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**AN ANALYSIS OF PARENTAL AND PEER ATTACHMENT AND ITS
DETERMINANT FACTORS: A TEST OF ATTACHMENT
THEORY ON MALAYSIAN STUDENTS AT
AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES**

by

Noriah Mohd. Ishak

**A Dissertation
Submitted to the
Faculty of The Graduate College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the
Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
Department of Counselor Education
and Counseling Psychology**

**Western Michigan University
Kalamazoo, Michigan
April 1999**

**AN ANALYSIS OF PARENTAL AND PEER ATTACHMENT AND ITS
DETERMINANT FACTORS: A TEST OF ATTACHMENT
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AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES**

Noriah Mohd. Ishak, Ph.D.

Western Michigan University, 1999

This study examined the quality of parental and peer attachments among Malaysian students studying at universities in the midwestern region of the United States. The study was conducted in two phases. Two hundred and two students (106 male, 96 female) participated in the first phase of the study, and 8 students (4 male, and 4 female) participated in the second phase of the study. Phase One employed a cross-sectional quantitative design using a self-administered questionnaire [the Inventory of Parental and Peer Attachment (IPPA) developed by Armsden and Greenberg (1987)] and revised by the researcher. This instrument has 53 items that measured the quality of parental and peer attachments. Phase Two of the study employed the qualitative approach involving interviews, observations and documentation as techniques for data collection. An “Interview Protocol” consisting of 29 open-ended questions was developed by the researcher to facilitate data collection.

Data collected were then analyzed using two approaches: (1) descriptive and inferential statistics for data collected from the first phase of the study, and (2) transcription, coding, and reduction for data collected from the second phase of the study. A Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to examine the relationship between parental and peer attachment scores. Two-way and One-way Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) were used to determine differences in parental and peer attachments among the Malay students with different age groups, gender, and length of stay in the United States. Six hypotheses were tested at an alpha .05 level of significance. The correlation coefficient value suggested a low negative correlation between parental and peer attachment scores. Analyses of variance determined that differences in parental and peer attachment existed among students with different age groups and across gender.

Data analyzed using the transcription, coding, and reduction processes yielded 12 overriding themes surrounding the issues of trust (six themes), communication (four themes), and alienation (two themes). The twelve themes were: (1) understanding, (2) respect, (3) mutual trust, (4) accessibility, (5) responsiveness, (6) expectations, (7) extensiveness, (8) quantity, (9) quality, (10) modes of communication, (11) emotional alienation, and (12) physical alienation.

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DEDICATION

I wish to dedicate my dissertation to all parents who struggle to educate their children to be wiser persons, and to my parents, Hj. Mohd. Ishak Hj. Tahir and Hajjah Zaharah Hj. Ehsan, whose knowledge and wisdom broadened my worldview. Their encouragement and support led me to believe that I can be successful in all my endeavors. I am proud to have them as my parents.

My most profound gratitude goes to my loving husband, my parenting partner, and my best friend, Hamdan Hj. Patong, who has confidence in me, and in my ability to complete this dissertation. To my three wonderful children, Nadiah, Harith and Hazzim, who had to endure a change in lifestyle because their mom decided to pursue her Ph.D., my success belongs to them.

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Noriah Mohd. Ishak

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Relationships are built during the life span of individuals and the building process is never easy, especially with significant others. This building process can be very healthy and assist in the personal growth of individuals or it can be psychologically disturbing. Many, if not all problems for which clients seek counseling emanate from difficulties in establishing or maintaining significant interpersonal relationships (Yalom, 1985). To understand how individuals relate to their significant others, mental health professionals will have to understand how they organize the elements of their important relationships, especially within the realm of their attachment issues.

Bowlby's (1969, 1980, 1982, 1988) work on attachment theory provides a framework to understand how attachment processes develop. The theory has the ability to clarify how the same underlying relational dynamics common to all people are shaped by social experiences, and how these dynamics produce different relationship styles. His theoretical framework on attachment conceptualizes the idea of attachment in infancy. He indicates that children develop attachment bonds with their primary caregivers at a very early age. However, emotional and psychological

disturbances may occur at any age despite strong attachment bonds to significant others.

Bowlby (1982) also postulates that organized patterns of behavior that develop and maintain the affectionate bond will persist throughout life. In order to maintain or regulate some degree of proximity to significant others, and thereby strengthening the attachment bond, individuals must activate these organized patterns of behavior. This is especially significant in times of duress when the ability to cope with stressful situations is being challenged.

Bowlby (1982) concludes that individuals at any age are better adjusted within their environments when they have confidence in the accessibility and responsiveness of their trusted others (e.g., parents, closed friends, spouse and partners). According to Bowlby (1988), attachment can be inferred from a behavioral disposition of seeking proximity to and/or contact with significant others, particularly under conditions of vulnerability such as fear, illness, stress, anxiety or emotional upsets. However, as individuals mature with age, the need for physical proximity will become less intense. This is normally replaced by symbolic communication (e.g., telephone calls, letters, or e-mail messages) which will become increasingly effective in providing comfort (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987). Despite such age-related changes in attachment behavior, the expectations of attachment figures based on earlier experiences are believed to persist and to influence the mode of relating to others (Bretherton, 1985).

Background of the Problem

The experience of leaving home for college in late adolescence is similar to the idea of a naturally occurring strange situation, conceptualized by Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters and Walls (1978). In this strange situation, individuals are presented with a novel set of environmental experiences to explore and master. To be successful in these explorations, individuals need the support of their attachment figures, particularly parents and peers. The primary function of these attachment figures is to provide a secure base of emotional, psychological, and physical support. They are expected to be available as a source of help and comfort when needed, and this will help promote environmental exploration and mastery (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Bowlby, 1988).

Attachment theory emphasizes the adaptive value of supportive and interdependent relationships throughout individual's life-span. Therefore, it can help explain the need for attachment to parents or peers through the process of relational interdependency, especially during the stressful period of transition to college. This is particularly true since college life displays different sets of environments from home. Rice and Whaley (1994) suggest that there is a strong association between parental attachment and interpersonal adjustment as well as emotional well-being for students who are studying away from home. However, according to Bowlby (1988) "healthy, happy, and self-reliance adolescents and young adults are the products of stable homes in which both parents give a great deal of time and attention to the

children” (p. 2). Therefore, students who describe themselves as receiving healthy emotional support from their parents are better adjusted during transition periods. This frame of reference can be applied to international students who choose to pursue their academic career in a different country.

When international students move to another country to study for the first time, they will often experience a profound sense of loss, especially the loss of familiar bonding with their significant others and their secure environments. As a consequence, they often feel less confident, sense unremitting tension, take less time off, enjoy life even less, and become confused over how to have fun (Hayes & Lin, 1994). Mahyuddin’s (1996) research on Malaysian students studying in the United States shows that at least 50% of the students have problems adjusting to new life in the host country. She indicates that the main source of their unhappiness is feeling that they were not welcome. Many of the students revealed that they actually wanted to take part in activities hosted by their university, department, or American friends. However, they were uncertain of their roles and this deterred them from participating in any of these activities. They have difficulty assimilating themselves within the host culture and felt alienated when grouped together in the same class with American students. These factors increase their feelings of uncertainty about exploring their new environment and resulted in a stressful college life experiences. Inevitably, these students are unable to tap their academic or socio-cultural competence to maximize benefits in the host country.

To alleviate these stressful life events, Mahyuddin (1996) found that these students resort to symbolic communication, especially telephone calls and recently, e-mail messages to their families in Malaysia. These forms of social contact only aggravate the situation further since the small grants students receive from their sponsors are unable to cover large telephone bills. The financial issue begets additional stresses that inhibit international students from making further adjustments in the new environment.

By contrast, Mahyuddin (1996) found that the remaining 50% of her sample were able to assimilate themselves within the host culture. These students went through the transition period marked with much contentment. Mahyuddin indicates that most of these students survived the strain of adjusting to a new environment by: (a) developing new support systems, (b) networking with their Malaysian peers, and (c) networking with students from other countries including the United States.

Although these late adolescent stage Malaysian students are able to feel secure, despite increasing intervals of parental inaccessibility, their confidence on parental commitment remains crucial. Berman and Sperling (1991) indicate that familial-parental bonds play a substantial role in healthy adult development and good mental health. However, as individuals mature and achieve independence the sense of security fostered by their parents decreases (Weiss, 1982). According to Kegan (1982) "the parents are no longer the sole providers of the culture" (p. 162). The cultural provision is then accompanied by new supports from peers who then

communicate these different perspectives about life. Ainsworth (1989) believes that parents continue to exert a powerful influence on adolescents' well-being even though there are certain developmental changes in the nature of parental attachment during the adolescent stage. These changes will lead to adolescents gaining separation from parents. Bloom (1980) suggests that the ease with which adolescents cope with the conflict of achieving independence from parents is influenced by three factors: (1) trust, (2) mutual respect, and (3) rapport with their parents.

During adolescence attachment behaviors are often directed towards peers or non-parental figures, particularly if the physical presence of the parental figure is absent. According to Weiss (1982), peers have the ability to support and encourage adolescents' assumptions of growth-promoting challenges. Adolescent-peer attachments are characterized by: (a) behaviors that seek out attachment figures among peers or friends when under duress, (b) experiencing anxiety as a result of attachment figures that are inaccessible, and (c) feeling comforted in their company.

Since the transition period of studying abroad is always stressful and will affect the well-being of students (Kenny & Rice, 1995), it is crucial to understand the factors that influence these adolescent-parent and adolescent-peer attachment processes. Given previous support for the influence of attachment patterns for adolescents in transition, this study will examine their role with a Malaysian student population while adjusting in a host country.

Theoretical Perspective

Attachment Theory

Bowlby's (1969) attachment theory is principally concerned with the role that enduring affectional bonds (attachments) play in shaping the life course of individuals. It regards the propensity of human beings to make intimate emotional bonds to particular individuals as a basic component of human nature. This human characteristic is already present in germinal form in the neonatal stage. It then continues through adult life into old age (Bowlby, 1988). According to Bowlby (1977), "Attachment theory is a way of explaining the many forms of emotional distress and personality disturbances, to which unwilling separation and loss give rise" (p. 201). It also helps explain the implications of optimal and non-optimal social attachment for psychological well-being (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Bowlby, 1969, 1982; Lopez, 1995).

The theory was developed out of the object-relations tradition. Bowlby (1969, 1982, 1988) incorporated into the theory concepts from evolution theory, ethology, control theory, and cognitive psychology. This resulted in reformulation of psychoanalytic metapsychology in ways compatible with modern biology and psychology, and in conformity with the commonly accepted criteria of natural science (Bowlby, 1988).

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

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

Another basic component that corresponds to attachment behavior is the activity of environmental exploration. According to Bowlby (1988), when individuals are feeling secure they are likely to explore by moving away from attachment figures. However, when individuals feel alarmed, anxious, tired, or unwell, they will feel an urge to get into close contact with their caregivers.

Bowlby (1988) also suggests that the development of attachment behavior as an organized system, with the main goal of keeping proximity or ensuring accessibility to significant others, requires that individuals (of any age) develop the cognitive capacity to keep significant others in mind during times of absence. This scenario is described by Bowlby (1988) as the internal working model of the individual built into the schema of the cognitive processing.

Bowlby (1988), in his book A Secure Base, also describes the idea of control system and how it is incorporated into the attachment theory:

...attachment behavior is organized by means of a control system within the central nervous system analogous to the physiological control system....the attachment control system maintains a person's relation to his attachment figure between certain limits of distance and accessibility, using increasingly sophisticated methods of communication for doing so. The effect of its operation can be useful...for environmental homeostasis (p. 123).

Bowlby (1988) argues that the incorporation of concepts of control system (similar to psychic energy), working models, and attachment figures are important because of the presence of these concepts that are built in the mind of every individual as early as childhood. These concepts are also central to the personality functioning of individuals throughout life.

Lopez (1995) summarized the theoretical constructs and assumptions of attachment theory as follows:

1. Human beings are innately programmed to seek and form attachments with others. This predisposition has evolutionary significance since it ensures the survival

of the young by activating critical responses from the infants towards primary caregivers.

