-79.

Roberts, B. W., Walton, K. E., & Bogg, T. R. (2005). Conscientiousness and health across the life course. *Review of General Psychology, 9(2-Special Issue: Positive Psychology)*. 156-168.

Rumaya Juhari. (1997). Marital quality as a function of gender role egalitarianism among the Malay-Muslim student couples in Midwest region of the United States of America. Doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University.

Ruvolo, A. P., & Veroff, J. (1997). For better or for worse: Real-ideal discrepancies and the marital well-being of newlyweds. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, *14*, 223-242.

Shaver, P. R., Wu, S., & Schwartz, J. C. (1992). Cross-cultural similarities and differences in emotion and its representation: A prototype Approach. In M. S. Clark (Ed.), *Emotion.* (pp. 175-212). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Sternberg, R. J. (1988). Triangulating love. In R. J. Sternberg, & M. L. Barnes (Eds), *The psychology of love* (pp. 119-138). New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Stones, C. R., & Philbrick, J. L. (1991). Attitudes toward love among members of small fundamentalist community in South Africa. *Journal of Social Psychology, 131*(2), 219-224.

Webster-Stratton, C. (1990). Stress: A potential disruptor of parent perceptions and family interactions. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology*, *19*(4), 302-313.

Vaillant, C. O., & Vaillant, G. E. (1993). Is the U-curve of marital satisfaction an illusion? A 40-year study of marriage. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *55*(1), 230-239.

Yela, C. (1999). Temporal course of the basic components of love throughout relationships. *Psychology in Spain*, *2*(1), 76-84.

Yu, T., Pettit, G. S., Lansford, J. E., Dodge, K. A., & Bates, J. E. (2010). The interactive effects of marital conflict and divorce on parent–adult children's relationships. *Journal of Marriage & Family, 72*(2), 282-292.

SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES

The Validation of the Persian Version of the Infidelity Questionnaire

B. Zare[1]*, R. Nasir[1], K. A. Mastor[2] and W. S. Wan Shahrazad[1]

*[1]School of Psychology and Human Development, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities,
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia*
[2]Centre for General Studies, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

The present study aims to assess the validity and reliability of the Persian version of the Infidelity Questionnaire (INFQ). Specifically, INFQ assesses the possible elements of sexual and emotional infidelity. The instrument was translated through the back-translation strategy and revised by three panels. The validity and reliability of the INFQ were examined in the current study. Results showed that the Persian version of the infidelity questionnaire has reasonable internal consistency. The validity was achieved when the results showed that there were significant relationships between personality issues and seduction, leisure activities and social background, and between parenting, social background and sexuality. These findings proved the validity and applicability of the Persian version of INFQ in the Iranian community.

Keywords: Infidelity, reliability, concurrent validity

INTRODUCTION

Infidelity is a main factor in justifying marital dissatisfaction and dissolution throughout the world (Bagarozzi & Sperry 2012). Nowadays, infidelity is the most important reason for divorce (Campbell & Wright 2010). Infidelity is defined as unfaithfulness by virtue of being unreliable and the cheating on a relationship partner that takes place despite a commitment to exclusive devotion (Sims 2011). Drigotas *et. al*. (1999) defined infidelity as a harsh relational misbehavior in which one or both relational partners show extra-dyadic behaviors that infringe relational statutes of exclusivity and monogamy without their partner's prior permission. Unfaithfulness can occur in emotional or physical intimacy.

Based on research reports, 90% of all divorces involve infidelity. Early researchers stated that by the age of 40, more than 25% of married women and 50% of married men had been involved in sexual behavior out of their marriage (Lawson & Samson, 1988). Three decades later, an approximated 40% of women were involved in emotional and/or sexual extramarital relationships while 50% of men sustained similar relationships (Laumann *et. al.*, 2009). Feldman and Cauffman (1999) stated that about two-thirds of young adults in a gravely dedicated dating relationship had either experienced or committed sexual betrayal and other kinds of infidel behavior. There have been some studies done on the disloyalty that happens within dating relationships. Dating is often considered a training for marriage, guiding individuals through the organization of behavioral models, which are characteristically preserved in marriage (McAnulty & Brineman 2007; Russell *et. al.* 2013).

The sexual aspects that individuals learn before marriage may have an important effect on the probability of extramarital engagement afterward (Vaughn Becker *et. al.*, 2004). Additionally, disloyalty in dating may have important interpersonal and emotional consequences (Feldman & Cauffman, 1999), which may also encourage commitments afterward.

Orzeck and Lung (2005) and Babin and Dindia (2005) state that individuals view betrayal as engaging in any acts of petting, necking, kissing, flirting, and/or sexual intercourse with a person outside of

a relationship. Whitty (2005) suggests that emotional relationships, as well as sexual acts, are also thought of by some partners as cheating.

Most frequently, individuals "cheat" to complete needs that are missing in their commitments by seeking them outside of the relationship (Lawson & Samson, 1988; Drigotas *et. al.*, 1999). The theory of investment clarified that an invested psychological motivation and attachment in a relationship forms a long-lasting commitment. This theory also states that individuals are more faithful when they are highly pleased with meeting their needs and balancing the costs of losing a possible high investment with alternative viewpoints. Roscoe *et. al.* (1988) mentioned sexual incompatibility, revenge/anger, general dissatisfaction, variety/experimenting, and jealousy from dating relationships as causes for being infidels.

Young adults are also influenced by insecurity, boredom, a lack of communication, and immaturity in unfaithfulness (Amato & Previti, 2003). Feldman and Cauffman (1999) proposed that in young adults, the occurrence of unfaithfulness might be the consequence of complementary or contradictory needs, critical to the formation of individuality, which may contain an examination of possible choices. Drigotas and Barta (2001) pointed out, however, that those who avert from possible choices will consequently develop ways that help preserve the relationship with their spouse , thus arising a stronger dedication. A protected attachment style is one in which

persons discover that it is easy to get intimate with others, feel abandoned, or do not worry about becoming too reliant (Knight 2010). Morgan and Shaver (1999) proposed that a protected attachment style in adults can generate more investment and commitment in a relationship, whereas an avoidant attachment style can result in the extinction of the relationship. An avoidant attachment style is developed in those who keep away from intimacy and are less invested in the relationship, typically leaving their spouses. Cheating in relationships has also been shown to be more common among those with avoidant attachment styles than those with protected styles (Feldman & Cauffman, 1999). Cheating in a relationship also increases with tolerant relationship styles (that is, those shortages of limitations) (Flanigan, 2007). Tolerance seems to be associated with experiencing seeking (extraversion), boredom susceptibility and disinhibition (openness) (De Öngen, 2007) .

Cross –culturally, a sexual unfaithfulness committed by a woman, either suspected or actual, is the most important reason for wife homicide and wife battering (Shackelford, 1998). Anguish, humiliation, anger and depression are some examples of the emotional experiences that the spouses of bateriyal partners, will experience (Feeney, 2005). Of the 43 reasons of divorce collected by Betzig (1989) in her ethnographic research of 160 cultures, a partner's unfaithfulness has been the most frequently mentioned reason across cultures. Clearly, 79% of the cultures explicitly note unfaithfulness as a reason for divorce.

Infidelity is the most common subject that family therapists deal with frequently in their clinical practices. It can be a heart-wrenching and confusing experience for all engaged, counting the therapist who may have her or his own personal values and fears associated with infidelity (Grenz & Bell, 2001). Furthermore, infidelity is the main reason of spousal battering and divorce (Buss & Shackelford, 1997). Infidelity is the number one problem question in a marital relationship. Sexual relationships out of marriage is the most mentioned reason for divorce throughout the world (Betzig, 1989). Although sexual relationships out of marriage may be most frequently covered in secrecy, empirical approximations of affairs during married life varies from 20 to 50% for women and from 30 to 60% for men (De Beauvoir, 2012). Approximations of the combined likelihood that as at least one partner of a married couple will have an affair during married life varies from 40 to 76% (Brown, 2013). Approximations of unfaithfulness over one year of marriage, though, noticeably show lower approximations such as 5% (Brown, 2013). A conventional explanation of these numbers proposes that although perhaps half of all married spouses remain monogamous, the other half will experience unfaithfulness during their married life. Thus, a significant practical and theoretical issue is what can help forecast who remains maritally faithful and who may have affairs.

Sex is the most reliable previously established forecaster of infidelity. As the

mentioned statistics specify, men more than women have affairs (Lammers *et. al.*, 2011). Among those women and men who do have affairs, men usually have affairs with a greater number of partners than do women (Stieglitz *et. al.*, 2012). Men who have affairs are more likely to do so without emotional engagement, whereas women's affairs are more often conveyed by emotional engagement (Brown, 2013). Sex is also associated with the scandal of unfaithfulness. A woman's unfaithfulness is more likely to lead to divorce than a man's unfaithfulness, across a diversity of cultures (Smith, 2010). Women, with infidel husbands, are reported to be more inclined to forgive their husbands than men whose partners are involved in infidelity (Lawson & Samson, 1988). In conclusion, men tend more than women to see their own sexual relationship outside their marriage as defensible, and experience less responsibility when they involve in it (Lammers *et. al.*, 2011).

Infidelity has a different types (Carpenter, 2012). Zhang *et. al.* (2012) classifies infidelity into 3 types: sexual infidelity, emotional infidelity and full investment infidelity. According to Zhang *et. al.* (2012), sexual unfaithfulness is a relationship with someone outside of the long-lasting relationship that is purely or primarily sexual in nature (there is little or no emotional attachment).

Infidelity, as a concept, is expressed in several ways and can be used to refer to a number of actions including "cheating", "extramarital relationships", "having an affair", "oral sex" "sexual intercourse", "fondling", "emotional connections beyond friendship" , "kissing", "pornography use", "internet relationships", "friendship", and so on (Blow & Hartnett, 2005). Studies on couples carried out by therapists show that unfaithfulness is counted as one of the main problems to care for during therapy. It is worth mentioning that about 50-56% of couples under therapy have suffered the experience of unfaithfulness (Glass & Wright, 1985). Some studies provide the evidence suggesting that individuals engage in infidelity because there is something wrong in their primary relationship (Baumeister *et. al.*, 2001; Blow & Hartnett, 2005; Schmitt & Shackelford, 2008). As satisfaction or marital happiness declines, the probability of infidelity increases (Glass & Wright, 1985; Atkins *et. al.*, 2001). Prins *et. al.* (1993)(1993) propose that dissatisfaction in the primary relationship can lead to an increase in the tendency to engage in extramarital relationships.

Yeniçer and Kokdemir (2006), in an attempt to determine and assess the possible factors behind sexual and emotional infidelity, studied infidelity stories of unidentified cases through a survey. The possible motives behind infidelity were found to be caused by 100 different triggers leading the individual to commit infidelity. Six factors are taken into account in investigating the fundamental motives behind infidelity:

1. Sensation Seeking: describing the reaction to person's action in looking for sensual experience;

2. Social Background: referred to the cultural idiosyncrasies and situations in which the relationship with the partner was launched;

3. Sexuality: describing the feature of the sexual relationship between a spouse and his or her partner;

Seduction: is considered the process of intentionally tempting a person, to direct astray, as from responsibility, morality, or the like; to dishonest, to influence or persuade to engage in sexual behaviour (Startup, 2000). In other words, the effect of a "third person".

Normalization: that referred that the concept of infidelity is a normal act (Ruza & Ruza, 2012).

Legitimacy: which means the consequence of "revenge". This factor states that the partner in the relationship deserves to be cheated (Ruza & Ruza, 2012).

These factors, taken together, shape the foundations of the Infidelity Questionnaire (INFQ) developed by Yencier and Kokdmir (2006).

What the present study aims to discover is the degree of the reliability and validity of the Persian version of INFQ. Because the Iranian community is in need of a powerful test of infidelity and a related questionnaire to assess the infidelity triggers in Persian, the validity and reliability of INFQ were measured in this study to provide a good infidelity questionnaire.

THE INFIDELITY QUESTIONNAIRE (INFQ)

The structure of the Infidelity Questionnaire is composed of diverse reasons under six factors which are sensation-seeking, social background, sexuality, seduction, normalization, and legitimacy. Yeniçer and Kokdemir (2006), in order to create a survey to establish and assess the probable factors of sexual and emotional infidelity, studied infidelity stories of unidentified cases. Then, these cases were studied via a Turkish web site (http://www.itiraf.com) on which admissions of internet users about diverse subjects had been distributed. They used a single keyword "aldatma" ("infidelity" in Turkish) and 642 infidelity questionnaires were expanded to 738 diverse admissions. These admissions might or might not be accurate; however, for the improvement of the INFQ, it was not the fact of admissions but the expressed reasons were important. Infidelity admissions were read and analysed in terms of the reasons given for them. From the given reasons, 132 diverse causes for being faithless were found.

A questionnaire was developed with 100 items. All of the items were chosen for the qualitative analysis of the issued admissions. Two versions of the INFQ were organized. The first was tagged as "the possible reasons for a woman to commit infidelity", (INFQ-W), whereas the second version started with the phrase "the possible reasons for a man to commit infidelity", and was tagged INFQ-M. The statements in both versions were the same except the gender of the person who was recognized as one

who committed an act of infidelity (Yeniceri & Kokdemir, 2006). In the questionnaire a 5-point Likert-type scale was used to indicate the weight of a given reason (1 = not important at all, 5 = very important).

INFQ is a questionnaire about the possible reasons behind infidelity that includes 100 different causes for the act of infidelity. Six factors appeared in the analysis regarding fundamental acknowledgments to infidelity (Table 1). Participants found items including "being in a romantic relationship in which partner is insensitive", "being in a romantic relationship in which a partner does not show any involvement", "seeing no future for the relationship" and "thinking that the current relationship is a mistake", as the main reasons of the legitimacy issues of infidelity. These items were observed as more sensible reasons for infidelity if the perpetuator was a female, not a male. Presumably, from an evolutionary perspective, infidelity on the part of female partners may result from an aspiration for seeking greater dedication (Cann *et. al*., 2001).

TABLE 1
Infidelity Questionnaire (INFQ) Factors, the Number of Questions

Factors	Questions
Sensation seeking	1-2-6-7
Social background	10-11-23-24
Sexuality	3-5-14-18
Seduction	9-12-15-22
Normalization	4-13-16-17
Legitimacy	8-19-20-21

The second factor consists of the items, "the other person is handsome/beautiful", "being seduced by another person", "feeling a desire to have a sexual relationship with another person" and "getting an opportunity for cheating". These were associated with being seduced. Obviously, men were inclined to give greater significance to this factor as a reason for unfaithfulness than did women. Furthermore, seduction was accounted as a much more rational reason for unfaithfulness if the perpetuator was declared to be a man, not a woman. Alternatively, when the perpetuator's gender was supposed to be female, the seduction factor was observed as being much more significant by the male participants. On the contrary, female participants considered the causes linked with seduction more significant if a man committed the acts of unfaithfulness. It can be hypothesized that supercilious heterosexual relationships, both female and male participants assigned the act of infidelity to the "third person". They might have considered that if their spouse had been disloyal, the cause of this behaviour did not arouse from the traits of their spouse or themselves, but rather came from an external cause. The normalization factor contained of items including "perceiving the act of infidelity as a game", "just tospite the partner", "infidelity as a fashion" and "thinking that cheating is a natural human right"; these causes were seen as more critical by men if the betrayer was a woman. It emerges that men demonstrated greater flexibility in thinking of infidelity as a "natural thing"

for women. Even though there was indirect evidence about this, it can be maintained that life stories of female women celebrities, who committed infidelity and their stories are reflected in mass media may cause men to think that unfaithfulness is a natural female human behaviour.

It should be remembered that men did not assert the same unaffectedness for themselves. As it was anticipated, one of the factors was linked to sexuality. The causes, "partner's unwillingness to have a sexual relationship", "having a bad sexual relationship with one's partner", "being in a romantic relationship in which the partner has sexual taboos" and "decrement in the sexual functionality of the partner", were observed as being much more sensible if the defector was a man. This result can be described by the spouse selection system that is declared in evolutionary perspectives. As mentioned before, based on evolutionary perspectives, men prefer healthy, young, and physically attractive partners (Buss & Schmitt, 1993). Consequently, the selection criteria associated with sexuality should be significant particularly if there is a decrease in the sexual activities of a man's spouse. If there is a difficulty in the apparent superiority of sexual life, men have the propensity to find infidelity simply rational. It was found that the sexual aspect was not important only to men. On the one hand, if the betrayer was a man, female participants saw his behaviour as a reply to the difficulties of his sexual life. This finding is compatible with Harris and Christenfeld's (1996) statement that women believe that

men may have sex without love. On the other hand, if a woman was the betrayer, male participants recognized sexuality as an important aspect of unfaithfulness. "Having an arranged marriage", "marrying young people", "having few romantic relationships during adolescence" and "growing up in a conservative culture", are also significant issues for the reasons behind unfaithfulness. The attributes of social background were accounted as more essential causes for unfaithfulness by women, particularly if the betrayer was a man. This is easily comprehensible because men are believed to have greater liberty in sexual relationship as evaluated by women. Then, if this liberty is limited for any reasons such as the physical environment, culture, or social background, men are predicted to be infidel when they have a passionate relationship (Yeniceri & Kokdemir, 2006).

To outline the modular organization of INFQ, Yeniçeri and Kökdemir (2006) performed the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with varimax revolution. The assessment of the long design indicated that a six-module explanation was appropriate. Then, another Principal Component Analysis was performed with varimax revolution forcing the number of elements in six. The reliability coefficients (alpha) were shown to be ranging from .74 to .84.

In addition, Ruza and Ruza (2012) investigated the causal explanation for infidelity in dating and marital relationships in the Lativan residence, using INFQ as a instrument for finding the reasons for

infidelity. INFQ in their study was adapted for the Latvian and Russian samples. It was reported the reliability coefficients (alpha) were between .80 to .86 .

TRANSLATION

The translation of the INFQ into the Persian language and its validation process were performed through the back-translation strategy and were revised by two expert panels. The text was primarily back-translated into English by someone who was adequately proficient in both English and Persian and had never seen the questionnaire before. Then the original version was duly compared with the back-translated version. As the original questionnaire is in English, in this study it was translated into Persian for participants. The translator was knowledgeable about the English-speaking culture, but his mother tongue was Persian. The translator tried to reproduce the conceptual equivalent of words or phrases, not a word-for-word level, meaning nor a literal translation. Then a bilingual expert confirmed the translation to identify and amend inadequate expressions/concepts in the translation. Next, using the same approach as that outlined in the first step, INFQ was translated back to English by an independent translator, whose mother tongue is English and who had no knowledge of the questionnaire. Then, the translation was sent to the author for review and approval. Finally, the problematic the words or phrases which complicated the concept addressed by the author were omitted. In the last step, the questionnaire was distributed to 20 couples to pre-test the instrument. Pre-test respondents were asked about any word they did not understand as well as any word or expression that they found unacceptable or offensive. Following that stage, the test was developed out of the final version of the translation and was then validated by three panels.

METHOD

Participants and Instruments

The participants were 300 couples who have been married for at least 2 years. One hundred and forty seven of the participants were eliminated from the analysis because they had not sufficiently answered the related questions. The participants were aged 25-55 and were from Shiraz, Iran. The participants filled in two questionnaires including the translated version of INFQ as well as the Enrich Marital Satisfaction Questionnaire. A practically facile sampling procedure was used in this study. The participants were selected randomly from among the couples (married two years) who were referred to a consultation center in Shiraz, Iran over the year prior to the study to receive consultation from a therapist. Approximately, the number of couples who were referred to the center over the year prior to the research was 2000 individuals, 600 of whom were selected randomly for the study, but only 300 of them agreed to be part of the study. The participants came from different demographic backgrounds and the only controlling demographic variable was the length of marriage: the samples were certified to havestayed married for at least 2 years at the time the study was carried out.

The Enrich Marital Satisfaction Questionnaire was administered together with the INFQ. Soleimanian (1995) researched the relationship between non-logical thinking and marital satisfaction in Iran. In the study, to measure marital satisfaction, the Enrich inventory was primarily rendered into Persian. Following that, two specialists in psychology confirmed the content validity of the test. Next, the inventory was used to study 11 individuals and its validity coefficient was found to be 0.93 through the coefficient alpha (Seymani, 2012). Because of the large number of questions and fatigue on the part of the participants, a shorter version of the form was then prepared. To do this, the correlation between each of the questions was calculated with a total correlation coefficient. Then, 47 questions which showed considerably high correlations were selected.

Questionnaires were equally chosen from the different scales as a result of which a total of 47 questions was gathered. Again, the validity coefficient of this abridged version of a group of 11 people was calculated via the coefficient alpha and the result of 0.93 obtained. In the present study this version as a form was used because it includes fewer questions than the original, and it is available in Persian. Navabi et. al.(1994) reported Cronbach's Alpha for the longer form of Enrich to be 0.93 and for the short form of the inventory .95. Also, Mahdavian (1997) calculated the reliability of the Enrich inventory through the retest method .94 (Alahveriani *et. al.*, 2010; Ganji & Navabinezhad, 2012).

RESULTS

Table 2 illustrates the inter correlation of the items. All of the items were significantly and positively correlated. Analogous to what Yeniçeri–and Kökdemir (2006) had observed, the highest significant correlation was found between the sexuality and seduction items of infidelity triggers (r = .92, p < .001). The next highest correlation was between normalization and legitimacy (r = .84, p < .001). The inter correlation observed here among infidelity triggers is consistent with the original findings of Yeniçeri and Kökdemir, implying the acceptable validity of the Persian version of INFQ.

The internal consistency of the items using Cronbach's alpha demonstrated a

TABLE 2
Correlation matrix between infidelity questionnaire items

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
1-Sensation seeking	1					
2-Social background	.34**	1				
3-Seduction	.49**	.66**	1			
4-Sexualty	.48**	.67**	.92**	1		
5-Noralization	.43**	30**	.44**	58**	1	
6-Legitamacy	.72**	36**	.51**	.61**	.84**	1

**p≤ 0.001

moderately good reliability; the results for the related factors are: sensation seeking = .42, social background = .55, seduction = .70, sexuality = .63, normalization = .53, legitimacy= 69. As far as validity is concerned in the Persian INFQ, the infidelity-causing items were correlated with Enrich marital satisfaction items. Table 3 illustrates the significant correlations found between the Enrich factors and INFQ.

As can be seen, the social background factor in INFQ has a significant negative relationship with both leisure activities (r=-.29, p< 0.05) and the parenting factor in Enrich (r=-.38, p<0.01). Also, the sexuality factor in INFQ has a significant negative relationship with the parenting factor in Enrich (r= -.31, p<0.05). The seduction factor in INFQ has a significant negative correlation with both personality issues (r=-.28, p<0.05) and financial management factors in Enrich (r=-.34, p<0.05).

A review on the literature shows that the negative relation between marital satisfaction and infidelity is undeniable (Schmitt & Shackelford, 2008). Simon and Fan (2004) concluded that infidelity has significant a negative relationship with marital satisfaction. A large and growing body of literature has shown the negative relationship between infidelity and marital satisfaction or happiness in marriage (Atkins *et. al.*, 2001; Blow & Hartnett, 2005; Schmitt & Shackelford, 2008).

Finally, the total item correlation was conducted to see whether the subscales were correlated to the total infidelity scores and whether the original inter correlation of the subscales existed in the Persian version. The item total correlation and the inter correlation of the subscales of the INFQ in the present study are illustrated in Table 3. The very high item total correlation confirmed the validity of the test in Persian.

TABLE 3
Results of criterion validity of the INFQ with Enrich

	SS	SB	S	SE	NO	LE
PI	-.144	-139	-.020	-.284*	.075	-.067
COM	.109	-.127	.052	-.252	.163	0.78
CON	.011	-.150	-.052	-.203	.002	-.142
LA	-.135	-.289*	-.170	-.137	.060	-.327
FM	.041	-.225	-.153	-.304*	-.023	-.254
S	.050	-.153	-.138	-.126	.195	-.195
P	-181	-.383**	-.312*	-.210	.007	-.213
F	.052	-.200	-.201	.012	-.035	-.133
RO	-.023	-.113	-.115	-.277	.061	-.217

Note: SS=Sensation Seeking, SB=Social Background, S=Sexuality, SE= Seduction, NOM=Normalization, LEG=Legitimacy, PI = Personality Issues, COM = Communication, CON = Conflict Resolution, LA=Leisure Activities, FM=Financial Management, S=Sexual Activities, P=Parenting, F=Family and friends, RO=Religious Orientation

Also, the results are similar to the correlation among components of original INFQ that were presented by Yeniceri (2006) .

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the reliability and validity of the Persian version of INFQ. The items related to infidelity triggers showed acceptable internal consistency. In addition, the results of the study provided evidence for the validity of INFQ. The study showed that the personality issues factor of Enrich marital satisfaction has a significant correlation with the seduction item as a possible cause of infidelity and leisure. The activities factor of Enrich marital satisfaction was significantly correlated with the social background item of infidelity triggers. Also, the financial management factor of Enrich marital satisfaction was significantly correlated with the seduction factor of the infidelity triggers. The parenting factor of marital satisfaction showed a significant correlation with both social background and sexuality as infidelity triggers.

This finding was in accordance with the findings of Shackelford and Buss (2000) and Fan and Lui (2004) who concluded that infidelity has a significant negative relationship with marital satisfaction. A large and growing body of literature has shown the negative relationship between infidelity and marital satisfaction or happiness in marriage (Atkins *et. al*., 2001; Blow & Hartnett, 2005; Shackelford *et. al*., 2008). According to Shackelford *et. al.* (2008), spouses who are less pleased with their marriage show

an approximately higher likelihood of having extramarital engagements. One of the clearest predictors of unfaithfulness is having equal opportunity in a marital relationship. From among all possible related variables, the most frequently tested forecaster is marital satisfaction. Wardle (2002) discovered that women's unfaithfulness to the marriage was related to infidelity probability, but the men's unfaithfulness probability was unconnected to the value of marital sex. Buss *et. al.* (1997) showed that gender incredibly is comparable in the connection between being short of love and affection in marriage and vulnerability to extramarital engage. For both men and women, displeasure in marital sex is a forecaster of vulnerability to short-lived affairs.

Another interesting result of their research represents the relation between a partner's marital unhappiness and the probability that the other partner will be disloyal. Women who stated that they were moderately unhappy with their marriage generally expected that their partners would have affairs with other women and leave them. And men who expressed dissatisfaction with their marriage also expected unfaithfulness on the part of their partners. This proposes that not only do people who are not satisfied with their marriage expect to have affairs themselves, they may also anticipate that their partners will have affairs too, which is a phenomenon implying a kind of reciprocity. The results of the study are consistent with relevant literature and confirm the predictive validity

and the internal consistency of the Persian version of INFQ.

CONCLUSION

This paper has argued that INFQ as an instrument for finding the infidelity reasons has acceptance reliability and validity in Persian too. The purpose of the current study was to determine an instrument for measuring the reasons of infidelity in Iranian society as infidelity in relationships is a surprisingly common phenomenon throughout the world especially in some countries such as Iran: 50% of people in close relationships have affairs and one has to wonder whether the people who do not have affairs simply do not have the opportunity to do so, otherwise they would have the tendency to do so. Individuals, abstaining from having affairs are normally afraid of the consequences, rather than having a sense of loyalty to their partners. Remarriage and infidelity have triggered about eight of out ten divorces in Iran (Shiffrin, 2008).

Infidelity can strongly influence the functioning of the relationship and stability of a marriage. In addition, infidelity is the main issue in causing marital termination and displeasure all over the world (Schmitt, 2004). A relationship is a promise held to by the parties involved, when apart or together. Infidelity has an effect on the degree of trust in a relationship. Infidelity shatters the faith that one has for his or her partner when apart. The need for trust may cause constant interrogation and suspicion. This can make the atmosphere a hostile and stressful one at home, even if the issue is over. The distressful sentiment that remains after an affair can cause unstructured disagreements, highlighting the need for studying these phenomena. The evidence from this study suggests that validation of a instrument for finding reasons for infidelity and follow up to prevent it in society, is a timely and worthy research in the field of couple therapy.

REFERENCES

Alahveriani, K., Rajaie, H., Shakeri, Z., & Lohrasbi, A. (2010). Studying the relationship between sexual disorder and marriage satisfaction in those suffering from depression. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 5,* 1672-1675.

Amato, P. R., & Previti, D. (2003). People's reasons for divorcing gender, social class, the life course, and adjustment. *Journal of Family Issues, 24*(5)*,* 602-626.

Atkins, Baucom., & Jacobson. (2001). Understanding infidelity: Correlates in a national random sample. *Journal of Family Psychology, 15,* 735-749.

Babin, B., & Dindia, K. (2005). Sex differences and similarities in emotional and sexual infidelity. *National Communication Association Convention, 3,* 1-29.

Bagarozzi, D. A., & Sperry, L. (2012). Couples Assessment Strategy and Inventories. *Assessment of Couples and Families, 18,* 12-25.

Baumeister, R. F., Catanese, K. R., & Vohs, K. D. (2001). Is there a gender difference in strength of sex drive? Theoretical views, conceptual distinctions, and a review of relevant evidence. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 5*(3)*,* 242-273.

Betzig, L. (1989). Causes of conjugal dissolution: A cross-cultural study. *Current Anthropology, 30*(5)*,* 654-676.

Blow, A. J., & Hartnett, K. (2005). Infidelity in committed relationship: A substantive review. *Journal of Marital and Family Therapy, 31*(2)*,* 217-233.

Brown, E. M. (2013). *Patterns of infidelity and their treatment*. Routledge.

Buss, D. M., & Schmitt, D. P. (1993). Sexual strategies theory: An evolutionary perspective on human mating. *Psychological Review, 100*(2)*,* 204-232.

Buss, D. M., & Shackelford, T. K. (1997). Susceptibility to infidelity in the first year of marriage. *Journal of Research in Personality, 31*(2)*,* 193-221.

Campbell, K., & Wright, D. W. (2010). Marriage today: Exploring the incongruence between americans' beliefs and practices. *Journal of Comparative Family Studies, 7*, 329-345.

Cann, A., Mangum, J. L., & Wells, M. (2001). Distress in response to relationship infidelity: The roles of gender and attitudes about relationships. *Journal of Sex Research, 38*(3)*,* 185-190.

Carpenter, C. J. (2012). Meta-analyses of sex differences in responses to sexual versus emotional infidelity: Men and women are more similar than different. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 36*(1)*,* 25-37.

De Beauvoir, S. (2012). *The second sex*. Random House Digital, Inc.

DE Öngen, D. E. (2007). The relationships between sensation seeking and gender role orientations among Turkish university students. *Sex Roles, 57*(1-2)*,* 111-118.

Drigotas, S. M., & Barta, W. (2001). The cheating heart: Scientific explorations of infidelity. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 10*(5)*,* 177-180.

Drigotas, S. M., Safstrom, C. A., & Gentilia, T. (1999). An investment model prediction of dating infidelity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 77*(3)*,* 509-515.

Fan, C. S., & Lui, H. K. (2004). Extramarital affairs, marital satisfaction, and divorce: Evidence from Hong Kong. *Contemporary Economic Policy, 22*(4), 442-452.

Feeney, J. A. (2005). Hurt feelings in couple relationships: Exploring the role of attachment and perceptions of personal injury. *Personal Relationships, 12*(2)*,* 253-271.

Feldman, S. S., & Cauffman, E. (1999). Sexual betrayal among late adolescents: Perspectives of the perpetrator and the aggrieved. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 28*(2)*,* 235-258.

Flanigan, C. M. (2007). *Staying with a partner who cheats: The influence of gender and relationship dynamics on adolescents' tolerance of infidelity*. (Master of Art's Thesis). Bowling Green State University.

Ganji, A. A., & Navabinezhad, D. (2012). The relationship between locus of control and marital satisfaction of couples. *Life Science Journal, 9*(4)*,* 294-298.

Glass, S. P., & Wright, T. L. (1985). Sex differences in type of extramarital involvement and marital dissatisfaction. *Sex Roles, 12*(9), 1101-1120.

Grenz, S. J., & Bell, R. D. (2001). *Betrayal of trust: Confronting and preventing clergy sexual misconduct*. Baker Books.

Harris, C. R., & Christenfeld, N. (1996). Jealousy and rational responses to infidelity across gender and culture. *Psychological Science, 7*(6)*,* 378-379.

Knight, E. A. (2010). *Gender differences in defining infidelity*. (Master of Arts' Thesis in Counseling Psychology). Humboldt State University.

Lammers, J., Stoker, J. I., Jordan, J., Pollmann, M., & Stapel, D. A. (2011). Power increases infidelity

among men and women. *Psychological Science, 22*(9)*,* 1191-1197.

Laumann, E. O., Glasser, D. B., Neves, R. C. S., & Moreira, E. D. (2009). A population-based survey of sexual activity, sexual problems and associated help-seeking behavior patterns in mature adults in the United States of America. *International Journal of Impotence Research, 21*(3)*,* 171-178.

Lawson, A., & Samson, C. (1988). Age, gender and adultery. *British Journal of Sociology,* 409-440.

Mahdavian, F. (1997). *The effect of relationship education on the marital satisfaction and mental health*. (Master of Science's Thesis). Tehran University, Tehran.

McAnulty, R. D., & Brineman, J. M. (2007). Infidelity in dating relationships. *Annual Review of Sex Research, 18*(1)*,* 94-114.

Morgan, H. J., & Shaver, P. R. (1999). Attachment processes and commitment to romantic relationships. In *Handbook of interpersonal commitment and relationship stability* (pp. 109-124). Springer.

Navabi, N. S., Dokanei, F. F., & Aghajani, F. (2010). Relationship between attachments styles and happiness and marital satisfaction among married employees in Tehran Khatamolanbia hospital. *Woman & Study of Family, 2*(6)*,* 107-120.

Orzeck, T., & Lung, E. (2005). Big-five personality differences of cheaters and non-cheaters. *Current Psychology, 24*(4), 274-286.

Prins, K. S., Buunk, B. P., & VanYperen, N. W. (1993). Equity, normative disapproval and extramarital relationships. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 10*(1)*,* 39-53.

Roscoe, B., Cavanaugh, L. E., & Kennedy, D. R. (1988). Dating infidelity: Behaviors, reasons and consequences. *Adolescence, 23*(89)*,* 35-43.

Russell, V. M., Baker, L. R., & McNulty, J. K. (2013). Attachment insecurity and infidelity in marriage: Do studies of dating relationships really inform us about marriage? *Journal of Family Psychology, 27*(2)*,* 242-251.

Ruza, I., & Ruza, A. (2012). Causal explanation for infidelity of Latvian residents in dating and marital relationships. *Journal of Family Psychology, 28*(1)*,* 236-242.

Schmitt, D. P. (2004). The Big Five related to risky sexual behaviour across 10 world regions: Differential personality associations of sexual promiscuity and relationship infidelity. *European Journal of Personality, 18*(4)*,* 301-319.

Seymani, M. (2012). Effect of psychological intervention on marital satisfaction of mothers with slow pace under 5 years children. *Iranian Rehabilitation Journal, 10*(15), 20-30.

Shackelford, T. K. (1998). Divorce as a consequence of spousal infidelity. *Romantic Love and Sexual Behavior,* 135-153.

Shackelford, T. K., Besser, A., & Goetz, A. T. (2008). Personality, marital satisfaction, and probability of marital infidelity. *Individual Differences Research, 6*(1)*,* 13-25.

Shackelford, T. K., & Buss, D. M. (2000). Marital satisfaction and spousal cost-infliction. *Personality and Individual Differences, 28*(5)*,* 917-928.

Shiffrin, S. V. (2008). Promising, intimate relationships, and conventionalism. *Philosophical Review, 117(4),* 481-524.

Sims, D. (2011). *What happens after shattered? Finding hope and healing after infidelity.* United Kingdom: CrossBooks.

Smith, D. J. (2010). Promiscuous girls, good wives, and cheating husbands: Gender inequality, transitions to marriage, and infidelity in southeastern Nigeria. *Anthropological Quarterly, 83*(1)*,* 123-152.

Soleimanian, A. A. (1995). *The examination of the effects of irrational thoughts (the cognitive approach) on marital non-satisfaction.* (Master Teacher Training Thesis). University Tehran, Tehran.

Startup, R. (2000). *Damaging females: representations of women as victims and perpetrators of crime in the mid-nineteenth century*. (Master's Thesis). University of London, London.

Stieglitz, J., Gurven, M., Kaplan, H., & Winking, J. (2012). Infidelity, jealousy, and wife abuse among Tsimane forager farmers: Testing evolutionary hypotheses of marital conflict. *Evolution and Human Behavior, 33*(5)*, 438-448.

Vaughn Becker, D., Sagarin, B. J., Guadagno, R. E., Millevoi, A., & Nicastle, L. D. (2004). When the sexes need not differ: Emotional responses to the sexual and emotional aspects of infidelity. *Personal Relationships, 11*(4)*, 529-538.

Wardle, L. (2002). Parental infidelity and the'no-harm'rule in custody litigation. *Catholic University Law Review, 52,* 81-132.

Whitty, M. T. (2005). The realness of cybercheating men's and women's representations of unfaithful internet relationships. *Social Science Computer Review, 23*(1)*, 57-67.

Yeniceri, Z., & Kokdemir, D. (2006). University student perceptions of and explanations for infidelity: The development of the infidelity questionnaire (INFQ). *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal, 34(6),* 639-650.

Zhang, R., Ting-Toomey, S., Dorjee, T., & Lee, P. S. (2012). Culture and self-construal as predictors of relational responses to emotional infidelity: China and the United States. *Chinese Journal of Communication, 5(2),* 137-159.

Secure Style, PWB-related Gratitude and SWB-related Engagement as Predictors of Affect Balance among Social Science Students in Malaysia: A Pilot Study

Nor Ba'yah Abdul Kadir*, Fatimah Omar, Asmawati Desa and Fatimah Yusooff

School of Psychology and Human Development, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

Affect balance is sometimes used as an indicator of overall well-being. Most well-being studies have focused on differences across a number of sociodemographic categories and big five personalities, while there have been relatively few studies examining the predictors on affect balance. Therefore, this study aims to examine the associations of secure style, psychosocial well-being on affect balance and to examine secure style, psychological well-being-related gratitude and social well-being-related engagement as predictors of affect balance among social science students. This cross-sectional study was conducted on 166 social science students. A set of self-reports measuring affect balance, secure style, psychological well-being-related gratitude and social well-being-related engagement was self-administered and returned upon completion. Factorial analysis was used to examine factor loadings of items, Pearson correlations were used to see the relationships of variables to affect balance, and stepwise multiple regression was used to examine predictors of affect balance. A total of 166 (83%) social science students responded to this study. Pearson correlations showed that all variables studied were significantly correlated to affect balance. Results showed that psychological well-being-related gratitude, insecure style, and social well-being-related engagement were the strongest predictors of affect balance. The study concludes that low scores on insecure style, high scores on psychological well-being-related gratitude, and social well-being-related engagement all contributed to affect balance.