2. During the children's first years of life, the proximity-seeking behaviors of infants and their caregivers' responses become systematically organized as a calibrated goal-oriented partnership. The purpose of this partnership is to maintain a particular set-goal of proximity. Threats to this set-goal could be initiated by either party in two ways: (1) caregivers' unexpected absence, and (2) the child's exploratory activity that exceeded the limits of desired proximity towards the caregiver.

3. Children will gain confidence when caregivers respond to their needs. Children will then become increasingly capable of affective self-regulation while engaging in exploratory activities. Although the control system during infancy was a property of the caregiver-child relationship, as children grow older the control and autonomy for self-regulation will shift to the children.

4. The experience of positive continuing relatedness to significant others, in particular the principal caregiver, is a precondition for healthy exploratory and adjustment behaviors in later life.

5. In due course, children will have the capacity to represent these relationship expectations cognitively. This permits the progressive shift of attachment from primary caregivers to other individuals (peers or life partners), and will help shape its characteristic course. This cognitive representation is in the form of internal working models of self and others. This key theoretical construct posits

the notion that there exists an internalized set of beliefs that integrate the perceptions of individuals' competence and love-worthiness (self) together with expectations of the availability and likely responsiveness of attachment figures. Bowlby (1969) proposed that the internal working models or the representational schema of oneself and significant others are especially activated during periods of stress. The schema is called "working models" because they help organized interpersonal thinking and behaviors along pathways that were adaptive in the person's earlier development, and they also helped shaped the person's later social experiences in schema-consistent ways.

Strange Situation

Ainsworth et al. (1978) expanded attachment theory concepts by developing the "strange situation" concept. They experimentally observed the attachment behaviors of infants while playing in a small playroom equipped with toys. A one-way mirror was placed in the room to permit unobstrusive observation and recording. Ainsworth and her colleagues were able to identify three principal patterns or styles of attachment: (1) secure, (2) anxious-ambivalent, and (3) avoidant. They were also able to clarify the patterns' interactional features, and suggested hypotheses regarding the styles' development.

According to Ainsworth et al. (1978) secure infants experience caregivers as accessible and responsive, and the attachment relationship as a secure base that

supports exploratory behavior while concurrently providing an effective anxiety-reducing function. For secure infants, the caregiver's high-quality mothering enabled the infants to form an internal working model of the self as trustworthy and competent, and a model of others as responsive and dependable.

Anxious-ambivalent infants, on the contrary, experienced caregivers as inconsistently responsive and unhelpful when needed, promoted a working model of self as uncertain and fearful, and a model of others as potentially affirming yet unreliable (Lopez, 1995). As a consequence, developing children's sense of confidence, and their motivation for exploration and mastery is conditional on the presence, support, and approval of attachment figures. Continuing dependency of self on external others impedes the development of affective self-regulation capabilities, and hence leaves individuals particularly vulnerable to stress and emotional instability.

The avoidant attachment is the presumed product of early experiences in which children's efforts to solicit the primary caregiver's protection, support and caring are consistently rebuffed or rejected. These conditions give rise to an internal working model of self as essentially alone and unwanted, and a model of others as rejecting and untrustworthy. Subsequently, the proximity-seeking behaviors will become largely deactivated. Bowlby (1969, 1982) believes that attachment patterns will result in an undesirable developmental outcomes, from compulsive self-sufficiency to chronic delinquency and antisocial behaviors.

In conclusion, Ainsworth et al. (1987) and Bowlby (1982) posit that attachment is a disposition to seek contact and proximity with a specific individual, usually a primary caregiver. This proximity-seeking behavior emerges during a very stressful period. According to Rice and Whaley (1994), parents who are emotionally and physically available to their children during stressful or challenging experiences will facilitate the development of a secure attachment bond. Parents who are always unavailable will foster the development of insecure attachment bonds.

Statement of the Problem

Although several authorities agree that early attachment relationships remain important throughout the life span (Campbell, Lopez & Watkins, 1988; Kegan, 1982; Kenny, 1990; Lapsley, Rice & Fitzgerald, 1990; Lapsley, Rice & Shadid, 1989; Rice, Fitzgeralds, Whaley & Gibbs, 1995; Rice & Whaley, 1996), and that attachments occur in other than the mother-infant dyad, research on the adolescent-parent and adolescent-peer attachment dyads have been slower to develop. Most research has either been on infant's or children's attachment processes, or adult patterns of attachment in relation to romantic relationships (Feeney & Nooler, 1990; Feeney & Kirkpatrick, 1996; Hazan & Shaver, 1987, 1990; Kobak & Hazan, 1991; Tidwell, Reis & Shaver, 1996).

However, research conducted by Greenberg, Siegal and Leith (1984) and Armsden and Greenberg (1987) on the quality of parental and peer attachments has

added a new dimension to the study of attachment theory. Using a quantitative approach and the construct of an internal working model suggested by Bowlby (1988), they developed an instrument called the Inventory of Parental and Peer Attachment (IPPA). They were able to measure the internal working model of individuals by assessing: (a) the positive affective and cognitive experience of trust in the accessibility and responsiveness of the attachment figures, (b) the quality of communication between individuals and their attachment figures, and (c) the negative affective and cognitive experiences of anger and hopelessness resulting from unresponsive or inconsistently responsive attachment figures (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987).

However, their study was conducted on one particular culture. Samples for the studies were basically American adolescents between 16 and 20 years of age. Although similar studies have been conducted elsewhere in the United States (Brack, Gay & Matheny, 1993; Haigler, Day & Marshall, 1995; Lampers & Lampers, 1992; Paterson, Field & Pryor, 1994; Rice & Whaley, 1994) the samples were selected from the same cultural background. Ainsworth and Marvin (1995) indicate that culture-related differences in expectations regarding relationships will affect the proximity-seeking behaviors of individuals with their significant others. Therefore, it can be hypothesized that individuals from different cultures will differ in their proximity-seeking behaviors.

Attachment theory was developed using interdisciplinary and evolutionary perspectives, which emphasized the feelings of security and protection. These are universal feelings that individuals will try to acquire when threatened with stimuli from their environment. Therefore, the writer hypothesized that individuals across all cultures will organize their attachment behaviors in a similar fashion, as long as they receive security and protection. It would be noteworthy to observe the utility of the theory within an Asian population especially the Malay ethnic group.

The Malay ethnic group was chosen as the population to be studied because of the historical nature of their attachment patterns to parents and extended family. Malay culture emphasizes the idea of cohesion and relational interdependency among family members. It de-emphasizes the idea of autonomy while promoting the idea of attachment to significant others for security and protection. This view is important, especially in the process of building a support system among extended family members. Accordingly, within the context of attachment theory, children from the Malay ethnic group can be considered to have a very secure base that promotes exploration and mastery. However, based on the researcher's experience as an educator in Malaysia, she observed that many Malay students lack the confidence and ability to explore and master new environments by themselves. They are not willing to take the risk of asking questions when they do not understand what is being discussed in class, and therefore, prefer silence rather than voicing their opinion.

This researcher has also observed that many Malay students who are studying abroad display similar behaviors. They seem to have problems adjusting to the host culture and fear of the unknown (Mahyuddin, 1996). They lack the confidence to explore, and as a result form subgroups among themselves with similar interests, culture, and mores. They seem to have less confidence to explore their new college environment without support from their subgroup. Although, these students achieved academic excellent, they lack social and professional skills.

The questions are: What triggers these behaviors? Why do these behaviors reflect insecurely attached individuals? Is the subgrouping behavior indicative of the shift of attachment from parents to peers as suggested by Bowlby (1982, 1988)? What are the issues that affect attachment behaviors with parent as well as peers? Are patterns of attaching to parents reflected in attachment patterns to peers?

Purpose of the Study

This research investigated the nature of Bowlby's (1969, 1982, 1988) attachment theory with a Malaysian student population from the Malay ethnic group. The study also examined students' attachment patterns to their attachment figures when they were not in physical proximity of their family. It will focused on the determinant factors (trust, communication, alienation) of those attachment processes.

Concurrently, this study also determined the effect of age, gender, and length of stay in the United States on the attachment processes of Malay students. Results

from the study may or may not confirm the applicability of attachment theory in explaining attachment behaviors among late adolescent Malay students that promote or hinder the process of relationship building.

Research Questions

Based on constructs and assumptions developed by Bowlby (1969) and the underlying foundation of attachment theory provided by Ainsworth et al. (1987), the present study is designed to address the following research questions:

1. Does a relationship exist between students' parental and peer attachments?
2. What will be the patterns of the students perceived parental and peer attachment (i.e. do variables such as age, gender, and length of stay impact the students' perceived parental and peer attachments) ?

Definition of Terms

Attachment

Attachment is defined as “an enduring affectional bond of substantial intensity” (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987, p. 428). The bond is manifested in the form of an attachment behavior. Bowlby (1988) conceptualized attachment behavior as “any form of behavior that results in a person attaining or maintaining proximity to some other clearly identified individual who is conceived as better able to cope with the world” (p. 26-27). Bowlby (1988) also indicates that attachment behaviors are

prominently displayed while individuals are in their childhood years. It can also be observed throughout the life cycle especially in times of crisis or emergencies.

Trembley (1996) suggests that:

Attachment is a requirement for the self to have a sense of existence and definition. Through attachment-holding experiences aspects of significant others' reactions to one's self are internalized and meanings are constructed about them while one is dependent on the significant others (p. 49).

Parkes and Stevenson-Hinde (1982) perceive attachment as having two major dimensions: (1) the cognitive-affective dimension of attachment, defined as the underlying quality of affect toward attachment figures; and (2) the behavioral dimension of attachment, defined as the utilization of these figures for support and proximity. As cognitive capacities increase, attachment behavior is guided by cognitively based working models of attachment figures. These working models are cognitive schema of the expectations that individuals have on their attachment figures (e.g., the accessibility of the caregivers in times of crisis). These two dimensions, the cognitive-affective and behavioral could be expected to be correlated (Armsen & Greenberg, 1987).

Armsden and Greenberg (1987) perceive the attachment construct in terms of three factors: (1) trust, (2) communication, and (3) alienation. All three factors contribute to the quality of attachment, either positively or negatively (Ainsworth et al., 1987; Armsden & Greenberg, 1987; Bloom, 1980; Bowlby, 1988).

Trust

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

Holmes and Rempel (1985) suggest that trust is a representation of abstract expectations that subsumes a variety of more specific beliefs and feelings. For most people, the expectations relevant to trust are centered around the individuals' attitudes towards attachment figures and their relational experiences. According to Armsden and Greenberg (1987), trust is a felt security in the knowledge that attachment figures understand and are responsive to individuals' emotional needs. To earn trust, both caregivers and careseekers must be motivated to moderate their own self-interests. The willingness to sacrifice self-interest is critical in the development of trust, and thus, the success of the relationship. Erikson (1950) describes this as "basic trust", a willingness to let attachment figures "go" emotionally, physically, and psychologically, and doing it without undue anxiety or rage.

Trust can also be defined as “felt security”, perceived by late adolescents as provided by their attachment figures. It can be manifested by the show of understanding, respect, and responsiveness from caregivers to the adolescents’ needs, desires, and perceptions. Trust can be considered as the basic foundation for the attachment process. It promotes self-disclosure, and is an integral process in relationship building. The higher the trust level between individuals and their attachment figures, the stronger is the attachment bond. Trust also helps in building a very strong secure base which is needed by individuals in exploring and mastering new environments.

Trembley (1996) posits that trust can only develop within the careseeker-caregiver relationship when there exists a “good-enough holding” and shared reality between the two parties:

It takes some time in a relationship to develop trust of the other. If the client decides immediately that the therapist is trustworthy, it may be a pathological feature of client behavior. If the client decides over time, by sharing gradually deepening disclosure and attending to therapist management of disclosure, that the therapist is indeed worthy of client trust (p. 75).

It is noteworthy that “trust is not a static concept, an edifice that once erected simply continues to provide a warm place to house a relationship” (Holmes & Rempel, 1989, p. 203).

Communication

According to Adler, Rosenfeld and Towne (1992) communication is seen:

... as a huge umbrella that covers and affects all that goes on between human beings. Once a human being has arrived on this earth, communication is the largest single factor determining what kind of relationships he makes with others and what happens to him in the world about him. How he manages his survival, how he develops intimacy, how productive he is, how he makes sense, how he connects with his own divinity-all are largely dependent on his communication skills (p. 5).

Communication is the way individuals relate to others. It is a continuous, irreversible, transactive process. This process involves communicators who occupy different but overlapping environments. They are simultaneously senders and receivers of messages many of which are distorted by physical and psychological noise (Adler, Rosenfeld & Towne, 1992). Good communication between careseekers and caregivers is essential in the attachment process. It helps in developing trust and the feeling of trustworthiness between the two individuals during their period of interaction.

In this study, communication is defined as the perceived verbal and non-verbal communicating activities that take place between adolescents and their attachment figures. The communication can take place as a result of direct contact between the careseekers and their significant others. It can also be as symbolic communication that does not involve direct contact. This symbolic form can either be transmitted through mail such as letters, electronic mail, or telephone.

Alienation

At any point in a relationship (e.g., parent-child, child-peer, adult dyadic relationship) there is a possibility that trust is lost and effective communication becomes impossible. This could be due to some overt or covert behaviors that are very disruptive to the relationship. It could also be due to feelings of dissatisfaction directed towards significant others due to a very stressful life situation. This scenario normally triggers unpleasant circumstances that involve anger, hatred, and confusion leading to feelings of isolation and alienation.

In this study, alienation is defined as feelings of intense anger and detachment from attachment figures. These feelings can be triggered by the absence or inaccessibility of attachment figures in times of crisis. Alienation begets other negative responses. Once the feeling of alienation is triggered, it will affect the careseekers' ability to communicate with their attachment figures. This in turn will destabilize the feeling of trust and bring discomfort to the feeling of security and protection that has developed between caregivers and careseekers.

Since this study took into consideration the differing impacts of parental and peer influence, the researcher chose not to inquire about mother and father influence separately, or about different types of peer relationships. Instead the subjects were asked to respond regarding their parents or peers who most influenced them.

Parental and peer attachments were operationalized by measuring the quality of both attachments using the Inventory of Parental and Peer Attachment (IPPA)

Armsden & Greenberg, 1989). Items in this instrument measured the three dimensions of attachment: (1) trust, (2) communication, and (3) alienation, as described by Armsden and Greenberg (1987). The IPPA was developed based on Bowlby's (1969, 1982) internal working model of cognitive schema of expectations from careseekers to caregivers.

Age

Age differences play an important role in the quality of parental and peer attachment. As children grow older, they gain more autonomy and independence and develop the ability for affective self-regulation. Subsequently, their patterns of proximity-seeking will change (Lapsley et al., 1990; Lopez, 1996; Mayseless, Danieli & Sharabany, 1996; Rice & Whaley, 1994).

In the present study, the samples were divided into two different age groups: (1) less or equal to 21 years old as the younger group, and (2) more than 21 years old as the older group. The age variable was dichotomized into these two age groups for several reasons:

1. Students who were sent by the Malaysian government to study overseas in undergraduate programs were normally 18 to 24 years old depending on their educational background. They either had Sijil Pelajaran Malaysian, equivalent to 11th grade, and went through a two years program under the Malaysian Ministry of

Education, or they had a diploma certificate from the MARA Institute of Technology.

2. These students did not go through the normal 4 year program, but were admitted in their junior year. Therefore, students who were less than 21 years old probably were new students in the junior year, and students who were 21 or more years old were in the senior year.

3. Within the Malay cultural context individuals who are 21 or older are considered to be more independent, but at the same time are burdened with family responsibilities. They also have more autonomy as compared to younger individuals. Inevitably, this might affect their attachment bonds with their attachment figures.

Gender

Malaysian students are sent abroad to the United States of America, United Kingdom, Australia, Japan, etc. to pursue their academic career regardless of their gender. However, studies conducted on international students to investigate their ability to cope with new environments indicate that the two genders differ in their coping mechanisms, adjustment, as well as attachment patterns.

The Haigler, Day and Marshall (1995) findings suggest that females and androgynous individuals differ in their parental attachment as compared to the males and undifferentiated subjects. Similar differences were also indicated among the gender-role category scores on the IPPA subscales of trust, communication and

alienation (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987). This research used both males and females as subjects. Differences in parental and peer attachments were examined between genders.

Length of Stay

Currently, there have been no studies reported which measured the relationship between the quality of parental and peer attachment, and the individuals length of stay away from their secure base. This is crucial, especially for students who are studying away from home. It could help them examine their attachment patterns and how they cope in their new environment. However, Bowlby (1988) indicates that over a period of time, individuals will gain control of their self-regulating behaviors, and therefore be more autonomous. It can be argued that the longer the period of “staying away from the secure base,” the less the need for attachment to primary caregivers.

This study defines “length of stay” as the period away from the secure base. It was hypothesized that students who had been here longer had a greater shift from parental to peer attachment. It was also hypothesized that they also had a reduced need to stay attached to their primary caregivers. Length of stay was operationalized as: (a) one year or less, and (b) more than one year.

Significance of the Study

This study has value in a number of different ways. First, attachment theory has value for practitioners (e.g., counselors, therapists, psychologists) as it provides a framework for understanding the relationship of young adults to their primary and secondary caregivers. As a system of conceptualizing young adult's emotional and social development, the theory can greatly enrich practice in early childhood as well as in middle or high school classrooms. Teachers, counselors, and school psychologists can help their students develop their relational skills by observing students' attachment behaviors and giving positive feedback to help them develop better relational skills.

Secondly, knowledge of attachment processes also provide practicing counselors with a framework for conceptualizing, directing interventions, and evoking therapeutic change (Pistole, 1989). Counselors will be able to clarify for their clients the meaning of relationship behaviors that clients experience as problems. Taking into account the assumption that patterns of relational behaviors develop early in life (and many of the same patterns are observable throughout life), counselors can help clients build better relational behaviors. This can be done by examining their history of relating to others. Therefore, counselors can formulate their therapeutic work with clients around five key tasks: (1) establishing a safe base, (2) exploring past attachments and current relational difficulties, (3) exploring the

client-counselor relationship, (4) linking the past with the present, and (5) revising internal working models (Krause & Haverkamp, 1996).

Third, if the theory is applicable to Malay students it can be introduced as part of a curriculum in teaching counseling theory and practice at universities in Malaysia. This course can be offered at the graduate level to students who enroll in the Education, Psychology, and Social Work programs in addition to other counseling theory courses.

Fourth, it is also possible that findings from this study could be useful to the Ministry of Social Services in developing parenting skill programs. This will help parents understand the importance of attachment processes, thereby helping their children develop confidence in exploring new environments.

Fifth, results from this study can also be useful to the Ministry of Education, in particular the Department of School Division (Bahagian Sekolah-Sekolah). Presently, this division is trying to implement new curricula by integrating the preschool level into the mainstream of Standard 1 to 6 (Standards are class levels in the Malaysian education system). The Department can use results from the study to develop a program that will help reduce anxiety among preschoolers on their first day in school, and help the preschoolers make the transition from home to school easier.

Sixth, within the context of students who will be sent overseas for educational purposes, results from this study can be used to develop orientation programs by the sponsors and counselors or advisors in the Malaysian Student Department around the

world. This program can help prepare both parents and adolescents to develop healthy relationships that will promote confidence in exploring and mastering the college environment abroad. The results of this study will also be useful to International Student Services at universities in the United States and other host countries in developing orientation and articulation programs for international students upon their arrival. This will help students make the transition to college less stressful.

Finally, results from this study can add to the body of knowledge within the realm of attachment theory and relational therapy. It can help enrich the knowledge base by examining attachment theory from a multicultural perspective. Inevitably, this can help individuals in the helping profession address the issue of diversity within the attachment and relational dimensions of their clients. By understanding the clients relational experiences and attachment patterns, therapists will be in a better position to provide effective service to their clients within the context of the clients own frame of reference.

Limitations of the Study

This study is an initial work of attachment theory using an Asian culture, particularly the Malay culture within a Malaysian context. As in any research done in the field of education, a true scientific approach may be difficult and this study had the following limitations:

1. The population studied was restricted to undergraduate Malaysian students of Malay ethnicity within the traditional age group (18 to 24 years). These students were studying at universities in the Midwestern region of the United States (i.e., Michigan, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Wisconsin). They were sponsored by the Malaysian government, either through Majlis Amanah Rakyat (MARA) or Jabatan Perkhidmatan Awam (JPA). As such, the result of the study cannot be generalized to other populations.

2. Knowledge about the subjects were based upon the subjects' responses to questionnaires administered to them, and through the questions asked during the interviewing process. The reliability of the research depends on the sincerity and strength of the responses on the items or questions given by the respondents.

3. The first phase of this research used a cross-sectional design. Therefore, the results should not be used to draw causal implications. Self-report methods renders all measurements subjective, and the correctness of the responses depends upon the honesty of the respondents.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Attachment theory has produced a body of both research and conceptual work in the social sciences. Best known for its impact on the mother-infant relationship, attachment theory has recently been investigated in adolescent and adult dyadic relationships (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987; Feeney & Kirkpatrick, 1996; Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Pistole, 1993; Tidwell, Shaver & Reis, 1996). The application of the theory to adolescent-parent and adolescent-peer relationship was triggered by Armsden and Greenberg (1987) while its utilization to the adult love relationship was inspired by Hazan and Shaver (1987). This chapter will review all literature under the rubric of attachment in three sections: (1) patterns of attachment, (2) attachment in adult dyadic relationships, and (3) parental and peer attachment.

Patterns of Attachment

Ainsworth et al. (1978) made several laboratory observations of infants and their interactions with their environments and their caregivers. From these observations, they were able to delineate three attachment styles: (1) secure, (2) anxious-ambivalent, and (3) avoidant. Ainsworth et al. (1978) indicated that children who were classified as securely attached, welcomed their caretakers' return after

several hours of separation. The children also sought proximity and were eager to receive comfort from the caregivers when feeling distressed due to the separation. These children also used the caretakers' presence as a secure base for exploration. They continuously scrutinized the availability of their caregivers during the exploration by maintaining close proximity. This activity seemed to help develop confidence for the children to explore and master their surrounding environment.

The anxious-ambivalent children displayed ambivalent behaviors toward their caregivers. They had difficulty understanding the concept of reunion between themselves and their caregivers. They did not seek close proximity nor did they have the confidence to seek proximity with their caregivers in times of distress. However, they reacted with heightened expression of attachment and anger when the caregivers were present for fear of losing the caregivers again. The "avoidantly attached children" totally avoided close proximity with their caretakers. Also, they did not interact with the caregivers during reunion, and they seemed to be devoid of any need for interaction throughout the observations. By avoiding physical contact, they did not have to deal with feeling upset and angry during the caregivers' absence.

Research on mother-infant attachment and adult love dyadic relationships has been conducted based on Ainsworth's et al. (1978) classification (Feeney & Noller, 1991; Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Kobak & Hazan, 1991). Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) attempted to reclassify the three attachment styles into a four-category model. Drawing on Bowlby's (1982) attachment theory and the construct of an internal

working model, Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) postulated two types of an internal working model (or the representational schema): (a) an internal model of self, and (b) an internal model of others. Each internal model was then dichotomized as positive or negative to yield four theoretical attachment styles. The four attachment styles were conceptualized as: (1) secure, (2) preoccupied, (3) dismissing, and (4) fearful.

This four-category model was tested on 103 subjects. Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) concluded that securely attached persons are generally accepting and responsive. They are comfortable with intimacy and autonomy when compared to preoccupied individuals who reported a sense of unworthiness. The preoccupied individuals have a positive evaluation of others. This combination of characteristics led these persons to strive for self acceptance by gaining the acceptance of valued others. This pattern of attachment is similar to the “anxious-ambivalent” as described by Ainsworth et al. (1978).

The “dismissing” and “fearful” styles are alike in that both reflect the avoidance of intimacy. They differ in individuals’ need for others’ acceptance in order to maintain positive self-regard. Similarly, the “preoccupied” and “fearful” groups are alike in that they both exhibit strong dependency on others to maintain positive self-regard, but they differ in their readiness to become involved in close relationships. The “fearful” style subjects were also found to be consistently associated with social insecurities and lack of assertiveness. Although Bartholomew

and Horowitz's (1991) four-category model is comprehensive, it lacks the empirical foundation that supported the work of Ainsworth et al. (1978).