Keywords: Well-being, positive feeling, negative feelings, secure style

INTRODUCTION

The positive feelings of university students in Malaysia are decreasing (Zaid *et. al*., 2007; Swami *et. al*., 2007) and more students report having depressive symptoms during university life transition (Mohd Sidik *et. al*., 2003). The prevalent rates of depression among university students in Malaysia for instance were reported around 10% with severe depression and 27% with moderate depression (Shamsuddin *et. al*., 2013) and the overall prevalence of depression for male and female medical students was 30% (Yusooff *et. al*., 2010). Similarly, studies in the United States reported that almost 16% of undergraduate students had depressive symptoms (Eisenberg *et. al*., 2007), 15% in Nigeria (Adewuya *et. al*., 2006), 43% in Central-Eastern and 31% in Western European (Wardle *et. al*., 2004), 48% in Turkey (Aktekin *et. al*., 2001), and 71% in Egypt (Ibrahim *et. al.,* 2012). The associations of risk factors including stressful life events (Atkekin *et. al*., 2001), loneliness (Deniz *et. al.,* 2005), social skills (Cooley *et. al*., 2010), and transition to university (Ames *et. al*., 2011) were established, but the underlying problem of university students is scant. To-date very few studies have examined self-report assessments of secure style, psychological well-being-related gratitude (PWB-related gratitude) and social well-being-related engagement (SWB-related engagement) with affect balance in a Malaysia context, so this study is intended to fill this research gap. This study aims to examine the associations of secure style, PWB-related gratitude and

SWB-related engagement on affect balance and to examine predictors of affect balance.

A considerable amount of research focused on secure/insecure style in relation to affect balance (Kafetsiou & Sideridis, 2006; Lopez & Gormley, 2002). Secure individuals were found to be well-adjusted concerning measures of positive feelings, as stated by Hazan and Shaver (1990), whilst insecure was reported to be less adjusted. Various studies have shown that insecure style was consistently negatively associated with positive feelings (Mikulincer and Florian, 2001), reporting that high levels of negative feelings are strongly connected with anxious or preoccupied styles but lower with Secure and Avoidant style (Burge *et. al*., 1997). In contrast, both avoidant and anxious styles have shown high correlations with negative feelings (Wei *et. al.,* 2004) and loneliness (DiTommaso *et. al.,* 2003). Relationship factors have also been investigated by having a close relationship with partner/spouse or a close others (e.g., Confidants, siblings, relatives, peers) are seen to have an impact on positive feelings in medical patients (Cicirelli, 1989; Davis *et. al*., 1998). Shiota and colleagues (2006) found that there is an association between attachment styles and different kinds of emotions. However, none of these studies have explored positive/negative feelings and different styles of attachment to look for patterning. As a result, there is still no clear evidence which attachment styles are associated with positive or negative feelings and how they relate to social and psychological well-being. Also there has been little use of composite scales of

social and psychological well-being in association with the attachment style to look at predictive factors. Furthermore, there is a lack of empirical investigation of secure/insecure style and affect balance in Malaysia (Kumaraswamy & Azizah, 2007). Those studies which do exist focus on the psychometric of spirituality (Imam *et. al.,* 2009), wealth and life satisfaction among the orang Asli (Howell *et. al.,* 2006), and women's roles and well-being (Noor, 1997, 1999, 2004). Secure/insecure style studies in the Malaysian community are not extensive. Only one study reported on validated scales of the Attachment Style Questionnaire (Ng et. al., 2005). Schmitt and colleagues (2004) found that Malaysians had higher rates of the dismissive style than other countries in cross-cultural studies in 62 cultural regions. The dismissive style was significantly correlated with life stress and psychological distress in East Asians (Chen *et. al*., 2002). This is likely to relate to early social experiences and exposure to high levels of socio-environmental stress (Schmitt, 2008) and the effects of the authoritarian parenting style (Ang & Goh, 2006). Therefore, identifying the secure style of the university students at the ground level using the attachment framework is particularly relevant for health psychologists, clinical psychologists, and mental health social workers who emphasize prevention and early intervention models. Furthermore, the results of this study will help professional practitioners to develop systematic primary intervention services to effectively meet the socialization needs

of university students. This means that a specific evidence-based intervention method that works best with university students can be identified.

Gratitude is seen as a psychological coping strategy (Wood *et. al.,* 2007) and a moral affect (McCullough *et. al.,* 2001; Naito *et. al.,* 2005) that is associated with happiness (McCullough *et. al.,* 2002; Otake *et. al.,* 2006; Watkins *et. al.,* 2003) and lower levels of aggression (DeWall *et. al.,* 2012). Gratitude was also reported to buffer against stress and depression (Wood *et. al.,* 2008). Wood and colleagues suggested that the positive trait of gratitude directly fosters social support and protects individuals from stress and depression. Gratitude was also associated with reduction costs of materialism among adolescents (Froh *et. al.,* 2011). The findings of the study also reported that other factors, such as academic achievement, social integration, life satisfaction, and happiness were all related to gratitude among adolescents. Chan (2013) reported that gratitude was significantly positively correlated with positive affect and negatively correlated with negative affect. The study also reported that gratitude added to the prediction with an incremental contribution of 6% for affect positive. However, little is known about how gratitude and other factors such as the secure style and SWB-related engagement factors for university students predict affect balance.

Studies on university students' engagement in relation to affect balance are also scant. Engagement refers to the

behavioral intensity and emotional quality of a person's active involvement during a task (Reeve *et. al.,* 2004). This definition involves a broad construct that may relate to the emotions, determination, and motivation experiences of the individuals, which reflect enthusiasm. Previous studies reported that commitment and positive emotions as well as a person's voice and initiative all reflected engagement in various settings. For instance, Gilardi (2011) found that engagement styles influenced the attrition rates of continuing studies by being committed and engaged in campus activities. In contrast, disengaged students show their passivity by a lack of interest in campus activities and unawareness about the essentials of the learning experience. On the other hand, instructors' motivation and supportive autonomy were also related to students' engagement (Assor *et. al*., 2002; Reeve *et. al*., 2004). In university settings, engagement is important because of its function as a student's behavioral pathway in enhancing their subsequent higher learning and education development.

METHODS

Participants

The demographic and socioeconomic status of the student participants was based on their parents' employment status, marital status of the parents, and number of siblings. More than half of the participants have been given student sponsorship (75.9%), the remainders were self-sponsored. The sample had a mean age of 20.99 (range of 20 to 25) with a standard deviation of 3.60.

The student participants consisted of 46.4% males (n=77) and 53.6% females (n=89). The marital status of their parents was examined as a proxy indicator of childhood or teenage disruption. Most of their parents were married (83.7%, n=139), only 2.4% (n=4) divorced/separated with 12% (n=20) of the sample reporting parental loss of either mother or father before the age of 18. About two thirds of the participants' mothers were full-time housewives (81.3%, n=135) and almost all of their fathers were employed (80.1%, n=133). As many as half the participants had more than six siblings at home (n=94, 56.6%). The majority of the participants were Malays (80.1%, n=133) the remainder Chinese (14.5%, n=24) or Indian (2.4%, n=4).

Procedure

A total of 200 students from year one and three were invited to participate in this cross-sectional study by using the convenience sampling technique. There was a high level of response rates with 83% respondents (n=166) completing a set of questions. All students were taking undergraduate courses in the School of Psychology and Human Development, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia. Access to the participants was provided by the course instructors. Announcements were made in the classroom by the course instructors together with the principle investigator. Letters of invitation to student participants were sent out to them two weeks before data collection. Online learning websites were also used to reach the participants. A brief explanation of the

study was also posted on online learning websites. The attachment styles and well-being measures were administered after four weeks of the new academic year to the student participants during the face-to-face session in a classroom. An information sheet was attached to the questionnaire pack to provide signed informed consent with assurances of anonymity and confidentiality. No extra credit or compensation was given to participants for taking part in this study. The level of corporation was high (83% out of 200 respondents, 34 refused to complete the questionnaire). The student participants took the questionnaires to complete in their own time and returned it in the following week to the principle investigator or course instructors. Completion of the survey questions lasted approximately thirty minutes. No information was available on students who refused to participate in this study. Ethical permission approval was granted from the University Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities and Action/Strategic Research Committee.

Measures

The Relationship Style Questionnaire (RSQ) was developed by Griffin and Bartholomew (1994) as a self-report to assess secure style among young adults. The RSQ was selected because this scale has been validated among college students (Deniz *et. al*., 2005), psychiatry patients (Agrawal *et. al.,* 2004), and general populations (Magai et al., 2001). The RSQ consisted of 30 items rated on 5-point Likert scales to indicate how much the participant agreed with each

statement about close relationships. The scores ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) to endorse the items. The RSQ has four subscales: Secure, Preoccupied, Dismissing, and Fearful. Examples of Preoccupied RSQ were "I want to be completely emotionally intimate with others", "I worry that others don't value me as much as I value them", "I find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like." Examples of Dismissing RSQ were "It is very important to me to feel independent" , "I am comfortable without close emotional relationships", "It is very important to me to feel self-sufficient." Examples of Fearful RSQ were "I find it difficult to depend on other people", "I worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to others", "I find it difficult to trust others completely."

The reliability analysis was carried out to examine the internal consistency of the items. The value of Cronbach's alpha of RSQ was .75, after items with the corrected-item total correlation of more than 0.30 were selected and items less than 0.30 were removed. Using this technique, we removed 12 items to increase the value of Cronbach's alpha (Value of Cronbach's alpha before item deletion was .68). Thus, all remaining items of insecurity RSQ represent a measure of satisfactory internal consistency (Streiner & Norman, 2008).

We used the Psychological Well-being Scale (PWB; Ryff, 1989) to measure psychological well-being and Social Well-being scale (SWB; Keyes, 1998) to measure social well-being. The PWB scale consisted of 18 items to measure psychological

aspects of well-being (self-acceptance, positive relations with others, autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life, personal growth). The items were rated on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 7 (strongly disagree). Originally, the minimum score was 18 and the maximum score 54.

The reliability analysis was carried out to examine internal consistency of the items. The value of Cronbach's alpha of PWB was .76, after items with the corrected-item total correlation of more than 0.30 were selected and items less than 0.30 were removed. Using this technique, we removed 6 items to increase the value of Cronbach's alpha (value of Cronbach's alpha before item deletion was .53). Thus, all remaining items of PWB represent a measure of satisfactory internal consistency.

The Social Well-being Scale (SWB: Keyes, 1998) measures social aspects consisting of 15 items (social coherence, social acceptance, social contribution, social actualization, social integration). The positive and negative feelings consisted of 6 positive items and 6 negative items (Mroczek & Kolarz, 1998). The items were rated on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 7 (strongly disagree). Originally, the minimum score was 15 and the maximum score 45.

The reliability analysis was carried out to examine internal consistency of the items. The value of Cronbach's alpha of SWB was .73, after items with the corrected-item total correlation of more than 0.30 were selected and items less than 0.30 were removed.

Using this technique, we removed 8 items to increase the value of Cronbach's alpha (value of Cronbach's alpha before item deletion was .58). Thus, all remaining items of PWB represent a measure of satisfactory internal consistency.

The affect balance was measured using general positive and negative feelings, including specific feelings that may have unique labels in a specific culture (Diener *et. al*., 2010). This scale is a brief 12-item scale, with six items devoted to positive experiences and six items designed to assess negative experiences. Examples of positive feelings were "happy, joy, happy." Examples of negative feelings were "bad, sad, angry." Each item is scored on a scale ranging from 1 to 5, where 1 represents ''very rarely or never'' and 5 represents ''very often or always''. The summed positive and negative scores can range from 24 to 24. The value of Cronbach's alpha for affect balance was .78. Thus, the internal consistency of this scale was achieved satisfactorily.

RESULTS

Factorial analysis was used to determine factor loadings of items. The Pearson correlation analysis to test associations of the variables studied, and stepwise multiple regression analysis were used to examine predictors of affect balance.

A principle components exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation was performed on the insecurity RSQ. Two factors were extracted, which explained 31.34% of the total variance. The first factor had an eigenvalue of 3.87 that

accounted for 20.36% of the variance. The second factor had an eigenvalue of 2.09 that accounted for 10.99% of the variance. Following Tabachnick and Fidell's (1996) recommendation of .32 as acceptable factor loading cutoff for interpreting item salience, this resulted in a consistent pattern of insecure styles, where both insecure anxious and insecure avoidance were loaded either on factor 1 or factor 2 or both. It was decided that whole items that are called as insecure style to be used. Therefore, it was expected that those who scored lower on insecure style would have high secure style.

A factorial analysis was then performed because PWB had not been previously tested among Malaysians. Exploratory factor analysis was used to examine the factor loadings of items using a maximum likelihood extraction method with varimax rotation. Based on criterion interpretation, 2 factors were retained. The first factor had an eigenvalue of 3.60 that accounted for 29.96% of the variance. The second factor had an eigenvalue of 1.41 that accounted for 11.74% of the variance. Seven of the 12 items loaded formed PWB-related gratitude and 5 items loaded formrd PWB-related conscientiousness. Examples of PWB-related gratitude items were "People would describe me as a giving person, willing to share my time with others", "I like most parts of my personality", "I have confidence in my opinions, even if they are different from the way most other people think." Examples of PWB-related conscientiousness items were "I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live", "Life has been a continuous process of learning, changing, and growth",

"I have not experienced many warm and trusting relationships with others."

The exploratory factor analysis for SWB was also performed. Two factors were retained. The first factor had an eigenvalue of 2.67 that accounted for 38.10% of the variance. However, the second factor had an eigenvalue less than 1 (EV=.96) that accounted for 13.78% of the variance. All items loaded had created new dimensions of social well-being. Four items loaded on factor 1 to form SWB-related awareness and 3 items loaded on factor 2 to form SWB-related engagement. Examples of SWB-related awareness items were "I feel close to other people in my community", "Society has stopped making progress." Examples of SWB-related involvement items were "Society isn't improving for people like me", "I have nothing important to contribute to society."

Table 1 represents the means and standard deviations, and Pearson correlations of the variables studied. All psychological and social well-being dimensions were significant positively correlated to affect balance whilst insecure style was significant negatively correlated to affect balance. This indicated that those who scored lower on insecure style would have high affect balance as well as those who scored highly on PWB-related gratitude and SWB-related engagement would score high on affect balance.

Using a stepwise regression analysis to examine predictors of affect balance, results showed that PWB-related gratitude (β=.23, p<.01), SWB-related engagement (β=.17, p<.05) and insecure style (β=-

.24, p<.01) to significantly explain 23% of the variance in affect balance with PWB-related gratitude being the stronger predictor when controlling demographics (e.g., marital status of parents, siblings size, parents' income, parents' employment). This indicated that those who scored highly on PWB-related gratitude and SWB-related engagement and low on insecure style were found to have high affect balance. Socio-demographic factors did not contribute to affect balance.

DISCUSSION

The study sought to examine predictors of affect balance among social science undergraduate students. Our results supported most of what we expected, indicating attachment quality (low insecure style), gratitude, and engagement in the community as well as the relationships between these factors and affect balance. Evidence provided shows that the low insecure style is significantly related to affect balance, even when controls for social class, gender and family disruption applied. The insecure style negatively contributes to affect balance analyses. Socio-demographic factors did not contribute to affect balance

TABLE 1
Correlations, means, and standard deviations for scores on the RSQ insecure, social well-being, psychological well-being and affect balance as outcome

Variables	Affect balance	Mean	Standard deviation
Insecure style	-.36**	44.52	.46
PWB-related gratitude	.37**	37.88	.93
PWB-related conscientiousness	.16*	28.73	.83
SWB-related awareness	.29**	20.39	1.16
SWB-related engagement	.35**	16.11	1.32

** Correlations significant at 0.01 level (2 tailed); * Correlations significant at 0.05 level (2 tailed)

TABLE 2
Predictors of self-report affect balance

	Affect balance			
Predictors	Model 1 β	Model 2 β	Model 3 β	Sig.
PWB-related gratitude	.37	.29	.23	.004
Insecure style		-.28	-.24	.001
SWB-related engagement			.17	.032
R^2	.13	.21	.23	
F	24.70**	21.41**	16.16**	
R^2 change	.13	.07	.02	
F change	24.70**	14.94**	4.70*	

*p<.05; **p<.01

outcome. This is important in showing that attachment principles are important in determining affect balance. This adds an additional developmental and social aspect to the affect balance literature. Thus, the secure style indicates healthy development and positive socialization. It also denotes positive orientation towards others, an expectation of love and support and better adjustment in peer relationships. Secure students may think positively about themselves, able to initiate new friendship and are more constructive in terms of solving problems. This seems stable across different cultures. In Malaysia which has a collective culture, the most important sanction is societal approval (Hofstede, 1991). Here we concluded that to "maintain harmony with others by coming to terms with their needs and expectation" (Suh *et. al.*, 1998) and social acceptance and appropriate behavior are very important . Individuals in collectivist cultures tend to react accordingly to what other think, expect and feel. Perhaps we can conclude that the collectivist culture plays a vital role in experiencing well-being. It seems that society or community remained the main concern for individuals rather than the self.

The insecure style was negatively correlated with affect balance. Whilst rates of insecure style are often consistent cross-culturally, the type of style has more potential for cross-cultural variation. The interviews for instance show a parallel angry-dismissive style reflected in UK community samples, although less common than fearful style in female samples (Bifulco

et. al., 2006). However, the insecure style in this present study was significantly correlated with affect balance outcomes. Another implication of low insecure style contributing to affect balance is related to emotion regulation under stress. Associated positive emotion is useful for coping with stressful life events (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2007). Thus, another important component which requires more exploration is the extent to which secure individuals and those with high affect balance respond to threats by flexible adaptation and maintaining proximity to attachment figures for comfort and to alleviate distress (Mikulincer *et. al.*, 2003).

PWB-related gratitude was significant and positively related to affect balance. This is consistent with other studies suggesting that more than 90% of adolescents and adult Americans indicated that expressing gratitude made them very happy (Wood *et. al.*, 2010). This study added to the body of evidence that gratitude together with secure style and SWB-related engagement jointly contributed to the significant prediction of affect balance. A grateful attitude may build social bonds and friendship in a novel environment thus preventing isolation in campus life. Gratitude is not only pleasant feelings but it is also related to prosocial behavior (Froh *et. al.*, 2010). Therefore, we suggest that gratitude is a vital source of affect balance that leads to positive youth development. As a collective society, PWB-related gratitude to affect balance is expected. Thus findings of this study add to the gratitude literatures.

SWM-related engagement is a significantly important contribution to affect balance, suggesting that this form of engagement shapes socialization skills. This finding was consistent with a development perspective where early adulthood constitutes an important state for social and identity development (Bowman *et. al*., 2010). We concluded that the students not only devote to the academic experiences but also invest in positive social interactions with other students. This engagement involves different activities at differing levels (Junco, 2011) thus giving them the opportunities to interact with peers, making them happier or feel good.

In terms of social disadvantage, father's employment, maternal employment or student grant eligibility did not contribute in any way. Indicators of family disruption were not associated with affect balance despite other studies showing weak associations (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998). Whilst marital status is only a proxy indicator for disruption, it seems that it does not impinge on the students' sense of affect balance. It would seem Malaysian students are satisfied with their lifestyles and financial positions. Adults having higher incomes can be related to less time spent with family and longer work hours (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2001). This can negatively impinge on social relationships and thereby affect balance. Various studies of adults report that wealth, material and economic status were among the primary indicators of positive feelings (e.g., Howell & Howell, 2008; Dolan et al., 2008). This could vary by life stage and

culture. Perhaps high income matters less in collective cultures than in the West (Hsee *et. al*., 2009) with materialism diminishing positive feelings and negative feelings.

There are limitations of this study. First, this sample involved undergraduate students, who may not be representative of the population at large and who may be more privileged than their peers not attending university. This may increase their sense of positive feelings. Given no measure of life stress it is not known how resilient, as opposed to protected, they were. Second, the measures were all self-reports and associations could be artificially inflated by response styles. Third, no early life measures were included to further develop attachment themes in the genesis of secure style or affect balance. Further research is needed which uses mixed measures, on broader samples with extended measures of early life as well as stressful experiences.

CONCLUSION

In summary, affect balance refers to a range of positive attitudes to life, involving gratitude and engagement. These new dimensions of social and psychological well-being can be useful in consolidating the construct, increasing internal reliability and in association with other constructs. Using such measures on a young Malaysian sample, it was found that PWB-related gratitude is significantly related to affect balance, the strongest predictor of affect balance with insecure style and SWB-engagement. In terms of socio-demographic factors, no correlation was found to affect

balance. Future studies are needed which can further explore overlaps between developmental attachment approaches and cognitive ones reflected in affect balance (Seligman, 2000).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

REFERENCES

Assor, A., Kaplan, H., & Roth, G. (2002). Choice is good, but relevance is excellent: Autonomy-enhancing and suppressing teacher behaviours predicting students' engagement in schoolwork. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 72*, 261-278.

Adewuya, A. O., Ola, B. A., & Afolabi, O. O. (2006). Validity of the patient health questionnaire (PHQ-9) as a screening tool for depression amongst Nigerian university students. *Journal of Affective Disorders, 96*, 89-93.

Ames, M. E., Pratt, M. W., Pancer, S. M., Wintre, M. G., Polivy, J., Birnie-Lefcovitch, S., & Adams, G. (2011). The moderating effects of attachment style on students' experience of a transition to university group facilitation program. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science, 43*(1), 1-12.

Ang, R. P., & Goh, D. H. (2006). Authoritarian parenting style in Asian societies: A cluster analytic investigation. *Contemporary Family Therapy, 28*, 131-151.

Aktekin, M., Karaman, T., Senol, Y. Y., Erdem, S., Erengin, H., & Akaydin, M. (2001). Anxiety, depression and stressful life events among medical students: A prospective study in Antalya, Turkey. *Medical Education, 35*, 12-17.

Bifulco, A., Moran, P. M., Ball, C., & Bernazzi, O. (2006). Adult attachment style I: Its relationship to clinical depression. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology, 37*(2), 50-59.

Bowman, N., Brandenberger, J., Lapsley, D., Hill, P., & Quaranto, J. (2010). Serving in college, flourishing in adulthood: Does community engagement during the college years predict adult well-being. *Applied Psychology: Health and Well-being, 2*(1), 14-34.

Burge, D., Hammen, C., Davila, J., Daley, S., Paley, B., Herzberg, D., & Lindberg, N. (1997). Attachment cognitions and college and work functioning two years later in late adolescent women. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 26*, 285-301.

Chan, D. W. (2013). Subjective well-being of Hong Kong Chinese teachers: The contribution of gratitude, forgiveness, and the orientations to happiness. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 32*, 22-30.

Chen, H., Mallinckrodt, B., & Mobley, M. (2002). Attachment patterns of East Asian international students and sources of perceived social support as moderators of the impact of U.S. racism and cultural distress. *Asian Journal of Counselling, 9*, 27-48.

Cicirelli, V. G. (1989). Feelings of attachment to siblings and well-being in later life. *Psychology and Aging, 4*, 211-216.

Cooley, E. L., Buren, A. V., & Cole, S. P. (2010). Attachment styles, social skills, and depression in college women. *Journal of College Counseling, 13*, 50-62.

Davis, M. H., Morris, M. M., & Kraus, L. A. (1998). Relationship-specific and global perceptions of social support: Associations with well-being and attachment. *Personality Processes and Individual Differences, 74*, 468-481.

DeNeve, K. M., & Cooper, H. (1998). The happy personality: A meta analysis of 137 personality traits and subjective well-being. *Psychological Bulletin, 124*, 197-229.

Deniz, M. E., Hamarta, E., & Ari, R. (2005). An investigation of social skills and loneliness levels of university students with respect to their attachment styles in a sample of Turkish students. *Social Behavior and Personality, 33*(1), 19-32.

DeWall, C. N., Lambert, N. M., Pond, Jr., R. S., Kashdan, T. B., & Fincham, F. D. (2012). A grateful heart is a nonviolent heart: Cross-sectional, experience sampling, longitudinal, and experimental evidence. *Social Psychological and Personality Science, 3*, 232-240.

Diener, E., & Biswas-Diener, R. (2002). Will money increase subjective well-being? A literature review and guide to needed research. *Social Indicators Research, 57*, 119-169.

DiTommaso, E., Brannen-McNulty, C., Ross, L., & Burgess, M. (2003). Attachment styles, social skills and loneliness in young adults. *Personality and Individual Differences, 35*, 303-312.

Dolan, O., Peasgood, T., & White M. (2008). Do we really know what makes us happy? A review of the economic literature on the factors associated with subjective well-being. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 94-122.

Froh, J. J., Bono, G., & Emmons, R. (2010). Being grateful is beyond good manners: Gratitude and motivation to contribute to society among early adolescents. *Motivation and Emotion, 34*, 144-157.

Froh, J. J., Emmoms, R. A., Card, N. A., Bono, G., & Wilson, J. A. (2011). Gratitude and the reduced costs of materialism in adolescents. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 12*, 289-302.

Gilardi, S. (2011). University life of non-traditional students: Engagement styles and impact on attrition. *The Journal of Higher Education, 82*, 33-53.

Griffin, D., & Bartholomew, K. (1994). Models of the self and other: Fundamental dimensions underlying measures of adult attachment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 67*(3), 430-445.

Hazan, C., & Shaver, P. (1990). Love and work: An attachment-theoretical perspective. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 59*, 270-280.

Hofstede, G. (1991). *Culture and organizations: Software of the mind*. London, UK: McGraw-Hill.

Howell, R. T., & Howell, C. J. (2008). The relation of economic status to subjective well-being in developing countries: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 34*(4), 536-560.

Howell, C. J., Howell, R. T., & Schwabe, K. A. (2006). Does wealth enhance life satisfaction for people who are materially deprived? Exploring the association among the orang Asli of Peninsular Malaysia. *Social Indicators Research, 3*, 499-524.

Hsee, C. K., Yang, Y., Li, N., & Shen, L. (2009). Wealth, warmth, and well-being: Whether happiness is relative or absolute depends on whether it is about money, acquisition, or consumption. *Journal of Marketing Research, XLVI*, 396-409.

Ibrahim, A. K., Kelly, S. J., & Glazebrook, C. (2012). Reliability of a shortened version of a Zagazig Depression Scale and prevalence of depression in an Egyptian university student sample. *Comprehensive Psychiatry, 53*, 638-647.

Imam, S. S., Abdul Karim, N. H., Jusoh, N. R., & Mamad, N. E. (2009). Malay version of spiritual well-being scale: Is Malay spiritual well-being scale a psychometrically sound instrument? *The Journal of Behavioral Science, 4*(1), 59-69.

Junco, R. (2011). The relationship between frequency of Facebook use, participation in Facebook activities, and student engagement. *Computers & Education, 58*, 162-171.

Kafetsios, K., & Sideridis, G. D. (2006). Attachment, support and well-being in young and older adults. *Journal of Health Psychology, 11*(6), 863-876.

Keyes, C. L. M. (1998). Social well-being. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 61*, 121-140.

Kumaraswamy, N., & Azizah, O. (2007). The subjective well-being of women. *Malaysian Journal of Psychiatry, 16*(2), 27-35.

Lopez, F. G., & Gormley, B. (2002). Stability and change in adult attachment style over the first-year college transition: Relations to self-confidence, coping, and distress patterns. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 49*(3), 355-364.

McCullough, M. E., Kilpatrick, S. A. D., Emmons, R. A., & Larson, D. B. (2001). Is gratitude a moral affect? *Psychological Bulletin, 127*, 249-266.

McCullough, M. E., Emmons, R. A., & Tsang, J. (2002). The grateful disposition: A conceptual and empirical topography. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 82*, 112-127.

Mikulincer, M., Shaver, P. R., & Pereg, D. (2003). Attachment theory and affect regulation: The dynamics, development, and cognitive consequences of attachment-related strategies. *Motivation and Emotion, 27*(2), 77-102.

Mikulincer, M., & Florian, V. (1997). Attachment style and affect regulation: Implications for coping with stress and mental health. In G. J. O. Fletcher, & M. S. Clark (Eds.), *Blackwell handbook of social psychology: Interpersonal processes* (pp. 537-557). Oxford: Blackwell.

Mohd Sidik, S., Rampal, L., & Kaneson, N. (2003). Prevalence of emotional disorders among medical students in a Malaysian university. *Asia Pacific Family Medicine, 2*, 213-217.

Mroczek, D. K., & Kolarz, C. M. (1998). The effect of age on positive and negative affect: A developmental perspective on happiness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 75*(5), 1333-1349.

Naito, T., Wangwan, J., & Tani, M. (2005). Gratitude in university students in Japan and Thailand. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 36*, 247-263.

Ng, K., Trusty, J., & Crawford, R. (2005). A cross-cultural validation of the Attachment Style Questionnaire: A Malaysian pilot study. *The Family Journal*, 416-426.

Noor, N. M. (1997). Work and family roles in relation to women's well-being: The role of negative affectivity. *Personality and Individual Differences, 23*, 487–499.

Noor, N. M. (1999). Women's roles and well-being: Some preliminary study from Malaysia. *Sex Roles, 41*, 123-145.

Noor, N. M. (2004). Work-family conflict, work- and family- role salience, and women's well-being. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 144*(4), 389-405.

Ognibene, T. C., & Collins, N. L. (1998). Adult attachment styles, perceived social support and coping strategies. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 15*(3), 323-345.

Otake, K., Shimal, S., Tanaka-Matsumi, J., Otsui, K., & Fredrickson, B. L. (2006). Happy people become happier through kindness: A counting kindness intervention. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 7*, 361-375.

Reeve, J., Jang, H., Carrell, D., Jeon, S., & Barch, J. (2004). Enhancing students' engagement by increasing teachers' autonomy support. *Motivation and Emotion, 28*, 147-168.

Ryff, C. D. (1989). Happiness is everything, or is it? Explorations on the meaning of psychological well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 57*, 1069-1081.

Schmitt, D. P. (2008). Evolutionary perspectives on romantic attachment and culture: How ecological stressors influence dismissing orientations across genders and geographies. *Cross-Cultural Research, 42*(2)*, 220-247.

Shamsudin, K., Fadzil, F., Ismail, W. S. W., Shah, S. A., Omar, K., Muhammad, N. A., Jaffar, A., Ismail, A., & Mahadevan, R. (2013). Correlates of depression, anxiety and stress among Malaysian university students. *Asian Journal of Psychiatry*, http://dx.doi.org/ j.ajp.2013.01.014

Shiota, M. N., Keltner, D., & John, O. P. (2006). Positive emotion dispositions differentially associated with Big Five personality and attachment style. *Journal of Positive Psychology, 1*(2), 61-71.

Streiner, D. L., & Norman, G. R. (2008). *Health measurement scales: A practical guide to their development and use*. Oxford: University Press.

Suh, E., Diener, E., & Fujita, F. (1996). Events and subjective well-being: Only recent events matter. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 70*(5), 1091-1102.

Swami, V., Chamorro-Premuzic, T., Sinniah, D., Maniam, T., Kannan, K., Stanistreet, D., & Furnham, A. (2007). General health mediates the relationship between loneliness, life satisfaction and depression: A study with Malaysian medical students. *Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology, 42*, 161-166.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (1996). *Using multivariate statistics*. New York, NY: HarperCollins.

Tugade, M. M., & Fredrickson, B. L. (2007). Regulation of positive emotions: Emotion regulation strategies that promote resilience. *Journal of Happiness Studies: Special Issue on Emotion Self- Regulation, 8*, 311 – 333.

Wardle, J., Steptoe, A., Guliŝ, G., Sartory, G., Sĕk, H., Todorova, I., & Ziarko, M. (2004). Depression, perceived control, and life satisfaction in university students from Central-Eastern and Western-Europe. *International Journal of Behavioral Medicine, 11*(1), 27-36.

Watkins, P. C., Woodward, K., Stone, T., & Kolts, R. L. (2003). Gratitude and happiness: Development of a measure of gratitude, and relationships with subjective well-being. *Social Behavior and Personality, 31*, 431-452.

Wei, M., Russell, D. W., Mallinckrodt, B., & Zakalik, R. A. (2004). Cultural equivalence of adult attachment across four ethnic groups: Factor structure, structured means, and associations with negative mood. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 51*(4), 408-417.

Wood, A. M., Froh, J. J., & Geraghty, A. W. A. (2010). Gratitude and well-being: A review and theoretical integration. *Clinical Psychology Review, 30*, 890-905.

Wood., A. M., Joseph, S., & Linley, P. A. (2007). Coping style as a psychological resource of grateful people. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 26*, 1076-1093.

Wood, A. M., Maltby, J., Gillett, R., Linley, P. A., & Joseph, S. (2008). The role of gratitude in the development of social support, stress, and depression: Two longitudinal studies. *Journal of Research in Personality, 42*, 854-871.

Yusoff., M. S. B., Yaacob, M. J., Naing, Y. Y., & Esa, A. R. (2013). Psychometric properties of the medical student well-being index among medical students in a Malaysian medical school. *Asian Journal of Psychiatry, 6*, 60-65.

Zaid, Z. A., Chan, S. C., & Ho, J. J. (2007). Emotional disorders among medical students in a Malaysian private medical school. *Singapore Medical Journal, 48*, 895-899.

SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES

Self-Esteem, Coping Strategy, and Social Support as Correlates of Life Satisfaction among Middle-Aged Malay Women

Siti Marziah, Z.*, Subhi, N., Khaidzir, I. and Abdul Kadir, N. B.

School of Psychology and Human Development, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities,
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

Women in their middle age hold different challenging roles as a mother, a wife, a daughter, a grandmother, and career-wise, as a worker or an employee. They encounter a diversity of expectations and burdens, while their psychological and physical health is at risk because of the hormonal changes and aging process that they have to go through. Social support, coping strategies, and self-esteem may equip middle-aged women to face changes and challenges in this phase of life, and thus achieving life satisfaction. This study presents the preliminary study of the relation between self-esteem, coping strategy, social support, and life satisfaction among middle-aged Malay women in Kuala Lumpur. By employing the purposive sampling, 38 working and non-working women were selected to participate in this study. This study utilizes the MOS Social Support Survey, The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, Coping Strategies Inventory Short-Form, and Life Satisfaction Index (z). The analysis of the Pearson Correlation showed that self-esteem correlated at $r = 0.667$, $p<0.001$, coping strategy at $r = .562$, $p < 0.001$, and social support at $r = 0.341$, $p < 0.05$ with life satisfaction. Therefore, we have been able to gather that high self-esteem, good social support and positive coping strategy are the elements which promote life satisfaction. Once all of these elements are in excellent condition, life satisfaction is also at its peak. Women can gain life satisfaction by improving these three important aspects of their lives. Social workers, counselors, and policy makers can benefit in planning programs which can enhance the life quality of middle-aged women.

INTRODUCTION

Apart from subjective well-being and happiness, life satisfaction is among the most

popular measurements of psychological well-being. It can be assessed specifically to either specific or global domain. Life satisfaction is not only one's evaluation towards his/her life, but it is also one's recognition, gratitude, appreciation, and optimism towards their lives. Life satisfaction has been defined as an individual's overall assessment towards their quality of life, including the perception that they are progressing towards achieving important goals of life (Diener *et. al.*, 1999). Research suggests that people's perception of their life satisfaction is due to comparisons that they make between what they have, what others have, and what they wish to have (Sousa & Lyubomirsky, 2001).

Most studies on life satisfaction have not been directly focused on the experiences and perceptions of women. Only few studies have explored the unique predictors of life satisfaction among women. For example, researches have shown that, education level (Shichman & Cooper, 2004), equal opportunity to education (Sousa & Lyubomirsky, 2001), personal income (Jan & Masood, 2008; Shichman & Cooper, 2004), religiosity (Park *et. al.*, 2011; Saundra & Hughey, 2003), and marriage (Kousha & Moheen, 2004; Shichman & Cooper, 2004) have all predicted life satisfaction among women.

The current study focuses on middle-aged women as middle age is an episode which is overwhelmed by expectations and constraints. The psychosocial theory of Erik Erikson regards this stage as a phase of changes and stress (Feldman, 2008). Middle age is the period of generativity versus stagnation, depending on crisis resolution before entering the stage. Middle-aged adults are expected to train, educate, guide, and lead the younger generation with the knowledge, skills, and values. Successful middle aged adults can contribute to the betterment of their family and the society based on their precious past experiences (Feldman, 2008).

In this phase of life, middle-aged women are undergoing physical, cognitive, social, and emotional changes. They may make changes in the meaning and purpose of life after encountering various experiences. Their perspectives towards religion or spirituality may also become altered. These changes can indirectly affect the perceptions towards life satisfaction or well-being (Santrock, 2011). They tend to consider different options and alternatives, choose what to do, decide on how to spend time and resources, and re-assess all aspects of life. They will also tend to reflect on where they have been and what they have done in life.

It is also considered as a phase of emptiness and depression. Middle-aged women have been reported to face the empty nest syndrome, intergenerational conflict, hormonal changes as the effect of perimenopause and menopause, role conflict, and health problems (Santrock, 2011; Sheehy, 1992). Research conducted in the United States establishes that 26% of the respondents experience mid-life crisis (Wethington *et. al.*, 2004). Most of the crises reported are caused by negative life events (such as death of a spouse, divorce, and job loss) which are not the outcome of aging.

Nevertheless, research has also indicated that individuals in their middle age have less psychological disorders (Kessler *et. al*., 1992), more coping resource availability (Hamarat *et. al*., 2001) and better health status (Merill & Verbrugge, 1999). Consequently, they are also reported to have higher levels of life satisfaction (Hamarat *et. al*., 2001). As Vaillant (1977) points out, only the minority of middle-aged adults experience mid-life crisis. This may be due to the social support (Albarracin *et. al*., 1997), self-esteem (Swartz, 2008), and coping strategy practiced by this generation of adults (Ouwehand *et. al*., 2008) as it may minimize the impact of life changes.

Self-esteem plays a vital role in helping women and men in their midlife to address the challenges. Claims about the importance of self-esteem in the process of adaptation to aging have always been present. Advancing age and stressful life events can have an effect on middle aged women's self-esteem (Krause, 1987). Researchers have speculated that stress may have a deleterious effect on the feelings of self-worth among older and middle aged adults. Stress diminishes the feeling of positive self-regard. As Kaplan (1975) argued that feelings of self-worth and positive self-regard are fundamental to the maintenance of psychological well being. He also suggested that the maintenance of positive self-esteem is a major motivational factor in social behavior.

The effect of stress and emotional disorders in middle age can also be relieved by the availability of strong social support. The existence of a person to offer help and support can protect individuals from the effects of illness. Croezen *et. al.* (2010) claims that social support is associated with decreased mortality in many studies. In reality, studies have shown a strong correlation between physical health, psychological well being, and social support in a healthy population and a population that suffers from chronic diseases such as heart disease, cancer, and diabetes (Thompson & Candace, 2004; Croezen, *et. al*., 2010; Albarracin *et. al*., 1997). Individuals were found to be healthier and happier when there is a friend or relative that can be expected to accompany and provide assistance (Albarracin *et. al*., 1997).

With increasing age, an individual should have more proactive and adaptive strategies. Aldwin *et. al.* (1996) showed that middle-aged adults practice coping strategies which are more problem-focused (problem-focused coping), than other age groups. Religious beliefs and practices are also believed to be so close to the lives of men and women in middle age. The study shows 70% of middle-aged adults in the U.S. admit that religious and spiritual practice is an important coping strategy in difficult times (Etaugh & Bridges, 2006). The study by Roos and De Jager (2010) found that approaching religion and being active in everyday life were major coping strategies proposed by the elderly. Adopted coping strategies can be influenced by respondents' age, income, health, and social support.

Therefore, in this transitional period, middle aged women may need to rely heavily on social support for the sense of belonging,

The current study utilizes 4 inventories which include the MOS Social Support Survey Sherbourne, Stewart, 1991), The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Classen *et. al*., 2007), Coping Strategies Inventory Short-Form (Addison, 2007), and Life Satisfaction Index (z) (Neugarten *et. al*., 1961) (please refer to table 1). All inventories are based on a 4-point Likert scale. The statistical analysis used to gain the results of the study is the Pearson Correlation. The latest version of SPSS, which is SPPS 20.0 was employed to process the data. The analysis of the reliability of all scales based on the 38 middle-aged Malay women points to high Cronbach alpha values which range from 0.70-0.97.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 2 shows the results of respondents' socio-demographic characteristics. The analysis of frequency shows that most participants (59.5%) are secondary school leavers. Some of the respondents (35.1%) have a higher educational background, namely Bachelor/Master/PhD degree holders. In terms of their marital status, the majority of them are married (70.3%), 24.3% are widowers, and 5.4% are unmarried. Most of them (89.2%) are reported as healthy based on their perceived health. The majority of respondents (83.8%) are career women, compared to only 16.2% representing the non-working women.

The analysis of the Pearson Correlation shows that self esteem is highly correlated with life satisfaction (r = 0.667, p<0.001). It is followed by coping strategy (r = 0.562, p<0.001). Meanwhile, social support is also found to be correlated with life satisfaction with p<0.01 (Table 3). This shows that social support, coping strategy, and self-esteem are associated with the life satisfaction of middle-aged Malay working women in Kuala Lumpur. If the level of the variables is high, life satisfaction is also high and vice

TABLE 2
Respondents' socio-demographic characteristics

Socio-demographic characteristic	Categories	Percentage
Educational level	No schooling	0%
	Primary school	5.4%
	Secondary school	59.5%
	University/College	35.1%
Marital status	Unmarried	5.4%
	Married	70.3%
	Widower	24.3%
Health status	Healthy	89.2%
	Unhealthy	10.8%
Occupation	Working	83.8%
	Non-working	16.2%

versa. Conclusively, women at this age are influenced by these three elements to feel happy and satisfied about their lives.

Social support was also found to be vital to the lives of middle-aged and even older adults. Previous research has established that being healthy, having good social relationships, and having secure personal finance are most important for middle-aged and older adults (Ouwehand et al., 2008). Albarracin *et. al.* (1997) further suggest that both formal and informal social support determine psychological well-being. They improve physical and psychological health and subsequently decrease mortality rates.

Social support is viewed as a buffering mechanism when people, especially adults are in crisis (Nichols, 2009). In social support research, there are two types of support, which are the perceived and received social support (Young, 2006). The present study measures perceived social support among middle-aged women. Perceived social support is measured by asking people the extent to which they believe that social support is available to them. Meanwhile, the received support is a measurement of the actual support received from the network. As asserted by Forjaz (2000), satisfaction with the perceived social support is the aspect that should be measured in research, as research evidence

suggests that perceived social support is more significantly related to life satisfaction (Kazarian & Mc Cabe, 1991).

Among cancer patients, social support has promoted their health and helped them fight against depression (Forjaz, 2000). This will consequently improve their well-being and life satisfaction. Furthermore, researches on people with long term mental illness (Young, 2006); people with somatization disorder (Ali et al., 2010); elderly Korean immigrants (Park *et. al.*, 2011); adult ostomates (Nichols, 2009); and older adults (Celso *et. al.*, 2003) also show that social support is the predictor of life satisfaction.

Consistent with the current findings, the correlation between coping strategy and life satisfaction has also been found by Hamarat *et. al.* (2001), Horstmann *et. al.* (2012), Chan (2004), Dubey and Agarwal (2007), and Chang (2010). They studied middle and older adults and proved that coping strategy was the predictor of life satisfaction. The coping strategy guides middle-aged adults on how to deal with difficult life transitions. As these particular adults face the task of adapting to potential threats related to aging, such as physical health deterioration, financial burden, and sensory problems, the transactional model of stress suggests that coping is a process for dealing with stress that involves an interaction between the

TABLE 3
Correlation between variables

	Self- esteem	Coping strategy	Social support
Life satisfaction	0.667**	0.562**	0.341*

** p < 0.001
 * p < 0.01

individual and his/her environment (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Proactive coping has been found to be the predictor for three measures of well-being; purpose in life, personal growth, and life satisfaction among older Australians (Sougleris & Ranzijn, 2011). Similarly, Hamarat *et. al*. (2001) demonstrate that self-appraisal measures of perceived stress and coping resources effectiveness are predictors of global life satisfaction. Besides, they have found that coping resource effectiveness is a better predictor of life satisfaction among middle and older adults compared to younger adults.

The study of 235 university students at the University of Tehran reveals that Big Five Personality traits and self-esteem can well predict life satisfaction (Joshanloo & Afshari, 2011). Big Five personality traits explain about 25% of the variance in life satisfaction. Among the big five traits, extraversion and neuroticism are found to be the strongest predictors of life satisfaction. Besides that, self-esteem significantly predicts life satisfaction and fully mediates the influence of conscientiousness and agreeableness on life satisfaction. Self-esteem also partially mediates the influence of extraversion and neuroticism on life satisfaction (Joshanloo & Afshari, 2011). This supports the result of the present study on the relationship between self-esteem and life satisfaction.

Those who have lower self-esteem are more prone towards developing depression, anxiety, and practicing external locus control (Kathleen *et. al*., 1981). Research

has also revealed that low self-esteem can lead to the worsening of health status, psychological function, and quality of life of older adults (Okomoto & Tanaka, 2004). Furthermore, a research by Moon (2010) strengthens the present finding by advocating that self esteem predicts life satisfaction. He discovered that self-esteem, social support, and sleep patterns have been able to explain 50% of the variance of life satisfaction among adults.

In short, social support, coping strategy, and self-esteem are correlated with life satisfaction among middle-aged working Malay women in Kuala Lumpur. These three elements are fundamental to their lives as they need to confront numerous transitions and challenges in this phase of life.

CONCLUSION

Women in the middle age hold different challenging roles as a mother, a wife, a daughter, a grandmother, and most probably a worker if they are still employed or are working. They have to brave a lot of expectations and shoulder many burdens, while their psychological and physical health is often at risk because of their inevitable hormonal changes and aging process. Thus, women at this stage require an optimal amount of emotional strength to fulfill their responsibilities in the best way possible.

Therefore, high self esteem, good social support, positive coping strategy are the elements which promote life satisfaction. Once all these elements are in excellent condition, life satisfaction is considered to be

at its peak. Women can gain life satisfaction by improving these three important aspects of their lives. This conclusion can be generalized to middle-aged Malay women in Kuala Lumpur. The result of this study can benefit social workers, counselors, and policy makers in planning programs that can enhance the life quality of these women. Counselors at work should pay attention, and work at promoting and educating adaptive coping strategies in middle-aged women Companies or employers can also contribute by celebrating women employee's contributions and work, by way of endorsing their sense of accomplishment and at the same time, elevating their self-esteem. In a smaller unit, a family may help women at this stage gain happiness and life satisfaction by providing better support for them.

REFERENCES

Addison, C. C., Campbell-Jenkins, B. W., Sarpong, D. F., Kibler, J., Singh, M., Dubbert, P., Wilson, G., Payne, T., & Taylor, H. (2007). Coping Strategies Inventory Short Form. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 4*(4), 289-295.

Albarracin, D., Fishbein, M., & Muchinik, E. G. D. (1997). Seeking social support in old age as reasoned action: Structural and volitional determinants in a middle-aged sample of Argentinean women. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology,* 27(6), 463-476.

Aldwin, C. M., & Lavenson, M. R. (2001). Stress, coping and health at mid-life: A developmental perspective. *The Handbook of Midlife Development.* New York: Wiley

Ali, A., Deuri, S. P., Deuri, S. K., Jahan, M., Singh, A. R., & Verma, A. N. (2010). Perceived social support and life satisfaction in persons with somatization disorder. *India Psychiatry, 19*(2), 115-118.

Celso, B. G., Ebener, D. J., & Burkhead, E. J. (2003). Humor coping, health status, and life satisfaction among older adults residing in assisted living facilities. *Aging and Mental Health, 7*(6), 438-445.

Chan, W. W. (2004). The role of cognitive coping strategies on depressive symptoms and life satisfaction among the Chinese elderly in Hong Kong. The HKU Scholars Hub. (PhD Thesis). The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong.

Chang, Y. (2010). Psychometric validity of the problem-focused style of coping scale: In relation to self-efficacy and life satisfaction among nursing staff in Taiwan. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 67*(7), 1625-1631.

Classen, S., Velozo, C. A., & Mann, W. C. (2007). The Rosenberg self-esteem scale as a measure of self-esteem for the noninstitutionalized elderly. *Clinical Gerontologist, 31*(1), 77-93.

Croezen, S., Haveman, A., Pivacet, H. S. J., Smid, E. A., De Groot, C. P. G. M., Veer, P., & Verschuren, W. M. M. (2010). Positive and negative experience of social support and long term mortality among middle-aged Dutch people. *American Journal of Epidemiology, 172*(2), 173-295.

Diener, E., Suh, E. M., Lucas, R. E., & Smith, H. L. (1999). Subjective well-being: Three decades of progress. *Psychological Bulletin, 125*, 276-302.

Dubey, A., & Agarwal, A. (2007). Coping strategies and life satisfaction: Chronically ill patients' perspectives. *Journal of Indian Academy of Applied Psychology, 33*(2), 161-168.

Etaugh, C. & Bridges, J. (2006). *Women's lives: A topical approach*. United States: Pearson Education.

Feldman, R. S. (2008). *Development across the life span*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Forjaz, M. J. B. P. (2000). Comparative model of the impact of social support on psychological distress in cancer patients. (PhD Dissertation). University of North Texas, Texas.

Hamarat, E., Thompson, D., Steele, D., Matheny, K., & Simons, C. (2001). Perceived stress and coping resource availability as predictors of life satisfaction in young, middle-aged, and older adults. *Experimental Aging Research, 27*(2), 181-196.

Horstmann, V., Haak, M., Tomsone, S., Iwarsson, S., & Gräsbeck, A. (2012). Life satisfaction in older women in Latvia and Sweden-relations to standard of living, aspects of health and coping behaviour. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Gerontology, 27*(4), 391-407.

Jan, M., & Masood, T. (2008). An assessment of life satisfaction among women. *Extension and Communication, 2*(1), 33-42.

Joshanloo, M., & Afshari, S. (2011). Big five personality traits and self-esteem as predictors of life satisfaction in Iranian Muslim university students. *Journal of Happiness Studies, 12*, 105-113.

Kaplan, H. B. (1975) . *Self-attitudes and deviant behavior*. CA: Goodyear .

Kathleen, I., Hunter, A., Margaret, W. L., & Rachel, H. (1981). Characteristics of high and low self-esteem in the elderly. *The International Journal of Aging and Human Development, 14*(2), 117-126.

Kazarian, S. S., & Mc Cabe, C. B. (1991). Dimensions of social support in MSPSS. *Journal of Community Psychology, 19*, 150-160.

Kessler, R. C., Foster, C., Webster, P. S., & House, J. S. (1992). The relationship between age and depressive symptoms in two national surveys. *Psychology and Aging, 7*, 119-126.

Kousha, M. & Moheen, N. (2004). Predictors of life satisfaction among urban Iranian women: An exploratory analysis: *Journal of Social Indicators Research*, *40*(3), 320-357.

Krause, N. (1987). Chronic financial strain, social support, and depressive symptoms among older adults. *Psychology and Aging*, *2*, 185 -192.

Merill, S. S., & Verbrugge, L. M. (1999). Health and disease in midlife. In S.L. Willis & J.D. Reid (Eds). *Life in the middle: Psychological and social development in middle age*. San Diego: Academic Press.

Moon, M. J. (2010). Factors influencing depression in elderly people living at home. *Journal of Korean Academy of Nursing, 40*(4), 542-550.

Neugarten B. L., Havighurst R. J., & Tobin, S. S. (1961). The measurement of life satisfaction. *Journal of Gerontology*, *16*, 134-143.

Nichols, T. (2009, June). *Social isolation: The association between low life satisfaction and social connectivity.* Paper presented at WOCN Society 41st Annual Conference. June 6-10, 2009.

Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and aging*. New York: Springer.

Okomoto, K., & Tanaka, Y. (2004). Subjective usefulness and 6-year mortality risks among elderly persons in Japan. *Journal of Gerontology, 59*(5), 246-249.

Ouwehand, C., Ridder, D. T. D., & Bensing, J. M. (2008). Individual differences in the use of proactive coping strategies by middle-aged and older adults. *Personality and Individual Differences, 45*(1), 28-33.

Park, J., Roh, S., & Yeo, Y. (2011). Religiosity, social support, and life satisfaction among elderly Korean immigrants. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion*, *42*, 17-30.

Roos, V. & De Jager, L. (2010). Older women's subjective experience of loneliness. *Journal of Gerontology, 50*(1), 15-30.

Russell, D. W. (1996). UCLA Loneliness Scale (Version 3): Reliability, validity, and factor structure. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 66*(1), 20-40.

Santrock, J. W. (2011). *Life span development*. New York: Mc Graw Hill.

Saundra, H. S., & Hughey, A. W. (2003). African American women at mid life: The relationship between spirituality and life satisfaction. *Journal of African American Women, 18(2)*, 133-147.

Sheehy, G. (1992). *The silent passage: Menopause*. New York: Random House.

Sherbourne, C. D., & Stewart, A. L. (1991). The MOS social support survey. *Social Science Medical, 32*(6), 705-714.

Shichman, S., & Cooper, E. (2004). Life satisfaction and sex role concept. *Journal of Sex Role, 11*, 227-240.

Sousa, L., & Lyubomirsky, S. (2001). Life satisfaction. In J. Wore (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of women and gender: Sex similarities and differences and the impact of society on gender*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Sougleris, C., & Ranzijn, R. (2011). Proactive coping in community-dwelling older Australians. *International Journal of Aging and Human Development, 72*(2), 155-168.

Swartz, T. T. (2008). Family capital and the invisible transfer of privilege: Intergenerational support and social class in early adulthood. *New Direction in Child and Adolescent Development, 119*, 11-24.

Thompson, H., & Candace, L. (2004). Social support, depression, and cardiovascular disease in married, middle-aged/older adults. Doctor of Philosophy (Counseling Psychology). August 2004.

Vaillant, G. (1977). *Adaptation to life: How the best and the brightest came of age*. Boston: Little Brown.

Wethington, E., Kessler, R. C., & Pixley, J. E. (2004). Turning point in adulthood. In Brim, Ryff, & Kessler. *How healthy are we*? Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Young, K. W. (2006). Social support and life satisfaction. *International Journal of Psychosocial Rehabilitation, 10*(2), 155-164.

Exploring the Family Factors in Influencing Problems of Runaway Children

Sarnon, N.*, Alavi, K., Hoesni, S. M., Mohamad, M. S. and Nen, S.

School of Psychology and Human Development, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities,
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

This study serves to explore the implication of family as a main contributor to runaway children. The respondents encompass a total of 53 children, aged between 7-12 years, listed and subsequently reported as missing in the Malaysian Royal Police. The data collection uses the qualitative method of interviews. Apart from narrative data, research findings show that dysfunctional family and parenting style are the main contributors to this particular issue. The findings also demonstrate that family economic status is also influential in contributing to this problem.

Keywords: Runaway children, families, parenting style, family dysfunction

INTRODUCTION

Malaysia, a rapidly developing country, can be considered steadfast in preserving civility and harmony amongst its citizens. Nonetheless, in its effort of transforming from a developing country to a developed nation, Malaysia has its fair share of social problems. One of issues is runaway children.

It is estimated that more than one million children run away from home every year (Sedlak *et al*., 2002). A report by The Royal Malaysian Police (2011) reveals that cases of missing children, below 12 years of age, have escalated. A study by Nen *et al*. (2012) confirms that most of the missing children are runaways and only a few are victims of kidnapping.

Researchers who have studied the factors contributing to these runaways agree that across various cultures, family seems to be the prevailing reasons children choose to run away from home (Farrow et. al., 1992). Family is an important entity in a child's life. From birth onwards, family

plays a salient role in teaching children in all aspects of life. Growing up in a family allows a child to formulate his or her self worth and personality. If a child has a loving and nurturing family, tremendous positive implications can be expected throughout his or her growth.

A study conducted by Rees and Lees (2005) also reports that internal family factors contribute significantly to cases of runaway children. The families of runaway children are often marked by chaos, parental incompetence, financial problems, alcohol abuse, physical abuse, and marital instability (Riley *et al*., 2004). Female teenage runaways describe their lives at home lack of affection, love and experience strained relationship with parents (Peled & Cohavi, 2009) and lack of attention (Schaffner, 1998). Usually children always describe stressors affecting family members such as child-parent conflict as an important reason for running away (Kipke *et al*., 1997; Whitbeck & Hoyt, 1999).

A study by Khadijah *et al*. (2012) also demonstrates that family is the main cause of a child running away from home. The contributing factors to adolescents running away from homes also include parent losing control, families with weak structures and individual characteristics of friends or school systems (Institut Social Malaysia, 2010). A life plagued with tribulations and abuse also cause children to run away from home (Ferguson, 2009). Authoritarian parenting which characterizes 62.86% of parents is revealed as the major factor responsible for children running away

from home (Matchinda, 1999). A study by Flowers (2001) finds that 85% of children missing from home suffer from depression and 21% of them endure serious mental health disorders. Family plays such a vital role that it is deemed as the closest system to an individual (Zastrow, 2010). Hence this study will explore the family factor as a main contributor to runaways of aged 12 years and below.

METHODOLOGY

A qualitative research method using exploratory insight through face-to-face interview is used in this research. This method allows the children to express that family is the main reason for them running away from home. This qualitative method allows a documentation that is more systematic. The qualitative method also provides a classification and interpretation of data that is more comprehensive and conclusive in terms of reflecting the child's experience and knowledge in this research context.

Participants

This research involves 53 children, aged between 7-12 years, reported missing as compiled by The Royal Malaysian Police between 2009-2010. Respective parents or care providers have accompanied the children. Purposive sampling is used. Out of the 53 children, 29 are boys and the other 24 are girls. This study has been conducted in few states in Malaysia, excluding Sarawak, Negeri Sembilan and Kelantan. The four states are excluded as there is no reported

cases of runaways or missing children during those years.

Procedure

In the early stages, shortlisted parents are contacted to acquire their approval to interview their children. Semi-structured questions are selected to give the children the freedom to answer various provoking questions. At the same time, such question structure allows the researcher to stay focused on the research objectives. Interview protocol is divided into two sections. The first section comprises of questions related to childrens' background and that of their parents or caregivers. While, the second section, focuses on questions related to the reasons as the family being the cause of these children running away from home.

Data analysis

Qualitative data analysis is based on verbatim interviews with the children and supported by verbatim interviews with their parents or caregivers. Thematic method is used to obtain main themes to answer research questions related to family as the contributing factor to runaway children.

RESULTS

Research findings indicate 6 themes that may be related to family as the contributing factor to runaway children. Themes include conflict and divorce of parents, banished or driven away from home by parents, physical and emotional abuse, unreciprocated requests and lack of attention from parents.

Parents in Conflict

Frustrations is the main theme related to the family factor for most interviewed respondents. It is due to prolonged conflict in the household that they are involved in either directly or indirectly. Conflicts between parents cause emotional distress and anxieties. Excerpt below shows how Siti, a pseudonym, feels distressed when she witnesses a verbal engagement between her parents at home.

> "Emmm...problem...distressed... like usual, when I see my parents, to look at them...mother is always fighting with father...then I feel sad..."

Arguments between parents affect the respondent emotionally. Angry and frustrated, respondent decides to run away from home.

> "...then what should I do...what... my mother is always crying...I am quite sensitive...I can't scold my mother...so I decided to run away from home..."

Respondent endures an extremely stressful situation. Pursuant to the stress, she feels that running away from home will appease her emotional state. This frustration is a high prevalence among children who run away from home due to their inability to resolve personal problems and lack of courage to consult adults or family members to help them sorting out their feelings.

Divorce

Divorce gravely affects children and it plays the main contributing factor for runaways. It causes children to be vengeful. Demographic data supports this narrative data that indicates 21% of respondents live with single parents or stepparents. Many respondents equivocally attribute their running away from home due to parental divorce. To exemplify, Rina feels very vengeful towards her father and faults him for the tribulations she faces in her life.

> *"From then onwards...starting from there...if possible I don't want to be vengeful towards anyone..but I feel like this towards one particular person...for my dad..because if it wasn't for him, all these would not have happened..."*

Many children with divorced parents admit that they lack parental love from either parent. Children are unable to rationalize the reasons for their parents' divorce. They often translate that as being underloved. As an example, the divorce of Ida's parents causes her to live apart from her father. Hence she lacks the love of a father.

> *"I am definitely lacking fatherly love, as my parents are divorced, especially when I live far away in Klebang, my father and mother are separated..."*

Lack of Quality Time

Parents who are pre-occupied with work to maintain their families are often seen as failing to provide desired attention and love. Many parents admit such inadequacies but also claim that it is inevitable. There are also single parents who strive to support their family in order to increase their income.

> *"I work at a restaurant; if I start at 6 am, and go home at 5pm, I am ok. But at night I would take OT. It depends on the tauke. He'd say, Ana (pseudonym), would you like to come back for OT at 10 tonight?"*

Nevertheless, parents who are pre-occupied with work have limited time to be with their children and are prone to neglecting them. The time apportioned for work diminishes the quality time with respondent. This factor greatly influences runaways or missing children. A single parent has admitted of below scenario and reported that his child was missing when he was working.

> *"Hmm...the child ran away when nobody was at home. Sometimes at 7 or 8 pm I'll be stuck in traffic jam and don't arrive home until 9:15 or 10 pm...When I come home, the child is asleep...sometimes I don't see her at all, as I usually leave for work at 5am."*

Driven Away from Home

Children who run away from home admit that they have been driven away from the house either consciously or unconsciously when their parents are angry at them. In this situation, it is very difficult for children to express their inner-feelings due to apprehension of their parents' reaction. In fact, a majority of respondents have nodded and said a few words acknowledging that they have been kicked out of their homes. Research findings also show conflicting information about the frequency of children being kicked out of their homes. Most respondents admit to having thrown out of their homes more often as opposed to information divulged by parents. It shows that, at times, angry parents are not conscious of the words they use and insinuate that their child should leave home. Nevertheless, the inappropriate words and improper insinuation extremely affect children that it may cause them considering leaving homes.

Physical and Emotional Abuse

Research findings from the interviews unearth facts that some runaway children have been frequently scolded and physically abused by their parents. There are cases where parents chastise and severely scold their children. Below excerpt shows how a mother shares her sadness when she reveals that her husband always humiliates her child.

> *"sometimes I stay at home, I tell her no matter how much he scolds you, he loves you, he does not hate you. You try to soften his heart, she says yes, I asked papa: where are you going? He replied I am going to kill myself. Do you want to follow me? How? If I ask him if he has taken a bath, or if I tell him that your child wants to accompany you, wants to be with you, wants your affection but once you tell her that, how would you feel? I hate it when my child asks her father where he is going and he says that he wants to kill himself and asks the child to follow him. Would you follow? How is that? Once a parent says that, you just stop asking. Why would you ask further? Die...die..." (Mother).*

In a more dire situation, children are abused physically. It provides an impetus for them to leave home. Below excerpt demonstrates an experience of a child who has been abused by family members.

> *"I fight with my family...when he (father) comes, he would slap me. What is that? I don't know how to control my emotions. I hardly acknowledge him anymore...I am so vengeful now...I cannot think about it anymore...I don't want to see his face anymore."*

A father of a respondent relate that his child runs away from home due to constant beating from his second wife or the step mother of the respondent.

"I divorced with the first mother... the second wife, the step-mother is always physically abusing him..that is the only thing he can remember... being beaten, being beaten...he cannot remember anything else..." (Father).

Unfulfilled Wishes

Economic hardship requires both parents to sacrifice their time in order to provide for their children. Ironically, children are not sensitive to their parents' feelings and are often inconsiderate of the hardship that their parents have to endure. All they care about is to have their own needs fulfilled.

Researcher : *You mean if you are given a computer, you wouldn't run away?*

Respondent : *If I have one.*

Researcher : *Any other reasons?*

Respondent : *No, that is it. Em.. bicycle, because it is too expensive. Because the Picci or nada jaguar, 300, is quite expensive. The computer is also expensive. About 2000. But my father cannot afford to buy.*

Lack of Parental Attention

Based on the interviews conducted with parents, researchers find that most parents are busy with their work that they are unaware of the type of friends their children mix with and ignorant of activities they do. When parents are asked about the whereabout of their children and the identity of their friends, most parents are either unaware or uncertain. In light of overwhelming work, children of busy parents are left undersupervised. At the same time, parents lack control over their children. The children do not feel the necessity to return home on time as their parents do not question of their whereabouts or unaware of their routine considering they are busy working. Most children in this situation may not want to run away from home directly. However, they refuse to go home as they have more fun with their friends and assume that their parents have no objections with such behavior.

DISCUSSION

Dysfunctional Family (Divorce and Conflict)

Research findings conclude that the main reason children run away from home is dysfunctional family. Broken homes are caused by either conflict or divorce which dismantles the family unit. Weaknesses in the family structure impact a child's decision to run away from home. In addition, previous research also shows that children who live with single parents have higher probability to run away from home compared to those

who live with biological parents (Sanchez *et. al*., 2006).

Findings from this research prove that conflicts in a household distress a child to the point that he or she runs away from home. Children need adults who understand what they are going through and able to take care of their welfare. Children who witness fights between parents are often traumatised and choose to avoid it. Some children even think that running away from home will stop their parents from continue fighting. In general, runaway children act irrationally and fail to manage their emotions or do not find someone to talk to. Such highly pressurized situation causes children to run away without thinking about the consequences of their actions. Children who are constantly exposed to conflicts and often witness fights are hurt emotionally. Usually they will end up with low self-esteem and susceptible to antisocial behavior, according to Siegel *et al*. (2006).

Parenting Styles

This research also concludes that parental style is another factor which influences a child to run away from home, as stated by McGarvey *et al*. (2010). Parenting styles cause many disruptions that are found in terms of familial relationship such as interruptions in affection, distrust between parents, children and other family members.

Parenting styles can be defined as efforts by parents to demonstrate their way as good and positive parents. This style is greatly influenced by family history, culture and communal values. Parental style is manifested through body language, intonation, emotions and the quality of attention (Benson & Haith, 2009). It combines emotional environment, including parents' communication towards attitude and action of their children in their daily activities. Unsuitable parenting style will distress children. Children, subsequently will form a negative perception towards their parents and will in all probability carry this resentment into adulthood.

Parents focusing on discipline without affection, authoritarian parents, are more susceptible to having runaway children. Prolonged and continuous punishment, inappropriate strictness on the child's behavior at home and lack of parental supervision are major determinants of child runaways (Achakzai, 2011). Children who have authoritarian parents are more prone to run away from home compared to other types of parenting style (Matchinda, 1999; McGarvey *et al*., 2010). Physically abused children are found to have high anxiety, feel unloved, have negative thoughts and discomfort (Burnett, 1993). Authoritarian parenting style cause children to assume that parents do not care about their feelings or their needs. Hence, they seek attention from others rather than those of their family.

In some cases of this research, children are determined to run away due to constant physical or emotional abuse from their parents or caregivers. Research from Springer (2001) and Kingree *et al*. (2001) discover that children run away from home to escape physical abuse. Physical abuse that stems from breaking household rules

causes children to feel that their parents do not understand them. Severe and prolonged physical punishment leaves an emotional scar. Apart from that, children question their parents' love and prefer acquiring love elsewhere by running away from home.

Children feel unsafe, assume that their parents do not support or understand their feelings when they are physically abused (Milburn *et al.*, 2006). They feel that situations will be exacerbated if they continue to live at home, in spite of what the future holds outside of their home. Traumatised children despise abusive parents and run away from home to avoid them.

Permissive parents also have the risk of having their children running away from home. There are two types of permissive style of parenting. One is permissive indulgence and the other is permissive neglectful. Permissive indulgent parents have very little control of their children and allow them to indulge in unsupervised activities. Children are spoiled and rarely reprimanded. Parents assume that children are still young and do not need to be disciplined. Such assumptions convey wrong message to children. The children perceive that their actions are correct and acceptable. Apart from that, children also misunderstand the rationale of parents spending so much time working. Children of working parents lack supervision and control. This type of parenting style is permissive-neglectful. Due to work commitment, parents rarely have time to learn their children's routine. As a result, children do not feel responsible or concerned enough to be home on time. At the same time, children feel underloved and neglected and choose to be close to their friends rather than their families.

Family's Economic Standing

In addition, this research findings also show that a family's financial standing also influences a child to run away from home. Sigelman and Rider (2012) find that poverty and dismal financial standing in a household brings negative impact on mental health to those who do not approve of parenting style; hence, affects child development and relationship quality. Parents with low economic status always limit and restrict material things (Sigelman & Rider, 2012). Hence, parents are more prone to be helpless in granting a child's request or demand and rarely capable of materially rewarding the his or her positive behavior., According to Tyler and Bersani (2008), children from low income group are prone to running away in order to fulfill their material needs. Similar to other children, these children from low income group also have their own material needs. They feel that staying at home does not help them in fulfilling their needs. Thus, they resort to running away to have these needs fulfilled by their friends or others.

Children and teenagers of today are internet savvy. Many of their wants are technologically inclined as exemplified by the cases researched. Khadijah *et al.* (2012) points out that the trend among male runaway children in Malaysia are due to their interest in cyber cafes. Considering that their homes lack internet or computers, these

children look for other avenues to fulfill their needs. Children are quite egocentric that they are quite selfish about their own needs and are not considerate of the needs of others. (Windschitl *et al.*, 2008). A child fails to consider the opinion of others or other relevant facts when he or she pays more attention to his or her own needs and desires. He or she only wants his or her needs to be fulfilled (Windschitl *et al.*, 2008).

Efforts to fulfill chilren's various demands possibly will have a psychological impact on parents. It might cause parents to become stricter and apply inconsistent disciplinary measures. The situation is exacerbated when parents have to work overtime or take additional jobs to make ends meet. Children feel that they are not given attention and underloved. These situations empower children and allows them to follow their instincts. Thus, making them extremely vulnerable and easily influenced by friends. For some reasons, running away from home empowers them and gives them unbridled freedom. They have the freedom to do whatever they desire with their friends. No more being restricted as compared to staying at home.

Policy Implication

A policy related to family development such as National Social Policy must be fully utilized. It shall ensure the availability of a support system to assist families to function at optimal level in a socially controlled system. The family must strive and be prepared to provide support to these children. Therefore, programs propagating

appropriate parenting styles to suit the children's characters must be introduced and implemented. Apart from that, households must be immersed with values and religion must be allowed to take a central role in the family. In addition, households must inculcate moral values and religion as the basic foundation in the family. Activities related to technologies must be established in the outskirts of cities and in lower-economic residence to allow those under-privileged children to enjoy the same internet-related facilities.

CONCLUSION

All factors related to family must be discussed and addressed as a family is one of the causes of children to run away. A family unit is crucial to the cognitive, moral and emotional development of a child. It is imperative that a child receives familial love and care from birth to ensure that he or she is well taken care of and provided with positive social education. It shall minimize the influence effect of external factors to the child. Realistic intervention must be provided to children and parents involved

REFERENCES

Achakzai, J. K. (2011). Causes and effects of runaway children crisis: Evidence from Balochistan. *Pakistan Economic and Social Review, 49(2)*, 211-230.

Benson, J. B., & Haith, M. M. (2009). *Social and emotional development in infancy and early childhood.* San Diego, CA: Elsevier.

Burnett, B. B. (1993). The psychological abuse of latency age children: A survey. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, *17*(4), 441-454.

Farrow, J., Deisher, R., Brown, R., Kulig, J., & Kipke, M. (1992). Health and health needs of homeless and runaway youth. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 13*, 717–726.

Ferguson, K., & Islam, N. (2008). Conceptualizing outcomes with street-living young adults: Grounded theory approach to evaluating the social enterprise intervention. *Qualitative Social Work: Research and Practice*, *7*(2), 217-237.

Flowers, R. B. (2001). *Runaway kids and teenage prostitution: America's lost, abandoned, and sexually exploited children*. USA: Praeger Publishers.

Khadijah Alavi, Mohd Suhaimi Mohamad, Salina Nen, Fauziah Ibrahim, Suzana Mohd Hoesni, & Lukman Zawawi. (2013). *Meneroka pengalaman kanak-kanak hilang & dijumpai semula di Malaysia: Ke arah pembentukan strategi intervensi dan perlindungan.* Laporan Akhir Geran UKM-Komuniti 2011-041. Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Selangor.

Kigree, J. B., Braithwaite, R., & Wooding, T. (2001). Psychosocial and behavioral problems in relation to recent experience as runaway among adolescent detainee. *Criminal Justice & Behavior, 28*(2), 190-205.

Kipke, M., Palmer, R., LaFrance, S., & O'Connor, S. (1997). Homeless youths' descriptions of their parents' child-rearing practices. *Youth & Society*, *28*, 415–431.

Matchinda, B. (1999). The impact of home background on the decision of children to run away: The case of Yaounde City street children in Cameroon. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 23*(3), 245-255.

McGarvey, E., Keller. A., Brown, G. L., DeLonga, K., Miller, A. G., Rungge, R. S., & Koopman (2010). Parental bonding styles in relation to adolescent males' runaway behavior. *The Family Journal, 18*, 18-23

Milburn, N. G., Ayala, G., Rice, E., Batterham, P., & Rotheram-Borus, M. J. (2006). Discrimination and existing homelessness among homeless adolescents. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 12*, 658-672.

Nen, S., Alavi, K., Ibrahim, F., Hoesni, S. M., Mohamad, M. S., & Sarnon, N. (2012). Missing children and parents struggle: From chaos to coping. Paper presented at ICOSH, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Bangi.

Peled, E., & Cohavi, A. (2009) The meaning of running away for girls. *Child Abuse & Neglected, 33*(10), 739-749. doi: 10.1016/j.chiabu.2007.04.018.

Rees, G., & Lee, J. (2005). Still running 2: Findings from the Second National Survey of Young Runaways. London: The Children's Society.

Riley, D. B., Greif, G. L., & Caplan. D. L. (2004). Common themes and treatment approaches in working with families of runaway youths. *The American Journal of Family Therapy*, *32*, 139–153.

Sanchez, R., Waller, M., & Greene, J. (2006). Who runs? A demographic profile of runaway youth in the United States. *Journal Of Adolescent Health, 39*(5), 778-781.

Schaffner, L. (1998). Sharing for connection: A new look at teenaged runaway. *Adolescent 33(31)*, 619-628.

Sedlak, A. J., Finkelhor, D., Hammer, H., & Schultz, D. J. (2002). National estimates of missing children: An overview. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice.

Siegel, L. J., Welsh, B., & Senna, J. J. (2006). *Juvenile delinquency: Theory, practice, and law*. Belmont, CA: Thomson/Wadsworth.

Siegelman, C. K., & Rider, A. E. (2011). *Life span human development*. (7th. Ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth, Cengage Learning.

Springer, D. W. (2001). Runaway adolescents: Today's Huckleberry Finn crisis. *Brief Treatment and Crisis Intervention, 1*, 131-151.

Tyler, K. A., & Bersani, B. E. (2008). A longitudinal study of early adolescent precursor to running away. *The Journal of Early Adolescent, 28*(2), 230-251.

Whitbeck, L., & Hoyt, D. (1999). *Nowhere to grow: Homeless and runaway adolescents and their families*. Chicago, IL: Aldine.

Windschitl, P. D., Rose, J. P., Stalkfleet, M. T., & Smith, A. R. (2008). Are people excessive or judicious in their egocentrism? A modeling approach to understanding bias and accuracy in people's optimism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 95*(2), 253-273. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.95.2.253

Zastrow, C., & Kirst-Ashman, K. K. (2010). *Understanding human behavior and the social environment*. Belmont, CA: Brooks/Cole Cengage Learning.

Structural Relations Between Personality Traits, Coping Strategy, Social Support and Well-Being Among Adolescents

Wan Shahrazad Wan Sulaiman*, Nor Ba'yah Abdul Kadir, Fatimah Wati Halim, Fatimah Omar, Rabiah Abdul Latiff and Wan Samhanin Wan Sulaiman

School of Psychology and Human Development, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

The transition process from familiar surroundings to new places may overtax adolescents' capacity to maintain their well-being. The goal of this study is to test the conceptual model of adolescents' well-being. This model examines the predictors of well-being among adolescents comprise of individual factors of personality traits, coping strategy and social support. These variables will predict the criterion of well-being which is measured by three variables: positive affect, negative affect and life satisfaction. This research employs survey method to 315 adolescents between the ages of 18 to 21 years old. Five standard psychological tests are administered to the respondents. The tests include the adapted NEO Five Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI), Brief Cope, Social Support Behaviors Scale (SSB), Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS) and Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS). Data are analyzed using descriptive analyses, correlation and structural equation modeling (SEM). The results of structural equation modeling show that the data have goodness-of-fit with the model. Thus, validating the model of adolescents' well-being. The results also show that there are significant relationships between personality traits and coping strategy, personality traits and social support, coping strategy and well-being, and social support with well-being. In addition, both coping strategy and social support significantly mediate the relationship between personality traits and well-being.

INTRODUCTION

Adolescence is an important developmental stage for every individual as it is a transition period from childhood to adulthood. It is

the one stage most marked by rapid and tumultuous transition (Cook & Furstenberg, 2002). Furthermore, adolescence is described as a time of "storm and stress" due to the rapid changes in physical and emotional development which can lead to conflicts between adolescents and authority figures. While the transition is inevitable, the speed and magnitude of these changes overtax the capacity for many young people to cope (Davis, 2003; Jessor, 1993). In the course of these physical, cognitive and emotional developmental processes, these individual differences may influence the psychological well-being of adolescents.