Attachment in Adult Dyadic Relationships

Bowlby's (1969) continuity hypothesis (attachment patterns developed during an early age will continue to be displayed during adulthood), has inspired several independent lines of research into late adolescent and adult functioning (Feeney & Kirkpatrick, 1996; Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Kobak & Hazan, 1991; Mayseless, Danieli & Sharabany, 1996; Tidwell, Reis & Shaver, 1996). Many of these studies have explored the construct of attachment styles in relation to adult dyadic relationships that center around romantic relationships. These studies have primarily considered the following broad questions: (a) Are adult attachment styles related to meaningful differences in adult affect regulation and social competence?, and (b) Is there continuity between early attachment-related experiences and current adult attachment organization? (Lopez, 1995).

Hazan and Shaver (1987) are the two pioneers in studying attachment issues in adult romantic relationships. They conceptualized romantic relationships as a type of attachment. They also developed a self-report procedure to classify adults into three categories that correspond to the three attachment styles of childhood as conceptualized by Ainsworth et al. (1987). Using 620 subjects, they attempted to link the attachment styles to adult regulation and social competence. They found that

securely attached lovers described their most important love experience as especially happy, friendly and trusting. They were able to accept and support their partners despite their partners' faults. These securely attached individuals did not have difficulty in developing intimate relationships, and they were comfortable with the idea of interdependency. They were not concerned with issues of abandonment, or someone becoming too emotionally close to them.

The avoidant lovers were characterized by fear of intimacy, emotional highs and lows, and jealousy. They were also uncomfortable being close to others. They had difficulty trusting others, and are nervous when others behave in a similar manner. The anxious-ambivalent subjects experienced love as involving obsession, desire for reciprocity and union, emotional highs and lows, and extreme attraction and jealousy. They perceive others as being reluctant to get close to them. They worry that their romantic partners do not love them or are unwilling to commit a lifetime of involvement. To overcome these feelings they developed clinging behaviors, thereby putting great pressure on their relationship.

Hazan and Shaver (1990) extended their initial study to explore the possibility that love and work in adulthood function similarly to attachment in infancy and early childhood. According to Bowlby (1988), individuals must be willing to explore new environments in order to be able to learn and become competent at interacting in new physical and social realms. However, exploration can be very tiring and dangerous. Subsequently, it is desirable to have a secure base nearby so that individuals can

retreat if threatened. A study by Hazan and Shaver (1990) showed that securely attached individuals approach their work with confidence. They enjoyed work activities and were relatively unburdened by fears or failures. They tended to value relationships more and did not allow work to interfere with their relationships. They did not use work to satisfy unmet love needs, nor did they use it to avoid social interaction. The anxious-ambivalent subjects, on the other hand, reported that love concerns often interfered with work performance, and they feared rejection for poor performance. Their main motivation to work was to gain respect and admiration from others. The avoidantly attached individuals on the other hand, used work activity to avoid social interactions.

Although Hazan and Shaver's (1991) work is said to be innovative, some researchers argued that the use of attachment theory should be limited to phenomena that can only be explained by the theory (Blustein, Prezioso & Schultheiss, 1995; Kenny & Rice, 1995; Lyddon, 1995; Shaver & Norman, 1995). Application of the theory to career choice, job satisfaction, and job performance involves some fairly large inferential leaps (Mallinckrodt, 1995). Blustein et al. (1995) argued that relationship factors are important in career choice and attachment theory is capable of explaining work-related interpersonal problems.

Research on adult attachment has also focused on the concept of an internal working model of self and others. One such study was conducted by Collins and Read (1990). Their study provided further evidence that linked differences in

attachment styles to different patterns of beliefs about self and others. Their findings support Hazan and Shaver's (1987) initial work on adult attachment and love relationships. They concluded that the securely attached individuals were more comfortable with closeness, and were able to depend on others without being overdependent. These individuals had a higher sense of self-worth, greater social self-confidence, are more expressive, view people as trustworthy, had control over outcomes in their lives, and perceived relationships in a non-selfless attitude.

The insecurely attached individuals (anxious-ambivalent and avoidant) perceived themselves as negative in relation to others. They had greater anxiety and a lower sense of self-worth and social self-confidence. They also perceived themselves as lacking in assertiveness or sense of control. They were obsessive, and were dependent on their partners. These findings support Bowlby's (1988) view on continuity of attachment patterns from infancy to adulthood. It can be inferred from their study that individuals select and create their social environments in ways that confirm their working models, thus promoting continuity in attachment patterns across the life span.

Another study that used the construct of internal working models was conducted by Kobak and Hazan (1991). They studied attachment patterns in marriage relationships. They employed 40 married couples and subjected them to problem-solving interactional situations. They found that husband or wives who perceived their spouses as psychologically available were less rejecting and more

supportive toward them in times of duress. However, the insecurely attached husbands or wives who described their spouses as less psychologically available, displayed more rejection towards their spouse. The securely attached individuals were also more trustful and confident than their counterpart.

Simpson (1990) investigated the impact of secure, anxious, and avoidant attachment styles on romantic relationships. Using a longitudinal study (6 months), he found that securely attached individuals were more satisfied with, and committed to their relationships. They also reported having higher trust levels with their partners, and perceived themselves as more trustworthy. Results from Simpson's study also showed that there was a correlation between trust and satisfaction in relationships. These securely attached individuals were more willing to communicate openly, and to self-disclose their dreams and hopes for the relationship. The insecurely attached individuals experienced more negative emotions which included distrust, detachment, and fear that lead to dissolution.

Simpson, Rholes, and Nelligan (1992) observed that adult attachment style differences predicted important variations in couples' stress-activated relationship behaviors. In their experimental study, the spontaneous behavior of dating couples was unobtrusively observed following the female member's exposure to an anxiety-arousing situation. As their anxiety increased, more securely attached women solicited comfort from their partners both emotionally and physically.

Correspondingly, as their partners' level of anxiety increased, securely attached men offered more emotional support to their distressed partners.

Attachment styles have also been found to be correlated with intimacy in relationships. Feeney and Noller (1990) conducted a study on 374 undergraduate students to examine this correlation. The study indicated that there is a strong positive correlation between attachment styles and intimacy. It also provided considerable support of the attachment theory perspective on adult relationships, and confirmed the essential characteristics of the three attachment styles. Feeney and Noller (1990) concluded that securely attached individuals perceive themselves as relatively trusting and high in self-confidence. However, the anxious-ambivalent individuals had a strong desire for commitment, but lacked intimacy while the avoidantly attached subjects constantly avoided intimacy in any relationship.

Feeney and Kirkpatrick (1996) studied the effects of "presence" versus "absence" of a romantic partner on psychophysiological responses to a stressful laboratory situation. The study involved 35 college women in serious dating relationships. Their findings support Bowlby's (1988) hypothesis on the proximity-seeking behaviors of careseekers in times of crisis. Feeney and Kirkpatrick (1996) found that subjects who were avoidant and anxious displayed heightened physiological responses across all conditions if the "partner-absent" condition came first rather than second. They also found that the heightened physiological arousal persisted even when partners were present during stressful periods.

A similar study was conducted by Mayseless, Dalieli, and Sharabany (1996) in which they examined the correlation between attachment patterns of adults and their reactions to separation from significant others on both a phenomenological and representational level. Their data indicated that subjects with different attachment patterns coped with separation according to their attachment style. The securely attached subjects coped well with this developmental task. They tended to live outside the parental home, and felt that their romantic partner was the most influential person in their life while sustaining close communication with their mothers. Ambivalent and avoidant subjects, also tended to live outside their parental home and were all single. The ambivalent subjects who tended to lived outside the parental home reported less commitment to close relationships with their romantic partners, while the avoidant subjects refrained from dealing with the developmental task of separation.

Attachment theory predicts that less competent and insecurely attached individuals (the anxious-ambivalent or the avoidant) will have higher levels of stress, and problematic functioning in their intimate adult relationships. The theory also proposes that relative to their insecurely attached peers, working models of secure adults would generate comparatively more thought patterns (schema) that would facilitate effective communication and problem-solving ability (Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Lopez, 1995; Pistole, 1989).

Parental and Peer Attachment

Research on adolescence has focused on the relationships adolescents have with their parents and peers (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987; Berman & Sperling, 1991; Haigler et al., 1995; Kenny & Rice, 1995; Lempers & Lempers, 1992; Paterson, Pryor & Field, 1995) and on the interplay between the contributions of each of these relationships to adolescent development (Brack, Gay and Matheny, 1993; Lempers & Lempers, 1992). In reality, this dynamic influences the social world of adolescents. Their functional role in the social world is interrelated with the way they connect to attachment figures. Their social world is constantly being reorganized and restructured.

Restructuring involves changes in the parent-child relationship from a largely asymmetrically structured bond to one based on recognition of self and others as individuals. Additionally, these restructured relationships emphasize mutuality in interactions. However, part of these changes also involve the increase in the number of relationships. They also involve the formation of closer and more intimate same-sex and opposite-sex relationships than ever before (Lempers & Lempers, 1992). This view is congruent to Bowlby's (1988) assumptions. He indicated that as adolescents develop they experience greater control and autonomy for self-regulation. Adolescents would then have the capacity to choose the most significant person in their lives at one particular moment.

Paterson, Field, and Pryor (1994) explored changes in adolescents' perceptions of their attachment relationships with mothers, fathers, and friends. The main findings revealed that from early to late adolescence both males and females remained stable in their quality of affect toward their mother. As they grew older and became more developmentally matured, the female subjects tended to seek support and proximity from their mothers more than the male counterparts. It is also noteworthy that as they grow older both males and females utilized their father less for support and proximity. Where attachment to peers is concerned, females had a higher quality of affect (contrasted with males) toward their friends. Both male and female subjects increased their utilization of friends for support and proximity over time. These findings suggested that substantial changes occurred in attachment relationships from early to late adolescence.

Paterson, Field, and Pryor's (1994) research was supported by Haigler's et al. (1995) study on parental attachment and gender-role identity. Their study showed that female subjects had a higher level of parental attachment versus their male counterparts. They also found that attachment (across participants) to mothers was higher than attachment to fathers. They also suggested that individuals who displayed behavior patterns that included sensitivity and responsiveness toward others, and view themselves in relationship to others were more likely to experience stronger attachment bonds.

Perceived quality of both parental and peer attachments was also found to be significantly related to psychological well-being and self-esteem (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987; MacCormick & Kennedy, 1994; Paterson et al., 1995). Adolescents' self-esteem in turn is associated with trust in the availability, accessibility, and responsiveness of their parents. In order to function adequately, adolescents must be able to handle difficult situations for increasingly longer periods of times without a secure base as conceptualized by Ainsworth et al. (1978) in their study with infants. Adolescents may realize that they have the support of their parents, and it will be available in time of crisis, but they will not necessarily seek that support. By doing so they proved their independence and autonomy. This idea is also consistent with Kegan's (1982) suggestion that a shift in the cultural provision occurs from the primary caregivers to a new support system of their peers.

Armsden and Greenberg (1987) studied the relationship among different attachment styles and perceptions on the ability to function socially. Their study indicated that adolescents who classified themselves as "highly secure" reported greater satisfaction with themselves. They also had a higher tendency to seek social support, and were less affected by stressful life events. A study conducted by Paterson et al. (1995) indicated that utilization of emotional support and proximity from mothers, fathers, and friends was minimally related to overall self-esteem, coping abilities, and social competence. The quality of affect toward both parents was found to be correlated to social competence only. Paterson's et al. (1995)

findings also suggested that adolescents' self-esteem was more strongly associated with the quality of affect toward parents and friends than with the utilization of these target figures for support and proximity.

McCormick and Kennedy (1994) found that self-esteem was related to an internal working model of attachment styles for both children and adolescents. It was also correlated to the dimensions of independence-encouraging and acceptance of their parents. McCormick and Kennedy (1994) concluded that individuals' self-esteem increases when a more positive working model of self and others was developed. Subsequently, the individuals also gained more encouragement and acceptance from parents. These findings extended Cassidy's (1988) study which showed that increased self-esteem was associated with secure attachment among 6 year old children. It also supported work done by Armsden and Greenberg (1987) on adolescents' attachment issues.