The period of transition from familiar surroundings of home and school to the new environment of college may influence the adjustment process such as homesickness, social anxiety (Urani *et al.*, 2003), increased use of alcohol (Economos *et al.*, 2008), symptoms of depression (Schroevers *et al.*, 2007), anxiety and absent-mindedness (Fisher & Hood, 1987). The role of family and parents must still be fostered although the process of transition to college lead adolescents to form relationships and rely more on their peer groups. As such, adolescents still need the social support from family and peers even when they move towards achieving independence in adulthood. Most likely, young people talk to friends or family members as the first step of seeking support (Rickwood *et al.*, 2005). Having strong social support from family and peers is a major component in effective coping strategy. Therefore, securely attached individuals who possess

strong social support indirectly will also have good coping strategy. Sarason *et al.* (1987) discovers that individuals that are accepted, loved and involved in open-communication relationships are found to be less depressed or lonely and more satisfied with current relationships as compared to those who are less fortunate in acceptance, love and communication. The research further states that people with high levels of social support have low anxiety levels, high positive self-concepts, and possess beliefs in their own ability to control aspects of their environment (Sarason *et al.*, 1983).

Seiffge-Krenke (1990) and Wrzesniewski and Chylinska (2007) studies find that adolescents aged between 15-19 years consistently use various coping strategies. Many studies have confirmed the importance of personality traits in stress and coping processes (Bolger, 1990; Bolger & Zuckerman, 1995; Ferguson, 2001; Leandro & Castillo, 2010). Personality traits and coping strategies have been found as two significant factors affecting subjective well-being (Malkoc, 2011). These findings support McCrae and Costa (1996) proposition that connect the five factor personality model with coping responses. Lazarus (1999) also proposes that a certain personality trait may affect coping thoughts and behaviours in situations which are salient and relevant to the trait.

Effective coping strategy is found to be related to psychological distress such as depression, anxiety, hopelessness, anger, and interpersonal distress (Heppner & Lee, 2002). In other words, when individuals

think that they are unable to cope with problems effectively, they tend to become depressed, anxious, hopeless, and angry. These emotions indicate that individuals using ineffective coping strategy may experience more negative emotions as compared to individuals using effective coping strategy. In addition, it also indicates the relationship between ineffective coping strategy with personality characteristics of individuals. Wei *et al*. (2003) states that persons who perceive themselves as ineffective problem solvers report themselves to be more interpersonally sensitive, less trusting of other people, more socially anxious, and less interpersonally assertive and engage in less social support.

One of the most robust findings in the literature on affect and personality is the strong correlation between dispositional global positive affect and the Big Five factor Extraversion (e.g., Costa & McCrae, 1980; Gross *et al*., 1998; John, 1990; Larsen & Ketelaar, 1989; McCrae & John, 1992; Watson & Clark, 1997). Extraversion scores predict frequency and intensity of felt positive emotion, as well as reactivity to positive feedback (Larsen & Ketelaar, 1989; Meyer & Shack, 1989; Watson & Clark, 1997).

A relationship between affect and personality has been predicted from a number of theoretical perspectives, including emotion and temperament theories (e.g., Goldsmith & Campos, 1982) and personality disposition theories (e.g., Costa & McCrae, 1980; Watson & Clark, 1984). In Western studies, two of the Big Five

dimensions of personality, Extraversion and Neuroticism, have been linked consistently to the experience of PA and NA, respectively (Costa & McCrae, 1980; McCrae & Costa, 1991; Watson & Clark, 1992). The few researchers who have related the remaining Big Five dimensions to affect have tended to find that Agreeableness and Conscientiousness are correlated positively with PA and negatively with NA and that Openness to Experience is positively associated with PA but associated in a less consistent manner, if at all, with NA (McCrae & Costa, 1991; Watson & Clark, 1992).

As evidenced from the relationship among the variables of personality, social support, coping strategy and well-being, the study is detrimental in assessing these relationship patterns in order to ascertain that a fully adjusted adolescent can develop into a healthy adult. It is due to the longitudinal impact of mental health problems in adolescence that may be pervasive including disrupted and problematic relationships (Boden *et al*., 2008), future negative mental health outcomes, higher welfare dependence (Fergusson *et al*., 2007), reduced workforce participation, lower income and lower economic living standards (Gibb *et al*., 2010).

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This research aims at testing the conceptual model of adolescents' well-being that examines the interrelationships between four variables. Thus, the main objectives of this research are:

1. examining the direct relationship between personality traits with social support and coping strategy;

2. examining the direct relationship between social support and coping strategy with well-being that includes positive and negative affect and life satisfaction); and

3. testing the model of adolescents' well-being based on the interrelationships among all the variables.

METHOD

Respondents

The respondents include 315 participants aged between 18 to 21 years old (Mean=19.11, SD=1.48). These respondents have been recruited from three community colleges in Klang valley, Malaysia. They are segregated in their respective classes and informed about the research. The participation is voluntary. In fact, most of the students have agreed to participate. The researchers distribute the questionnaires to the students. The students are informed that all responses shall be anonymous and treated confidential. Subsequently, they are requested to answer the questionnaires. They are given 45 minutes to 1 hour to complete the questionnaires. A total of 348 questionnaires have been distributed. Only 33 questionnaires are eliminated due to incomplete answers. The sample comprises of 95 students from Selayang Community College, 82 students from Hulu Selangor Community College and 138 students from Hulu Langat Community College.

Participants include 185 male and 130 female participants. The data collection takes 3 months to complete, that is from June to August 2012. Ethical approval is obtained by approval of grant from Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia. The data collection process adheres to ethics of research as recommended by APA such as assuring confidentiality, maintaining anonymity and securing consent from respondents.

Research Instruments

This study contains four variables such as personality traits, coping strategy, social support, and well-being. They were measured by the adapted NEO Five Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI), Brief COPE, the Social Support Behavior Scale (SSB), the Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS) and the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS). In addition, participants are asked to fill out some demographic information.

i. The NEO Five Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI).

The adapted NEO Five Factor Inventory is used to measure personality traits. There are five dimensions measured which are neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness and conscientiousness. The inventory is a self-report questionnaire using a 5-point Likert scale. It consists of 60 items.

ii. The Brief COPE is used to measure various dimensions of coping strategy. This research employs the brief

version consisting of 28 items and 14 dimensions.

iii. The Social Support Behaviors Scale (SSB)

The Social Support Behaviors Scale (SSB) is used to measure social support. The original SSB is a 45-item instrument designed to measure social support. However, in this study we use the short form of SSB which consists of 23 items. The five dimensions measured in this scale are emotional, socializing, financial assistance, practical assistance, and advice/guidance. The SSB is rated separately for family and friends. The scale uses a 5-point Likert scale with 1 = no one would do this, 2 = someone might do this, 3 = some family members/friends would probably do this, 4 = some family members/friends would certainly do this and 5 = most family members/friends would certainly do this. The SSB has a very good internal consistency with Cronbach Alphas exceeding .85 for several college samples (Vaux & Riedel, 1987). In a study conducted in Malaysia, Md. Aris Safree and Mariam Adawiah (2010) report that coefficient alpha values of .89 for social support from family, and .79 for social support from friends.

iv. The Positive Affect and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS).

This scale contains of 10 items measuring positive affect and 10 items measuring negative affect. Although high correlation is found with components of subjective well-being scales (such as positive affect, negative affect and life satisfaction), this inventory is able to discriminate life satisfaction from affect through moderate correlation with positive affect (r= 0.43) and negative affect (r= -0.27) (PANAS).

v. The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS)

The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) was developed by Diener (1984) and consisted five statements measuring general life satisfaction. Respondents were asked to rate the items using a 7-point scale with 1 =strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 =slightly agree, 6 =agree, 7 =strongly agree. Reliability as reported by Diener *et al*. (1985) showed that the two-month test-retest correlation coefficient was .82, and coefficient alpha was .87 indicating that the SWLS has desirable psychometric properties.

RESULTS

SPSS version 19 is used to analyze data. Respondents' demographic profile is presented in Table 1. Based on illustration from Table 1 , a total of 185 respondents (58.7%) are male and another 130 respondents (41.3%) are female. A total of 110 respondents (34.9%) are 18 years old, 66 respondents (21.0%) are 19 years old, 113 respondents (35.9%) are 20 years old, and 26 respondents (8.3%) are 21 years

old. Majority of the respondents are Malays (86.7%), 2.9% respondents are Chinese, 10.2% are Indian, and 0.3% are of other ethnicity.

Relationship between Personality Traits with Social Support and Coping Strategy

Table 2 presents the results of correlation among the variables. The findings show that problem focused coping strategy are significantly correlated with neuroticism, extraversion, openness and conscientiousness but not with agreeableness. Avoidance coping strategy is positively and significantly correlated with neuroticism, and negatively and significantly correlated with agreeableness. However, no significant correlation is found between avoidance coping strategy with extraversion, openness and conscientiousness. Family social support is only significantly correlated with extraversion and conscientiousness but not with neuroticism, openness and agreeableness. Peer social support is also significantly correlated with extraversion and conscientiousness but not with neuroticism, openness and agreeableness.

Relationship between Social Support and Coping Strategy with Well-being

Table 2 also shows the results between social support, coping strategy and well-being. The results indicate that there are significant correlations between family social support with positive affect and life satisfaction. However, there is no significant correlation observed between family social support and negative affect. The same pattern of results is obtained for peer social support with significant correlations between peer social support with positive affect and life satisfaction. While, no significant correlation s obtained with negative affect. Problem-focused

TABLE 1
Respondents' Demographic Profile

Demographic		Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	185	58.7
	Female	130	41.3
Institution	Kolej Komuniti Hulu Langat	138	43.8
	Kolej Komuniti Hulu Selangor	82	26.0
	Kolej Komuniti Selayang	95	30.2
Age	18 yrs	110	34.9
	19 yrs	66	21.0
	20 yrs	113	35.9
	21 yrs	26	8.3
Ethnicity	Malay	273	86.7
	Chinese	9	2.9
	Indian	32	10.2
	Others	1	0.3

TABLE 2
Correlations Among Personality Traits, Social Support, Coping Strategy And Well-Being

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Neuroticism (1)	-											
Extraversion (2)	-.093	-										
Openness (3)	.046	.300**	-									
Agreeableness (4)	-.247**	-.001	-.028	-								
Conscientiousness (5)	-.164**	.426**	.445**	.222**	-							
Problem (6)	.150**	.171**	.251**	.108	.372**	-						
Avoidance (7)	.331**	.016	.101	-.150**	-.095	.306**	-					
Family (8)	.044	.119*	.036	.062	.164**	.281**	.090	-				
Peer (9)	.028	.147**	.041	.057	.136*	.230**	.081	.436**	-			
PA (10)	-.073	.340**	.264**	-.059	.335**	.279**	.091	.255**	.168**	-		
NA (11)	.452**	-.068	.037	-.088	-.057	.166**	.382**	.090	.073	.155**	-	
Life (12)	-.126**	.153**	.239**	-.005	.265**	.148**	.013	.183**	.147**	.276**	-.138*	-

**p<0.01, *p<0.05

coping strategy is significantly correlated with positive affect, negative affect and life satisfaction. On the other hand, avoidance coping strategy is significantly correlated with negative affect. While, no significant correlations is recorded with positive affect and life satisfaction.

Testing the Model of Personality-Well-being Among Adolescents

Subsequently, we test the model of adolescents' well-being using structural equation modeling. The predictors specified in this model are the five traits of personality, problem focused and avoidance coping strategies, family and peer social support. While, the criteria or outcome is well-being with the indicators of positive affect, negative affect and life satisfaction. The results show that the model has good fit data with χ^2=199.64, p<0.0001, CMIN/df=4.34, GFI=0.90 and RMSEA-0.10. The goodness of fit indices of CMIN/df, GFI and RMSEA fulfill the requirements of a good fit model as recommended by Hair *et al*. (2006).

Next, we analyse the results of standardized regression weights of each path to determine the direct and indirect effects of the predictors towards the outcome variable. The results show that the path coefficient between personality traits and coping strategy is significant with β=0.49, p<0.05. There is also significant path coefficient between personality traits and social support with β=0.36, p<0.05. In addition, there is significant path coefficient between coping strategy and well-being with β=0.36, p<0.05. Finally, the results also show

significant path coefficient between social support and well-being with β=0.42, p<0.05.

Apart from that, we examine the role of coping strategy and social support as mediator variables in the relationship between personality traits and well-being. This index is calculated by using the Hair *et al*. (2006) recommendation; that is, by multiplying the path coefficient of personality traits and coping strategy and coping strategy and well-being (0.49 x 0.36=0.18). The result of indirect effect of 0.18 is deemed important mediator effect as recommended by Hair *et al*. (2006). The role of social support is also important with indirect effect of 0.15 (0.36 x 0.42=0.15). Therefore, both coping strategy and social support are significant variables that mediate between personality and well-being. In addition, all the predictors of personality traits, coping strategy and social support contribute 36% variance towards adolescents' well-being.

DISCUSSION

Neuroticism trait is significantly correlated with problem-focused coping strategy and avoidance coping strategy. It means that individuals with emotional instability trait will become more anxious when they use problem focused coping strategy. In addition, these types of people become more emotionally unstable when they use avoidance coping strategy. This is consistent with Wei *et al*.'s (2003) statement that persons who perceive themselves as ineffective problem solvers report themselves to be more interpersonally sensitive, less trusting
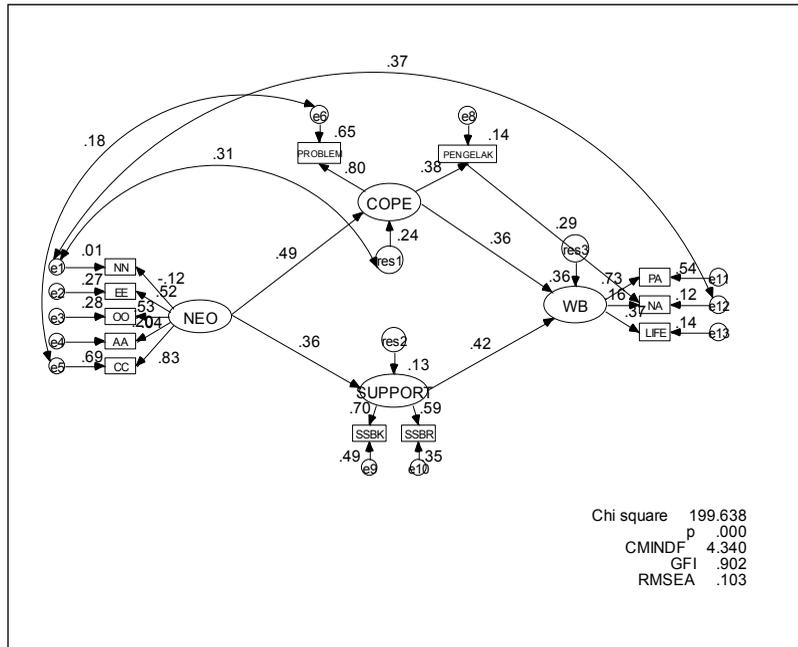
Fig.1: Results Of Adolescents' Well-Being Model

Note:	CC=Conscientiousness;	SSBR=Peer social support;
NN=Neuroticism;	Problem=Problem-focused	PA=Positive affect;
EE=Extraversion;	coping;	NA=Negative affect; and
OO=Openness;	Pengelak=Avoidance coping;	Life=Life satisfaction.
AA=Agreeableness;	SSBK=Family social support;	

of other people and more socially anxious. Moodiness, anxiety, and depression reflect higher neuroticism. Neuroticism has also been linked to the avoidance temperament (Caspi & Shiner 2006; Caspi *et al*., 2005; Evans & Rothbart, 2007). It suggests that anxiety and sensitivity to threat is indeed its emotional core.

On the other hand, extroverts, open and conscientious individuals tend to use more problem-focused coping which is an effective coping strategy. This is supported by the notion that extraversion, conscientiousness, and openness are all relate to perceiving events as challenges rather than threats and to positive appraisals

of coping resources (Penley & Tomaka, 2002; Vollrath, 2001). In addition, findings also show that agreeableness is negatively and significantly correlated with avoidance coping. It means that the higher scores on agreeableness, the lower scores that individuals acquire in avoidance coping. In other words, less agreeable people tend to use more avoidance coping. Agreeable people are friendly and helpful (John & Srivastava, 1999), empathic (Graziano *et al*., 2007), and able to inhibit their negative feelings (Graziano & Eisenberg 1999).

The findings also indicate that only extraversion and conscientiousness traits are significantly correlated with family

social support and peer social support. This is consistent with the traits of extroverts which is often thought of as implying sociability (Ashton *et al*., 2002). It means that extroverts constantly seek relationship and support from others. In particular, extrovert adolescents constantly need support from family and their peers. In addition, conscientious adolescents, characterized by their qualities of planning, persistence, and purposeful striving toward goals (Digman & Inouye, 1986), always seek social support in achieving their goals.

Adolescents who perceive that they receive social support from their families and peers have positive affect and high life satisfaction. At the same time, they experience no negative affect. It means that maintaining strong social support can increase the well-being of adolescents in terms of their positive emotions and life satisfaction. This is consistent with Rickwood *et al*. (2005) study that states young people are most likely to talk to friends or family members as the first step in seeking support. The findings of the current study also support Sarason *et al*.'s (1987) findings that indicate individuals that are accepted, loved and involved in open-communication relationships are found to be less depressed or lonely, more satisfied with current relationships, possess low anxiety levels, positive self-concepts, and a belief in their own ability to control aspects of their environment (Sarason *et al*., 1983).

In addition, adolescents using effective coping strategy such as problem-focused coping have higher scores in positive affect and life satisfaction. In contrast, those using ineffective coping strategy such as avoidance coping experience more negative affect. This is consistent with Malkoc's (2011) findings that affirm personality traits and coping strategies have been discovered as two significant factors affecting subjective well-being.

The results show that all personality traits are significant predictors with conscientiousness showing the strongest loading. It is followed by openness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism. They significantly predict effective coping strategy used by adolescents. Problem focused coping strategy is preferred to avoidance coping strategy. These effective coping strategies in turn, influence the positive well-being experienced by adolescents. They report that they have higher positive affect and life satisfaction.

In addition, the personality traits also significantly predict social support received from family and peer groups. Although were experiencing, Family social support is deemed to be more important as compared to peer social support even though adolescents experience separation as a result of adjusting to college life. The strong social support received from family and peer groups predict the well-being of adolescents with higher experiences of positive affect and life satisfaction. Both coping strategy and social support are significant mediators in the relationship between personality traits and well-being of adolescents. In other words, in order for adolescents to experience well-being, they need to get strong social

support and use appropriate coping strategy together with having strong personality traits of conscientiousness, openness and extraversion.

CONCLUSION

These findings give important implications in the understanding of adolescents' well-being. Well-adjusted adolescents are those with personality traits of conscientiousness, extraversion, openness, agreeableness and emotional stability. They also employ more problem focused coping strategy when confronted with problems. Family and friends must also provide adolescents with strong social support to enable them to experience positive emotions and satisfaction in their lives. The results provide an important profile of well-adjusted adolescents. The knowledge of these characteristics shall enable us to monitor their well-being. It might assist us in helping less fortunate adolescents such as juvenile delinquents, young offenders and runaways. These groups of individuals may not know what the appropriate coping strategies to be used are and may not receive adequate social support. These groups of individuals may not even know about appropriate coping strategies and may not receive adequate social support. As such, psychologists, counsellors and social workers may use these findings in intervention programs to develop well-adjusted adolescents.

REFERENCES

Ashton, M. C., Lee, K., & Paunonen, S. V. (2002). What is the central feature of extraversion? Social attention versus reward sensitivity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 83*, 245–52.

Boden, J. M., Fergusson, D. M., & Horwood, L. J. (2008). Early motherhood and subsequent life outcomes. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 49*(2), 151-160.

Bolger, N. (1990). Coping as a personality process: A prospective study. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 59*, 525–37.

Bolger, N., & Zuckerman, A. (1995). A framework for studying personality in the stress process. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 69*, 890–902.

Caspi, A., Roberts, B. W., & Shiner, R. L. (2005). Personality development: Stability and change. *Annual Review of Psychology, 56*, 453–84.

Caspi, A., & Shiner, R.L. (2006). Personality development. In W. Damon, R. Lerner, & N. Eisenberg (Eds.), *Handbook of Child Psychology, Vol. 3. Social, Emotional, and Personality Development*, pp. 300–65. New York: Wiley.

Cook, T., & Furstenberg, F. (2002). Explaining aspects of the transition to adulthood in Italy, Sweden, Germany, and the United States: A cross-

disciplinary, case synthesis approach. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science,* 580, 257-287.

Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1980). Influence of extraversion and neuroticism on subjective well-being: Happy and unhappy people. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 38, 668–678.

Davis, M. (2003). Addressing the needs of youth in transition to adulthood. *Administration and Policy in Mental Health*, 30, 495-509.

Diener, E. (1984). Subjective well-being. *Psychological Bulletin*, 93, 542-575.

Diener, E., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffen, S. (1985). The Satisfaction With Life Scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 49, 71-75.

Digman, J. M., & Inouye, J. (1986). Further specification of the five robust factors of personality. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 50, 116–23.

Economos, C. D., Hildebrandt, M. L., & Hyatt, R. R. (2008). College freshman stress and weight change: Differences by gender. *American Journal of Health Behavior*, 32(1), 16-25.

Evans, D. E., & Rothbart, M. K. (2007). Developing a model for adult temperament. *Journal of Research in Personality,* 41, 868–888.

Ferguson, E. (2001). Personality and coping traits: A joint factor analysis. *British Journal of Health Psychology*, 6, 311–325.

Fergusson, D. M., Boden, J. M., & Horwood, L. J. (2007). Recurrence of major depression in adolescence and early adulthood and later mental health, educational and economic outcomes. *The British Journal of Psychiatry, 191*, 335-342.

Fisher, S., & Hood, B. (1987). The stress of the transition to university: A longitudinal study of psychological disturbance, absent-mindedness, and vulnerability to homesickness. *British Journal of Psychology*, 78, 425–441.

Gibb, S. J., Fergusson, D. M., & Horwood, L. J., (2010). Burden of psychiatric disorder in young adulthood and life outcomes at age 30. *British Journal of Psychiatry,* 197, 122-127.

Graziano, W. G., & Eisenberg, N. H. (1999). Agreeableness as a dimension of personality. In R. Hogan, J. Johnson, & S. Briggs (Eds.), *Handbook of Personality*, pp. 795–825. San Diego, CA: Academic.

Graziano, W. G., Habashi, M. M., Sheese, B. E., & Tobin, R. M. (2007). Agreeableness, empathy, and helping: A person X situation perspective. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 93, 583–99.

Gross, J. J., Sutton, S. K., & Ketelaar, T. (1998). Relations between affect and personality: Support for the affect-level and affective-reactivity views. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 24, 279.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E. & Tatham, R. L. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis*. (6th Ed.). New Jersey: Pearson Education, Inc.

Heppner, P. P., & Lee, D. (2002). Problem-solving appraisal and psychological adjustment. In C. R. Snyder & S. J. Lopez (Eds.), *Handbook ofpositive psychology* (pp. 288–298). New York: Oxford University Press.

Jessor, R. (1993). Successful adolescent development among youth in high risk settings. *American Psychologist*, 48, 117-126.

John, O. P. (1990). The "big five" factor taxonomy: Dimensions of personality in the natural language and in questionnaires. In L. A. Pervin & O. P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* (pp. 66–100). New York: Guilford.

John, O. P., & Srivastava, S. (1999). The Big Five trait taxonomy: History, measurement, and theoretical perspectives. In L. A. Pervin & O. P. John (Eds.),

Handbook of personality: Theory and research (pp. 102–38). New York: Guilford.

Larsen, R. J., & Ketelaar, T. (1989). Extraversion, neuroticism, and susceptibility to positive and negative mood induction procedures. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *10*, 1221–1228.

Lazarus, R. S. (1999). *Stress and Emotion: A New Synthesis*. New York: Springer

Leandro, P. G., & Castillo, M. D. (2010). Coping with stress and its relationship with personality dimensions, anxiety, and depression. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 5, 1562–1573.

Malkoc, A. (2011). Big five personality traits and coping styles predict subjective well-being: A study with a Turkish Sample. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 12*, 577-581.

McCrae, R., & Costa, P. T. (1991). Adding Liebe und Arbeit: The full five-factor model and well-being. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *17(2),* 227–232.

McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T., Jr. (1996). Toward a new generation of personality theories: Theoretical contexts for the Five-Factor Model. In J. S. Wiggins (Ed.), *The Five-Factor Model of personality: Theoretical perspectives* (pp. 51–87). New York: Guilford Press.

McCrae, R. R., & John, O. P. (1992). An introduction to the five factor model of personality. *Journal of Personality*, 60, 175–216.

Meyer, G. J., & Shack, J. R. (1989). The structural convergence of mood and personality: Evidence for old and new ''directions''. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57, 691–706.

Md. Aris Safree Md Yassin & Mariam Adawiah Dzulkifli. (2010). The relationship between social support and psychological problems among students. *International Journal of Business and Social Sciences*

Penley, J. A., & Tomaka, J. (2002). Associations among the Big Five, emotional responses,

and coping with acute stress. *Personality and Individual Differences,* 32, 1215–28.

Rickwood, D., Deane, F. P., Wilson, C., & Ciarrochi, J. (2005). Young people's help-seeking for mental health problems. *Australian e-Journal for the Advancement of Mental Health, 4(3)*, 1-34.

Sarason, B.R., Shearin, E.N., Pierce, G.R., & Sarason, I.G. (1987). Interrelations of social support measures: theoretical and practical implications. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52*(4), 813-832.

Schroevers, M., Kraaij, V., & Garnefski, N. (2007). Goal disturbance, cognitive coping strategies and psychological adjustment, to different types of stressful life event. *Personality and Individual Differences, 43*, 413-423.

Seiffge-Krenke, I. (1990). Developmental processes in self-concept and coping behaviour. In H. Bosma & S. Jackson (Eds.), *Coping and self-concept in adolescence* (pp. 50-68). Heidelberg, Germany: Springer.

Urani, M. A., Miller, S. A., Johnson, J. E., & Petzel, T. P. (2003). Homesickness in socially anxious first year college students. *College Student Journal*, 37, 392–399.

Vaux, A., Riedel, S., & Stewart, D. (1987). Modes of social support: The social support behavior (SSB) scale. *American Journal of Personality*, 15, 209 – 237.

Vollrath M. 2001. Personality and stress. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology,* 42, 335–47.

Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. (1984). Negative affectivity: The disposition to experience aversive emotional states. *Psychological Bulletin*, 96(3), 465-490.

Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. (1992). Affects separable and inseparable: On the hierarchical arrangement of the negative affects. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 62, 489–505.

Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. 1997. Extraversion and its positive emotional core. In L. A. Pervin &

O. P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of Personality Psychology: Theory and research* (pp. 767–793). New York: Guilford.

Wei, M., Heppner, P., & Mallinckrodt, B. (2003). Perceiving coping as a mediator between attachment and psychological distress: a structural equation modeling approach. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 50*(4), 438-447.

Wrzesniewski, K., & Chylinska, J. (2007). Assessment of coping styles and strategies with school-related stress. *School Psychology International, 2*, 179-194.

SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES

Relationship between Achievement Motivation and Personality among Pre and Post Independence Malaysian Malays

Rohany Nasir*, Zainah Ahmad Zamani, Rozainee Khairudin, Wan Shahrazad Wan Sulaiman and Fatimah Wati Halim

School of Psychology and Human Development, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

Malaysia has undergone a lot of changes politically, socially and economically following its independence. The vast improvements in its physical developments as well as the educational and economic levels of the people contribute to the overall standard of living achieved by the country thus far. With all these developments in the country one may possibly expect some psychological changes among its people, particularly in the aspects of motivation and personality. Thus, this study ascertains the relationship between achievement motivation and personality of pre-independence and post-independence Malaysian Malays. A total of 552 Malay respondents participated in this study. 261 respondents were born before 1957 and 291 after 1957. Two instruments are used; Cassidy and Lynn Achievement Motivation Scale (CLAMS) and NEO Five Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI). The results show a significant relationship between achievement motivation and neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience and conscientiousness for the pre-independence Malaysian Malays and for the post-independence Malaysian Malays. There are significant relationships between achievement motivation and all personality types except for extraversion.

Keywords: Personality, big five personality, achievement motivation, Malaysians

INTRODUCTION

After Malaysia achieved its independence in 1957, various changes have occurred from the perspective of politics, social and economics. The vast improvements in its physical developments are somewhat parallel with the increase in the educational and economic levels of the people. To date,

it has contributed to the country's overall standard achieved. In spite of its size, Malaysia is now known practically all over the world. One may perhaps expect some psychological changes, particularly in the aspects of motivation and personality, in view of the developments in the country.

The term achievement motivation (nAch) has been defined by McClelland as 'competition with a standard of excellence'. However, various literature suggest that this is only one aspect of nAch. Clark, Varadarajan and Pride (1974) asserts that achievement motivation is a multidimensional concept defined as a competition with a standard of excellence or as the desire of people to set and realize goals for themselves. Achievement motivation has been an area of frequent research in view of its influence on criteria of interest to both practitioners and academicians. People with high achievement motivation thrive on competition (Ward, 1995). They are potentially energetic performers with intense concentration on the job (Barling & Boswell, 1999). They also tend to focus their thoughts and actions on improving their work (Lewin & Stephens, 1994). Bateman and Crant (1993) believe that high achievers are proactive; therefore, they are considered potential transformational leaders. They are committed to performance goals (Johnson & Perlow, 1992), and have greater management potential (Fletcher, 1991).

There are three dimensions of achievement motivation, such as work ethic, pursuit of excellence and mastery. Work ethic originates from the Weberian concept of Protestant (Weber, 1904). Psychologists adopt it in describing motivation to achieve. It is based on finding reinforcement in the performance itself. It incorporates 'the desire to work hard' (Spence & Helmreich, 1983). It is seen as a motivational attribute of the individual which influences attitudes, values and behavior (Furnham, 1982, 1984; Mirels & Garrett, 1971).

The second dimension, the pursuit of excellence, is the factor that McClelland *et al.* (1953) defines as 'competition with a standard of excellence' and describes as motivation that finds reward in performing to the best of one's ability. Henry Murray (1938) introduces the concept as the basis for all intrinsic achievement motivation. Murray and his colleagues use it as the definition for n Ach. The third dimension, mastery, is also a form of competitiveness, but not with other individuals. To be more precise, it is a competition within oneself to solve problems, tackle a difficult tasks and succeed in the face of challenges. A person who scores high on this factor probably adopts the problem-focused coping approach to life (Coyne, Aldwin & Lazarus, 1981).

The big five domains of personality include conscientiousness, agreeableness, openness to experience, neuroticism and extraversion. A conscientious person is someone who has the traits of orderliness and self-discipline among others. An agreeable person is likely easy to accept, good-natured and relates to people with respect and honour. A person with personality domain

of openness to experience is receptive to aesthetics and ideas. An extraversion person is assertive and active. While, a person with high score of neuroticism is likely to be anxious and depressed (Soto, Gosling, John & Potter, 2011).

Major, Turner and Fletcher ((2006) find that achievement motivation is highly correlated with personality. In addition, a study by Richardson and Abraham (2009) on stable personality traits among male and female university students shows that achievement motivation is highly positively correlated with conscientiousness and demonstrates mixed results with the other traits: extraversion, neuroticism, openness to experience and agreeableness. Steinmeyr and Spinath (2008) also find that achievement motivation and conscientiousness are positively correlated.

Hart, Stasson, Mahoney and Story (2007) find that conscientiousness, openness to experience and extraversion are positively associated with intrinsic achievement motivation; whereas, extraversion, conscientiousness and neuroticism are positively related to extrinsic achievement motivation. Conscientiousness is positively related to both intrinsic and extrinsic achievement motivation.

Most researchers implicitly agree that there are individual differences in motivation. These differences can be traced to dispositional tendencies (Judge & Ilies, 2002). Attempts to empirically link personality characteristics to motivational variables have produced inconsistent results (Gellatly, 1996). Relationships between

conscientiousness, performance motivation, neuroticism and performance motivation are quite clear. However, relationships between openness to experience, extraversion and agreeableness to motivation are ambiguous and virtually unstudied (Judge & Ilies, 2002). This study aims to examine the relationship between achievement motivation and personality among pre and post independence Malay Malaysians.

MATERIALS AND METHOD

This study employs a survey method. A total of 552 respondents of Malay ethnic participate in this study. 261 respondents born before 1957 are categorized as pre-independence; while, another 291 born after 1957 are categorized as post-independence generation. The two instrument used are: (1) the Cassidy and Lynn Achievement Motivation (CLAM) is adapted (Fatimah wati Halim 2012) into scale which measures three types of achievement motivation: work ethics, excellence and mastery; and (2) NEO Five Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) which measures personality. This adapted (Khairul Mastor *et al.,* 2000) NEO Personality Inventory measures five dimensions of personality: openness to experience; conscientiousness; extraversion; agreeableness; and neuroticism. CLAM contains 21 items on a Likert scale with five response options: strongly agree; agree; not sure; disagree; and strongly disagree. The range of scores for CLAM is 21-105. The second instrument, NEO-FFI contains 60 items on a Likert scale with five response options: strongly agree; agree; neutral;

disagree; and strongly disagree. Each personality domain contains 12 items with range of scores for each domain between 12-60. Both instrument are translated to Malay language. However, both Malay and English versions are used in the study to enable the respondents to have the option of choosing the language they are comfortable with.

RESULTS

The results for relationships between personality and motivation for pre-independence Malaysian Malays are shown in Table 1. Table 2 shows the results for the relationships between personality and motivation for the post-independence Malaysian Malays. Table 1 and Table 2 show significant relationships between achievement motivation and Neuroticism (r=-0.269, p<0.05), Extraversion (r=0.135

p<0.05), Openness (r=0.163, p<0.05) and Conscientiousness (r=0.510, p<0.05) for the pre independence Malaysian Malays and for the post independence Malaysian Malays. There are significant relationships between achievement motivation and all personality types except for Extraversion (r=0.080, p>0.05). Table 1 shows significant negative relationships between neuroticism and ethics and mastery (r=-0.336, p<0.05; r=-0.120, p<0.05, respectively); agreeableness and ethics (r=-0.218, p<0.05). There are positive correlations between extraversion and mastery (r=0.235, p<0.05); openness and excellence (r=0.223, p<0.05); agreeableness and ethics (r=0.218, p<0.05); and conscientiousness and ethics (r=0.384, p<0.05), excellence (r=0.433, p<0.05) and mastery (r=0.305, p<0.05).

Table 2 shows significant negative

TABLE 1
Correlation Between Personality And Motivation For Pre-Independence Malaysian Malays

	Ethics	Excellence	Mastery	CLAM
Neuroticism	-.336*	-.080	-.120*	-.269*
Extraversion	.022	.115	.235*	.135*
Openness	.069	.223*	.083	.163*
Agreeableness	-.218*	-.017	.035	-.115
Conscientiousness	.384*	.433*	.305*	.510*

*p<. 05

TABLE 2
Correlation Between Personality And Motivation For Post- Independence Malaysian Malays

	Ethics	Excellence	Mastery	CLAM
Neuroticism	-.238*	-.172*	-.118*	-.260*
Extraversion	-.002	.135*	.060	.080
Openness	.204*	.231*	.192*	.295*
Agreeableness	-.243*	-.113	.008	-.185*
Conscientiousness	.375*	.373*	.143*	.431*

*p<.05

relationships between neuroticism and ethics (r=-0.238, p<0.05); and mastery (r=-0.118, p<0.05); and between agreeableness and ethics (r=-0.243, p<0.05). It also indicates that there are positive correlations between openness and ethics (r=204, p<0.05), excellence (r=0. 231, p<0.05), mastery (r=0. 192, p<0.05) and conscientiousness and ethics (r=0. 375, p<0.05), excellence (r=0. 373, p<0.05) and mastery (r=0. 143, p<0.05).

DISCUSSION

The results of both pre and post independence Malaysian Malays show negative significant relationship between neuroticism and ethic, excellence and mastery. However, the only difference between the two groups is that there is no significant relationship between neuroticism and excellence for the pre-independence Malaysian Malays. Emotional instability often labels neuroticism. It is the tendency of showing poor emotional adjustment in the form of stress, anxiety and depression. According to Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witte and Barrick, (2004) emotionally unstable individuals experience hopelessness and a lack of energy to perform their tasks. It is no wonder that the results are such, considering highly emotionally unstable persons with high tendency for stress, anxiety and depression, tend to be too preoccupied with their own troubled emotions; thus, expected to be blithe about ethics, achieving excellence and mastery.

Conscientious persons from both pre and post independence are positively correlated with all the three constructs of achievement motivation: ethics, excellence and mastery. Persons with high scores on conscientious are deemed to be more organized, careful, dependable, self disciplined and achievement oriented (McCrae & Costa, 1987). They are also orderly and deliberate individuals. On the other hand, motivation concerns energy, direction, and persistence which are all the aspects of activation and intention (Sung & Choi, 2009). Conscientiousness encompasses achievement motivation (Richardson & Abraham, 2009). In addition, persistence and industriousness are sub-facets of conscientiousness. Hence, conscientious persons are expected to score high on achievement motivation and be strong on ethics, mastery and excellence.

There is another similarity between the two groups, pre and post independence. There is a negative relationship between agreeableness and achievement motivations in the ethics construct. People with high score of agreeableness tend to be good-natured, considerate and tolerant. In contrast, less agreeable people tend to be manipulative, self-centered and suspicious (Digman, 1990). Agreeable people also tend to care about others feelings and avoid being abrasive or in conflict with colleagues. Therefore they are inclined to engage in cooperation and helping behavior that mostly serve the goal of maintaining existing relationships. Given their strong desire for interpersonal harmony, agreeable people may have difficulty in generating and expressing ideas that are different from others or deviated from existing

or conventional ways (Sung & Choi, 2009). A high achiever aims high and thrives on competition; therefore, it is logical for someone with high scores on agreeableness tends to score lower on achievement motivation (Ward, 1995). High achievers focus on ways to improve their work (Lewin & Stephens, 1994) and commit to performance goals (Johnson & Perlow, 1992). It is not surprising that someone with those characteristics may have a tendency to disregard others feeling as long as he or she achieves his or her goals. This explains the results of this study for both groups, the pre and post independence.

The results indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between openness and achievement motivation for both groups of respondents. The more open a person is, the higher his achievement motivation. The results show that openness correlates significantly with achievement motivation on all the three constructs, ethics, excellence and mastery for the post independence group. Whereas, only excellence correlates significantly with openness for the pre-independence group. People with openness to experience tend to allow themselves for greater access to new experiences and perspectives and possess strong tendencies to seek new situations (Goldberg, 1990).

In conclusion, it can be construed that there are plenty of similarities in terms of the relationships between personality and achievement motivation for both pre and post independence Malaysia Malays. Firstly,

neurotic Malaysian Malays are found to be not highly motivated in their achievements, particularly achievements involving ethics, excellence and mastery. The generational difference does not have an effect on this matter as both generations, pre and post independence, display the same trend on neuroticism and achievement motivation. Similarly, there is no generational difference in the relationships between achievement motivation with conscientiousness and agreeableness. Both pre and post independence generations indicate positive relationships between conscientiousness and all three constructs of achievement motivation; that is ethics, excellence and mastery. It seems that there is no change in terms of achievement motivation from the perspective of conscientiousness. Conscientious Malaysian Malays tend to be high achievers; this has not changed over the years as well as throughout generations. There is a negative relationship with achievement motivation in the aspect of agreeableness. Malaysian Malays who are agreeable tend to be not high in their achievement motivation. However, Malaysian Malays who are more open to experience, tend to be high in their achievement motivation. The implication of the current findings is that, in terms of personality and achievement motivation, Malaysian Malays have not changed very much since independence. The young generations seem to be highly motivated in their achievement provided they are dominant in conscientiousness and openness to experience.

REFERENCES

Barling, J., & Boswell, R. (1995). Work performance and the achievement-strivings and impatience-irritability dimensions of Type A behaviour. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 44*(2), 143-153.

Bateman, T. S., & Crant, J. M. (1993). The proactive component of organizational behavior: A measure and correlates. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 14*(2), 103-118.

Clark, T., Varadarajan, P. R., & Pride, W. M. (1994). Environmental management: The construct and research propositions. *Journal* of *Business Research, 29*, 23-38.

Colbert, A. E., Mount, M. K., Harter, J. K., Witte, L. A., & Barrick, M. R. (2004) Interactive effects of personality and perceptions of the work situation on workplace deviance. *Journal of applied Psychology, 89*, 599-609.

Coyne, J. C., Aldwin, C., & Lazarus, R. S. (1981). Depression and coping in stressful episodes. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 90*, 439-447.

Fatimah wati Halim. (2012). *The Influence Of Personality, Achievement Motivation, And Self Efficacy Toward Job Performance: Testing A Predictive Job Performance Model.* (Phd thesist dissertation). Psychology Program. Graduate Studies, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.

Fletcher, C. (1991). Candidates' reactions to assessment centers and their outcomes: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 64*, 117-127.

Furnham, A. (1982). The Protestant work ethic and attitudes towards unemployment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 55*, 277-285.

Gellatly, I. R. (1996). Conscientiousness and task performance: test of cognitive process model. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*, 474-482.

Goldberg, L. R. (1990) An alternative description of personality: the Big Five factor structure.

Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 59, 1216-1229.

Hart, J. W., Stasson, M. F., Mahoney, J. M., & Story, P. (2007). The Big Five and achievement motivation: Exploring the relationship between personality and a two-factor model of motivation. *Individual Differences Research, 5*(4), 267-274.

Johnson, D. S., & Perlow, R. (1992). The impact of need for achievement components on goal commitment and performance. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 22*, 1711-1720.

Judge, T. A., & Ilies, R. (2002). Relationship of personality to performance motivation: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(4), 797-807.

Khairul Mastor, Jin, & Cooper. (2000). Malay culture and personality. A Big Five Perspective. *American Behavioral Scientist, 44*(1), Sept. Sage Publication

Lewin, A. Y., & Stephens, C. U. (1994). CEO attitudes as determinants of organization design: An integrated model. *Organization Studies, 15*(2), 183-212.

Major, D. A., Turner, J. E., & Fletcher, T. D. (2006). Linking proactive personality and the Big-Five to motivation to learn and development activity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(4), 927-935.

McClelland, D. C., Atkinson, J. W., Clark, R. A., & Lowell, E. L. (1953). *The achievement motive*. New York: Appleton.

McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T. (1987). Validation of the 5-factor model of personality across instruments and observations. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology, 52*, 81-90.

Mirels, H. L., & Garrett, J. B. (1971). The Protestant work ethic as a personality variable. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 36*, 40-44.

Murray, H. A. (1938). *Explorations in personality.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Richardson, M., & Abraham, C. (2009). Conscientiousness and achievement motivation predicts performance. *European Journal of Personality, 23*(7), 589-605.

Sung, Y. S., & Choi, J. N. (2009). Do big personality factors affect individual creativity? The moderating role of extrinsic motivation. *Social Behavior and Personality, 37*(7), 942-956.

Soto, C. J., Gosling, S. D., John, O. P., & Potter, J. (2011). Age differences in personality traits from 10 to 65: Big five domains and facets in a large cross-sectional sample. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 100*(2), 330-348.

Spence, J. T., & Helmreich, R. L. (1983). Achievement related motives and behavior. In J. T. Spence (Ed.), *Achievement and achievement motives: Psychological and sociological approaches.* San Francisco: W. H. Freeman.

Steinmeyr, R., & Spinath, B. (2008). Sex differences in school achievement: What are the roles of personality and achievement motivation? *European Journal of Personality, 22*(3), 185-209.

Ward, E. A. (1995). Correlates of motivation for competitive or cooperative strategy achievement motivation among employed adults. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 16*(1), 93-100.

Weber, M. (1904). *The Protestant ethic and the spirit of capitalism* (translated by Talcott Parsons). New York: Scribne.

Neighbourhood Participation as a Proxy to Civic Engagement

Sheau Tsuey Chong[1]*, Wei Keat Ten[1], Ah Choy Er[2] and Denise Koh[3]

[1]*School of Psychology and Human Development, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities,*
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia
[2]*School of Social, Development and Environmental Studies, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities,*
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia
[3]*School of Educational Methodology and Practices, Faculty of Education,*
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

ABSTRACT

Civic engagement refers to community involvement with the aim of community empowerment through collective actions. A community active in civic engagement tends to foster social capital that can be generalized into society as a whole. This study investigates the encouragement of civic engagement via neighbourhood factors. A total of 400 Malaysians, aged between 18 to 65 years, residing in Klang Valley, have been chosen to participate in the research using quota sampling. The results show that the neighbourhood, perceived as safe and high in neighbourhood social capital and active in organizing neighbourhood activities, are associated with higher civic engagement. It suggests the significance of promoting individual involvement in neighbourhood in order to enhance the process of successful citizenship training at the national level. Thus, local authority should look into the organization for more meaningful and regular neighbourhood activities.

Keywords: Civic engagement, neighbourhood, social capital, social cohesion, community

INTRODUCTION

The importance of civic engagement can be traced back from Alexis de Tocqueville's visit to America and published "Democracy in America" in 1835 to Putnam (2000) who argued that the involvement in civic life makes someone a better person, more self-confident and more caring. Civic engagement also brings a country towards democracy and precludes autocracy. Furthermore, civic engagement also stimulates the elite to be more concerned with the people (Wright & Berkman, 1986). The decision makers tend to hear the voices of those involved

in civic activities (Bartels, 2002). In short, Wilson and Musick (1997) emphasize that civic engagement may possibly shape social trust and government trust, develop a deep sense of community, act as means of solving social and community issues, enhance the citizenship and other benefits.

According to the research on civic engagement level in 130 countries conducted by *Gallup* (2009), the civic engagement of Malaysians manage to get 75th place with the civic engagement index score of 29 as compared to neighbouring country, Thailand, that scores 50. Thailand's civic engagement index score places the country to ranking number 9, far more above Malaysia. The gap becomes an indicator for Malaysia to work hard in civic engagement as the development of Thailand is not much different from Malaysia. Malaysia should be able to match Thailand's achievement in this aspect

The researchers have underlined two units in society that have been always overlooked for their role in cultivating norms and values in the people: neighbourhood and formal group. Society has always put the entire responsibility on educating the people on the shoulder of parents and school. They have overlooked the effectiveness of neighbourhood and formal groups in delivering civic values. Therefore, this research will highlight the ways neighbourhood and formal groups work in promoting individual civic engagement.

From the neighbourhood perspective, most researchers agree that a community high in civic engagement is associated with low crime rates. In turn, a neighbourhood

that is perceived to be safe boosted the civic engagement of the residents. Mesch and Schwirian (1996) argue that residents will take action when they feel threatened in any kind that might affect their lives. They also claim that the built up of most of the neighbourhood association are merely the reaction toward the change of environment in community that might affect the residents' well-being, such as the rise of crime rates and town planning. Today, the neighbourhood association solves issues in a wider scope and carries out a variety of activities like *gotong-royong* (neighbourhood helping activities)* to promote civic engagement (Kleiniewski, 2002). The researchers also believe that the norm of trust and reciprocity held by the community in the neighbourhood is able to strengthen the civic engagement of individual. Putnam (2000) claims that social capital is connected with civic engagement. Thus, the strengthening in neighbourhood social capital is expected to empower the civic engagement of the individuals who live in the area.

Furthermore, neighbourhood social capital can also be an important factor for a society to hold since it is associated with general social capital and confidence in large social organizations. In order to develop the social capital in a neighbourhood, the expectation placed upon every neighbour is that they will always act in the best interest of the represented neighbourhood. By doing so, this will allow members of the neighbourhood to interact with each other based on the feeling of trust. The building of neighbourhood social capital depends on

how neighbourhood tackle their issues and understanding the importance of the tackling actions. It is also to achieve the commonness that reflects the neighbourhood. While the interactions between members within a neighbourhood are not mechanical in nature, along the process of interacting, this will also allow the exchange of civic values among the members (Chong, 2007; Chong *et al*., 2011a).

In addition, safety is an important contributor to neighbourhood social capital. Previous research shows that perceived neighbourhood safety is related to neighbourhood social capital (Ross & Yang, 2000; Ziersch *et al*., 2005). Safety issues can draw people further away and block information circulation between neighbours. In other words, the networking process might breakdown and in time the social mobility among neighbours might be limited. This vicious cycle leads to low trust and reciprocity, and possible increase of crime rate due to the lack of social sanction from the non-cooperative neighbours.

On the other hand, if the neighbourhood is perceived as safe and promoting the networking among the neighbours, this shall allow the process of development common civic engagement based on shared neighbourhood social capital. Nevertheless, Coleman asserts that the flow of information from one party to another is one form of social capital based on trust. He also states that if an individual is willing to relinquish his or her self-interest and place the interest of the group as his or her first priority, then such form of social capital will work (Coleman, 1998a).

Civic engagement involves attitude, behaviour, knowledge and skills that benefit the society and improve the well-being of all. Based on Youniss *et al*. (1997), individuals with civic attitude, civic responsibility, civic mind or civic identity show a sense of responsibility to the community. Each individual in the society has the role to bring change to the well-being of the society. Civic engagement involves civic attitude based on action that aims to solve the community issues and improve the welfare of community such as giving help through donation and volunteerism.

Putnam (2000) and Carpini (2004) define civic engagement as an aggregate that involves formal and informal activities that bring toward mutual benefits. In addition, Zlatareva (2008) claims that civic engagement is closely related to involvement, partnership, and empowerment. It is about how the citizens form a collective action with local and national institutions, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and public sectors. At the same time, it is about how the citizens articulate priorities and fight for their interest. Furthermore, UNDP (2002) defines civic engagement as a process which involves community in political, economic, social and cultural process that impact their lives. It ensures the involvement of citizens in making decisions and strengthening their roles to promote better governance.

With regards to various definitions mentioned earlier, Gibson (2000) argues that there is no single consensus on the definition of civic engagement. Consequently, Adler and Goggin (2005) manage to arrange the

definition of civic engagement into four categories: civic engagement as community service; civic engagement as collective action; civic engagement as political engagement; and civic engagement as social change. In the definition of civic engagement as community service, civic engagement is emphasized as an involvement in volunteer services to serve the local community where the individual belongs to. The services are either rendered individually or in a group through organization.

Civic engagement as collective action is defined in a limited way. It is an action done in a collective way to improve the society. Example of this definition is given by Diller (2001), in which he claims that civic engagement is an activity that involves everyone to play their roles as a citizen. Diller (2001) provides an example of this definition. He claims that civic engagement is an activity that involves everyone to play their roles as a citizen. In fact, civic engagement can be defined as a means where individuals act collectively to impact the civil society. Finally, Adler and Goggin (2005) agree that a comprehensive definition of civic engagement is about the ways active citizens participate in community life to improve conditions for others or to help shaping the community's future.

Similarly, civic engagement as political engagement is defined in a limited way. It is only specifically directed to political activities. In this definition, political activities make a big distinction from civic activities in their implementation ways. Civic activities are about how to get the

people to work together that include the element of social capital. Whereas, political activities lacks the element of interaction.

Meanwhile, the dimension of civic engagement as social change, based on Crowley (2007), focuses on the social change side in civic engagement. Civic engagement explains how an active citizen is involved in community life to help shaping the future of the community. Hence, civic engagement should include social change as the ultimate goal.

In conclusion, neighbourhood serves a platform for interaction that may possibly facilitate cooperation beyond kin and friendship. In turn; the neighbourhood social capital might contribute to the cooperation in wider society. This paper aims to explore how participation in neighbourhood activities may perhaps promote active civic engagement, and the relationship between neighbourhood social capital and levels of participation in civic activities.

HYPOTHESES

Ha1 Individuals who are active in neighbourhood activities show higher levels of civic engagement compared to less active individuals.

Ha2 There is significant and positive relationship between neighbourhood social capital and civic engagement.

Ha3 Individuals who perceive their neighbourhood area as safe show higher civic engagement compared to those who feel insecure in their neighbourhood areas.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

This study involves 400 Malaysians, aged between 18 to 65 years, residing in Klang Valley. The distribution of genders among the participants is 207 males and 193 females. They are from different backgrounds. Quota sampling is used based on the distribution of ethnics in Klang Valley.

Instrument

The research tool uses closed question questionnaire. The questionnaire is divided into ten parts. The parts investigate trust among neighbourhood, trust among the people in general, trust among members in formal group, civic engagement, institutional trust, trust among friends, trust among family members, demographic backgrounds, perception on citizenship and social class boundary, respectively. However, only parts concerning on neighbourhood, formal group, civic engagement, newspaper readership, national identity and living area background are emphasized because only these parts are relevant to this research. In general, most questions are rated based on 11-point Likert scale: the scale of 1 means not at all; and the scale of 11 means definitely yes.

A total of 14 questions are designed in order to evaluate civic engagement. The questions included whether respondents have written to newspaper, signed on petition, contacted TV/radio program, made complaints on the services used, interacted with government, reported on property damages, participated in political activities, participated in community meeting, contributed monetary donation, contacted people's representatives, involved in demonstration, participated in protest or picket, carried out charitable work and contributed supports to the general society in the past 12 months. Each question has to be rated using 11-points Likert scale. Those who respond with the scale of 1 are coded as "0" corresponding to never participated in the respective civic activity; while, scales from 2 to 11 are coded as "1" corresponding to participated in the respective civic activity. All the scores are summed up to get the value of individual civic engagement.

From the perspective of neighbourhood, respondents are asked with questions regarding to involvement in neighbourhood activities, perceived neighbourhood safety, and neighbourhood social capital. Crobach's Alpha is used to find the internal consistency of the instrument. The results show that internal consistency obtained for civic engagement, perceived neighbourhood safety and neighbourhood social capital are 0.916, 0.813, and 0.915; respectively.

RESULTS

Active Participation in Neighbourhood Activities

A one-way ANOVA analysis is conducted to determine the difference of the tendency of individuals participating in neighbourhood activity and individual civic engagement. The mean score for individual civic engagement of three groups of subject are compared. The first group is individuals who never participate in neighbourhood

activity (Group 1: never). The second group is individuals who are less active in participating in neighbourhood activity (Group 2: less active). Whereas, the third group is represented by individuals who are very active in participating in neighbourhood activity (Group 3: very active). The results show that there is significant difference in civic engagement for the three groups [F(2, 396) = 10.61, p = .00]. Post-hoc comparison using Tukey HSD test show that the mean score for Group 1 (M= 7.25, SD= 4.58) is significantly different from Group 2 (M= 9.58, SD= 4.44). It indicates that individuals who never participate in neighbourhood activity are less likely to be involved in civic activity as compared to individuals who at least participate once in neighbourhood activity for the past twelve months. In other words, participation in neighbourhood activity in a less active manner is sufficient to bring a significant effect in encouraging civic engagement. Therefore, hypothesis 1 stating that individuals who are active in neighbourhood activities show higher civic engagement compared to less active individuals is accepted. Table 1 summarizes the analysis for this part.

Neighbourhood Social Capital

Table 2 shows the result of correlation between neighbourhood social capital and individual civic engagement. The result show that both variables are positively and significantly correlated (r= .280, p≤ 0.05). It signifies that the higher the neighbourhood social capital, the higher the individual civic engagement.

Perceived Neighbourhood Safety

An independent t-test is used to compare the civic engagement of group of individuals who perceive their neighbourhood as unsafe (Group 1: Not safe) and group of individuals who feel that their neighbourhood as safe (Group 2: Safe). There is a significant difference between Group 1 (M= 6.85, SD: 4.57) and Group 2 [M= 8.48, SD: 4.59; t (397) = -3.05, *p*= .002]. It signifies

TABLE 1
Difference of Individual Civic Engagement According To Tendency of Participating Neighbourhood Activity.

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Civic Engagement					
Between Groups	434.631	2	217.315	10.609	.001
Within Groups	8111.640	396	20.484		

TABLE 2
Relationship Between Neighbourhood Social Capital And Civic Engagement.

	1	2	3
1. Civic engagement	1		
2. Neighbourhood social capital	.280**	1	

that individuals who perceive their neighbourhood as safe may possibly be more involved in civic activities than individuals who feel that their neighbourhood as unsafe. Therefore, the hypothesis stating that there is a significant difference in civic engagement for individuals who feel that their neighbourhood is safe compared to those who feel insecure is accepted. Table 3 summarizes the analysis for this part.

DISCUSSION

Active Participation in Neighbourhood Activities

The research discovers that there are three factors that contributed to the high level of civic engagement at the neighbourhood level. The three neighbourhood factors are safe neighbourhood, trusting and helping, and actively delivering neighbourhood activities. While at the formal group level, the researchers find that trusting and helpful civic-based groups or members are vital for the improvement of individual civic engagement.

The results find that individuals who participate at least once in a neighbourhood activity show significantly higher civic engagement as compared to individuals who never participate in any form of neighbourhood activity. Based on this

finding, it is assumed that involvement in neighbourhood activities increases one's civic engagement through interaction with the neighbours. The increase of interaction between individuals and their neighbours means that the likelihood for the individuals to communicate and discuss with their neighbours regarding the local issues also increases. This interaction leads to the increase of community involvement and integration (Kang & Kwak, 2003). Community involvement serves as the foundation for individuals to integrate into society.

In addition, the researchers also find that neighbourhood activities and civic activities are similar in view of both activities deal with community issues through community's own effort (Schwirian, 1996). Through the process of working with other community members, one learns about his or her role as part of the community to make a change. This awareness fosters the sense of self-worthiness when the individual feels that the community need him or her. When the individuals realize that they are able make some changes to their neighbourhood through their actions, they are more likely to be involved in the same activities (Nath, 2013). Therefore, the probability of them to be involved in civic activities similar to neighbourhood activities increases.

TABLE 3
Difference of Individual Civic Engagement According To Perceived Neighbourhood Safety.

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	t value	Df	Sig. P
Group 1	97	6.8454	4.56969	-3.054	397	.002
Group 2	302	8.4801	4.59140			

Furthermore, the researchers also observe the people that one might encounter in neighbourhood activity. Those who participate in neighbourhood activity are generally more helpful, concerned, and taking action to work for a better future for the community. The spirit of these people, indirectly, influences others in view of the fact that they are generally influential. Furthermore, information exchange also takes place drastically through interaction. Civic information spreads while doing civic-based neighbourhood activity. Through the influence and encouragement of others, it is expected that individuals to be more prepared and willing for civic involvement in the wider society.

The results also show that individuals who frequently involve in neighbourhood activities show no significant difference from individuals who participate less frequently. This is probably due to the fact that neighbourhood activities on individual civic engagement have reached its maximum with less frequent involvement. Therefore, more vigorous participation will not bring any significant change to the individual civic engagement.

Respondents who participate, at least once, in a neighbourhood activity are more likely to interact and discuss local issues with their community. At the same time, they discover their potential in dedicating themselves to others and building up a sense of altruism to prove their value to the community.

Neighbourhood Social Capital

The results discover that there is a positive relationship between neighbourhood social capital and civic engagement. It denotes that the higher the neighbourhood social capital and civic engagement among neighbours, the higher the levels of civic engagement in the wider society.

A neighbourhood can be considered as a living area along with a place of work and a family environment. It is a space where we learn about our neighbourhood through socialising or interactions as well as by performing economic activities such as visiting friends and shopping. Neighbourhood social capital is the norms where trust and reciprocity are shared by the community in a neighbourhood. Mutual trusting and helping within the members of a neighbourhood characterize neighbourhood social capital. Reciprocity allows neighbours to rely on each other based on mutual understanding within the neighbourhood. As the saying goes 'Today I scratch your back, tomorrow you scratch mine' or 'A help B today, and in the future A will receive help from others besides B'. These beliefs describe the good sense of people offering assistance to others in a continuous relationship. Helping each other out in the neighbourhood when in need creates the credit slips which function as the basis of social capital (Coleman, 1988a:S102).

This finding supports previous research findings which affirm that civic engagement is associated with neighbourhood social capital (Flanagan *et al*., 2007). They state

that adolescents are reported to have higher commitment to civic participation when they perceive themselves living in a neighbourhood of individuals looking after each other and willing to collaborate in solving common issues. Lenzi *et al.*, (2012) also obtains the same findings. They find that the positive association between neighbourhood intergenerational closure and adolescents' sense of responsibility towards their community can be explained by the processes identified in traditional developmental theories: "in neighbourhoods where adults are available to look after youths, adolescents have the opportunities to interact with people having more experience and knowledge" (Lenzi *et al.*, 2012, p. 51). This interaction may result in adolescents having more opportunities to discuss issues regarding their local community, develop values and behaviours that are urged by the community and build up a set of values that is closely related with the well-being of the community.

Furthermore, the role of neighbourhood as an agent of education and socialization is empowered in a neighbourhood high in social capital. Neighbourhood is one of the social units that instil values in young people in the community. One learns the social orders and norms in the community and it serves as a standard to integrate into the general society. For an example, neighbourhood teaches one not to violate the rules by throwing rubbish into set up facility; this value shall be passed on to the general society in future. Similarly, if the neighbourhood instils the norms of being

a good citizen, one shall work towards being a trusted person as expected by their neighbourhood.

Moreover, neighbourhood is considered as the closest strangers to individuals other than peers in school. If individuals have unpleasant experience with their neighbours, they have lower tendency to be involved in civic activities aimed to help people in general. This is the basis of strong mutual trusting and helping in neighbourhood able to foster individual civic engagement

Perceived Neighbourhood Safety

The results find that individual who feels that their neighbourhood is safe, generally, shows higher civic engagement as compared to those who feel insecure. It supports the finding of Crowley (2005). In his research, he discovers that safety is the third important factor that prevents one from participating civic activities after the factor of inflexible working hours and lack of information or ignorant of the participation process. However, his finding states that underprivileged group of respondent, either poor or with low education level, rate safety factor as being the first factor preventing them from participating in civic activities.

People's sense of selflessness decreases and self-consciousness increases when they feel unsafe. They become more concerned about themselves before they think about others. For example, poor people requiring to fulfil their needs have to prioritize in confronting and solving their own problems; thus, unable to donate money to others. Whereas, rich people, generally, do not

have to worry about their needs. As such, they are liberated to be more involved in various forms of civic activities. The exact same rationale applies to perceived neighbourhood safety. When one worries about his or her own safety, he or she has to ensure it is taken care of. It decreases his or her concern about others. As a result, his or her civic engagement decreases.

Likewise, one probably stays home more often to avoid any possibility of being victimized when he or she is out of home. Such possibility hinders the person from participating in civic activities. The interaction with general society is also gradually reduced due to the behaviour of staying home more often. The restriction of mobility decreases information exchange about civic activities and reduces the tendency of civic activities participation. Hence, preserving safe environment in the neighbourhood eliminates the feel of restlessness, increases the interaction of people, provides more space to people to participate in civic life, and ultimately increases individual civic engagement.

CONCLUSION

This research provides a guideline to approach a better civic engagement among the people in a social institution. Neighbourhood activities should be focused and diversified to involve the local community directly in developing their own community development planning. At the same time, the effort builds up the community civic engagement. Cultural festivals, family celebrations and religious activities, requiring concerted effort from all families, seem to be disappearing from the neighbourhood. Instead of cooking together for festivals, families might choose to cater or hold the events in hotels outside the neighbourhood. Thus, event organisers need to reinvent new neighbourhood activities to suit the needs of people in this fast pace era.

This research suggests that instead of holding seasonal activities, more organised and regular activities can be introduced to the neighbourhood. Neighbours may possibly have a better chance of interacting via hobby groups, informal or formal classes such as language, computer skills, cooking; voluntarily programs such as blood donation, recycling projects; and sport activities. Neighbourhood programs like RELA, a neighbourhood voluntarily group, and neighbourhood watch should be encouraged to foster a safe community. It is vital considering safety serves as a basis for better civic engagement. Besides, formal groups should be promoted more in the rural area especially if the people have limited internet access. Otherwise, the flow of information might be truncated and there is less chances for them to interact and build social capital. Thus, The Ministry of Rural Development should have more information technology projects, both in hardware and software, for geographical marginalised residents. At the same time, the government should utilize more media channel like using the electronic board in metropolitan areas such as in Kuala Lumpur to broadcast news, civic activity announcement and civic educational videos, apart from besides

commercial advertisements. The civic education has to be included in the young population's education agenda. It should be a mandatory subject and practice in schools. The curriculum of civic education should be improved and include more activities that can inspire people to develop their sense of civic responsibility. As a conclusion, neighbourhood activities could be a proxy of the civic engagement in wider society; however, this common goal of cooperation among society members cannot be achieved without taking safety as a key factor.

REFERENCES

Adler, R. P., & Goggin, J. (2005). What do we mean by civic engagement? *Journal of Transformative Education*, *3*(3).

Bartels, L. M. (2009). Economic Inequality and Political Representation. *The unsustainable American State.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Carpini, M. X. D. (2004). Public deliberation, discursive participation and citizen engagement: A review of the empirical literature. *Annual Review of Political Science*, *7*, 315-344.

Chong, S. T. (2007). It takes a village to raise a child: Building social capital in safe and cohesive neighbourhood. *E-BANGI Journal of Social Sciences And Humanities, 2*(2), 12.

Chong, S.T., Karen Farquharson, Er Ah Choy, Lukman, Z. M., & Mostafa Kamal Mokhtar (2011a). Enhancing youth civic engagement and generalized trust through bonding social capital among friends. *Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities, 19*(S), 57-64.

Chong, S. T., Mohamad,M. S., Hoesni, S. M., Lukman, Z. M., Fauziah, I., Sarnon, N., Nen, S., Subhi, N., Kamaruzaman Jusoff, Alavi, K., &

Aeslina Abdul Kadir. (2011b). Generalized trust and organized group membership among young Australians. *World Applied Sciences Journal, 12*, 58-62.

Coleman, J. S. (1988a). Social capital in the creation of human capital. *American Journal of Sociology*, *94*(Supplement 1988), S95-S120.

Crowley, D. (2007). *Summary of youth engagement strategy.* Woburn, MA: Social Capital, Inc.

Crowley, G. J. (2005). Nonprofits and civic engagement: Benefits and challenges in building social capital. Coro Research.

De Tocqueville, A. (1945). *Democracy in America.* New York: A. A. Knopf

Diller, E. C. (2001). *Citizens in service: The challenge of delivering civic engagement training to national service programs.* Washington DC: Corporation for National and Community Service.

Flanagan, C. A., Syvertsen, A. K., & Stout, M. D. (2007). *Civic measurement models: Tapping adolescents' civic engagement* (CIRCLE working paper 55). College Park, MD Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement. Gallup. (2009). *Global Civic Engagement.* Washington: Gallup

Gibson, C. (2000). *From inspiration to participation: A review of perspectives on youth civic engagement.* New York: Carnegie Corporation of New York.

Kleniewski, N. (2002). *Cities, change and conflict: A political economy of urban life.* United States: Wadsworth Thomson Learning.

Lenzi, M., Vieno, A., Perkins, D. D., Santinello, M., Elgar, F. J., Morgan, A., & Mazzardis, S. (2012). Family affluence, school and neighborhood contexts and adolescents' civic engagement: A cross-national study. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 50*(1-2)*,* 197-210.

Mesch, G. S., & Schwirian, K. P. (1996). The effectiveness of neighborhood collective action. *Social Problems*, *43,* 467-483.

Naewon Kang., & Nojin Kwak. (2003). A multilevel approach to civic participation: Individual length of residence, neighborhood residential stability, and their interactive effects with media use. *Communication Research*.

Nath, S. (2013). *Civic engagement in low income and minority neighborhoods, and the role of public investment*. The Berkeley Electronic Press.

Putnam, R. (2000). *Bowling alone: The collapse and revival of American community.* New York: Simon & Schuster.

UNDP. (2002). Deepening democracy in a fragmented world.*Global human development report.* Retrieved May 4, 2011 fromhttp://hdr.undp.org/en/media/HDR_2002_EN_Over view.pdf

Wilson, John & Musick, M. (1997). Who cares? Toward an integrated theory of volunteer work. *American Sociological Review, 62*, 694-713.

Wright, G. C. Jr., & Berkman, M. B. (1986). Candidates and policy in U.S. senate elections. *American Political Science Review, 80*, 567-588.

Youniss, J., McLella, J. A., & Yates, M. (1997). What we know about engendering civic identity. *American Behavioral Scientist, 40*, 620-631.

Zlatareva, M. (2008). *Promoting civic engagement in a post totalitarian and EU accession context: A case from Bulgaria.* United Nations Development Program Oslo Governance Centre The Democratic Governance Fellowship Program. Retrieved October 11, 2010 from http://www.undp.org/oslocentre/docs09/Zlatereva_paper_final.pdf

SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES

The Role of Feedback Types on False Memory in Children and Adolescents

R. Khairudin[1]*, N. M. Taib[1], J. A. Polko[2] and R. Nasir[1]

[1]*School of Psychology and Human Development, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia*
[2]*Infrastructure University Kuala Lumpur, Unipark Suria, Jalan Ikram-Uniten, 43000 Kajang, Selangor, Malaysia*

ABSTRACT

Despite the large number of studies published in the area of false memory, not many have looked into the malleability of a witness's confidence levels in relation to the susceptibility of false memories to feedback. This experiment aimed to examine the effects of post-identification feedback on witness confidence levels and retrospective memory evaluations in children aged 8 years old (N=30) and adolescents aged between 18 to 19 years old (N=60). Each participant is asked to watch a crime scene video reconstruction of a theft. They are, then, asked to identify the suspect. Participants are given either positive, negative, or no feedback after the suspect identification. Results show that there are significant effects from feedback on the participants' levels of confidence and retrospective memory evaluations. The age factor also has a significant effect on participants' recall of the clarity of detail of a suspect's face and their attention while viewing the video. There is also a significant interaction between the factors of feedback and age. Children are influenced by both types of feedback, positive and negative. While the levels of confidence and retrospective memory evaluations of adolescents are influenced only by positive feedback. This experiment demonstrates that post-identification feedback influences witnesses' confidence levels and evaluations of an event. Therefore, it is essential to ensure that appropriate precautions are taken during the examination of witnesses, especially child witnesses.

Keywords: False memory, retrospective memory, feedback, child witness

INTRODUCTION

Memory is often conceived of as an arrangement of pictures, or a sequence of events that is retained in order. It is thought to be like a camera that captures pictures

of things as they really are. If this were true, then eyewitness testimony in criminal cases would not be such a problem, because witnesses would be able to easily recall the details of a crime with great accuracy. This study addresses the factors that can influence the effectiveness of a witness's identification of a suspect in a criminal case. In particular, this study examines a phenomenon known as false memory, which occurs when a person remembers an event or scene that never happen, even though they feel great confidence in their belief that it really has happened. False memory is a kind of memory distortion that can occur without conscious awareness.

RESEARCH PROBLEM

An eyewitness's ability to distinguish between the right and wrong suspect is one of the many challenges faced by police officers as well as juries in a court case. There are studies that have found a strong tendency among court juries and interrogation officers to depend highly on the confidence level of an eyewitness when judging the accuracy of the eyewitness's statement (Lindsay *et al.*, 1981; Wells, 1987).

The question remains whether the higher a witness's level of confidence, the greater the likelihood the witness can be trusted. In some situations, the level of confidence a witness has can be a good predictor of his or her recognition accuracy; but in others, confidence can be a weak predictor (Brewer & Wells, 2006). Some studies have shown that the relationship

between a witness's recognition accuracy and his or her level of confidence is weak (Luus & Wells, 1994). A serious problem arises with false confidence; the tendency of a witness feeling very confident in his or her identification of a wrongly accused suspect (Wells & Bradfield, 1999). There are many factors that may lead to false confidence. One of the factors is the type of response or feedback given by interrogators.

One study that examines false confidence was conducted by Wells and Bradfield (1998). They look at the effects of post-identification feedback on a subject's level of confidence. Although the subjects makes a mistake during the identification process, they are significantly more confident that their identification has been correct after they receive feedback from the interrogators.

The problem of the malleability of a witness's confidence level may have considerable implications on the legal system. Changes in a witness's confidence level as a result of social contamination indicate that confidence is a poor predictor of accurate suspect identification. Moreover, it can lead to confusion if affected by many external factors (Semmler & Brewer, 2006). Misidentification accompanied by an increase in confidence can lead to the prosecution of the innocent.

The age of a witness may also affect confidence levels during the suspect identification process. Aspects of a child witness's cognition may be more easily biased by social factors in the process of interrogation than in adult witnesses. The current study examines the effect of

post-identification feedback on child and adolescent witnesses. Hafstad *et al*. (2004) investigates the effect of post-identification feedback on child witnesses who are aged between 11-12 years old; they are in their formal stage of thinking (cf. Piaget). The children in the current study, aged of 8 years, are still at the concrete operational stage of thinking. It is an interesting question, whether stage of thinking interacts with feedback in the post-identification tasks.

There have been studies investigating false memory in adolescents. For example, Brainerd *et al*. (2010) manipulate emotional valence and arousal to examine their effects on false memory in children, adolescents and adults. They find that false memories increases with age. In other words, adolescents are more susceptible to false memories than children, but less than adults. This is especially true for negatively valenced stimuli. Meusel *et al*. (2012) finds an opposite effect. They compare the occurrence of false memory in adolescents and middle-aged adults by adopting the Deese/Roediger-McDermott (DRM) paradigm. They find that adolescents tend to agree to more false lure materials than middle-aged adults. Caza *et al*. (2011) finds an increase in false memories for unrelated items in adolescents with psychosis; a finding attributed to deficita in recollection- and familiarity-based memory.

Considerable research has been done on false memory formation. No study, however, has directly compared false memory in 8-year old children and 18-19-years old adolescents. Thus, it is the main objective of this study to compare these two developmental stage groups. A second objective is to determine the effect of different types of feedback on witnesses' retrospective memory evaluations.

METHOD

Experimental Design

The current study adopts a 3 x 2 between subject factorial design. The factors involved are 3 types of post-identification feedback and x 2 witness age groups.

Variables

Manipulated Variables

In the current experiment, the manipulated variables are as follows:

i.   Types of post-identification feedback

    a.   Positive feedback;

    b.   Negative feedback; and

    c.   No or zero feedback.

iv.   Witness age groups

    a.   Children aged 8 years old; and

    b.   Adolescents aged between 18 to 19 years

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables measured in the study are 12 types of retrospective memory evaluation:

i.   Accuracy in viewing the suspect;

ii.   Duration of time suspect in view;

iii. Clarity of detail of suspect's face;

iv. Distance between suspect and camera;

v. Attention while viewing video;

vi. Confidence in identifying suspect;

vii. Ease of identifying suspect;

viii. Time taken to identify suspect;

ix. Willingness to testify in court;

x. Amount of information about suspect;

xi. Accuracy of memory on suspect; and

xii. Ability to remember a stranger.

Sampling Method

The experiment uses a convenience sampling method. The participation of the experiment encompasses 30 children aged 8 years and 60 adolescents aged between 18 to 19 years.

Materials

Video reconstruction

A video reconstruction is used as the stimulus in the experiment. The reconstruction is recorded using a DSLR Nikon D5100 video camera. The duration of the video is 1 minute and 39 seconds. The reconstruction is of a theft that has occurred in an office. A man wearing a white and green striped T-shirt steals some personal belongings, a handphone and a wallet, that somebody has left on a table. The duration of time that the suspect is in view in the video is 15 seconds, with a clear view lasting for 4 seconds where the suspect is directly facing the video camera. The suspect is a Malay man aged around 30 years old. The suspect and the participants are of the same race as to eradicate cultural bias in the identification task.

Photograph lineups for suspect identification

The photograph lineup includes 6 passport-size photographs. These photographs are all of Malay men within the suspect's age range. The lineup excludes a photograph of the target suspect. This is to ensure that the participants' false response rate is 100%. Photographs are arranged with designated numbers. Participants are not informed that there is a possibility that the target suspect is excluded from the lineup.

Procedure

The experiment is conducted individually. Each participant sits in a quiet room. He or she is briefed about the experiment. They are instructed to watch the video reconstruction for 1 minute and 39 seconds on a Toshiba laptop. The video is a reconstruction of a theft case. Subsequently, participants leave the experiment.

The next day, participants are randomly divided into three groups. They are requested to identify the suspect in the video reconstruction that they have viewed the day before. After completing the identification task, participants in the first group are given positive feedback: "Well done. You have identified the suspect correctly". While, participants in the second group received negative feedback: "Your choice is wrong. The suspect is number…..". The third group of participants, the control group, do not receive any feedback.

Following the feedback session, the participants are requested to fill in an eyewitness memory questionnaire. Each item

in the questionnaire represents the dependent variables in the study. The experimenter reads each item to all participants to minimize biasness. Participants are assured of the confidentiality of their responses in order to ensure that they answer the questions as honest as possible.

RESULTS

MANOVA with 3 (types of post-identification feedback) x 2 (witness age groups) factors shows that there are significant main effects for two factors: type of post-identification feedback and age group.

MANOVA results reveal a significant main effect of post-identification feedback (positive, negative, no or zero feedback) ($n_p^2 > 0.4$) on all 12 dependent variables. Table 1 illustrates the results. It is clear that post-identification feedback indeed influences the witnesses' level of confidence about the accuracy of their choice of suspect. Furthermore, post-identification feedback also affects witnesses' retrospective evaluations of their memory of having watched the video reconstruction, the identification task, and their post-identification response.