Studies that fall under the rubric of parental and peer attachment have also been narrowed to a particular situation: the transition to college. Researchers tried to explore the impact of separation from parental attachment on the adjustment process, as well as the attachment shift from parents to peers during and after separation when gender and age differences were also taken into consideration (Berman & Sperling, 1991; Brack et al., 1993; Holmbeck & Wandrei, 1993; Kenny, 1987, 1990; Kenny & Donaldson, 1991; Kenny & Whaley, 1994; Lapsley et al., 1990; Lapsley, Rice &

Shadid, 1989; Rice, FitzGerald, Whaley & Gibbs, 1995; Lopez, Campbell & Watkins, 1988).

Lapsley et al. (1990) found that there were no felt attachment differences to parents or peers between freshmen and upper class students. Upper class students were better able to adjust socially and emotionally than freshmen. A number of gender differences were also reported. Females were found to score higher than males on measures of trust and communication with peers, and also felt less alienated from peers. However, the study did not indicate any shift of attachment from parents to peers. The quality of attachment to both parents and peers seems to be stable over time.

Lapsley's et al. (1990) findings supported a study done by Kenny (1990) on college seniors' perceptions of their parental attachment. Kenny (1990) concluded that the feeling of loss from parental attachment among first year students was associated with difficulties in making friends which then trigger the feeling of loneliness and alienation. Students who were able to overcome these feelings were more successful in developing new friendships while those who remained lonely expected to be rejected by their peers. This again is accordance with attachment theory which indicates that the value of the attachment figure in fostering feelings of security is very important, especially in anxiety-arousing situations which present conditions of threat. Secure attachment fosters feelings of confidence in expressing needs and feelings as well as expectations of others. Kenny and Donaldson (1992)

suggested that characteristics of secure attachment, rather than parental detachment, are very important to adaptive social and psychological functioning. This has a very important implication for the parenting skills of parents who try to promote feelings of confidence in their children.

Rice and Whaley (1994) found that for women, attachment to parents was an important predictor of adjustment to college. However, the quality of the attachment only predicted the men's ability to adjust in educational environments during the time of presumed high stress (e.g., just before final exams or when papers are due). They concluded that attachment was a consistent predictor of adjustment for women, while for men it emerged as an observable predictor of adjustment in times of duress. When attachment was correlated with well-being, the father-son bond became a strong indicator of the well-being of sons during stressful periods. They also suggested that men who experienced insecure attachment relationships with their fathers were at-risk for academic and emotional adjustment, although these only became obvious in time of duress. Their findings supported conclusions reached by Brack, Gay, and Matheny (1993).

When examining relationships among attachment and coping resources among late adolescents, Brack et al., (1993) found that secure attachment with parents and friends during late adolescent years promoted better coping responses. Attachment theory suggests that a secure family base facilitates the development of important adaptational skills and resources.

A more recent study on adolescents' attachment relations to parents and peers with respect to stability and change was conducted by Rice et al. (1995). Their results suggested that there was a stability in attachment to parents over time for both men and women. Nonetheless, the security of the attachment was found to be inversely related to independence from parents and positively correlated with a variety of concurrent indicators of college students' adjustment (academic, social, and emotional). Results from this study supported the importance of current and past perceptions of attachment for understanding late adolescent development and adjustment.

Lopez (1996) also conducted a similar study on 145 college students. He explored the extent to which: (a) retrospective reports of childhood emotional bonds with parents and (b) current adult attachment orientations predicted the capacity for constructive thinking among the college students. His results showed that stronger parent-child emotional bonds that were replicated in the current adult attachment predicted better constructive-thinking processes among college students. College students who reported having stronger parental-child bonds developed better coping resources to help solve life problems. If attachment to parents is stable over time, then it would seem unlikely that interventions or crises would change the nature of the attachment bond.

The study of attachment theory has been considerably broadened in recent years, beyond the mother-infant dyad, and beyond infancy and early childhood. Studies of attachment relations and their developmental and adaptational derivatives have proven particularly important in investigations of the adjustment of late adolescent college students. Inevitably, these studies have also confirmed that Bowlby's (1988) constructs and assumptions of attachment theory are applicable to individuals of all ages. It is human nature to seek and form attachment. Human beings seek comfort and proximity in time of duress, and their capability of affective self-regulation increases when they are more confident with their environment and gaining more control of the situations.

Although Ainsworth et al. (1978) indicated that the theory cuts across all cultures, no such study has been conducted on Asian populations. Also there was no indication on any research conducted to determine the attachment factors that strengthen the bond of parental and peer attachment. This is important because factors such as trust are needed to develop a secure base that will enhance exploration and mastery of new environments (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Bowlby, 1969).

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Overview

This study investigated differences in quality of parental and peer attachments of Malaysian students studying in the United States on three determinant factors (trust, communication, and alienation). Age, gender differences, and length of stay in the United States were also taken into consideration. The research also included an exploratory study to gain in-depth knowledge on the students' attachment patterns to their parents and friends.

This chapter will describe the methodology employed in the study. For clarity of reading, the chapter will be divided into different sections: (a) Research Design, (b) Research Procedures, (c) Setting and Sample, (d) Instrumentation, (e) Data Collection and Data Analysis, (f) Hypotheses.

Research Design

This study integrated both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Phase One of the study employed the quantitative approach, while Phase Two employed the qualitative approach. Literature suggests that when quantitative and qualitative

methodologies are combined within the research design, an increased understanding results (Bowman, 1970; Firestone, 1987; Howe, 1988; Niaz, 1996). For example, when comparing qualitative and quantitative evaluations of teacher inservice training programs, McCreath (1988) found that each generated contradictory results. However, when the methods were presented in conjunction, the results provide a more comprehensive picture and/or by combining the richness of qualitative data with the preciseness of quantitative data.

The main focus of this study is Phase One. This phase utilized a quantitative approach to answer the research questions. A qualitative approach (Phase Two) was used to gain in-depth knowledge on the concepts or variables being studied. In order for the study to be more meaningful, these two approaches were designed to complement each other.

The quantitative approach consisted of an observation in a cross-sectional design. According to Fink (1995), descriptive designs produce information on groups and phenomena that already exists. Its sub-category, the cross-sectional design, provides descriptive data for a sample of a population at one fixed point in time.

The cross-sectional design employs the use of self-administered questionnaires to gather information. Information gained from such a design is especially useful when a researcher is trying to understand and confirm a theory about some behavioral phenomena at one point (Fink, 1995). This study examined Malaysian students' quality of attachment both to their parents and peers. It

examined the attachment patterns and quality at one particular point in their life, when they were away from home and from their parents. The cross-sectional design enabled the researcher to investigate the students' internal working model (thought processes) as suggested by Bowlby (1988). This was preceded by asking questions (or items in the survey instrument, the IPPA) relating to their parental and peer attachments. The themes surrounding the questions or items evolved around the issues of trust, communication, and the feeling of alienation in developing relationships. These are the pertinent issues concerning attachment theory developed by Bowlby (1969).

The qualitative research method employed an exploratory approach. This approach helped the researcher identify and discover the salient themes of the concept being studied in this case; the students' attachment patterns to their parents and peers. This exploratory approach used case studies as the research strategy, with the interviewing process being triangulated with two other activities: (1) observations, and (2) documentation. These activities were conducted on eight subjects.

The two dependent variables of the study were: (1) the quality of parental, and (2) peer attachments as well as three determinant factors (trust, communication, and alienation). The independent variables included: (a) age, (b) gender, and (c) length of stay of the students in the United States. Other variables that were included in Part I of the questionnaire (ethnicity, number of siblings, family income per month,

type of sponsorship, plans after study, and parents' marital status) were the demographic variables of the sample used in the study.

Research Procedure

Phase One of the study was conducted at 14 universities in the Midwestern region of the United States. Data for phase One of this study were collected at these 14 universities. Approvals from the Western Michigan University Human Subjects Institutional Review Board (Appendix A), the Malaysian Students Department (MSD) in Chicago, and Majlis Amanah Rakyat Students Department (MARA) in Skokie, Illinois (Appendix B) were obtained. Such approval allowed the use of the students from this region as subjects for the study. For the purpose of this research, permission was also obtained from Armsden and Greenberg (1987) for the use of their instrument, the Inventory of Parental and Peer Attachment (IPPA) (Appendix C). To locate students under the Jabatan Perkhidmatan Awam (JPA) sponsorship, the researcher communicated with the Malaysian Students Organizations of the respective universities. They were asked to provide a name directory of the Malaysian students studying at their university. A name directory for students under MARA sponsorships was provided by the MARA Students Department. The name directories were combined as one directory and used as a pool from which subjects were randomly selected. The names in the final directory were arranged alphabetically to ensure that each student had an equal chance of being selected.

The researcher contacted 250 potential participants selected randomly from the name pool via telephone and e-mail. The name pool consisted of 1,635 students' names, and this became the population of the study. This researcher informed the students of their participation as well as to confirm their addresses as stated in the name list provided by the organizations mentioned. A set of questionnaires with self-addressed envelopes was then sent to the participants. A participation consent form (Appendix D) and a cover letter was attached to the questionnaires (Appendix E). The potential participants were given 2 weeks to respond to the questionnaires. When the 2 week time period expired, the potential participants were sent the first reminder letter. A second reminder letter followed if the participants failed to respond. The researcher also received help from the president or committee members of the Malaysian Students' Organization in the participating universities during the data collection process. These individuals collected some of the questionnaires and sent them directly to the researcher. The MSD officers at Chicago and Skokie played a role in encouraging the potential participants to respond to the questionnaires by contacting the students personally. This helped increase the return rate of the questionnaires. Data collected from this section of the study was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics using the SPSS Version 7.0 (1996) program.

Eight students were selected from one of the universities to be interviewed to gain an in-depth knowledge of the concepts being studied. The university was chosen for this process to help reduce travel cost and time spent on data collection for Phase

Two of the study. Participants for Phase Two of the study were selected randomly from the list of Malaysian students' name provided by the Malaysian Student Organization at the university. The pool of names used for this procedure consisted of students not already selected to participate in the first half of the study to provide variability in the data collected for the study. The researcher contacted the selected participants via telephone. Appointments for interviews were set by the researcher depending on the availability of each of the participants. The interviews took place at the participants' homes during the weekends. The participants' homes were chosen as the data collection site since the researcher wanted to triangulate the interview with observation and documentation.

The researcher observed how participants interacted with their housemates on the day of the interview. The researcher also observed mementos (e.g., pictures on the wall, photo album with family or friends' pictures) that indicated the quality of attachment between the participants and their family or peers. The researcher documented the number of telephone calls, letters or e-mail messages they sent to their families in Malaysia for the last month. The researcher asked permission from the participants to examine their telephone bills to validate the number of calls they made each month. Data from all three activities was then transcribed using the Microsoft Word Version 6.0 (1996) program and coded for analysis. Member check was conducted with two of the interviewees (one male, one female) to confirm the result of the transcription. The procedure involved checking the transcribed notes

with the interviewees to confirm or disconfirm themes and patterns emerging from the study. Both interviewees agreed on most of the themes and patterns suggested by the researchers which provided evidence that the data collected for Phase Two of the study was quite accurate. Approval for these procedure was also obtained from the researcher's doctoral committee.

Setting and Samples

Phase One of the study was conducted at 14 universities in the Midwestern region of the United States, and Phase Two was conducted at one of the 14 universities selected for this study. These universities were either state or privately funded universities. This region was chosen for the researcher's convenience in getting the pool of names from which the sample was drawn. These universities also had the highest number of Malaysian students studying in United States.

The subjects for the study were Malaysian students from the Malay ethnic group who were also considered as the indigenous group in Malaysia. These students were in their undergraduate programs, either in the junior or senior years. They were sponsored by either Jabatan Perkhidmatan Awam (JPA); a government sponsored agency; or Majlis Amanah Rakyat (MARA). These organizations are subsidiaries of a government sponsored agency. Some of these students have had at least one year of college experience in Malaysia. The subjects were traditional college age students (18 to 24 years old) and not married. Non-married students were chosen to help

eliminate the issue of influence of spouse (beside family of origin) in their attachment process towards their peers.