Based on the MANOVA results in Table 2, it can be seen that age group factor has significant main effects ($n_p^2=0.1$) on two of the dependent variables. Firstly, there is a difference between children and adolescents' memory of detail clarity of the suspect's face while watching the video (F (1,84)= 9.993, p=0.00). Children recall viewing the suspect's face in detail much better than adolescents (M=4.20, s.d.=1.883, M=4.10, s.d.=1.760; children, adolescents, respectively) Secondly, age group has a significant effect on participants' memory of their attention while viewing video (F (1,84)=14.806, p=0.00). One way ANOVA shows that adolescents claim they pay more attention to the suspect than children. (M=5.20, s.d.=1.571, M=4.10, s.d.=2.023; adolescents, children, respectively).

TABLE 1
Main Effects of Post-Identification Feedback on the 12 Dependent Variables

Dependent Variables	$d.f_1$	$d.f_2$	F	Sig.	n_p^2
Accuracy in viewing the suspect	2	84	59.929	0.00	0.558
Duration of time suspect in view	2	84	42.091	0.00	0.501
Clarity of detail of suspect's face	2	84	34.241	0.00	0.449
Distance between suspect and camera	2	84	47.324	0.00	0.530
Attention while viewing video	2	84	36.993	0.00	0.468
Confidence in identifying suspect	2	84	35.468	0.00	0.458
Ease of identifying suspect	2	84	49.054	0.00	0.539
Time taken to identify suspect	2	84	31.927	0.00	0.432
Willingness to testify in court	2	84	40.970	0.00	0.494
Ability to remember a stranger	2	84	28.319	0.00	0.403
Amount of information about suspect	2	84	39.700	0.00	0.486
Accuracy of memory on suspect	2	84	44.541	0.00	0.515

MANOVA results also show that there is a significant interaction between types of post-identification feedback and age factor $(0.133 < n_p^2 < 0.373)$ on 11 of the dependent variables, the one exception being witnesses' confidence level in recalling the detail clarity of suspect's face. The results are shown in Table 3.

MANOVA analysis reveals that children are more easily influenced by post-identification feedback in the following ways:

a. Viewing accuracy while watching the video reconstruction.

   With reference to Table 4 and Fig.1, the mean scores for child witnesses'

TABLE 2
Main Effects of Age Factor on the 12 Dependent Variables

Dependent Variables	d.f$_1$	d.f$_2$	F	Sig.	n_p^2
Accuracy in viewing the suspect	1	84	3.370	0.70	0.039
Duration of time suspect in view	1	84	2.766	1.00	0.032
Clarity of detail of suspect's face	1	84	9.993	0.00	0.106
Distance between suspect and camera	1	84	0.116	0.73	0.001
Attention while viewing video	1	84	14.806	0.00	0.150
Confidence in identifying suspect	1	84	2.155	0.15	0.025
Ease of identifying suspect	1	84	0.040	0.84	0.00
Time taken to identify suspect	1	84	0.136	0.71	0.002
Willingness to testify in court	1	84	4.372	0.40	0.49
Ability to remember a stranger	1	84	0.135	0.71	0.002
Amount of information about suspect	1	84	0.100	0.75	0.001
Accuracy of memory on suspect	2	84	0.506	0.47	0.006

TABLE 3
Interaction Between Post-Identification Feedback And Age Group On The 12 Dependent Variables

Dependent Variables	d.f$_1$	d.f$_2$	F	Sig.	n_p^2
Accuracy in viewing the suspect	2	84	9.375	0.00	0.182
Duration of time suspect in view	2	84	22.920	0.00	0.353
Clarity of detail of suspect's face	2	84	3.514	0.54	0.077
Distance between suspect and camera	2	84	24.975	0.00	0.373
Attention while viewing video	2	84	9.830	0.00	0.190
Confidence in identifying suspect	2	84	6.448	0.02	0.133
Ease of identifying suspect	2	84	7.545	0.01	0.152
Time taken to identify suspect	2	84	10.605	0.00	0.202
Willingness to testify in court	2	84	7.178	0.01	0.146
Ability to remember a stranger	2	84	13.043	0.00	0.237
Amount of information about suspect	2	84	9.581	0.00	0.186
Accuracy of memory on suspect	2	84	14.086	0.00	0.251

evaluation on the Accuracy of memory on suspect are significantly different for all three conditions feedback: positive, negative and no or zero feedback (Tukey, $p < 0.05$). The positive feedback is significantly different from the negative feedback and the control condition for the adolescent group. However, there is no difference between the negative feedback and the control condition.

b. Duration of time suspect in view

Based on Table 5 and Fig.2, the mean scores for children's evaluation of their Accuracy of memory for the length of time spent viewing

the suspect during the video reconstruction are significantly different for all three feedback conditions (positive, negative, no or zero feedback) (Tukey, $p < 0.05$). However, there is no significant difference among the three feedback conditions for adolescents.

c. Distance between suspect and camera

With reference to Table 6 and Fig.3, the mean scores for children's evaluation on distance between suspect and camera are significantly different for all three post-identification feedback conditions (positive, negative, no

TABLE 4
Mean Scores for the Accuracy of View of Suspect During Video Watching for Types Of Post-Identification Feedback in Both Children and Adolescents.

| Types of Post-identification Feedback	Age Group	
	Children	Adolescents
Positive		
Mean	6.60	5.45
Negative		
Mean	2.30	3.35
No Feedback		
Mean	4.40	3.15
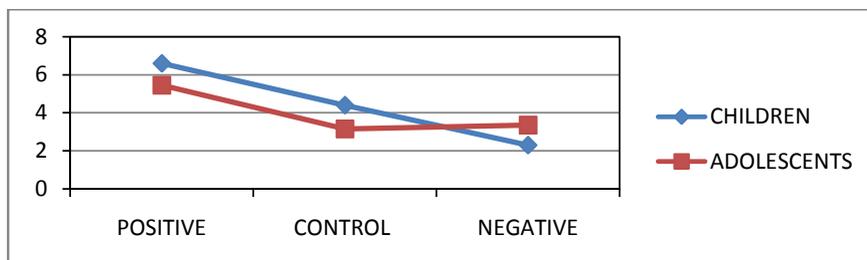
Fig.1: Graph of Mean Scores for Viewing Accuracy Evaluation During Video Watching for age Group and Types of Feedback

TABLE 5
Mean Scores for Evaluation of Memory Accuracy for Duration Time Suspect was in View During for the Three Post-Identification Feedback Conditions for Children and Adolescents

| Types of Post-identification Feedback	Age Group	
	Children	Adolescents
Positive		
Mean	6.60	4.05
Negative		
Mean	1.80	3.40
No Feedback		
Mean	3.50	3.20
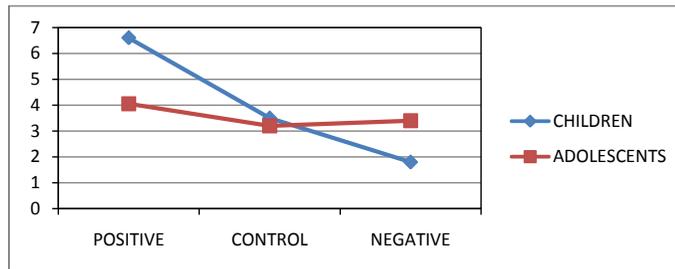
Fig.2: Graph of Mean Scores for Evaluation of Accuracy of Memory for Duration of Time Suspect in view

TABLE 6
Mean Scores for Witnesses' Evaluation of Memory Accuracy for Distance Between Suspect and Camera for All Three Post-Identification Feedback in Children and Adolescents

| Types of Post-identification Feedback	Age Group	
	Children	Adolescents
Positive		
Mean	6.40	4.35
Negative		
Mean	1.40	3.55
No Feedback		
Mean	3.90	3.81
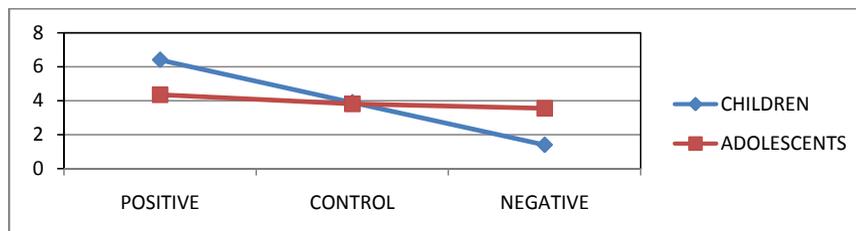
Fig.3: Graph for Mean Scores for Evaluation of Memory Accuracy for Distance between Suspect and Camera

or zero feedback) (Tukey, p < 0.05). However, there is no significant difference for the adolescent group.

feedback for the adolescent witnesses. There is no difference between negative feedback and the zero feedback condition.

d.   Attention while viewing video

Based on Table 7 and Fig.4, mean scores for child witnesses' evaluation of their Accuracy of memory for their attention while watching the video reconstruction are significantly different for all three post-identification conditions (positive, negative, no feedback) (Tukey, p < 0.05). The positive post-identification feedback is significantly different from the negative feedback and the zero

e.   Confidence in identifying suspect

With reference to Table 8 and Fig.5, mean scores for child witnesses' evaluation of their Accuracy of memory for their confidence in identifying the suspect are significantly different for the three post-identification feedback conditions (positive, negative, no or zero feedback) (Tukey, p < 0.05). The positive post-identification feedback is significantly different

TABLE 7
Mean Scores For Evaluation Of Memory Accuracy For Attention While Viewing Video For The Three Post-Dentification Feedback Conditions For Children And Adolescents

| Types of Post-identification Feedback	Age Group	
	Children	Adolescents
Positive		
Mean	6.50	6.10
Negative		
Mean	2.00	4.70
No Feedback		
Mean	3.80	4.80
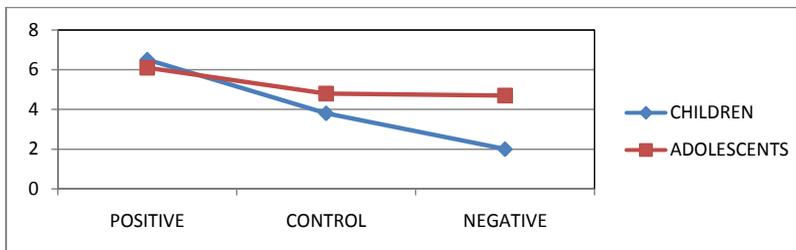
Fig.4: Graph for Mean Scores for Evaluation of Memory Accuracy for Attention while Viewing Video

from the negative feedback and the zero feedback for the adolescent witnesses. There is no difference between the negative feedback and the zero feedback condition.

f. Ease of suspect identification

Based on Table 9 and Fig.6, mean scores for children's evaluation of their Accuracy of memory for the ease in identifying the suspect are significantly different for the three post-identification feedback conditions (positive, negative, no or zero feedback) (Tukey, p< 0.05). The mean scores differ significantly in the positive post-identification feedback and the negative feedback for the adolescent witnesses. Their

memory of ease in identifying the suspect also differ in the positive post-identification feedback and the zero feedback. There is no difference between the negative feedback and the zero feedback control condition.

g. Time taken to identify suspect

Based on Table 10 and Fig.7, mean scores for the child witnesses' evaluation of their memory of the amount of time taken to identify the suspect differ significantly for the three post-identification feedback conditions (positive, negative, no or zero feedback) (Tukey, p < 0.05). The mean scores differ significantly in the positive feedback and the negative feedback for adolescent

TABLE 8
Mean Scores for Evaluation of Memory Accuracy for Confidence in Identifying Suspect for the Three Post-Identification Conditions for Children and Adolescents

| Types of Post-identification Feedback	Age Group	
	Children	Adolescents
Positive		
Mean	6.90	5.55
Negative		
Mean	2.60	3.70
No Feedback		
Mean	4.70	4.25
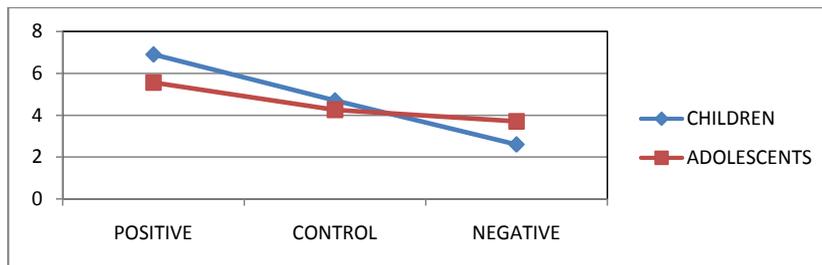
Fig.5: Graph for Mean Scores for Evaluation of Memory Accuracy for Confidence in Identifying Suspect

TABLE 9
Mean Scores for Evaluation of Memory Accuracy for Ease of Suspect Identification for the Three Post-Identification Conditions for Children and Adolescents

| Types of Post-identification Feedback	Age Group	
	Children	Adolescents
Positive		
Mean	6.50	5.40
Negative		
Mean	2.40	3.65
No Feedback		
Mean	3.90	3.60
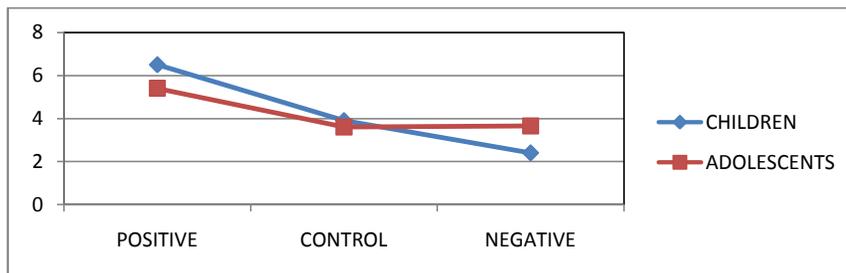
Fig.6: Graph for Mean Scores for Evaluation of Memory Accuracy for Ease of Suspect Identification

TABLE 10
Mean Scores for Evaluation of Memory Accuracy for Time Taken to Identify Suspect for the Three Post-Identification Conditions for Children and Adolescents

| Types of Post-identification Feedback	Age Group	
	Children	Adolescents
Positive		
Mean	6.40	4.85
Negative		
Mean	2.30	3.80
No Feedback		
Mean	3.90	3.65
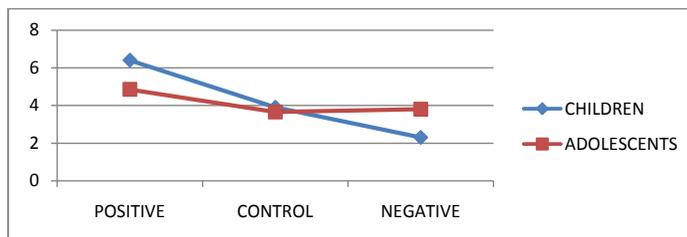
Fig.7: Graph of Mean Scores for Evaluation of Memory Accuracy for Time Taken to Identify Suspect

witnesses. They also differ in the positive feedback and zero feedback conditions. There is no significant difference between the negative feedback and the zero feedback control condition.

h. Willingness to testify in court

Based on Table 11 and Fig.8, mean scores for children's evaluation of their willingness to testify in court differ significantly for the three post-identification feedback conditions (positive, negative, no or zero feedback) (Tukey, p < 0.05). The positive post-identification feedback is significantly different from the negative feedback and the zero feedback conditions for the adolescent witnesses. There is no difference between the negative feedback and the zero feedback control condition.

i. Ability to remember a stranger

Based on Table 12 and Fig.9, the mean scores for child witnesses' ability to remember a stranger are significantly different for the three post-identification feedback conditions (positive, negative, no or zero feedback) (Tukey, p < 0.05). There is no significant difference for adolescent witnesses (Tukey, p > 0.05).

j. Amount of information about suspect

With reference to Table 13 and Fig.10, the mean scores for children's evaluation of their memory of the amount of information about the suspect differ significantly for the three post-identification feedback conditions (positive, negative, no or zero feedback) (Tukey, p < 0.05)., The positive post-identification feedback is significantly different from the negative feedback and the zero feedback conditions for the adolescent witnesses. There is no difference between the negative feedback and the zero feedback control condition.

k. Accuracy of memory on the suspect

Based on Table 14 and Fig.11, the mean scores for child witnesses' evaluation of their memory accuracy on the suspect differ significantly between the three post-identification feedback conditions (positive, negative, no or zero feedback) (Tukey, p < 0.05). The positive feedback condition is significantly different from the negative and the zero feedback conditions for the adolescent witnesses. There is no difference between the negative feedback and the zero feedback control condition.

DISCUSSION

Confidence and retrospective memory evaluations of witnesses are the key determinants to the witness credibility. However, social factors may easily influence and contaminate confidence and

TABLE 11
Mean Scores For Self-Evaluation Of Willingness To Testify In Court For The Three Post-Identification Feedback Conditions For Children And Adolescents

| Types of Post-identification Feedback	Age Group	
	Children	Adolescents
Positive		
Mean	6.40	6.00
Negative		
Mean	2.10	4.15
No Feedback		
Mean	4.90	5.00
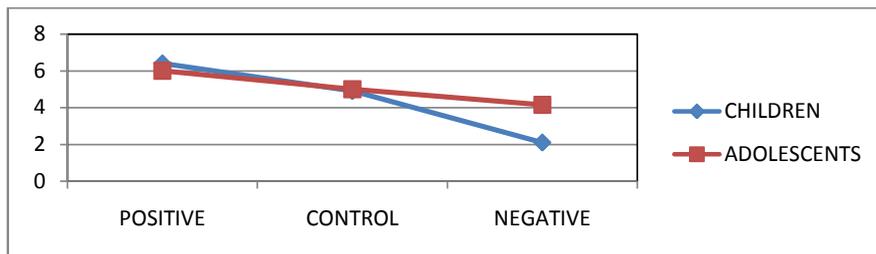
Fig.8: Graph of Mean Scores for Self-Evaluation of Willingness to Testify in Court

TABLE 12
Mean Scores for Self-Evaluation of Ability to Remember a Stranger for the Three Post-Identification Feedback Conditions for Children and Adolescents

| Types of Post-identification Feedback	Age Group	
	Children	Adolescents
Positive		
Mean	6.30	4.55
Negative		
Mean	2.10	3.75
No Feedback		
Mean	4.10	3.90
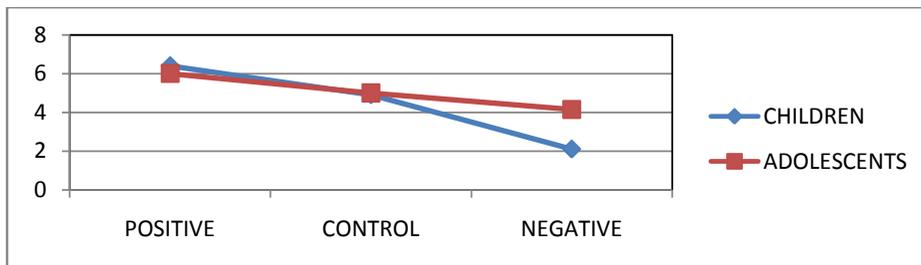
Fig.9: Graph of Mean Scores for Self-Evaluation of Ability to Remember a Stranger

TABLE 13
Mean Scores for Evaluation of Memory of the Amount of Information about Suspect for the Three Post-Identification Feedback Conditions for Children and Adolescents

| Types of Post-identification Feedback	Age Group	
	Children	Adolescents
Positive		
Mean	6.00	5.10
Negative		
Mean	1.90	3.45
No Feedback		
Mean	4.70	3.80
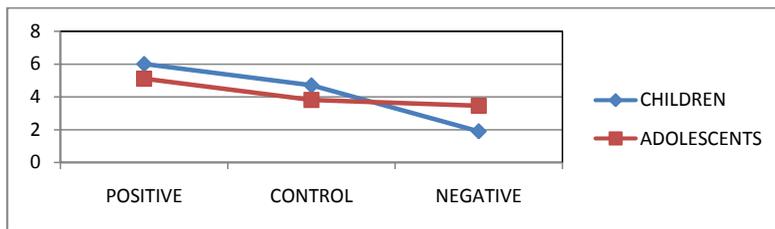
Fig.10: Graph of Mean Scores for Evaluation of Memory of the Amount of Information about Suspect

TABLE 14
Mean Scores for Evaluation of Accuracy of Memory for the Suspect for the Three Post-Identification Feedback Conditions for Children and Adolescents

| Types of Post-identification Feedback	Age Group	
	Children	Adolescents
Positive		
Mean	6.80	5.30
Negative		
Mean	2.20	4.05
No Feedback		
Mean	4.00	4.20
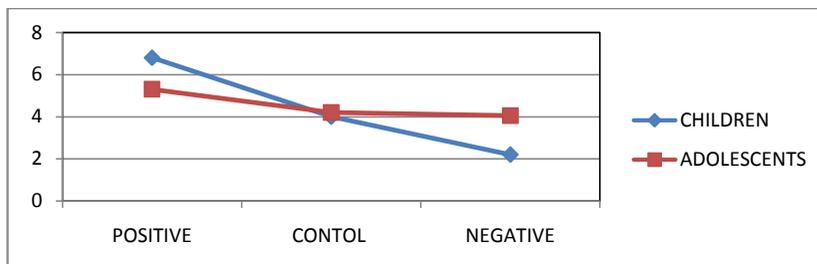
Fig.11: Graph for Mean Scores for Evaluation of Accuracy of Memory for the Suspect

retrospective memory. The results of the current study confirm such contaimination. Firstly, the post-identification feedback affects witnesses of both age groups: children and adolescents. Secondly, both feedback types, positive and negative, easily influence the children; while, only positive feedback easily affects the adolescents. Furthermore, witnesses receiving positive feedback become very confident of their choices. In the situation when witnesses' false confidence become high, they believe that they have viewed the crime clearly, attended fully to the crime scene, and easily identified the suspect. In fact, they are more than willing to testify in court. Therefore, positive feedback has a stronger effect on witnesses' levels of confidence and retrospective memories in comparison to negative feedback.

Consistent with the current findings, other studies also have shown the vulnerability of children to false memories. For example, Rozainee and Charyna (2010) demonstrate that preschool children aged between 3-6 years are vulnerable to false memory across all types of traditional memory measurements such as free recall, cued recall and recognition. The effect size of false memory in these children depends on the type of information presented to them.

Similar to children, the adolescents in the current study show susceptibility to false memories too. Meusel *et al*. (2012) argues that the reason adolescents are more vulnerable to false memories is that they have a more liberal response criterion than adults. Walsh (2004) further argues that the frontal and temporal brain regions of adolescents are still not fully matured resulting biassed response and poor decision making.

Interestingly, both positive and negative feedback affect the children in the current study; whereas, only positive feedback affect the adolescents. In line with the argument on the maturation of frontal and temporal regions of the brain, it is not surprising that the children are poor at decision making and are affected by both positive and negative feedbacks since their brains are even less developmentally matured than adolescents.

Another reason why children and adolescents are suscesptible to post-identification feedback is attributed to suggestibility (Rozainee, 2009). Feedback information may have become suggestive to the participants in view to the fact that it is given by the experimenter whom they regarded as an authority. Children, in particular, are vulnerable to suggestions. Children tend to agree with someone especially if that someone is seen as superior. Ceci *et al*. (1987) have shown in their experiments that children tend to conform to the wishes of an authority figure. The children in the current study are consistently affected by feedback regardless of the type of feedback they receive from the experimenter. However, adolescents have a more liberal biasness (Meusel *et al*.

2012) and only being influenced by positive feedback. The findings of this study support Wells and Bradfield's (1998) paradigm that post-identification feedback affects not only adults but also children and adolescents.

IMPLICATION OF STUDY

The findings of the current study present both theoretical and practical contributions. Theoretically, the current findings fit into the post-identification feedback paradigm pioneered by Wells and Bradfield (1998). We find that post-identification feedback significantly influences children and adolescent witnesses' (false) confidence levels and their various retrospective memories about a crime scene.

In practice, the findings suggest that it is not feasible to presume that child witnesses are credible or competent to testify in a court of law. The impression is that children can be especially easily lured by social factors, such as positive and negative feedback, into making false statements based on false memories. The testimony of child witnesses may possibly need to be supported by other kinds of evidence.

REFERENCES

Brainerd, C. J., Holliday, R. E., Reyna, V. F., Yang, Y., & Toglia, M. P. (2010). Developmental reversals in false memory: Effects of emotional valence and arousal. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 107*, 137-154. doi:10.1016/j.jecp.2010.04.013

Brewer, N., & Wells, G. L. (2006). The confidence-accuracy relation in eyewitness identification: Effects of lineup instructions, foil similarity, and target-absent base rates. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Applied, 12*, 11-30.

Caza, N., Dorè, M. C., Gingras, N., & Rouleau, N. (2011). *Cognition Neuropsychiatry, 16*(3), 218-40. doi:10.1080/13546805.2010.522026.

Ceci, S. J., Ross, D. F., & Toglia, M. P. (1987). *Journal of Experimental Psychology: General, 116*(1), 38-49.

Hafstad, G. S., Memon, A., & Logie, R. (2004). Post-identification feedback, confidence and recollections of witnessing conditions in child witnesses. *Applied Cognitive Psychology, 18*, 901-912.

Lindsay, R. C. L., Wells, G. L., & Rumpel, C. M. (1981). Can people detect eyewitness identification accuracy within and across situations? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 66*, 79–89.

Luus, C. A. E., & Wells, G. L. (1994). The malleability of eyewitness confidence: Co-witness and perseverance effects. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 79*, 714 – 724.

Meusel, L. C., MacQueen, G. M., Jaswal, G., & McKinnon, M. C. (2012). Youth are more vulnerable to false memories than middle-aged adults due to liberal response bias. *Journal of Canadian Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry, 21*(4), 289-295.

Rozainee Khairudin. (2009). Generation of false memory using real life setting. *ANIMA - Indonesian Psychological Journal, 25*(1), 39-46.

Rozainee Khairudin., & Charyna Ayu Rizyanti. (2010). Ingatan palsu dalam kalangan kanak-kanak pra sekolah: Satu bukti kewujudan ingatan palsu daripada eksperimen ingatan. *Jurnal Psikologi Malaysia, 24*, 111-121.

Semmler, C., & Brewer, N. (2006). Postidentification feedback effects on face recognition confidence: Evidence for metacognitive influences. *Applied Cognitive Psychology, 20*, 895-916.

Walsh, D. (2004). *Why do they act that way? A survival guide to the adolescent brain for you and your teen*. New York: Free Press.

Wells, G. L. (1987). Behavioral scientists in courts and corrections. *Canadian Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 19*, 391-392.

Wells, G. L., & Bradfield, A. L. (1999). Distortion in eyewitnesses' recollections: Can the post-identification feedback effect be moderated? *Psychological Science.*

Wells, G. L., & Bradfield, A. L. (1998). "Good, you identified the suspect:" Feedback to eyewitnesses distorts their reports of the witnessing experience. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83*, 360-376.

Parenting Role Model: The Professional Virtues of Malaysian Exemplary Mother (*Ibu Mithālī*)

Jamiah Manap[1]*, Arena Che Kassim[1], Mohammad Rezal Hamzah[2] and Fazilah Idris[3]

[1]*School of Psychology and Human Development, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia*
[2]*Centre for Communication Technology and Human Development, University Malaysia Perlis, 02600 Arau, Perlis, Malaysia*
[3]*Centre of General Studies, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia*

ABSTRACT

Ibu Mithālī is a national award bestowed to the best mothers in Malaysia. Research is conducted using Grounded Theory in qualitative research paradigm to explore their professional virtues as the role model to their children. Rich data are collected using semi-structured interviews, document analysis and observations. The research has discovered six main professional virtues of *Ibu Mithālī*: hardworking; bravery; patience; healthy life style; cleanliness and punctuality. The virtues are pertinent to efficient family management, individual success, career development and community well-being. Thus, more researches should be conducted on successful people in the community as the positive role model and clear guidance of successful and meaningful life.

Keywords: Professional virtues, positive parenting, parenting role model, motherhood, educational psychology

INTRODUCTION

Parenting is the most challenging role for any parent. Good parenting refers to the parents' achievement in developing the potential of their children until they

become individuals with strong faith, good conduct of ethics and beneficial qualities to others (Nik Pa, 2002). In addition, parenting socialization is the major agent of socialization which shapes the child's image on his or her future. Besides, parenting attitudes have a significant relationship with child's future orientation (Mester, 2012). Therefore, parenting role model sets off parents to be the main source of example for the children (Baba, 2010) in developing their personality.

Despite numerous problems occur in any typical family settings, there are still hope and success stories which highlight the achievement of these unsung heroes. These mothers have gone through the hardship and overcome the odds; their maternal instincts enable them to be outstanding in nurturing and educating their children. They are coined as *Ibu Mithālī,* the nation's exemplary mothers. In Malaysia, *Ibu Mithālī* or exemplary mothers, demonstrate profound examples in providing the best care for the children and guiding them to be successful adult despite the adversity and sufferings in raising them. *Ibu Mithālī*, a combination of Malay and Arabic words, means exemplary mothers. In Malaysia, *Ibu Mithālī* Awards or Exemplary Mothers Awards are bestowed to ten successful mothers from year 1980 to year 2010 as recognition from the government for their role in the family; their maternal skills assist greatly in shaping the society. The recipients must fulfil all the criteria of having, at least, five successful children; good personality; positive relationship with others; participative attitude with community and practicing religious way of life. A research should be conducted to reveal the professional virtues among *Ibu Mithālī* as a benchmark of parenting role model.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Role Model

Public figure should demonstrate positive role model and behaviour. However, many public figure such as Tiger Woods, Lindsay Lohan and Bill Clinton are labelled as failure role models (Spurgin, 2013). There are two concepts of role model: 'particularism' and 'generalism'. Particularism role model is a voluntarily role model and specific to one's particular field. Thus, the role model obligations are only to the virtues associated with one's success in the field. For example, a professor's role model obligation extends only to specific virtues such as academic integrity and dedication to academic work (Spurgin, 2012). Generalism role model is not a voluntarily role model. In this case, the role model obligations encompass one's lives. The behaviour of this type of role model greatly influences others especially young people (Spurgin, 2012).

Young children construct internal working model based on attachment relationship starting from infancy stage onwards. Thus, childhood experiences may later affect one's psychosocial functioning during adulthood (McCarthy & Maughan, 2010). For example, higher level of maternal loving behaviour during childhood is significant for satisfaction of love relationship later in adulthood (McCarthy & Maughan, 2010).

The Importance of Role Model

Role model and mentoring is a crucial need for child's development. Jamieson (2012) interviews college students to understand their perception towards positive role model in their lives. In general, positive role model makes an impression to teenagers and inspires them to follow the model. For example, Shaun's, a college principal, dedication to work and commitment in

building the relationship greatly influences her students' growth development in life and career. People usually have more than one role model in life. The role models encompass family members to professionals. Each role model educates, indirectly, on specific roles in life. For examples; a school counsellor shows consistent and healthy relationship with others; and a businessman shows the importance of success and hard work. A positive role model is also important in handling trauma and psychological disorders. For example, a supportive and helpful father and a sister enable a little girl from a broken family to adapt to the life's challenge when her mother left her (Jamieson, 2012).

A growing body of research indicates that adverse childhood experiences are associated with increased risks of a range of poor psychosocial outcomes in adult life. For example, negative parent–child relationships have been linked to difficulties in adult love relationships (McCarthy & Maughan, 2010).

Parenting Role Model

Parents are the most general and extensive set of role model obligations. The obligations require them to show positive role model with high moral virtues to their children. Some of the virtues are respect for others, honesty, integrity, reasonable work ethic and productive. Parents choose to raise their children; thus, the former are responsible to demonstrate the latter how to live well (Spurgin, 2012).

Personality is defined as a set of psychological characteristics that lead one to behave in a consistent way. Indeed, parent's personality and observed behaviour affect their children's personality over time. They play a significant role in the development of children personality trait that promotes competence and personal well-being (Schofield et. al., 2012). Considering that children imitate parents' behaviour through socialization process, positive role model from parents is pertinent in moulding the positive attitude and behaviour of their children.

Financial literacy and financial education affect one's financial skills and social well-being. Financial skills begin with parental teaching and role modelling. Children learn the concepts of saving and money management from parents. Children whose parents are lack of financial literacy might not be able to manage their financial very well. A research on low- and moderate-income homeowners shows positive relationship between parental money management and children's asset-building outcomes in adulthood. Greater parental teaching or guidance during childhood is associated with reduced loan delinquency and foreclosure among low-middle income homeowners in the later years (Grinstein-Weiss *et al.*, 2012). Research should be conducted to reveal the professional virtues among *Ibu Mithālī* as a benchmark of parenting role model.

Mothers are the best role model to their children. Mothers provide mutual love and support for their children (Ellingsen et.

al., 2011). Thus, their values, attitudes and behaviours have huge influence to their children in the early and later years. Mother is a central figure and bestowed in a high position with significant role in nurturing educational process through parenting in family. In Malay society, the role of mother is reflected in the proverb: *"the hand that shakes the cradle will shake the world"*. Flouri (2008) states that children's' attitude, behaviour motivation, and educational attainment are tied very closely to mother's influence. It has given significant revelation that further insight and research on how these exemplary mothers raise and nurture their children. The close bond between these two facts further validate that mother's attitude, expectation and motivation affect their children's academic achievement and behaviour in later years (Flouri & Hawkes, 2008).

There are many ways to enhance the effectiveness of parenting role model. One of them is through a program which focuses on protective family factors. It provides information and skills training activities to help parents to be good role models for their children (Griffin et. al., 2011). Griffin and friends (2011), develop Parental Role Modelling scale with eight items as part of the parenting measurement. The scale assesses the frequency of parental positive behaviour towards their children such as positive self-esteem and strong principle (Griffin *et al.*, 2011).

Professional Virtues

Virtuous professionals are the successful professionals as virtuous life is the happy life for Aristotle (Stovall, 2011). In Aristotelian theory, humans' virtues require to fulfil the definitive function of human being. Professional plays a social role of a profession. Thus, the virtues professionals must exhibit to fulfil that role. Professional virtues help to foster a sense of pride and responsibility among professionals (Stovall, 2011). There are two prominent ethical frameworks namely utilitarianism and deontic ethics. These two ethics are known as the virtue of ethics because they specify the nature of social goods and provide a relevant framework of thinking about good practice (Bessent, 2009).

A virtuous life is a part of professional identity. Each type of profession has its own ethics of conduct to boost their effectiveness and efficiency at work. For example, the virtue of selflessness or unselfishness is an important quality among professional practicing nurses (Cusveller, 2011). In engineering profession, the professional engineers have been taught about the engineering ethics that promote their awareness in protecting the public from professional misconducts and harmful effects of technology. On the other hand, there are certain characteristics about the engineering professionalism that are unable to be adequately accounted for in terms of rules, certainly not negative rules: (1) sensitivity to risk; (2) awareness of the social context of technology; (3) respect for nature; and (4) commitment to the

public good, (Harris, 2008). Therefore, a research should be conducted to disclose the professional virtues among *Ibu Mithālī* as a standard of parenting role model.

METHOD

Participants

The participants of the research are *Ibu Mithālī* or exemplary mothers and their children. There were 10 mothers awarded as *Ibu Mithālī* since 1984. Regretfully, five of them have passed away and one is under medical treatment at the ICU. Thus, only four of the identified *Ibu Mithālī are* able to participate in the research. As mentioned earlier, another group of participants are the children of *Ibu Mithālī*. The age range of the participating children are between 6 to 17 years. These children come from various backgrounds of study and career and have been proven to be very successful**.**

Procedure

The research employs several methods in data collection to obtain sufficient information on *Ibu Mithālī's* moral virtues as a positive role model for their children. The methods used are series of interview with *Ibu Mithālī* and respective children, document analysis related to *Ibu Mithālī* and observation. The data analysis begins from the data collection and ends when it becomes saturated. According to Charmaz (2008), saturated signifies that there is no new relevant categories emerge from the data. Data analysis starts with initial coding, axial coding and coding. The initial coding marks the start of data analysis. At the initial coding, the data from the interviews is transcribed and the written documents are coded by categorising it according to incidents. Subsequently, the data is compared using constant comparative method. About 100 codes are generated during open coding. The codes are then merged into 11 categories. The codes are correlated with each other in axial coding. At this stage, the codes are merged into three major categories. In selective coding, the codes are intertwined with the previous literature reviews or theories to build a story plot and the virtues of *Ibu Mithālī's* model.

Research Design

The qualitative research design of this research is based on Grounded Theory approach. The research applies Grounded theory approach to generate theory from the data inductively. Grounded theory is used to answer the main research question for this research, "what are the professional virtues of *Ibu Mithālī*?", and develop theory from the ground.

RESULT

Good character is a symbol of the perfection of faith (Al-Ghazali, 2005). Professional virtues is a part of good character. The virtue protects and enhances the standard quality of a profession at work. The research discovers that *Ibu Mithālī* or exemplary mothers demonstrate an important quality of professional virtues as a positive role model to their children. They are hard-working, brave, patient, punctual, practicing healthy

life styles and good cleanliness. The virtues are pertinent for *Ibu Mithālī* to excellently nurture their children, maintain positive family climate, perform household chores, and complete their tasks at work or in the community.

Hard-Working

Ibu Mithālī or exemplary mothers are, undoubtedly, hard-working women. At early age, they have helped their parents: wake-up early in the morning, cook for the family and perform multiple jobs to support the family income.

Since the age of six years, Madam Zabedah has helped her family selling cakes. For about nine years she has voluntarily sold the cakes early in the morning to ease the burden of her family. As a matter of fact, her diligence and hard work since childhood is a good training ground for her being a savvy entrepreneur. It is proven that she has been the bread and butter to ease the family burden.

> *At the age of six years, Hajjah Zabedah peddled cakes. At the age of nine years old, Hajjah Zabedah joined Kajang Malay School. She sold cakes as early as six o'clock in the morning. The remaining snacks would be sold at the schools.*
> (Jawiah, 2011).

Madam Ayot has similar experience. She assisted her mother selling cakes, growing vegetables and fruits since her childhood. The labour, meant for adults,

signifies that ever since childhood she works hard to support her family. She also learns to be a responsible person and a caring sister to her family.

> *She helped her mother making cakes and peddling the goodies to cover school expenses. Their efforts in supporting family income continued by exploring the edge of unnamed land for farming, growing vegetables and fruits to improve the income of the family.*
> (Siti Rogayah, 2011).

Ibu Mithālī is also a morning person as she wakes up early in the morning to manage the children and the family. This is important to ensure various activities for the day are taken care of. *Ibu Mithālī* wakes up before dawn to perform prayers and prepares breakfast. For example, Madam Maimon woke up at about 3.00 am to 4.00 am daily.

Mrs. Azizah, a former Headmistress, daughter of late Madam Maimon's explains, "My mother woke up at three o-clock in the morning."