Two hundred and fifty subjects were systematically randomly selected from the final directory developed by combining all the name lists provided by the Malaysian Student Organizations and MARA. This sampling procedure enabled the researcher to use the existing directory which in this study was developed as a sampling frame (Fink, 1995). Two hundred and two students responded to the questionnaire, providing a return rate of 81%. The high return rate was attributed to the cooperation received by the researcher from both the Malaysian Students' Department (JPA and MARA) and representatives of the Malaysian Students' Organization from the respective universities.

According to Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1996) systematic random sampling procedure involved drawing sample by taking every k th case from a list of the population. They suggested that:

One must first decide how many subjects one wants in the sample (n). Because one knows the total number of members in the population (N), one simply divides N by n and determines the sampling interval (k) to apply to the list. The first member is randomly selected from the first k members of the list, and then every k th member of the population is selected for the sample (p. 179).

Eight participants from one of the participating universities were interviewed for Phase Two of the study. They were selected from the original name directory provided by Malaysian Students Organization of the selected university. However, they represented students who were not selected to participate in Phase One of the

study. Since gender has been shown to play an important role in the study of attachment patterns, it was taken into consideration when choosing the subjects. The name list was separated by gender. Four males and four female students were systematically randomly selected and were interviewed. All the eight students accepted the invitation to participate in the Phase Two of the study.

Instrumentation

The Survey Instrument

Two instruments were used for Phase One of the study: (1) a demographic data instrument, and (2) the Inventory of Parental and Peer Attachment (IPPA). The first instrument identified the demographics of the sample. It consisted of the following items: (a) age, (b) gender, (c) ethnicity, (d) number of siblings, (e) family income per year, (f) type of sponsorship, (g) plan after study (whether to return to Malaysia or stay in the United States), (h) parents' marital status, and (i) length of stay in the United States.

The second instrument (IPPA) was a 7-point Likert scale self-report measure providing separate assessments of the quality of parental and peer attachments in late adolescents and young adults. The original IPPA was a 5-point Likert scale instrument which has been widely used by researchers in investigating the differences between the two attachments (Kenny & Rice, 1995; Lapsley et al., 1990; Rice et al., 1995; Paterson et al., 1994). Although the original IPPA had a 5-point Likert scale,

the researcher revised the instrument into a 7-point Likert scale: 1- always true; 2- almost always true; 3-often true; 4-sometimes true; 5-seldom true; 6-almost never true; and 7-never true. The researcher believed that the 7-point Likert scale would provide a wider range of scores to measure the students' quality of parental and peer attachments.

The instrument assessed the students' perceptions or internal working model of the positive and negative affective-cognitive dimension of trust in the accessibility and responsiveness of attachment figures. The assessment included how well these figures served as sources of psychological security (Garbarino, 1998). The theoretical framework of the instrument was based upon the attachment theory and the idea of an internal working model. This theoretical framework accessed the attachment patterns of individuals.

The IPPA is comprised of two continuous scales that were scored independently: (1) parental attachment (28 items), and (2) peer attachment (25 items). The maximum score for parental attachment scale was 196, and the minimum score was 28. The maximum score for peer attachment scale was 175, and the minimum score was 25. Items from the two scales were summed independently for two total scores: (1) for parental attachment, and (2) for peer attachment (Armsden and Greenberg, 1987). Items were either stated positively or negatively. Negatively stated items were rescored by reversing the scale. The 7-point Likert scale used in this instrument indicated 1 as "always true", and 7 as "never true."

Therefore, higher total scores indicated a lower quality of parental or peer attachment while lower scores indicated a higher quality of parental or peer attachments.

Each scale measured three similar dimensions: (1) degree of mutual trust, (2) quality of communication, and (3) extent of anger and alienation. Items that measured the degree of mutual trust assessed the adolescents' trust or felt security that attachment figures understand and respect their needs and desires. Items that measured the quality of communication determined the adolescents' perceptions on how sensitive and responsive their attachment figures were to their emotional state and needs for help. Items that measured alienation demonstrated feelings of anger or emotional detachment from attachment figures. Armsden and Greenberg (1987) included the construct of alienation since frequent and intense anger or detachment is seen as a response that threaten and disrupts a secure attachment bond.

Items from the two scales also corresponded to each other, except for those items that only specified either parents or peers. The scales consisted of items that represented factors that promoted feelings of attachment, namely: (1) trust, (2) communication, and (3) alienation. These constructs made up three subscales within each scale for a total of six subscales. These subscales were derived from factor analysis of an earlier version of the instrument (Greenberg, Seigal & Leitch, 1984) with additional items added to allow for a more thorough coverage of attachment theory formulation. They were clustered together under two types of attachment: (1) parental attachment, and (2) peer attachment. However, in the instrument itself,

items from the six parent and peer subscales (trust, communication, and alienation)

were not separated. The following items correspond to each subscales:

1. Parent Attachment - 28 items
 - Trust - 10 items (1, 2, 3, 4, 10, 13, 14, 21, 23, 24)
 - Communication - 10 items (5, 6, 7, 8, 15, 16, 17, 20, 26, 28)
 - Alienation - 8 items (9, 11, 12, 18, 19, 22, 25, 27)
2. Peer Attachment - 25 items
 - Trust - 10 items (5, 6, 8, 12, 13, 14, 15, 19, 20, 21)
 - Communication - 8 items (1, 2, 3, 7, 16, 17, 24, 25)
 - Alienation - 6 items (4, 9, 10, 11, 18, 22, 23)

When responding to the items, each respondent was asked to associate their responses with the parent (mother or father) or peer (close friend) who influenced them the most.

Items that measure trust were reflected by the degree of mutual understanding and respect, for example: "My parents/peers respect my feelings." Communication items assessed the quality of communication, for example: "I feel it's no use letting my feelings show around my parents/peers." Alienation items tapped feelings of anger and interpersonal isolation, for example: "My parents/friends don't understand what I am going through these days."

Reliability

Factor analysis performed on the items by Armsden and Greenberg (1987) yielded factor pattern coefficients suggesting a partial confirmation of the notion of positive and negative affective-cognitive dimensions of attachment. Intercorrelations among the scales indicated positive correlation between parent trust and communication (.68), and negative correlation between parent communication and alienation (-.55). Similarly, there were positive correlations between peer trust and communication (.65), and negative correlation between peer trust and alienation (-.35) and peer communication and alienation (-.39). Moderate to high reliability of scores were also reported by Armsden and Greenberg (1987). The alpha coefficients for trust, communication, and the alienation for the Parent Scale were .91, .91 and .86 respectively, while the alpha coefficients for trust, communication, and alienation of the Peer Scale were .91, .87, and .86 respectively. Armsden and Greenberg (1987) reported a 3 week test-retest reliability for 27 samples. The samples were between the age of 18 to 20 years. The reliability coefficient value for the Parent Attachment taken as a total score from the three subscales was .93 and Peer Attachment also taken as a total score from the three subscales was .86.

Lapsley, Kenneth, and Fitzgerald (1990) also calculated the original IPPA's reliability coefficient values for each of the three measures. The reliability for the parents dimensions of the attachment inventory for trust, communication, and alienation were .77, .85, and .58. Regarding the peer dimensions of attachment the

reliability for trust, communication, and alienation were .84, .86, and .66 respectively. They concluded that, except for the alienation of parental attachment, all other measures demonstrated adequate reliability.

Due to moderate alpha values for alienation (both parent and peer attachment scales), this researcher attempted to calculate the alpha values of the two sections (parental attachment and peer attachment) and the subscales on the revised 7-point Likert scale instrument. These were preceded by using data collected for this study. The alpha Cronbach coefficient for parental attachment was .70 and for peer attachment was .78. The coefficient values for each of the parental attachment subscales were: (a) trust = .83, (b) communication = .90, and (c) alienation = .54. For peer attachment, the coefficient values for the subscales were: (a) trust = .85, (b) communication = .86, and (c) alienation = .46. These values correspond to coefficient values found by Lapsley, Kenneth, and Fitzgerald (1990). The researcher also found that except for the alienation of parental and peer attachments all other measures demonstrated adequate reliability. This information will be useful for future research when the IPPA is involved as instrument to measure parental and peer attachments of samples from different ethnic groups.

Convergent Validity

Armsden and Greenberg (1987) have also reported convergent validity between IPPA scores and scores from three other instruments: (1) Family

Environment Scale (FES), (2) Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS), and (3) Family and Peer Utilization Factors. They found that there were correlations between IPPA Parent Attachment scores and reported levels of FES Cohesion (.56) and Expressiveness (.52). There was also a positive correlation between the parental attachment score and the tendency to seek out parents in times of need. Parent attachment scale was also reported to be strongly associated with Family Self-Concept (.78) as measured by the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS).

Peer attachment scores correlate most highly with TSCS Social Self-Concept (.57). However, peer attachment on the whole was not related to the measure of family environment. The correlation between peer attachment and peer utilization measured by the Family and Peer utilization Factors was significant but weaker (.28) than the Parent Attachment (.54) (Armsden and Greenberg, 1987)

Lewis, Woods, and Ellison (1987), however, reported that parental attachment scores of 12 to 18 year olds are also correlated moderately with scores on the Family Environment Scale (FES). Lapsley, Rice, and Fitzgerald (1990) found both Parent Attachment and Peer Attachment to be predictive of personal and social identity as well as aspects of college adjustment (e.g. academic, personal-emotional, and social adjustment). Less secure parental attachment, as indicated by the IPPA, has been related to depression, suicidal ideation, separation anxiety, and hopelessness within young adolescent sample (Armsden, McCauley, Greenberg, Burke, & Mitchell, 1990). Using a cross-sectional design, Papini, Roggman, and Anderson (1991) found

that parental attachment generally diminishes as puberty proceeds (with some indication that male attachments to mother actually increased during puberty). These authors also report positive associations between parent IPPA scores and family expressiveness and cohesion, whereas, IPPA parent scores correlated negatively with depression and social anxiety.

The Interview Protocol

Phase Two of the study used the “Interview Protocol” for data collection (Appendix F). This instrument was developed by the researcher based on literature review of parental and peer attachment (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987; Bowlby, 1988; Hazan & Shaver, 1990). It has 14 open-ended questions related to parental attachment that corresponded to 14 open-ended questions related to peer attachment. The instrument also has one open-ended question which explored how the students perceived their parental and peer attachments at present.

The researcher first asked participant's questions about their parental attachment. This was followed by questions regarding their peer attachment. The respondents were able to reflect on their parental attachment, when they were first asked these questions. They then were able to use this reflection to help them understand how they relate to their peers.

Interview Protocol Questions (Appendix F)

A. Examples of Questions Related to Parents:

1. Can you tell me something about your family, in particular about your parents, their educational background, where they are working, the number of sibling you have, and anything that you think I should know about your family?
2. What are the factors that you think make them good/poor parents?
3. What type of personal issues do you discuss with your parents?
4. Do you think your parents understand what you are going through at the moment? Why?
5. How do you describe your level of trust towards your parents?
6. What do you think their level of trust towards you? Why?
7. When you are upset or angry, how do your parents respond to those reactions?

B. Examples of Questions Related to Peers:

1. Can you tell me something about your close friend, in particular your friends in Kalamazoo? Who he or she is? Are both of you living in the same house or apartment, or are you in the same program with her or him? Tell me anything that I should know about your close friend.
2. What are the factors that you think make them a good/poor friend?
3. What type of personal issues do you discuss with your friend?

4. Do you think your friend understands what you are going through at the moment? Why?
5. How do you describe your level of trust towards your friend?
6. What do you think their level of trust towards you? Why?
7. When you are upset or angry, how does your friend respond to those reactions?

Data Collection and Data Analysis

The researcher conducted the data collection. For Phase One, a set of questionnaires was sent to each respondent. They were asked to return the questionnaires to the researcher. The data collected were then analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. To describe the sample being studied, the researcher used descriptive statistics. Inferential statistics were used to answer the research questions.

Quantitative Analysis

Research Question 1

Does a relationship exist between students' parental and peer attachments?

The research question was analyzed using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r). Parental attachment scores were correlated with the peer attachment scores. The correlation coefficient is an index that describes the extend to

which two sets of data are related. It is a measure of the relationship between two variables.

Research Question 2

What will be the patterns of the students perceived parental and peer attachment (i.e. do variables such as age, gender, and length of stay impact the students' perceived parental and peer attachments)?