> *Hajjah Maimon woke up as early as four o'clock in the morning to start performing her daily tasks especially when her children were still school goers. While others were still dreaming, she would be in the kitchen preparing food for her husband and children.*
> (Mastura, 2011).

Madam Esah, too, wakes up at 4.00 am to bake cakes for her family. She must provide enough cakes for her children early in the morning. Immediately after that, she has to continue to perform rubber tapping by dawn.

Madam Esah's daughter, Mrs. Rosilah, a teacher reminisces, "My mother makes tepung talam, koci cakes, or other savoury cakes as early as 4.00 am. Each child gets three pieces."

Ustaz Ashraf associates her mother's wake-up time with a species of bird. His mother, Madam Kalsum, wakes up before dawn to manage her children and prepare them for school. During the 70's, the electrical items such as electrical iron was limited. So, his mother resorts to using charcoal iron which is difficult to handle and a bit hazardous in case of mishandling.

Madam Kalsum's son, Ustaz Ashraf, a lecturer evokes old memory, "The sound of a particular bird, perhaps woody wood pecker or somewhat similar, reminds me of my mother. She wakes up before the bird starts singing in the morning."

Similarly, Madam Awiah, the 10th *Ibu Mithālī*, too, wakes up around 3.00 am to 4.30 am.

Usually she wakes up at 4.30 am. She wakes up as early as 3.00 am if she decides to cook nasi lemak.

Madam Enjah wakes up at 4 am.

Every day she gets up at four in the morning to manage the children's' needs for schools such as food and clothing. Then she bakes cakes to be delivered to few shops.

(Nik Safiah, 2011b).

Ibu Mithālī loves to cook for her children. For example, Madam Kalsum wakes up very early to cook rice and cakes for her children. Her effort is very important because good breakfast provides enough energy and nutrition for the children. It is also needed to develop their brain cells.

Madam Kalsum's son, Ustaz Ashraf, a lecturer says, "My mother wakes up for Subuh prayer. Then she cooks rice and cookies for her children."

Cooking was Madam Ayot's passion. She was skilful in preparing various types of cakes and biscuits for *Eid Celebration*. It was a financial relief that helped the family during the festive celebrations. The allocated money for the cookies could be channelled for educational purposes. In addition, her children enjoyed the excitement of preparing their own festive cookies.

The late Madam Ayot's son, Dr. Ahmad, a dentist explains, "We did not buy Raya cookies because my mother baked all of them for Hari Raya celebration. She baked various types of cakes and biscuits."

Madam Esah shares the same passion for cooking. She provides food for her children, daily, except on Sundays. Cooking has proven to be a tool for prudent spending. It supports the family constraint budget. At the same time, it is a good and healthy practice. Every weekend, she trains her daughters how to prepare dishes. The training is

important to improve the cooking skills and at the same time develop responsible traits.

Madam Esah's daughter, Mrs. Rosilah, a teacher explains, "My mother prepares breakfast early in the morning. She cooks all the dishes on her own. I only help during school holidays. All food is already cooked when the children reach home."

Although the job to provide food on the table or improve family's financial expenditure is not the responsibility of a wife, the sensitivity towards her husband's limited income, eventually, leads the *Ibu Mithālī* to venture in various jobs to support their family.

For example, the late Madam Ayot, sewed scarves until late at night to sell them to the community in order to finance the children's school expenses. She understood that her husband's low salary was insufficient to support the immediate family and other relatives who relied on her husband. Therefore, she did the extra work at home. Sewing was one of the ways for her to secure income. That eased her husband's financial burden, at the same time, enabled her to monitor the progress of their children.

The late Madam Ayot's son, Dr. Ahmad, a dentist reiterates "My mother still worked on sewing and stitching till midnight."

Madam Esah is a hard working woman; the attributes she developed since the early age. She loves to work and feels restless if there is nothing to do. At the age of 70, Madam Esah still involves in a small scale business and performs household work even though the family financial situation is stable and all of her 17 children are now working.

Before the interview, she has just come back from rubber tapping. In addition, there are plenty of dried betel nut in her compound up for sale.

The children always request her to stop working as they can afford to care and provide her with allowance but she declines the offer. Instead, she continues with her business of making herbal medicine from the roots, selling cucumber oil, producing preserved fish, performing massages, and providing the needs of mothers during maternity confinement. Evidently, *Ibu Mithālī* chooses to be independent. She does not depend on her children's financial income even though a lot of money and sacrifice have been made for her children's education and development.

Madam Esah's daughter, Mrs. Rosilah, a teacher further describes her mother, "She is hardworking, determined and never grumbles. She prepares breakfast for her children. She believes that it is all about responsibilities. She has never felt tired every day in her life."

Madam Esah is also a very productive person. She produces traditional herbs and beauty products, do rubber tapping and gardening until today. She enjoys occupying her time with work and she views it as her hobby.

> *She sells herbs, traditional cooling powder or bedak sejuk, cucumber oil, medicine and other traditional medicine. In fact, she still does all those activities and do rubber tapping. She spends most of her time devoting to the soil. At the*

compound of the house, there are varieties of flowers and fruits.

(Noor Aziah, 2011)

Bravery

Ibu Mithālī is a brave person. Madam Kalsum has been left alone with her baby on the hill during the early days of her marriage. Her husband always leaves home for missionary programs. Her bravery makes it possible for her husband to serve the community in peace and also enables her to take care of her children by herself. It helps in nurturing the same attitude to her children.

Madam Kalsum's son, Ustaz Ashraf, a lecturer explains, "My family lives on a hill. My father scatters sulphur surrounding the perimeter of the house for protection. My mother is left behind to take care of home and the children while he is away."

Madam Maimon was a timid person, but able to deliver public speaking when required. Her children were impressed with this special quality. . It also indicates that she could easily adapt to any situations. Her bravery enabled her to share knowledge and experiences in nurturing her children with the society.

The late Madam Maimon's daughter, Dr. Aminah, a Medical Doctor says, "My mother was timid but she could perform public speaking upon invitation by the Religious Department or Educational Department. My siblings thought that she was not courageous enough. Well at least not until she had received the award."

Ibu Mithālī is also known for her boldness in challenging the norm because she believes in doing the right thing. For example, Madam Wan Mas and her cousin are very brave in breaking the norm to be the first girls attending school in Kelantan. Their persistence highly stigmatizes the community. Despite the obstacles and ill treatment of others, they still pursue education. Their courage and perseverance have been a great example to the community. In the end, they manage to enlighten the public on the importance of education to female children.

Madam Wan Mas's daughter, Mrs. Nik Mastura, a former Educational Officer says, "At that time there were only two girls and the rest were boys. Her father was one of the boys."

Patience

Ibu Mithālī's children perceive their mothers as persons with high tolerance and patience. The children opine that it is impossible to handle their behaviour smartly without patience. However, *Ibu Mithālī,* can easily practice patience. Their strong faith and consistencies in performing prayer develop the nature of patience. In addition, the caring nature of motherhood drives the trait of patience.

Madam Kalsum's son, Ustaz Ashraf, a lecturer says, "She (Madam Kalsum) has patience... ".

Late Madam Maimon's daughter, Mrs. Azizah, a Former Headmistress describes her mother, " My mom was a patient person."

Mrs. Rosilah, Madam Esah's daughter expresses her amazement about her mother's abundance of patience excellently bringing up 17 children.

Madam Esah's daughter, Mrs. Rosilah, a teacher describes, "My mum was a person of patience….."

Mrs. Mastura says that her mother is very patient even when other people criticize her severely. Her religious knowledge enables her to handle bad behaviour of others with patience. It is also part of wisdom.

Madam Wan Mas's daughter, Mrs. Nik Mastura, a former Educational Officer says, "Some people comment on her attitude. Other people comments on her never affect us for all the comments are merely human talk. We just do not over-think them. Besides, we have learnt enough from religious teaching to handle the challenges wisely."

Madam Kamariah is incredibly patient in nurturing her children, taking good care of her husband as well as her mother-in-law. Normally, living under the same roof with a mother-in-law triggers various difficulties to a wife. Moreover, not many people are able to live together and care for an ailing mother-in-law for many years unless he or she is exceptionally patient. Madam Kamariah did it without hesitation.

> *… Hajjah Kamariah successfully and wisely managed the house chores. No doubt she faced with difficulties in caring for her ailing mother-in-law. Nevertheless,*

> *Hajjah Kamariah was able to live together with the ailing mother-in-law under the same roof with peace and harmony for 25 years until she (the mother in law) passed away in 1975.*
>
> (Rahmah, 2011)

Madam Kalsum is also a very patient person. Her unwavering patience makes it possible for her to nurture her 15 children with full of love and care. In addition, she also took care of the welfare of her elderly mother-in-law. The mother-in-law lived with her until her death at the age of nearly 100 years old. According to her son, Ustaz Ashraf, it had not been an easy task for his mother because his grandmother was too old. Madam Kalsum's patience has greatly influenced her children in carrying their responsibilities to their parents. Evidently, the children, immediately rush home to provide the first class medicine and treatment for their parents when either one of them falls ill.

> *A house located in front of the mosque in Kampung Jarak Atas, Seberang Perai, Penang, is the witness on how this hardworking mother, Madam Kalsum, the 8th Ibu Mithālī, brings up her 15 children with great patience and virtue of religious education and Malay customs.*
>
> (Noor Aziah, 2011a).

Healthy Life Style

Strong body enables *Ibu Mithālī* to perform various useful activities. Strong body is a result of a healthy lifestyle. For example, Madam Esah is extremely concerned about healthy lifestyles. She has started consuming herbs since early age. She also takes balanced diet and avoids food that may possibly be harmful to the body. As a matter of fact, she is extraordinarily concerned about her food intake especially after maternity. On top of consuming healthy food, Madam Esah is also active in agricultural activities. Such activities require active physical movement resulting healthy body. For example, a research shows that exercise or physical activities of 15 to 20 minutes, performed at least three times per week may reduce stress (Jamsiah *et al*., 2010). Consuming nutritious food coupled with maintaining active lifestyles had enabled her to be physically healthy at the age of 70's. In comparison, most of her friends are either sick or weak.

Madam Esah's husband, Mr. Sulaiman proudly says, " Madam Esah loves to take herbs. Thus, she is strong. Unfortunately, her friends are sick."

Madam Esah, the 9th Ibu Mithālī confesses, "I only ate rice, boiled vegetables and grilled fish during maternity confinement. Nowadays, I eat bitter beans and avoid cucumber because it is believed to be 'cold' bringing negative effects to our body."

Likewise, Madam Wan Mas, has been practicing healthy lifestyles. She loves salads in each meal.

Madam Wan Mas's daughter, Mrs. Nik Mastura, a former Educational Officer admits, " I did not eat salad since I was a child but my mother did."

In addition, Madam Esah possesses the skills in concocting traditional herbs and producing food supplements for the entire family. One of her children, Madam Rosilah has inherited the skill. The skill helps Madam Esah to practice healthy lifestyle as well as promote it to others. In addition, her caring towards the societies is pivotal when she illustrates concern on women's health and beauty through the manufacturing of cooling powder or *bedak sejuk* using natural fragrance. Furthermore, her products are proven safe from hazardous chemical substances which may possibly cause negative long-term effect to women's health and beauty.

During the visit, the researcher finds Madam Esah looking stunning, healthy and fit despite the fact that she has been performing multiple tasks since her young age and given birth to 17 babies. Her husband also looks strong and healthy as he also eats herbs that she supplies with honey on a daily basis. On this note, our new generation should learn from her ability to maintain health and beauty despite the challenges and difficulties in life. Special documentation should be considered to document her secrets to healthy lifestyles.

> *She cleanses and dries spices. Subsequently, she blends the spices and encases them into capsules. Hajjah Esah herbal spices are very*

popular among people, especially women after childbirth.

(Noor Aziah, 2011c)

All *Ibu Mithālī* have many children. The minimum number of children that they have is six. It indicates that they are strong and healthy prior to entering menopause stage. According to Abdullah (2010), health is an important criteria of choosing a wife considering only healthy women are able to fulfil her responsibilities towards the family. The responsibilities includes managing child education, household chores and family welfare.

Cleanliness

Madam Awiah is extremely particular about cleanliness. She ensures that her house is clean and tidy before leaving home. She also makes certain that her children's bedrooms are also neat, clean and tidy. Her late husband, a former soldier, may possibly have influenced her cleanliness attitude in view of his job requiring strict self-discipline.

Madam Awiah, the 10th Ibu Mithālī proudly says, "The bedding must be clean. If the children are able to iron, then iron it. That is the soldier's trait and discipline of their late father."

Madam Enjah is also utterly concerned about cleanliness. Her house is clean and tidy despite its small capacity crammed with high occupancy of residents. It shows that both husband and wife constantly train their children to pay attention to personal

hygiene, clothing and cleanliness of home during their childhood.

Both husband and wife, Madam Enjah and Mr. Ismail, are exceptionally concerned about cleanliness. Although their house is small crammed with many children, their home is clean and tidy. Their clothing are also clean .

(Nik Safiah, 2011a)

During the visit to Madam Wan Mas and Madam Awiah's house, the researcher observes that both houses are clean and tidy, despite the fact that the visit is a day earlier than schedule. The house is maintained clean and tidy. Madam Esah's house compound, living room, kitchen, toilet and bathroom are all in good condition.

Punctuality

Ibu Mithālī is also entirely concerned about time management. For example, Madam Maimon had ensured that they would depart early in the morning for long journeys. She would also ensure that they arrive before the evening prayer. Evidently, she was a very punctual person. She was always on time for any appointment. Her exceptional time management habit has immensely influenced her family. Punctuality and effective time management have been inculcated as her family culture, too.

The late Madam Maimon's daughter, Mrs. Azizah, a former Headmistress says, "If the travelling distance was far, we would leave early in the morning. We must be ready

right after dawn and arrive home before dusk. My mother would always be punctual when it comes to time. If she had promised 6 o'clock, we would be ready by then. She was very stringent on time management. Thus, effective time management has been the culture of our family."

Evidently, *Ibu Mithālī's* punctuality can also be seen from their wake-up time. Their wake up time is always early in the morning. They start with performing obligatory prayer at the beginning of the day as previously discussed at subtopics under hard-working.

DISCUSSION

Parenting, especially being a mother is a choice. Mother is a voluntarily role model. She is obligated to demonstrate the best virtues to her children for their entire life. Thus, mother's role model are the combination of both concept of role model by Spurgin (2012): particularism and generalism. Mother-child high attachment increases the influence of mother's attitude and behaviour, through early experience of motherhood, in shaping their children's personality and behaviour throughout adulthood.

Mother's parenting role model begins since pregnancy until demise. However, the effect of parenting role model of mothers towards one's behaviour and personality can be seen and observed since infancy until late-stage of human life. It is due to the attachment relationship between mothers and children which later affect the psychosocial functioning at later age (2010).

Mother is a multi-tasking profession. They play their role as a care giver, chef, manager, dietician, financial administrator, health co-ordinator, social worker, counsellor, therapist, psychologist, consultant and teacher for their children. Thus, being a successful mother needs a range of professional virtues.

Ibu Mithālī possesses high professional virtues in everyday life. She is hardworking, brave, patient, punctual, committed to healthy life style and cleanliness. Those virtues drive all *Ibu Mithālī* to be competent, effective and efficient. It is proven through the life achievement and good ethics of conduct among their children as documented by Nik Safiah and friends (2004).

A normal and healthy person usually has more than one role model in their whole life. However, parenting role model affects most. Thus, a mother must possess good characters and positive quality of life as a role model and a mentor to her children. Mothers are responsible to positive experience of their children in order to enhance their positive psychosocial outcomes during adulthood.

Special parenting role model inventory should be developed based on special context to measure the practice of good parenting role model among mothers. The measurement may also be the preventive measure of negative parenting role model especially to young people and future mothers. Based on the measurement, a special module for parenting group counselling and training program can be developed to mould positive parenting role model especially to mothers.

CONCLUSION

In summary, the professional virtues enable the exemplary mothers in managing their family, career and community work efficiently despite their life hardship. In other words, they possess balanced personalities which promote human equilibrium and well-being. At the same time, they become positive role model to their children through socialization process in the family. These virtues are then internalized by Their children, internalize these virtues that inspire them to be excellent in academic institutions, community, and career.

REFERENCES

Abdul Hamid Siddiqui. (2012). *Translation of Sahih Muslim*. Retrieved July 3, 2012. http://www.iium.edu.my/deed/hadith/muslim/index.html

Al-Ghazali, M. (1995). *Ihyā' 'ulūm al-dīn (The revival of religious sciences)*. Kuala Lumpur: Victory Agencies.

Baba, S. (2010). *Keluarga sakinah (Peaceful family)*. Shah Alam: Alaf 21.

Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: Practical guide through qualitative analysis*. London: Sage Publications.

Ellingsen, I. T., Shemmings, D., & Størksen, I. (2011). The concept of 'family' among Norwegian adolescents in long-term foster care. *Child Adolescent Social Work Journal 28*, 301–318. doi 10.1007/s10560-011-0234-0

Flouri, E. A., & Hawkes, D. (2008). Ambitious mothers - successful daughters: Mothers' early expectations for children's education and children's earnings and sense of control in adult life. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 78*(3), 411-433.

Griffin, K. W., & Samuolis, J. (2011). Efficacy of a self-administered home-based parent intervention on parenting behaviors for preventing adolescent substance use. *Journal of Child Family Study, 20*, 319–325.

Grinstein-Weiss, M., Spader, J. S., Yeo, Y. H., Key, C. C., & Freeze, E. B. (2012). Loan performance among low-income households: Does prior parental teaching of money management matter? *Social Work Research, 36*(4), 257- 270. doi: 10.1093/swr/svsOie

Jamieson, D. (2012). Role models, mentors, and other heroes. *Relational Child and Youth Care Practice, 26*(1), 43-47.

Jamsiah, M., Rosnah, S., & Noor Hassim, I. (2010). Stres dalam kalangan penduduk dewasa luar bandar, Daerah Hulu Langat, Selangor (Stress among rural adult community, Hulu Langat District, Selangor). *Journal of Community Health, 16*(1), 2-9.

Karim, N. S., & Mohd. Awal, N. A. (2011). *Siri dokumentasi MPWIM: Ibu Mithālī (MPWIM documentation series: Exemplary mother)*. Kuala Lumpur: Yayasan Dakwah Islamiah Malaysia.

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (1989). *Designing qualitative research* (3rd ed.). California: SAGE Publications.

McCarthy, G., & Maughan, B. (2010). Negative childhood experiences and adult love relationships: The role of internal working models of attachment. *Attachment & Human Development, 12*(5), 445–461.

Mester, D. (2012). Impacts of family socialization on young adults' future –oriented goals. *Transylvanian Journal of Psychology, 13(2)*, 165-190.

Mohd. Awal, N. A. (2011). Ibu Mithālī ke-9: Hajjah Esah binti Din (1937-) (The 9th exemplary mother: Hajjah Esah binti Din. In Nik Safiah Nik Abdul Karim & Noor Aziah Mohd Awal (Eds.).

Siri dokumentasi MPWIM: Ibu Mithālī (MPWIM documentation series: Exemplary mother). Kuala Lumpur: Yayasan Dakwah Islamiah Malaysia.

Muhammad Farooq-i-Azam Malik. (1997). *English translation of the meaning of al-Qur'an: The guidance for mankind*. Texas: The Institute of Islamic Knowledge.

Nik Pa, N. A. (2002). *Keluarga berdaya maju.* Kuala Lumpur: Penerbit Universiti Malaya.

Schofield, T. J., Conger, R. D., Donnellan, M. B., Jochem, R., Widaman, K. F., & Conger, K. J. Parent personality and positive personality as predictors of positive adolescent personality development over time. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 58*(2), 255-283.

Spurgin, E. (2012). Hey, how did I become a role model? Privacy and the extent of role-model obligations, *Journal of Applied Philosophy, 29*(2), 118-132. doi: 10.1111/j.1468-5930.2012.00557.x

Ulwan, A. N. (1996). *Tarbiatul aulad (nurturing children)*. Kuala Lumpur: Victory Agencies.

SOCIAL SCIENCES & HUMANITIES

Exploring the Mediating Mechanisms in the Personality-Job Performance Relationship

Fatimah Wati Halim[1]*, Arifin Zainal[2], Fatimah Omar[1], Sarah Waheeda Muhammad Hafidz[1] and Mas Ayu Othman[1]

[1]*School of Psychology and Human Development, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, 43600 Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia*
[2]*Faculty of Applied Social Sciences, Open University Malaysia, Jalan Tun Ismail, 50480 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia*

ABSTRACT

Meta-analytic studies have consistently reported that job performance has a significant relationship with personality traits. However, only a limited number of researches have been conducted to find the mechanisms that mediate this relationship. Thus, this study attempts to examine the direct role of personality traits as predictors of job performance and the indirect influence of achievement motivation as a mediating variable. Personality measurement tools are adapted from Cattell and achievement motivation from Cassidy and Lynn. Job performance indicator is obtained from annual job performance evaluations. All three personality traits are integrated into a model that predicts job performance and achievement motivation. The model is tested using structural equation modelling (SEM) with a sample of 450 public administrative officers. Results of the model show that it has goodness of fit and achievement motivation is found to fully mediate the relationship between conscientiousness and agreeableness toward job performance. However, emotional stability directly influences job performance. All the predictors contribute 24% of the variance in job performance. Implication of the finding is that emotional stability and achievement motivation can be the essential predictors in predicting job performance of future candidates followed by agreeableness and conscientiousness.

Keywords: Personality, achievement motivation, job performance

INTRODUCTION

The individual difference model of job performance states that personality and motivation are the main factors that influence job performance (Campbell *et*

al., 1993; Motowidlo *et al*., 1997). Findings from meta-analysis studies on the five factor model show that personality factors like conscientiousness, emotional stability and agreeableness have significant correlations with job performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991) and motivation (Judge & Ilies, 2002). Other studies show that motivation acts as an important mediator in the relationship between personality and job performance (Barrick *et al*., 2002; Judge *et al*., 2007; Hart *et al*., 2007). Nevertheless, only a few studies have been conducted to identify achievement motivation as a mediator in the relationship between personality and job performance (Barrick *et al*., 2001; Barrick & Mount, 2005; Rothstein & Goffin, 2006). The current study aims to explore the mechanism of achievement motivation as a mediator in the relationship between conscientiousness, emotional stability and agreeableness toward job performance.

In general, conscientiousness is a factor that measures responsibility, discipline and order; emotional stability measures individual skill in controlling stress, anxiety and depression; agreeableness measures the likelihood that one is receptive, good-natured and relates to people with respect and honour. In relation to that, the interrelationship between conscientiousness, emotional stability and agreeableness develops workers who function well in an organization (Barrick *et al*., 2001).

On the other hand, achievement motivation is the desire to do something to the level of excellence (Reeve, 2009). Motivation learning psychologists view

level of excellence as the desire to succeed. Weiner (1974) sees achievement motivation as a cognitive process, that is an individual's ability to perceive work outcomes as being more influenced by intrinsic motivation than extrinsic motivation. Such a view is consistent with Koestner and McClelland's (1990), where an individual with high achievement motivation is significantly related to high intrinsic motivation. The concept of achievement motivation in the current study refers to three intrinsic achievement motivation factors namely job ethic, excellence and mastery. These factors are suggested by Cassidy and Lynn (1989).

OVERVIEW OF MEDIATING MECHANISMS

Theoretically, achievement motivation is the determining component as well as the personality factors of conscientiousness, emotional stability and agreeableness. The three personality factors are identified as the predictors of job performance as suggested by Motowidlo *et al*.'s (1997) individual difference theory on task performance and contextual performance. Motowildo *et al*. (1997) states that the importance of personality influences job performance. Therefore, personality does not influence job performance without having motivation as its mediator. There are studies showing individuals with high achievement motivation also have intrinsic motivation rather than extrinsic motivation (Koestner & McClelland, 1990). Conscientiousness, emotional stability and agreeableness are found to have a significant relationship with

intrinsic achievement motivation rather than with extrinsic motivation (Hart *et al*., 2007). A study by Barrick *et al.* (2002) shows a consistent result whereby they also discover that the three personality factors are correlated directly with job performance and partially correlated with motivation as its mediator. Story *et al.*'s (2009) study shows that intrinsic achievement motivation correlated positively with achievement expectation, cognitive need and self-reinforcement. While, extrinsic achievement motivation is only correlated with general achievement.

Proposed Model

The current study proposes conceptual framework consisting of four variables; conscientiousness, emotional stability, agreeableness, achievement motivation and job performance. These are shown in Fig.1. The conceptual framework suggests

conscientiousness, emotional stability and agreeableness as predictors and independent variables. Researches have shown that these three Big Five traits yield the strongest and most consistent direct predictors of job performance (Barrick *et al*., 2001; Cattell, 1943; Costa & McCrae, 1988; Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1981; Hough & Oswald, 2000; Rothstein & Goffin, 2006; Salgado, 2003). Achievement motivation acts as the mediator variable, while job performance is the dependent variable. A few studies show that motivation plays the important role of a mediator in the relationship between personality and job performance (Barrick *et al*., 2002; Judge *et al*., 2007; Hart *et al*., 2007). However, the studies showing this fact are still scarce (Barrick *et al*., 2001; Rothstein & Goffin, 2006). As a whole, the proposed conceptual framework presents the interrelation between conscientiousness, emotional stability and agreeableness that
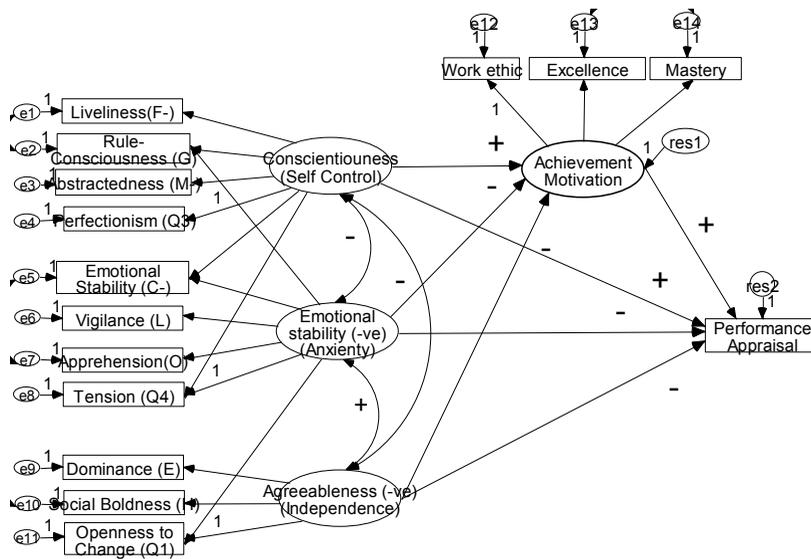

Fig.1: Proposed model

may influence job performance directly and partially when the relationship is mediated by achievement motivation.

Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability, Agreeableness and Motivation Achievement

Musson *et al.*'s (2004) study shows that conscientiousness is correlated positively with mastery, an intrinsic achievement motivation; work ethics, an intrinsic achievement motivation; while, neuroticism, a negative emotional stability is correlated negatively with mastery. A study conducted by Paspalanov (1984) shows that anxiety is correlated positively with achievement motivation. Gellatly (1996) also finds an influence of conscientiousness on the effort to perfection, namely achievement. Based on the results, he concludes that conscientiousness may influence achievement motivation directly. Nevertheless, findings from Gellatly's (1996) study show that emotional stability and agreeableness do not influence perfection (Achievement Motivation**).** A study by Hart *et al.* (2007) using the achievement motivation questionnaire, CLAM by Cassidy and Lynn (1989), and the *Big Five* inventory (John & Srivastava 1999) show that agreeableness and conscientiousness are correlated positively with intrinsic achievement motivation. While, anxiety (Negative Emotional Stability) has a negative correlation with intrinsic achievement.

Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability, Agreeableness, and Job Performance

Results from meta-analytic study show that conscientiousness, emotional stability and agreeableness make a significant reliable prediction towards job performance for all types of job (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick *et al.*, 2001; Hurtz & Donovan, 2000; Salgado, 2003; Hogan & Ones, 1997). A study conducted in Hong Kong also shows that conscientiousness, emotional stability and agreeableness predict job performance significantly (Tyler & Newcombe, 2006). However, Jiang *et al.*'s (2009) study in China shows that only conscientiousness has a significant relationship with job performance. In the local context, Edham (2009), Fatimah Wati *et al.* (2011), and Fatimah Wati (2012), show that conscientiousness and emotional stability have positive relationships with job performance. In contrast, agreeableness shows a different result. Edham (2009) finds that agreeableness is correlated positively with job performance; whereas, Fatimah Wati (2009) finds a negative relationship between these two variables. Generally, previous studies that have shown a reliable prediction among these three personality factors still do not consistently predict job performance. According to Barrick *et al.* (2001), Barrick *et al.* (2005), and Rothstein and Goffin (2006), the reliability of an inconsistent prediction among the three personality factors towards job performance is influenced by a mediator variable effect. Despite the findings, only few studies have

been conducted to support the existence of a mediator or mechanism between personality and job performance.

METHOD AND MATERIAL

Respondents

In this study, data are collected from 450 middle level civil servant officers from a training institution in Malaysia. Among these participants, 269 are males, and 154 are females. The average age of the participants is 40.85 years and the average work experience is 18.25 years. The ethnic breakdown of the respondents is 390 Malays, 35 Chinese, 18 Indians and 7 from other ethnicities. The average of having higher education is 86.9%.

Instruments

The standardized questionnaires used are as follows:

1. The 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF) Fifth Edition.

   The five global scales give an overview of an individual's personality makeup at a broad level of functioning. While, the more specific primary scales provide an in-depth picture of the individual's unique personality dynamic (Cattell & Schuerger, 2003). However, for the purpose of this study only ~~three~~ two global scales are chosen; conscientiousness and emotional stability. The primary trait of conscientiousness consisting of rule-consciousness (G+), perfectionism (Q+), liveliness (F-) and abstractedness (M-)

The primary trait of emotional stability consisting of emotional stability (C-), vigilance (L+), apprehension (O+) and tension (Q4+). In addition, the primary trait of agreeableness (-ve) consists of dominance (E), social boldness (H) and openness to change (Q1). The 16PF is translated (Fatimah Wati & Arifin 2010) into Bahasa Melayu using the back translation method. Participants respond to the 16PF items using a three-point Likert scale. Alpha does the estimation for the Bahasa Melayu version based on 450 adults are liveliness (F) = 0.71, rule-consciousness (G) = 0.86, abstractness (M) = 0.81, perfectionism (Q3) = 0.86, emotionality stability (C) = 0.74, vigilance (L) = 0.76, apprehension (O) = 0.70, tension (Q4) = 0.70, dominance (E) = 0.71, social boldness (H) = 0.80 and openness to change (Q1) = 0.70.

2. Job performance measure is based on the annual performance evaluation report received from the employer in the form of an overall job performance score, for example 70, 80, or 90.

3. Cassidy and Lynn Achievement Motivation (CLAM)

   The CLAM is translated (Fatimah Wati, 2012) into Bahasa Melayu using the back translation method. Motivation achievement is assessed with the well-validated inventory developed by Cassidy and Lynn (1989). The CLAM assesses six components. However, only three components are used for

the purpose of this study. The three components referring to the intrinsic achievement motivation factors are work ethics, excellence and mastery (Cassidy & Lynn, 1989).

Data Analysis

Data is analyzed using a structural equation modeling (SEM) approach as recommended by Hair *et al*. (2006).

RESULTS

Table 1 and Fig.2 show five matching indexes: CMIN/DF = 1.651, GFI=.963, TLI=.983, CFI=.988 and RMSEA= 0.038. These results reveal that there is a good match of the model (*good fit*) with the data comprising of 450 civil servants, even though the Chi Square value of the *Goodness-of-Fit* shows that the model does not fit with the data [χ^2 (N=450, df=98) =120.489, p < 0.05]. All of the goodness-of-fit indices of the model also meet the recommended values as suggested by Hair *et al*. (2006).

Table 2 only shows emotional stability (-ve) (β = -.51, C.R. = -2.67, p =.008) and achievement motivation (β =.39, C.R.=5.73, p=.001) influencing job performance directly.

The other two personality factors, namely conscientiousness (β =.44, C.R.=1.61, p=.10) and agreeableness (-ve) do not influence job performance directly (β =.24, C.R.=-1.31, p=.19). Only agreeableness (-ve) influences achievement motivation (β =.55, C.R.=2.34, p=.19). While, emotional stability (-ve) (β =.02, C.R.=.12, p=.89) and conscientiousness (β =-.44, C.R.=-1.32, p=.18) do not influence achievement motiation directly. The summary of the parameter approximations for the SEM model in the standard form are shown in Fig.2.

A detailed observation of the partial influence between the variables reveals that there is a partial influence of conscientiousness on job performance (-.44 x .39 = .17) and agreeableness on job performance (-ve) (-.55 x .39 = .21) via achievement motivation. While, emotional stability (-ve) does not have a partial influence on job performance (.02 x .39 = .03). It is due to partial influence of less than 0.08 as suggested by Hair et.al (2006) is considered to have no important effect. Table 3 shows the direct relationship and partial relationship. The results show that even though conscientiousness and agreeableness

TABLE 1
Results of Goodness-of-Fit Index

Fit Index	Recommended Value	Observed Value
Chi-square/ degree of freedom	> 0.05	120.489
CMINDF	< 5.0	1.651
GFI	≥ 0.90	0.963
TLI	≥ 0.90	0.983
CFI	≥ 0.90	0.988
RMSEA	≤ 0.06 or ≤ 0.08	0.038

TABLE 2
Coefficient For The Paths In The SEM Model

Standardized regression coeficient		β	C.R	p
1. Achievement motivation	Job Performance	.39	5.73	.001*
2. Conscientiouness	Job Performance	.44	1.61	.10
3. Emotional stability(-ve)	Job Performance	-.51	-2.67	.008*
4. Agreeableness(-ve)	Job Performance	-.24	-1.31	.19
5. Conscientiouness	Achievement motivation	-.44	-1.32	.18
6. Emotional stability(-ve)	Achievement motivation	.02	.12	.89
7. Agreeableness (-ve)	Achievement motivation	.55	2.34	.019*

β = standardized Beta (standardized regression coeficient)
* = significant value at 0.05
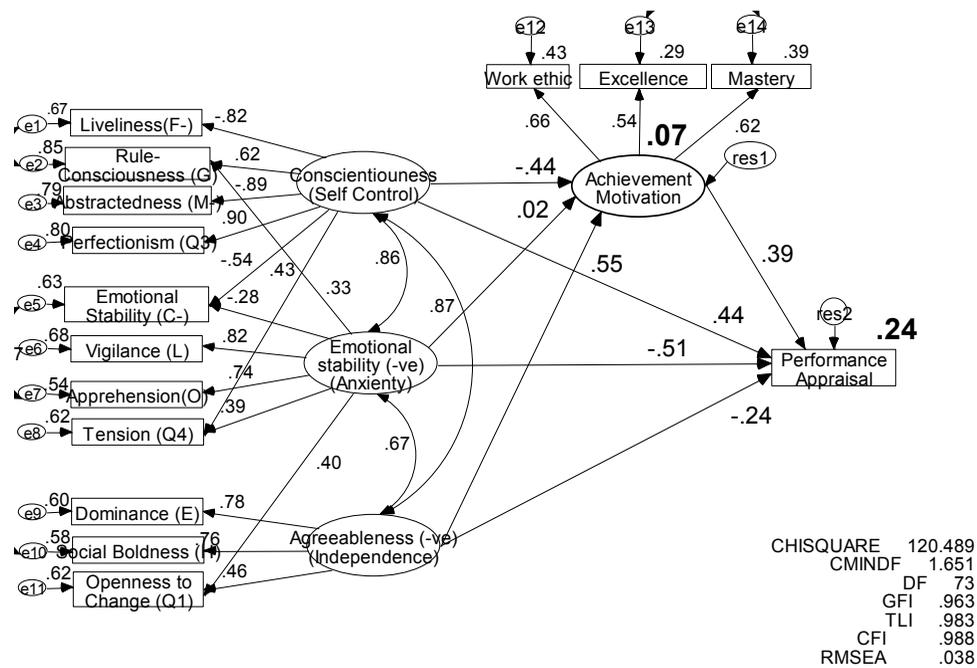
Fig.2: Parameter Estimates In The Standardized Form For SEM Model

TABLE 3
Coefficient For The Paths In The SEM Model

Independent Variables	Mediating Variables	Dependent Variables	Indirect effect
Conscien-tiouness	⟶ Achievement motivation	Job Performance	-.44 x .39 = -.17
Emotional stability (-ve)	⟶ Achievement motivation	Job Performance	.02 x .39 = .007
Agreeable-ness (-ve)	⟶ Achievement motivation	Job Performance	.55 x .39 = .21

(-ve) do not have a direct influence on job performance, these two variables cannot be disregarded since they do have a partial influence on job performance.

As a whole, the evaluation of the predictor of job performance conceptual model using the SEM analysis shows that emotional stability and achievement motivation directly influence the job performance of civil servant officers in the current study. The partial influence of conscientiousness and agreeableness are found through achievement motivation. Conscientiousness and agreeableness predict 7% of the variance in achievement motivation. Furthermore, the contribution of variance towards job performance increases to 24% when these two factors are combined with emotional stability and achievement motivation . Acheivement motivation functions as the full mediator in the influence of conscientiousness and agreeableness on job performance except on emotional stability.

DISCUSSION

Generally, the results of the current study show that achievement motivation is an important mechanism in the relationship between agreeableness and conscientiousness with job performance. These results confirm Motowidlo *et al*.'s (1997) individual difference in job performance model. They are also consistent with Barrick *et al*.'s (2002) and Story *et al*.'s (2009) findings. Specifically, the results suggest that individual with low agreeableness traits such as dominance,

bravery and openness are related with high achievement motivation. Subsequently, it increases job performance. In contrast, individuals with high agreeableness traits like concede to defeat, shy, timid, and traditional or conventional are related with low achievement motivation. Subsequently, it decreases job performance. The findings of this study support McClelland's (1997) achievement motivation theory and Cattell *et al*.'s (1993) personality trait theory. According to Koestner and McClelland (1990) individuals with high achievement motivation tend to choose challenging goals, jobs oriented to achievement, dare to take risks, prefer feedback towards achievement and possess future goals.

Nevertheless, high conscientiousness traits such as serious, obedient, objective thinking and order are related with low achievement motivation. This may lead to low job performance. Whereas, low conscientiousness traits such as cheerful, assertive, abstract thinking and imaginative are related with high achievement motivation. These findings are inconsistent with results of other western researches (Barrick *et al*., 2003; Kanfer, 1991; Judge & Ilies, 2002; Musson *et al*., 2004) that prove high conscientiousness influences high achievement motivation.