The research question was analyzed using two-way ANOVA. The analysis enabled the researcher to determine if a particular independent variable would affect the interaction between the dependent variable (parental attachment or peer attachment) and another independent variable. The researcher also determined if there were any differences between parental or peer attachments when age, gender, and length of stay in the United States were taken into consideration. One-way ANOVA was conducted for this purpose. The two-way analyses were conducted as follows:

1. The first analysis involved age and gender as independent variables and parental attachment as the dependent variable. This analysis determined if there was any interaction between age, gender, and parental attachment. The analysis also determined if there were differences between gender and age groups on the parental attachment score.

2. The second analysis used age and length of stay as the independent variables and parental attachment as the dependent variable. This analysis determined if there was an interaction between age, length of stay in the United States, and parental attachment. The analysis also determined if there were differences between age and length of stay groups on the parental attachment score.

3. The third analysis used gender and length of stay as the independent variables and parental attachment as the dependent variable. This analysis determined if there was any interaction between gender, length of stay, and parental attachment. The analysis also determined if there were differences between gender and length of stay on the parental attachment score.

The next three analyses followed similar patterns except that the dependent variable was changed to peer attachment. The level of significance for two-way and one-way analyses was set at .05.

Qualitative Analysis

Phase Two generated qualitative data that may support or contradict results for the two research questions. Data collected by the researcher from the interviewing process were triangulated with data from both observations and documentation processes. Member check was also conducted whereby, two transcribed notes were given back to two interviewees to confirm or disconfirm any themes or patterns that emerged from the data.

According to Marshall and Rossman (1995), two of the fundamental methods relied on by qualitative researchers are: (1) direct observation, and (2) in-depth interviewing. Observation entails the systematic noting and recording of events, behaviors, and artifacts (objects) in the social setting chosen for study. Through observation, the researcher learned about behaviors and the meanings attached to those behaviors.

This method assumed that behavior is purposive and expressive of deeper values and beliefs. Conversely, in-depth interviews are much more like conversations than formal events with predetermined response categories. The researcher explored a few general topics about attachment to help subjects uncover the meaning of those behaviors, but otherwise respected how the participants framed and structured their responses.

Interviews for this study took place at the homes of the subjects on weekends. This was to assure that the subjects were interacting with their environments such as the presence of housemates, or roommates, and how the subjects interact with them. This helped the researcher make direct observations on how subjects interacted with their peers at home. At the same time, the researcher observed whether there was any indication of their attachment to families in Malaysia. This could have been a family photo display, photo album, family memorabilia, and telephone bills to families in Malaysia. The interviews were conducted using the protocol developed prior to the

interviewing process. In this type of research, the researcher becomes an instrument of the study.

With respect to documentation, Marshall and Rossman (1995) stated that:

Researchers' supplement participation observation, interviewing, and observation with the gathering and analyzing of documents produced in the course of the everyday events. As such, the review of documents is an unobtrusive method, one rich in portraying the values and beliefs of participants in the setting....are useful in developing an understanding of the setting or group studied (p.85).

Marshall and Rossman (1995) also indicated that any decision to gather and analyze documents should be linked to the research questions developed in the conceptual framework of the study. As such, the researcher studied telephone bills, collections of photographs (both family and friends), or any other types of documents that might give some indication of the students' attachment patterns. The researcher used content analysis to analyze the documents. Marshall and Rossman (1995) stated that:

Content analysis entails the systematic examination of forms of communication to document patterns objectively. It allows the researcher to obtain an objective and quantitative description of the content of various forms of communication such as music, pictures, which also may be included (pp. 85-86).

Data analysis is the process of bringing order, structure, and meaning to the mass of collected data (Marshall and Rossman, 1995). Qualitative data analysis is a search for general statements about relationships among categories of data, and builds upon grounded theory. Data were analyzed in five modes: (1) organizing the data; (2) generating categories, themes and patterns; (3) testing the emergent

hypotheses against the data; (4) searching for alternative explanations of the data; and (5) writing the report.

Each phase of data analysis entails data reduction as collected data are brought into manageable pieces. It also involves interpretation as the researcher brings meaning and insight to the words and acts of the participants in the study (Marshall & Rossman, 1995).

The first mode of data analysis was done by transcribing the data using the Microsoft Word Version 6.0 (1996) program, and inserting numbers for every line of data generated from the transcription. This process helped the researcher identify lines needed as data in the study. Data generated from qualitative studies are normally enormous and not all data generated can be used to answer the stated research questions. Therefore, selection of these data is necessary. The data were then read to develop categories, and to find themes and patterns related to attachment as suggested by Bowlby (1988). Based on literature review, three categories were developed: (1) trust, (2) communication, and (3) alienation. The researcher then identified themes and patterns that brought meaning to the categories. These were then developed into subcategories. Coding was done for each category and subcategory.

The data were then reorganized into their respective categories and subcategories, and tested against any emergent hypotheses concerning parental and peer attachment. Frequency count on the units was done to observe any patterns that

might develop from the data. The researcher also searched for alternative explanations of the data.

Inter-rater reliability was conducted by the researcher and two doctoral graduate students who were familiar with qualitative research methodology. The rating was conducted independently using the coding schemes developed by the researcher. Criteria for choosing the doctoral graduate students were based on their familiarity with using the Cohen's Kappa technique and formula. Cohen's Kappa formula was used to determine the reliability index (K).

Following the process, both the researcher and the graduate students agreed upon 18 out of the 20 units selected for the process. The value of K was found to be .80. Disagreements over units that did not match the coding by both parties was resolved by discussing the underlying meaning of each subcategory involved in the process. The following formula was used to calculate the Cohen's Kappa (K) index: $K = (fa - fc)/(N - fc)$. Frequency of chance was denoted by (fc), and frequency of agreement was denoted by (fa).

Hypotheses

Research Question 1 did not involve any formulation of hypothesis. Research Question 2 involved six sets of primary and interactional hypotheses. The following hypotheses were provided to answer Research Question 2.

Research Question 2

What will be the patterns of the students' perceived parental and peer attachment (i.e. do variables such as age, gender, and length of stay impact the students' perceived parental and peer attachment) ?

Research Question 2.1

Will there be a difference in parental attachment among Malaysian students with different ages and gender?

Primary Null Hypotheses. 1. There is no difference in parental attachment between the younger and older Malaysian students.

2. There is no difference in parental attachment between male and female Malaysian students.

Interactional Null Hypothesis. 3. The nature of interaction between age and parental attachment does not depend on gender of the Malaysian students.

Research Question 2.2

Will there be a difference in parental attachment among Malaysian students with different ages and their length of stay in the United States?

Primary Null Hypotheses. 1. There is no difference in parental attachment among younger and older Malaysian students.

2. There is no difference in the parental attachment between students who have been in the United States more than one year, and those who have been in the United States one year or less.

Interactional Null Hypothesis. 3. The nature of the interaction between age and parental attachment does not depend on the Malaysian students' length of stay in the United States.

Research Question 2.3

Will there be a difference in parental attachment among Malaysian students with different gender and length of stay in the United States?

Primary Null Hypotheses. 1. There is no difference in parental attachment between male and female Malaysian students.

2. There is no difference in parental attachment between Malaysian students who have been in the United States more than one year, and Malaysian students who have been in the United States one year or less.

Interactional Null Hypothesis. 3. The nature of the interaction between gender and parental attachment does not depend on the Malaysian students' length of stay in the United States.

Research Question 2.4

Will there be a difference in peer attachment among Malaysian students with different ages and gender?

Primary Null Hypotheses. 1. There is no difference in peer attachment between younger and older Malaysian students.

2. There is no difference in peer attachment between male and female Malaysian students.

Interactional Null Hypothesis. 3. The nature of interaction between age and peer attachment does not depend on gender of the Malaysian students.

Research Question 2.5

Will there be a difference in peer attachment among Malaysian students with different ages, and their length of stay in the United States?

Primary Null Hypotheses. 1. There is no difference in peer attachment between younger and older Malaysian students.

2. There is no difference in the peer attachment between Malaysian students who have been in the United States more than one year, and those who have been in the United States one year or less

Interactional Null Hypothesis. 3. The nature of the interaction between age and peer attachment does not depend on the Malaysian students' length of stay in the United States.

Research Question 2.6

Will there be a difference in peer attachment between male and female Malaysian students, and their length of stay in the United States?

Primary Null Hypotheses. 1. There is no difference in peer attachment among the male and female Malaysian students.

2. There is no difference in peer attachment between Malaysian students who have been in the United States more than one year, and those who have been in the United States one year or less.

Interactional Null Hypothesis. 3. The nature of interaction between gender and peer attachment does not depend on the Malaysian students' length of stay in the United States.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Overview of the Chapter

This chapter reports results of the study in two sections. The first section (Section I) presents the descriptive profile of the research sample, as well as results from inferential analyses. Section II presents the qualitative analysis of the data collected in the study. This section is used to support results documented from the quantitative analyses.

Section I: Results From the Quantitative Analysis

Participant Profile

The descriptive data reported in this study were based on 202 participants (a return rate of 81%). The name pool used in this study consisted of 1,635 students' name. Breakdown of the participants are presented according to age, gender, ethnic group, socio-economic status, parental marital status, students' plan after graduation, number of siblings, sponsorships, and length of stay in the United States. Ninety-two (45.5%) participants were between 18 - 21 years of age and 110 participants (54.5%) were more than 21 years old (Table 1). The sample was also represented by 52.4 %

male ($\underline{n} = 106$) and 47.5 % female ($\underline{n} = 96$). The number of male students are slightly higher than the female students (Table 2).

Table 1
Distribution of Respondents by Age

Age	Frequency	Percent
18 - 21 years old	92	46
More than 21 years old	110	54

Table 2
Distribution of Respondents by Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	106	52
Female	96	48

This study focused on the Malay students. Malay ethnicity is considered as an indigenous group in Malaysia. However, Iban and Khadazan are also considered indigenous groups, therefore, they were also included in the study. The number of Malay students participated in the study was 198 (98.0 %). The number of Iban and Khadazan was four (2.0 %) (Table 3).

Table 3
Distribution of Respondents by Ethnicity

Ethnicity	Frequency	Percent
Malay	198	98
Iban and Khadazan	4	2

Students were also asked to classify their family income. It ranged from less than RM 1,000 to more than RM 4,000. RM denotes “Ringgit Malaysia” which is the Malaysian currency whereby, US1.00 dollar is equivalent to RM3.80. Seventeen participants (8.4 %) reported family monthly income levels less than RM 1,000; 73 participants (36.1 %) reported family monthly income between RM 1,000 to RM 2,000; 39 participants (19.3 %) reported family monthly income between RM 2,001 to RM 3,000; 46 participants (22.8 %) reported family monthly income between RM 3,001 to RM 4,000; and 27 participants (13.4 %) reported family monthly income more than RM 4,000 (Table 4). These data show that most students who participated in the study were from lower to middle income groups. This is in agreement with the government’s policy regarding scholarship distribution among the indigenous groups.

Table 5 shows a breakdown of parental marital status. It is worth noting that students with two parents outnumbered students with single parents or widowed parents. One hundred and ninety-four participants (96.0 %) reported that their parents were still married; two participants (1.0 %) reported that their parents were

Table 4
Distribution of Respondents by Monthly Income

Monthly Income	Frequency	Percent
Less than RM 1,000	17	9
RM 1,000 - RM 2,000	73	36
RM 2,001 - RM 3,000	39	19
RM 3,001 - RM 4,000	46	23
More than RM 4,000	27	13

divorced; while six participants (3.0 %) reported that one parent was deceased. These data are not surprising since marriage is highly valued in the Malaysian society especially among the indigenous groups. Participants were also asked to indicate whether they plan to go back to Malaysia after graduation or stay in the United States. Thirteen participants (6.0 %) indicated that they wished to remain in the United States to gain some work experience and 189 participants (94.0 %) reported that they planned to go back to Malaysia following graduation (Table 6).