The current findings suggest that individuals with positive emotional stability and calmness are those with high achievement motivation even though they do not like rules, obedience, abstract thinking and spontaneity. As comparison, individuals with emotive reactive and stress,

do not have high achievement motivation even though they possess order, obedience, objective thinking and seriousness at work. Results also show that intrapersonal factors influence achievement motivation more than social factors. The current findings support achievement motivation theory which states that an individual's achievement motivation is more influenced by internal locus of control than external locus of control (Koestner & McClelland, 1990).

The influence of reactive emotion and tension towards high conscientiousness in the personality model of civil servant officers also explain why high conscientiousness influences low achievement motivation. Cattell *et al*.'s (1993) personality trait theory explains the influence of reactive emotion (C-) on high conscientiousness that may cause one to have a low tolerance for disappointment, suffer neurotic exhaustion, disturbance, agitation, feelings of dissatisfaction, and regular neurotic symptoms such as phobia, sleep disturbance, and psychosomatic etc. The influence of tension (Q4) on conscientiousness also causes tension and disturbed feelings, restlessness and impatience. The study shows that individuals who are incompetent in controlling emotion have low concentration ability and susceptible to stress at work. Their achievement motivation decreases when they are in a stressful situation (Barling & Boswell, 1995). As a result, they become less motivated. Civil servant officers with high conscientiousness are related with low achievement motivation.

The influence of high order trait (Q3) and objective thinking (M-) on conscientiousness also affect low achievement motivation. High order trait, objective thinking and orientation to problem solving are less suitable for leaders (Cattell *et al*., 1993; Digman, 1990). Individuals with high order trait have strong control over emotions and general behavior: sociable, perceptive, careful and very concerned about social reputation. Based on the discussion, the direct influence of conscientiousness on achievement motivation is an interesting finding. This finding explains why there is an influence of culture in the job performance predictor model for the civil servants.

In addition, achievement motivation is an important mechanism between personality and job performance. The results illustrate that emotional stability influences job performance directly; it stands independently in influencing job performance without going through achievement motivation as its mediator. The current results are consistent with several western meta-analytic studies (Barrick *et al*., 1991, 2001; Tett *et al*., 1991; Salgado, 1997, 2003). Studies conducted in the Asian region also show similar results. Many of these Asian studies show that emotional stability is the most significant predictor of job performance when compared with conscientiousness. Workers in Hong Kong also have the same perception on the subject of relationship between job performance and personality traits in the organization context in Hong Kong (Tyler & Newcombe, 2006).

Therefore, the implication of the findings is that achievement motivation

can be an essential determinant to assess candidates in personnel decision making. Emotional stability can be the best predictor and the most dominant in predicting the job performance of future candidates. It is followed by aggreableness and conscientiousness. Future researches should test this model further through analyzing the mechanisms of these variables for different types of job.

REFERENCES

Barling, J. & Boswell, R. (1995). Work performance and achievement-striving and impatience arability dimension of Type A behaviors. *Applied Psychology: An International Review 44(2)*, 143-153.

Barrick, M. R., & Mount, M. K. (1991). The big five personality dimensions and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, *44*, 1-26

Barrick, M. R., Parks, L., & Mount, M. K. (2005). Self-Monitoring as a moderator of the relationship between personality traits and performance, *Personnel Psychology, 58*(3), 745-767.

Barrick, M. R., Mitchell, T. R., & Stewart, G. L. (2003). Situational and motivational influences on trait-behavior relationships. In M. R. Barrick & A. M. Ryan (Eds.), *Personality and work: Reconsidering the role of personality in organizations*. (pp. 60–82). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Barrick, M. R., Mount, M. K., & Judge, T. A. (2001). The FFM personality dimensions and job performance: Meta-Analysis of meta-analyses. Invited submission to a special selection issue *of International Journal of Selection and Ass*essment, *9*, 9-30.

Barrick, M. R., Stewart, G. L., & Piotrowski, M. (2002). Personality and job performance: Test of the mediating effects of motivation among sales representatives. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87,* 43–51.

Campbell, J. P., McCloy, R. A., Oppler, S. H., & Sager, C. E. (1993). A theory of performance. In N. Schmitt, W.C. Borman, & Associates, *Personnel selection in organizations* (pp.35-70). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Cassidy, T., & Lynn, R. (1989). A multifactorial approach to achievement motivation: The development of comprehensive measure. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 62,* 301-312.

Cattell, H. E. P., & Schuerger, J. M. (2003). *Essentials of 16PF assessment*. USA: Wiley.

Cattell, R. B., Cattell, A. K., & Cattell, H. E. P.(1993). *Sixteen Personality Factor Fifth Edition Questionnaire*. Champaign, IL: Institute for Personality and Ability Testing

Cattell, R. B. (1943). The description of personality: Basic traits resolved into clusters. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 38*, 476–506.

Costa, P. T. Jr., & McCrae, R. R. (1988). From catalog to classification: Murray's needs and the Five-Factor Model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 55*(2), 258-265.

Digman, J. M. (1990). Personality structure: Emergence of the five-factor model. *Annual Review of Psychology, 41,* 417-440.

Edham Ismail. (2009). *Peranan iklim organisasi dan ciri personaliti terhadap prestasi kerja*. (Tesis Sarjana). Program Pengurusan, Kolej Perniagaan, Universiti Utara Malaysia.

Fatimah wati Halim, Arifin Zainal, Rozainee Khairudin, Wan Shahrazad Wan Sulaiman, Rohany Nasir & Fatimah Omar. (2011). Emotional stability and conscientiousness as predictors towards job performance. *Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities, 19*(S), 139-145.

Fatimah wati Halim, & Arifin Hj Zainal. (2010). Analisis pengesahan faktor personaliti *super factor* utama, *Jurnal Psikologi Malaysia, 24*, 13-29.

Fatimah wati Halim. (2012). *Pengaruh personaliti, motivasi pencapaian dan efikasi kendiri terhadap prestasi kerja: Pengujian model peramal prestasi kerja.* (Tesis Dr. Fal). Program Psikologi. Pusat Pengajian Siswazah, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia.

Gellatly, I. R. (1996). Conscientiousness and task performance: test of a cognitive model. *Journal Applied Psychology, 81*, 474-82.

Goldberg, L. R. (1981). Language and individual differences: The search for universals in personality lexicons. In L. Wheeler (Ed.), *Review of personality and social psychology*. (pp. 141–165). Beverly Hills: Sage.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2006). *Multivariate data analysis* (6th. Ed.). New Jersey: Pearon Education, Inc.

Hart, J. W., Stasson, M. F., Mahoney, J. M., & Story, P. (2007). The big five personality traits and achievement motivation: Exploring the relationship between personality and a two factor model of motivation. *Individual Differences Research, 5,* 267-274.

Hogan, J., & Ones, D. S. (1997). Conscientiousness and integrity at work. In R. Hogan, J. Johnson, & S. Briggs (Eds.). *Handbook of personality psychology* (pp. 849-870). San Diego: Academic Press.

Hough, L. M., & Oswald, F. L. (2000). Personnel selection: Looking toward the future-Remembering the past. *Annual Review of Psychology, 51*, 631-664.

Hurtz, G. M., & Donovan, J. J. (2000). Personality and job performance: The big five revisited. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*, 869-879.

Jiang, C.P., Wang, D. F. & Zhou, F. (2009). Personality traits and job performance in local government organizations in china. *Social Behavior and Personality, 37*(4), 451–457.

Judge, T. A., & Ilies, R. (2002). Relationship of personality to performance motivation: A meta analytic review. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 797-673.

Judge, T. A., Jackson, C. L., Shaw, J. C., Scott, B., & Rich, B. L. (2007). Self efficacy and work-related performance: The integral role of individual differences. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*, 107-127.

Kanfer, R. (1991). Motivation theory and industrial and organizational psychology. In M. D. Dunnette, & L. M. Hough (Eds.). *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 75–170). Palo Alto: Consultant Psychology.

Koestner, R., & McClelland, D. C. (1990). Perspectives on competence motivation. In L. A. Pervin (Ed.). *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* (pp. 527-548). New York:Guilford.

Motowildo, S. J., Borman, W. C., & Schmitt, J. J. (1997). A theory of individual differences in task and contextual performance. *Human Performance, 10*(2), 71-78.

Musson, D. M., Sandal, G. M., & Helmreich, R. L. (2004). Personality characteristics and trait clusters in final stage astronaut selection. *Aviation Space & Environmental Medicine, 75*, 342-349

Reeve, J. (2009). *Understanding motivation and emotion* (5th. Ed.). USA: John Wiley & Son, Inc.

Rothstein, M. G., & Goffin R. D. (2006). The use of personality measures in personnel selection: What does current research support? *Human Resource Management Review, 16,* 155–180.

Paspalanov, I. (1984). The relation of nAch to extraversion, emotional instability and level of anxiety in people of different social status and

success. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *5*(4), 383-388.

Salgado, J. F. (2003). Predicting job performance using FFM and non-FFM personality measures. *Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology*, *76*, 323-346.

Story, P. A., Hart, J. W., Stasson, M. F., & Mahoney, J. M. (2009). Using a two factor performance-baced outcomes and self- regulatory processes. *Personality and Individual Differences, 46*(4), 391- 395.

Tett, R. P., Jackson, D. N., & Rothstein, M. (1991). Personality measures as predictors of job performance: A meta-analytic review. *Personnel Psychology*, *44*, 703-742.

Tyler, G. & Newcombe, P. (2006). Relationship between work performance and personality traits in Hong Kong organisational settings. *International Journal of Selection & Assessment, 14*, 37-50.

Weiner, B. (1974). *Achievement motivation and attribution theory*. New Jersey: General Learning Press.

REFEREES FOR THE PERTANIKA
JOURNAL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES

VOL. 21(S) DEC. 2013
Special Issue: Current Trends in Psychological Research in Malaysia

The Editorial Board of the Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities wishes to thank the following for acting as referees for manuscripts published in this special issue of JSSH.

While every effort has been made to include a complete list of referees for the period stated above, however if any name(s) have been omitted unintentionally or spelt incorrectly, please notify the Executive Editor, *Pertanika* Journals at nayan@upm.my.

Any inclusion or exclusion of name(s) on this page does not commit the *Pertanika* Editorial Office, nor the Universiti Putra Malaysia Press or the University to provide any liability for whatsoever reason.
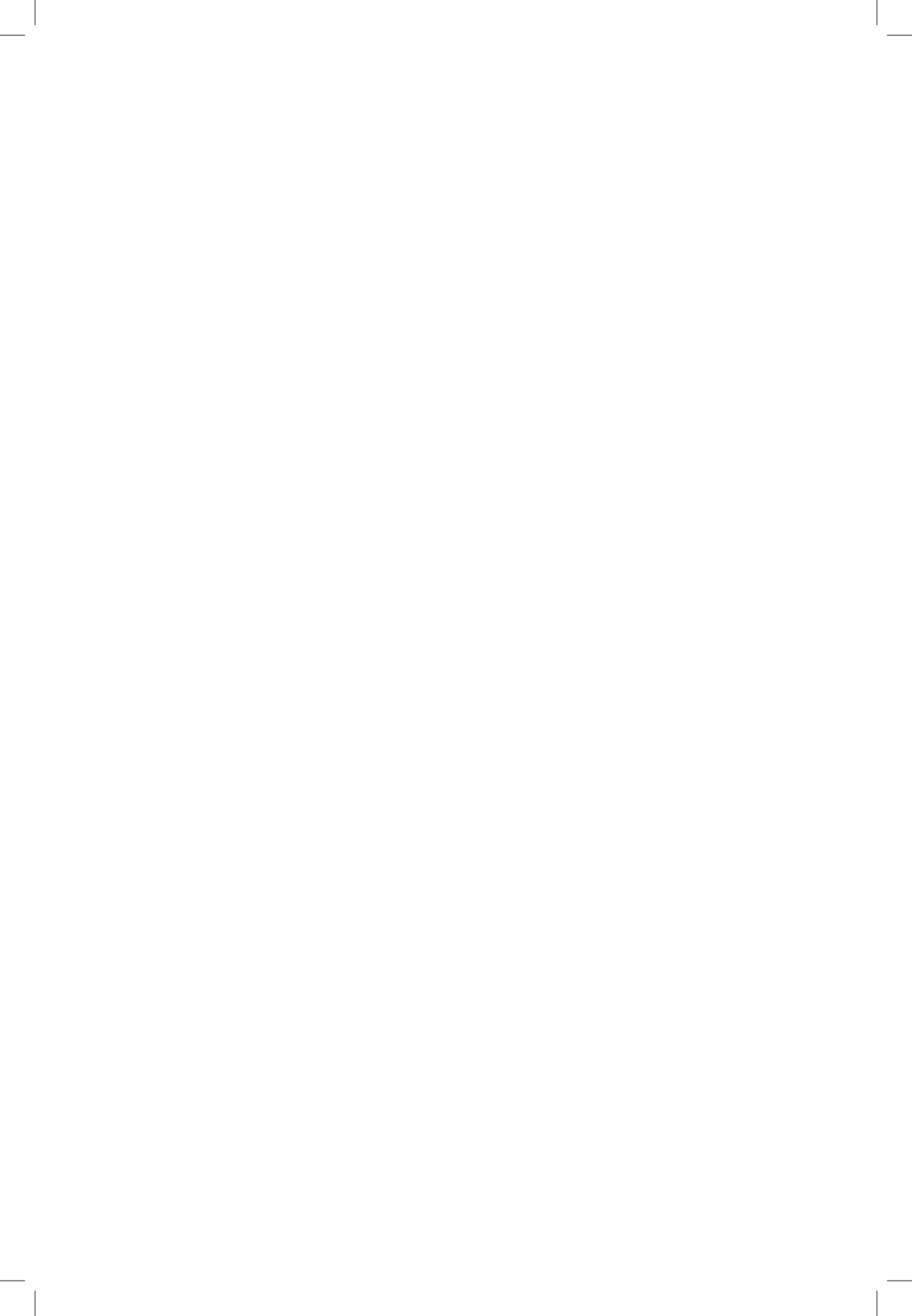
Pertanika

Our goal is to bring high quality research to the widest possible audience

Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities

INSTRUCTIONS TO AUTHORS
(Manuscript Preparation & Submission Guidelines)

Revised: February 2013

We aim for excellence, sustained by a responsible and professional approach to journal publishing.
We value and support our authors in the research community.

Please read the guidelines and follow these instructions carefully; doing so will ensure that the publication of your manuscript is as rapid and efficient as possible. The Editorial Board reserves the right to return manuscripts that are not prepared in accordance with these guidelines.

About the Journal

Pertanika is an international peer-reviewed journal devoted to the publication of original papers, and it serves as a forum for practical approaches to improving quality in issues pertaining to tropical agriculture and its related fields. *Pertanika* began publication in 1978 as Journal of Tropical Agricultural Science. In 1992, a decision was made to streamline *Pertanika* into three journals to meet the need for specialised journals in areas of study aligned with the interdisciplinary strengths of the university. The revamped Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities (JSSH) aims to develop as a pioneer journal for the Social Sciences with a focus on emerging issues pertaining to the social and behavioural sciences as well as the humanities, particularly in the Asia Pacific region. Other *Pertanika* series include Journal of Tropical Agricultural Science (JTAS); and Journal of Science and Technology (JST).

JSSH is published in **English** and it is open to authors around the world regardless of the nationality. It is currently published four times a year i.e. in **March**, **June**, **September** and **December**.

Goal of *Pertanika*
Our goal is to bring the highest quality research to the widest possible audience.

Quality
We aim for excellence, sustained by a responsible and professional approach to journal publishing. Submissions are guaranteed to receive a decision within 12 weeks. The elapsed time from submission to publication for the articles averages 5-6 months.

Indexing of *Pertanika*
Pertanika is now over 33 years old; this accumulated knowledge has resulted Pertanika JSSH being indexed in SCOPUS (Elsevier), EBSCO, Thomson (ISI) Web of Knowledge [CAB Abstracts], DOAJ, Google Scholar, ISC, Citefactor, Rubriq and MyAIS.

Future vision
We are continuously improving access to our journal archives, content, and research services. We have the drive to realise exciting new horizons that will benefit not only the academic community, but society itself.

We also have views on the future of our journals. The emergence of the online medium as the predominant vehicle for the 'consumption' and distribution of much academic research will be the ultimate instrument in the dissemination of research news to our scientists and readers.

Aims and scope

Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities aims to develop as a pioneer journal for the social sciences with a focus on emerging issues pertaining to the social and behavioural sciences as well as the humanities. Areas relevant to the scope of the journal include Social Sciences—Accounting, anthropology, Archaeology and history, Architecture and habitat, Consumer and family economics, Economics, Education, Finance, Geography, Law, Management studies, Media and communication studies, Political sciences and public policy, Population studies, Psychology, Sociology, Technology management, Tourism; Humanities—Arts and culture, Dance, Historical and civilisation studies, Language and Linguistics, Literature, Music, Philosophy, Religious studies, Sports.

Editorial Statement

Pertanika is the official journal of Universiti Putra Malaysia. The abbreviation for *Pertanika* Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities is *Pertanika J. Soc. Sci. Hum.*

Guidelines for Authors

Publication policies

Pertanika policy prohibits an author from submitting the same manuscript for concurrent consideration by two or more publications. It prohibits as well publication of any manuscript that has already been published either in whole or substantial part elsewhere. It also does not permit publication of manuscript that has been published in full in Proceedings. Please refer to Pertanika's **Code of Ethics** for full details.

Editorial process

Authors are notified on receipt of a manuscript and upon the editorial decision regarding publication.

Manuscript review: Manuscripts deemed suitable for publication are sent to the Editorial Board members and/or other reviewers. We encourage authors to suggest the names of possible reviewers. Notification of the editorial decision is usually provided within to eight to ten weeks from the receipt of manuscript. Publication of solicited manuscripts is not guaranteed. In most cases, manuscripts are accepted conditionally, pending an author's revision of the material.

Author approval: Authors are responsible for all statements in articles, including changes made by editors. The liaison author must be available for consultation with an editor of *The Journal* to answer questions during the editorial process and to approve the edited copy. Authors receive edited typescript (not galley proofs) for final approval. Changes **cannot** be made to the copy after the edited version has been approved.

Manuscript preparation

Pertanika accepts submission of mainly four types of manuscripts. Each manuscript is classified as **regular** or **original** articles, **short communications**, **reviews**, and proposals for **special issues**. Articles must be in **English** and they must be competently written and argued in clear and concise grammatical English. Acceptable English usage and syntax are expected. Do not use slang, jargon, or obscure abbreviations or phrasing. Metric measurement is preferred; equivalent English measurement may be included in parentheses. Always provide the complete form of an acronym/abbreviation the first time it is presented in the text. Contributors are strongly recommended to have the manuscript checked by a colleague with ample experience in writing English manuscripts or an English language editor.

Linguistically hopeless manuscripts will be rejected straightaway (e.g., when the language is so poor that one cannot be sure of what the authors really mean). This process, taken by authors before submission, will greatly facilitate reviewing, and thus publication if the content is acceptable.

The instructions for authors must be followed. Manuscripts not adhering to the instructions will be returned for revision without review. Authors should prepare manuscripts according to the guidelines of *Pertanika*.

1. Regular article

Definition: Full-length original empirical investigations, consisting of introduction, materials and methods, results and discussion, conclusions. Original work must provide references and an explanation on research findings that contain new and significant findings.

Size: Should not exceed 5000 words or 8-10 printed pages (excluding the abstract, references, tables and/or figures). One printed page is roughly equivalent to 3 type-written pages.

2. Short communications

Definition: Significant new information to readers of the Journal in a short but complete form. It is suitable for the publication of technical advance, bioinformatics or insightful findings of plant and animal development and function.

Size: Should not exceed 2000 words or 4 printed pages, is intended for rapid publication. They are not intended for publishing preliminary results or to be a reduced version of Regular Papers or Rapid Papers.

3. Review article

Definition: Critical evaluation of materials about current research that had already been published by organizing, integrating, and evaluating previously published materials. Re-analyses as meta-analysis and systemic reviews are encouraged. Review articles should aim to provide systemic overviews, evaluations and interpretations of research in a given field.

Size: Should not exceed 4000 words or 7-8 printed pages.

4. Special issues

Definition: Usually papers from research presented at a conference, seminar, congress or a symposium.

Size: Should not exceed 5000 words or 8-10 printed pages.

5. Others

Definition: Brief reports, case studies, comments, Letters to the Editor, and replies on previously published articles may be considered.

Size: Should not exceed 2000 words or up to 4 printed pages.

With few exceptions, original manuscripts should not exceed the recommended length of 6 printed pages (about 18 typed pages, double-spaced and in 12-point font, tables and figures included). Printing is expensive, and, for the Journal, postage doubles when an issue exceeds 80 pages. You can understand then that there is little room for flexibility.

Long articles reduce the Journal's possibility to accept other high-quality contributions because of its 80-page restriction. We would like to publish as many good studies as possible, not only a few lengthy ones. (And, who reads overly long articles anyway?) Therefore, in our competition, short and concise manuscripts have a definite advantage.

Format

The paper should be formatted in one column format with at least 4cm margins and 1.5 line spacing throughout. Authors are advised to use Times New Roman 12-point font. Be especially careful when you are inserting special characters, as those inserted in different fonts may be replaced by different characters when converted to PDF files. It is well known that 'μ' will be replaced by other characters when fonts such as 'Symbol' or 'Mincho' are used.

A maximum of eight keywords should be indicated below the abstract to describe the contents of the manuscript. Leave a blank line between each paragraph and between each entry in the list of bibliographic references. Tables should preferably be placed in the same electronic file as the text. Authors should consult a recent issue of the Journal for table layout.

Every page of the manuscript, including the title page, references, tables, etc. should be numbered. However, no reference should be made to page numbers in the text; if necessary, one may refer to sections. Underline words that should be in italics, and do not underline any other words.

We recommend that authors prepare the text as a **Microsoft Word** file.

1. Manuscripts in general should be organised in the following order:

   o **Page 1: Running title.** (Not to exceed 60 characters, counting letters and spaces). This page should **only** contain the running title of your paper. The running title is an abbreviated title used as the running head on every page of the manuscript.

     In addition, the **Subject areas m**ost relevant to the study must be indicated on this page. Select the appropriate subject areas from the Scope of the Journals provided in the Manuscript Submission Guide.

   o A **list** of n**umber of black and white / colour figures and tables** should also be indicated on this page. Figures submitted in color will be printed in colour. See "*5. Figures & Photographs"* for details.

   o **Page 2: Author(s) and Corresponding author information**. This page should contain the **full title** of your paper with name(s) of all the authors, institutions and corresponding author's name, institution and full address (Street address, telephone number (including extension), hand phone number, fax number and e-mail address) for editorial correspondence. The names of the authors **must** be abbreviated following the international naming convention. e.g. Salleh, A.B., Tan, S.G., or Sapuan, S.M.

     Authors' addresses. Multiple authors with different addresses must indicate their respective addresses separately by superscript numbers:

     George Swan[1] and Nayan Kanwal[2]
     [1]Department of Biology, Faculty of Science, Duke University, Durham, North Carolina, USA.
     [2]Office of the Deputy Vice Chancellor (R&I), Universiti Putra Malaysia, Serdang, Malaysia.

   o **Page 3**: This page should **repeat** the **full title** of your paper with only the **Abstract** (the abstract should be less than 250 words for a Regular Paper and up to 100 words for a Short Communication). **Keywords** must also be provided on this page (Not more than eight keywords in alphabetical order).

   o **Page 4 and subsequent pages**: This page should begin with the **Introduction** of your article and the rest of your paper should follow from page 5 onwards.

Abbreviations. Define alphabetically, other than abbreviations that can be used without definition. Words or phrases that are abbreviated in the introduction and following text should be written out in full the first time that they appear in the text, with each abbreviated form in parenthesis. Include the common name or scientific name, or both, of animal and plant materials.

Footnotes. Current addresses of authors if different from heading.

2. **Text.** Regular Papers should be prepared with the headings **Introduction**, **Materials and Methods**, **Results and Discussion, Conclusions** in this order. Short Communications should be prepared according to "*8. Short Communications.*" below.

3. **Tables.** All tables should be prepared in a form consistent with recent issues of *Pertanika* and should be numbered consecutively with Arabic numerals. Explanatory material should be given in the table legends and footnotes. Each table should be prepared on a separate page. (Note that when a manuscript is accepted for publication, tables must be submitted as data - .doc, .rtf, Excel or PowerPoint file- because tables submitted as image data cannot be edited for publication.)

4. **Equations and Formulae.** These must be set up clearly and should be typed triple spaced. Numbers identifying equations should be in square brackets and placed on the right margin of the text.

5. **Figures & Photographs.** Submit an original figure or photograph. Line drawings must be clear, with high black and white contrast. Each figure or photograph should be prepared on a separate sheet and numbered consecutively with Arabic numerals. Appropriate sized numbers, letters and symbols should be used, no smaller than 2 mm in size after reduction to single column width (85 mm), 1.5-column width (120 mm) or full 2-column width (175 mm). Failure to comply with these specifications will require new figures and delay in publication. For electronic figures, create your figures using applications that are capable of preparing high resolution TIFF files acceptable for publication. In general, we require **300 dpi or higher resolution for coloured and half-tone artwork** and **1200 dpi or higher for line drawings**.

For review, you may attach low-resolution figures, which are still clear enough for reviewing, to keep the file of the manuscript under 5 MB. Illustrations may be produced at extra cost in colour at the discretion of the Publisher; the author could be charged Malaysian Ringgit 50 for each colour page.

6. **References.** Literature citations in the text should be made by name(s) of author(s) and year. For references with more than two authors, the name of the first author followed by '*et al*.' should be used.

Swan and Kanwal (2007) reported that …
The results have been interpreted (Kanwal *et al.,* 2009).

   o   References should be listed in alphabetical order, by the authors' last names. For the same author, or for the same set of authors, references should be arranged chronologically. If there is more than one publication in the same year for the same author(s), the letters 'a', 'b', etc., should be added to the year.

   o   When the authors are more than 11, list 5 authors and then et al.

   o   Do not use indentations in typing References. Use one line of space to separate each reference. The name of the journal should be written in full. For example:

   ▪ Mellers, B. A. (2006a). Choice and the relative pleasure of consequences. *Psychological Bulletin, 126,* 910-924.
   ▪ Mellers, B. A. (2006b). Treatment for sexually abused children and adolescents. *American Psychologist, 55,* 1040-1049.
   ▪ Hawe, P. (2005). Capturing the meaning of "community" in community intervention evaluation: Some contributions from community psychology. *Health Promotion International, 9,*199-210.
   ▪ Braconier, H., & Ekholm, K. (2006). Swedish multinationals and competition from high and low wage location*. Review of International Economics, 8,* 448-461.

   o   In case of citing an author(s) who has published more than one paper in the same year, the papers should be distinguished by addition of a small letter as shown above, e.g. Jalaludin (1997a); Jalaludin (1997b).

   o   Unpublished data and personal communications should not be cited as literature citations, but given in the text in parentheses. 'In press' articles that have been accepted for publication may be cited in References. Include in the citation the journal in which the 'in press' article will appear and the publication date, if a date is available.

7. **Examples of other reference citations**:

Monographs: Kalimapour, Y.R. (2004). *Images of the U.S. Around the World: A Multicultural Perspective*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Chapter in Book: Bjork, R. A. (2007). Retrieval inhibition as an adaptive mechanism in human memory. In H. L. Roediger III & F. I. M. Craik (Eds.), *Varieties of memory & consciousness* (pp. 309-330). Hull: Hull University Press.

o   *Proceedings*: Amir Awang. (2006). Counseling, human resources development and counseling services. In Sulaiman M. Yassin, Yahya Mat Hassan, Kamariah Abu Bakar, Esah Munji and Sabariah Mohd. Rashid (Eds.), *Proceedings of Asia Pacific Conference on Human Development* (p. 243-246). Serdang: Universiti Putra Malaysia.

8. **Short Communications** should include **Introduction, Materials and Methods, Results and Discussion, Conclusions** in this order. Headings should only be inserted for Materials and Methods. The abstract should be up to 100 words, as stated above. Short Communications must be 5 printed pages or less, including all references, figures and tables. References should be less than 30. A 5 page paper is usually approximately 3000 words plus four figures or tables (if each figure or table is less than 1/4 page).

*Authors should state the total number of words (including the Abstract) in the cover letter. Manuscripts that do not fulfill these criteria will be rejected as Short Communications without review.

STYLE OF THE MANUSCRIPT

Manuscripts should follow the style of the latest version of the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (APA). The journal uses American or British spelling and authors may follow the latest edition of the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary for British spellings.

SUBMISSION OF MANUSCRIPTS

All articles should be submitted electronically using the ScholarOne web-based system. ScholarOne, a Thomson Reuters product provides comprehensive workflow management systems for scholarly journals. For more information, go to our web page and click "**Online Submission**".

Alternatively, you may submit the electronic files (cover letter, manuscript, and the **Manuscript Submission Kit** comprising *Declaration* and *Referral* form) via email directly to the Executive Editor. If the files are too large to email, mail a CD containing the files. The **Manuscript Submission Guide** and **Submission Kit** are available from the *Pertanika*'s home page at http://www.pertanika.upm.edu.my/home.php or from the Chief Executive Editor's office upon request.

All articles submitted to the journal **must comply** with these instructions. Failure to do so will result in return of the manuscript and possible delay in publication.

Please do **not** submit manuscripts to the editor-in-chief or to any other office directly. All manuscripts must be **submitted through the chief executive editor's office** to be properly acknowledged and rapidly processed at the address below:

Dr. Nayan KANWAL
Chief Executive Editor
Pertanika Journals, UPM Press
Office of the Deputy Vice Chancellor (R&I)
IDEA Tower II, UPM-MTDC Technology Centre
Universiti Putra Malaysia
43400 UPM, Serdang, Selangor,
Malaysia

E-mail: nayan@upm.my; journal.officer@gmail.com tel: + 603-8947 1622
or visit our website at http://www.pertanika.upm.edu.my/ for further information.

Authors should retain copies of submitted manuscripts and correspondence, as materials can not be returned. Authors are required to inform the Chief Executive Editor of any change of address which occurs whilst their papers are in the process of publication.

Cover letter

All submissions must be accompanied by a cover letter detailing what you are submitting. Papers are accepted for publication in the journal on the understanding that the article is original and the content has not been published or submitted for publication elsewhere. This must be stated in the cover letter.

The cover letter must also contain an acknowledgement that all authors have contributed significantly, and that all authors are in agreement with the content of the manuscript.

The cover letter of the paper should contain (i) the title; (ii) the full names of the authors; (iii) the addresses of the institutions at which the work was carried out together with (iv) the full postal and email address, plus facsimile and telephone numbers of the author to whom correspondence about the manuscript should be sent. The present address of any author, if different from that where the work was carried out, should be supplied in a footnote.

As articles are double-blind reviewed, material that might identify authorship of the paper should be placed on a cover sheet.

Peer review

Pertanika follows a **double-blind peer-review** process. Peer reviewers are experts chosen by journal editors to provide written assessment of the **strengths** and **weaknesses** of written research, with the aim of improving the reporting of research and identifying the most appropriate and highest quality material for the journal.

In the peer-review process, three referees independently evaluate the scientific quality of the submitted manuscripts. Authors are encouraged to indicate in the **Referral form** using the **Manuscript Submission Kit** the names of three potential reviewers, but the editors will make the final choice. The editors are not, however, bound by these suggestions..

Manuscripts should be written so that they are intelligible to the professional reader who is not a specialist in the particular field. They should be written in a clear, concise, direct style. Where contributions are judged as acceptable for publication on the basis of content, the Editor reserves the right to modify the typescripts to eliminate ambiguity and repetition, and improve communication between author and reader. If extensive alterations are required, the manuscript will be returned to the author for revision.

The Journal's review process

What happens to a manuscript once it is submitted to *Pertanika*? Typically, there are seven steps to the editorial review process:

1. The executive editor and the editorial board examine the paper to determine whether it is appropriate for the journal and should be reviewed. If not appropriate, the manuscript is rejected outright and the author is informed.

2. The executive editor sends the article-identifying information having been removed, to three reviewers. Typically, one of these is from the Journal's editorial board. Others are specialists in the subject matter represented by the article. The executive editor asks them to complete the review in three weeks and encloses two forms: (a) referral form B and (b) reviewer's comment form along with reviewer's guidelines. Comments to authors are about the appropriateness and adequacy of the theoretical or conceptual framework, literature review, method, results and discussion, and conclusions. Reviewers often include suggestions for strengthening of the manuscript. Comments to the editor are in the nature of the significance of the work and its potential contribution to the literature.

3. The executive editor, in consultation with the editor-in-chief, examines the reviews and decides whether to reject the manuscript, invite the author(s) to revise and resubmit the manuscript, or seek additional reviews. Final acceptance or rejection rests with the Editorial Board, who reserves the right to refuse any material for publication. In rare instances, the manuscript is accepted with almost no revision. Almost without exception, reviewers' comments (to the author) are forwarded to the author. If a revision is indicated, the editor provides guidelines for attending to the reviewers' suggestions and perhaps additional advice about revising the manuscript.

4. The authors decide whether and how to address the reviewers' comments and criticisms and the editor's concerns. The authors submit a revised version of the paper to the executive editor along with specific information describing how they have answered' the concerns of the reviewers and the editor.

5. The executive editor sends the revised paper out for review. Typically, at least one of the original reviewers will be asked to examine the article.

6. When the reviewers have completed their work, the executive editor in consultation with the editorial board and the editor-in-chief examine their comments and decide whether the paper is ready to be published, needs another round of revisions, or should be rejected.

7. If the decision is to accept, the paper is sent to that Press and the article should appear in print in approximately three months. The Publisher ensures that the paper adheres to the correct style (in-text citations, the reference list, and tables are typical areas of concern, clarity, and grammar). The authors are asked to respond to any queries by the Publisher. Following these corrections, page proofs are mailed to the corresponding authors for their final approval. At this point, only essential changes are accepted. Finally, the article appears in the pages of the Journal and is posted on-line.

English language editing

Pertanika **emphasizes** on the linguistic accuracy of every manuscript published. Thus all authors are required to get their manuscripts edited by **professional English language editors**. Author(s) **must provide a certificate** confirming that their manuscripts have been adequately edited. A proof from a recognised editing service should be submitted together with the cover letter at the time of submitting a manuscript to Pertanika. **All costs will be borne by the author(s)**.

This step, taken by authors before submission, will greatly facilitate reviewing, and thus publication if the content is acceptable.

Author material archive policy

Authors who require the return of any submitted material that is rejected for publication in the journal should indicate on the cover letter. If no indication is given, that author's material should be returned, the Editorial Office will dispose of all hardcopy and electronic material.

Copyright

Authors publishing the Journal will be asked to sign a declaration form. In signing the form, it is assumed that authors have obtained permission to use any copyrighted or previously published material. All authors must read and agree to the conditions outlined in the form, and must sign the form or agree that the corresponding author can sign on their behalf. Articles cannot be published until a signed form has been received.

Lag time

A decision on acceptance or rejection of a manuscript is reached in 3 to 4 months (average 14 weeks). The elapsed time from submission to publication for the articles averages 5-6 months.

Hardcopies of the Journals and off prints

Under the Journal's open access initiative, authors can choose to download free material (via PDF link) from any of the journal issues from Pertanika's website. Under "Browse Journals" you will see a link entitled "Current Issues" or "Archives". Here you will get access to all back-issues from 1978 onwards.

The **corresponding author** for all articles will receive one complimentary hardcopy of the journal in which his/her articles is published. In addition, 20 off prints of the full text of their article will also be provided. Additional copies of the journals may be purchased by writing to the executive editor.

BACKGROUND

Pertanika began publication in 1978 as the Journal of Tropical Agricultural Science (JTAS).

In 1992, a decision was made to streamline *Pertanika* into **3 journals**. i.e.,

1. Journal of Tropical Agricultural Science (JTAS)
2. Journal of Science and Technology (JST)
3. **Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities** (JSSH)

BENEFITS TO AUTHORS

PROFILE: *Pertanika* publishes original academic articles rapidly. It is fully committed to the Open Access Initiative and provides free access to all articles as soon as they are published.

QUALITY: Articles submitted to *Pertanika* undergo rigid originality checks. Our double-blind peer review procedures are fair and open.

AUTHOR SERVICES: We ensure that your work reaches the widest possible audience in print and online rapidly. Submissions are through **ScholarOne** system by Thomson Reuters.

SUBMISSION GUIDELINES

The Journal accepts articles as **regular**, **short communication** or **review papers**.

The article should include the following:

- An abstract of not more than 300 words;
- Up to 8 related keywords;
- Name(s), Institutional affiliation(s) and email(s) of each author.
- The maximum length of your article must not exceed:
  - approximately 6000 words or 27 pages, including abstract, diagrams tables and references for full research papers,
  - 2000 words for short communication papers, or
  - 4000 words for review papers
- References should be listed in APA style.

SUBMISSION DEADLINE

You may submit your articles at any time of the year. The journal is now accepting papers for its **2013-14 issues**.

CONTACT US

For guidance on the submission process, or for any questions regarding submissions, you may contact the **Chief Executive Editor** at:
nayan@upm.my

Call for Papers 2013-14
now accepting submissions…

About the Journal
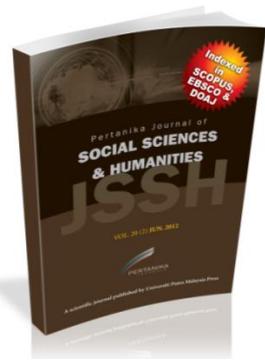
- An international multidisciplinary peer-reviewed leading Malaysian journal.
- Publishes articles in **English** quarterly. i.e., *March, June, September* and *December*.
- The elapsed time from submission to publication for the articles averages 5 to 6 months. A decision on acceptance of a manuscript is reached in 3 to 4 months (average 14 weeks).
- Indexed in **SCOPUS** (Elsevier), **EBSCO**, **DOAJ**, **CABI**, **Google Scholar**, **MyAIS** & **ISC**.

Scope of Journal

- *Pertanika* JSSH aims to develop as a flagship journal for the Social Sciences with a focus on emerging issues pertaining to high-quality research related to the **social** and **behavioural sciences** as well as the **humanities**, particularly in the Asia Pacific region.
- Refer to our website for detailed scope areas. http://www.pertanika.upm.edu.my/scope.php

Format for Paper Submission

- Articles should include the following:
  - problem formulation
  - conceptual framework
  - methodology/ approach
  - research design (if applicable)
  - statistical analysis (if applicable)
  - main findings
  - overall contribution
  - conclusions & suggestion for further research
  - acknowledgements (if applicable)

Rapid research publication…
Pertanika is the resource to support you in strengthening your research.

View **current** issue

View journal **archives**

Submit your manuscript to
http://mc.manuscriptcentral.com/upm-jssh

PERTANIKA
JOURNALS

Journal's profile: http://www.pertanika.upm.edu.my/

Contents