Participants were also asked to indicate the number of their siblings. One hundred and thirteen participants (56.0 %) had between one and three siblings; 75 participants had between four and six siblings (37.0 %); 13 participants (6.0 %) had between seven and nine siblings; and one participant had ten siblings. The mean number of siblings was 4 ($SD = 1.71$) (Table 7). The two students' sponsors chosen

Table 5

Distribution of Respondents by Parents' Marital Status

Parents Marital Status	Frequency	Percent
Married	194	96
Divorced	2	1
Widowed	6	3

Table 6

Distribution of Respondents by Plans After Graduation

Plans After Graduation	Frequency	Percent
Go back to Malaysia	189	94
Stay in the United States	13	6

for the study were: (1) Jabatan Perkhidmatan Awan (JPA), and (2) Majlis Amanah Rakyat (MARA). These are the two largest government agencies that sponsor students to study abroad as well as in Malaysia. Data collected showed that 125 participants (62.0 %) were sponsored by JPA, and 77 participants (38.0 %) were sponsored by MARA (Table 8).

Participants also indicated that they were either in the sophomore, junior, or senior year. They completed their freshman year in Malaysia under one of the two following programs: (1) a preparatory program conducted by the Malaysian Ministry

Table 7
Distribution of Respondents by Number of Siblings

Number of Siblings	Frequency	Percent
1 - 3	113	56
4 - 6	75	37
7 - 9	13	6
10 or More	1	1

Table 8
Distribution of Respondents by Sponsorship

Sponsorship	Frequency	Percent
JPA	125	62
MARA	77	38

of Education, or (2) a completed diploma program from the MARA Institute of Technology. These programs provided them with education equivalent to the freshmen and sophomore years. Participants with JPA and MARA sponsorships were required to complete their education in 2 to 3 years. Therefore, the length of stay in the United States ranged from less than one year, to 2 or more years. Seventy-three

participants (36.1 %) indicated that they had been living in the United States less than a year. These students were in their junior year. Forty-six participants (22.8 %) indicated that they had been living in the United States between one to two years, and 83 participants (41.1 %) indicated that they have been living in the United States for more than 2 years. They were seniors that will be graduating by the end of their third year of stay in the United States (Table 9).

Table 9
Distribution of Respondents by Length of Stay in the United States

Length of Stay	Frequency	Percent
Less than 1 year	73	36.1
1 - 2 years	46	22.8
More than 2 years	83	41.1

Analyses of Research Question

This section reports results of data analyzed using three different statistical measures: (1) Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, (2) and (3) Two-way and One-way Analyses of Variance. The first analysis determined if there was a relationship between parental and peer attachment. The second analysis involved testing hypotheses to determine if there were any differences between means among students with different ages, gender, and length of stay in the United States on the

parental and peer attachment measure. The alpha level was set at .05 unless otherwise stated.

Results From Pearson Product-Moment Correlation

Research Question 1: Does a Relationship Exist Between the Malay Students' Parental Attachment and Peer Attachments? Score from parental and peer attachments were correlated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. As shown in Table 10, the correlation coefficient value was $r = -.31$ ($p = .001$). Hinkle et al. (1994) suggested that as a rule of thumb for interpreting the size of a correlation coefficient, a .30 to .50 indicates a low positive correlation. Therefore, the r value of $-.31$ between parental and peer attachments suggests a low negative correlation which indicates a negative relationship between the two scores. The r value is also an index of the proportion of individual differences in one variable that can be associated with the individual differences in another variable (Hinkle et al., 1994). Hence, for the most part, high or low scores on the parental attachment scale were negatively associated with scores on peer attachment. This correlation ($r = -.31$) also suggests that factors other than peer attachment may also contribute to individual differences in the parental attachment score. Examples of such factors are: (a) age, (b) gender, and (c) length of stay in the United States. The value of the coefficient of determination (r^2) was .10. This means that 10% of the variance in parental attachment scores was associated with variance in peer attachment scores.

Table 10

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient

	r	r^2	Sig.
Parental Attachment by Peer Attachment	-.31	.10	.001*

* Significant at alpha .05 level.

Results From Two-way and One-way ANOVA

Research Question 2.1: Will There Be a Difference in Parental Attachment Among Malaysian Students With Different Ages and Gender? The two-way interaction ANOVA $F(1, 201) = 6.58$ on parental attachment was significant ($p = 0.01$) at the .05 alpha level. Main effects for age ($p = .00$) and gender ($p = .00$) were also significant at alpha level .05 (Table 11). Since these values are less than the alpha value of .05, all null hypotheses were rejected. The probability that the difference in group means would have occurred by chance if the null hypothesis was true is less than .05. This result suggests that there are differences in parental attachment among the younger and older participants across gender, as well as differences between the two genders, across age groups. Results from main effects also indicate that there were differences in mean parental attachment scores among the younger and older students, and among male and female students. The younger

students had a lower mean parental attachment score ($\underline{M} = 92.97$, $\underline{SD} = 10.88$) than the older students ($\underline{M} = 97.45$, $\underline{SD} = 14.63$) (Table 17, Appendix G). The male students had a lower mean parental attachment score ($\underline{M} = 91.30$, $\underline{SD} = 13.71$) than the female students ($\underline{M} = 99.95$, $\underline{SD} = 11.06$) (Table 18, Appendix G). These scores indicate that the younger students had a higher quality of parental attachment when compared to the older students, and regardless of age, the male students had a higher quality of parental attachment when compared to the female students.

Research Question 2.2: Will There Be a Difference in Parental Attachment Among Malaysian Students With Different Ages and Length of Stay in the United States? As shown in Table 19 (Appendix H), the two-way interaction $\underline{F}(2, 201) = 2.51$ on parental attachment was not significant ($p = 0.08$). The p value exceeds the alpha level set at .05. The analysis indicates no interaction among younger and older student across three levels of length of stay in the United States on parental attachment. Since $p = .08$ is larger than the alpha value set at .05, the interaction null hypothesis was not rejected. Main effect for age ($p = .01$) is significant at the .05 alpha level. Since this value is less than alpha, the null hypothesis was rejected. However, the observed probability value for length of stay exceeds the alpha value of .05 ($p = .44$). Since this value exceeds the alpha level set at .05, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

One-way ANOVA was conducted to confirm the observed probability values of main effects for both age and length of stay on parental attachment. The observed

Table 11
Two-way ANOVA Between Two Age Groups and Across
Gender on Parental Attachment

Source	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Main Effects					
Age	1744.11	1	1744.11	12.07	0.00*
Gender	4858.86	1	4858.86	33.63	0.00*
2-way Interactions	951.20	1	951.20	6.58	0.01*
Total	35122.90	201	174.74		

* Significant at alpha .05 level.

probability value for age was $p = .02$ (Table 12). This value is less than the alpha level set at .05. Therefore, the main null hypothesis for age was rejected. This result also supports result of main effect for age for the first two-way ANOVA (Table 11). This indicates that there was a difference in the parental attachment mean scores between the younger and the older students. The younger students had a lower mean parental attachment score ($M = 92.97$, $SD = 10.88$) than the older students ($M = 97.45$, $SD = 14.63$) (Table 17, Appendix G).

However, Table 20 (Appendix H) shows that the observed probability value for length of stay in the United States was $p = 0.98$. Since this value is greater than the alpha level set at .05, the main null hypothesis for length of stay in the United States was not rejected.

Table 12

One-way ANOVA Between Two Age Groups and Parental Attachment

Source	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Between Groups	1008.72	1	1008.72	5.91	0.02*
Within Groups	34114.20	200	170.57		
Total	35122.90	201			

* Significant at alpha .05 level.

Research Question 2.3: Will There Be a Difference in Parental Attachment Among Malaysian Students With Different Gender and Length of Stay in the United States? As shown in Table 21 (Appendix I), the observed value for the parental attachment ANOVA two-way interaction $F(2, 201) = 0.59$ was not significant ($p = 0.55$). This value is greater than the alpha value set at .05. Therefore, the interaction null hypothesis was not rejected. The observed probability value for main effect for length of stay ($p = .92$) exceeds the alpha level set at .05. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. However, main effect for gender ($p = .00$) is less than the alpha value set at .05. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

One-way ANOVA was conducted to confirm results from the main effects for length of stay in the United States and gender as shown by the two-way ANOVA. The one-way ANOVA conducted on gender (Table 13) resulted in an observed probability value of $p = .00$. This value is similar to the observed probability value

for main effect for gender as produced by the two-way ANOVA. The result is also consistent with result of main effect for gender for the first two-way ANOVA (Table 11). Since this value was less than the alpha value set at .05, the main null hypothesis for gender was rejected. This indicated that there was a mean difference in parental attachment scores between male ($M = 91.30$, $SD = 13.71$) and female students ($M = 99.95$, $SD = 11.06$) participating in the study (Table 18, Appendix G).

Table 13

One-way ANOVA Between Male and Female and Parental Attachment

Source	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Between Groups	3765.82	1	3765.82	24.02	0.00*
Within Groups	31357.10	200	156.79		
Total	35122.90	201			

* Significant at alpha .05 level.

However, as noted in Table 21 (Appendix I), the observed probability value for main effect for length of stay in the United States was $p = 0.92$. This value exceeds the alpha level set at .05. This result was consistent with the result produced by the previous one-way ANOVA to determine mean differences of parental attachment for the three levels of length of stay in the United States. The observed probability value was $p = 0.98$ (Table 20, Appendix H). Therefore, the main null hypothesis for length of stay in the United States was not rejected.

Research Question 2.4: Will There Be a Difference in Peer Attachment

Among Malaysian Students With Different Ages and Gender? As shown in Table 14, the observed probability value for the interaction effect for ANOVA $F(1,201) = 13.85$ was significant ($p = .00$). This value is less than .05, the set value of alpha. Therefore, the interaction null hypothesis was rejected. The probability that the interaction would have occurred by chance if the null hypothesis was true is less than .05. This result suggests that there are differences in peer attachment among the younger and older participants across gender, as well as differences between the two genders, across age groups. The observed probability of main effects for age is $p = .02$, and for gender is $p = .00$. Both values are less than the alpha level set at .05. Therefore, both null hypotheses were rejected. Results from main effects also indicate that there were differences in mean peer attachment scores among the younger and older students, and among male and female students. The older students had a lower mean peer attachment scores ($M = 84.78$, $SD = 13.89$) than the younger students ($M = 87.04$, $SD = 14.96$) (Table 22, Appendix I). However, the mean difference was small. The female students had a lower mean peer attachment score ($M = 79.08$, $SD = 10.63$) than the male students ($M = 91.90$, $SD = 14.69$) (Table 23, Appendix J). These data indicate that the older students had a higher quality of peer attachment when compared to the younger students. The female students had a higher quality of peer attachment when compared to the male students.

Table 14
Two-way ANOVA Between Two Age Groups
and Across Gender on Peer Attachment

Source	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Main Effects					
Age	924.90	1	924.90	6.05	.02*
Gender	9647.08	1	9647.08	63.08	.00*
2-way Interaction	2118.84	1	2118.84	13.85	.00*
Total	41672.90	201	207.33		

* Significant at alpha .05 level.

Research Question 2.5: Will There Be a Difference in Peer Attachment Among Malaysian Students With Different Ages, and Their Length of Stay in the United States? Table 24 (Appendix J) shows the two-way interaction ANOVA $F(2, 201) = .16$ on peer attachment, age, and different length of stay in the United States. The p value was .85. This observed probability value was greater than the alpha level set at .05. Therefore, the interaction null hypothesis was not rejected. The observed probability value for main effect for age was .40, and for length of stay was .61. Both values exceed the alpha level set at .05. Therefore, both null hypotheses were not rejected.

One-way ANOVAs were conducted to confirm the result for main effect for age and length of stay produced by the two-way analysis. Table 25 (Appendix K)

shows the observed probability value for age was $p = .27$. Since this value exceeds the alpha level set at .05, the hypothesis for the main effect for age was not rejected. This confirms result of main effect for age for the two-way ANOVA.

As noted in Table 24 (Appendix J), the observed probability value for main effect for length of stay in the United States was greater than the alpha value set at .05. The observed probability value was $p = .61$. This result was consistent with the result from the one-way ANOVA conducted to examine the mean difference in peer attachment among students with different lengths of stay. The observed probability value was $p = .48$ (Table 26, Appendix K). Since this value was greater than the alpha level set at .05, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Research Question 2.6: Will There Be a Difference in Peer Attachment Between Male and Female Malaysian Students, and Their Length of Stay in the United States? As shown in Table 27 (Appendix L), the two-way interaction ANOVA $F(2, 201) = .43$ on the peer attachment was not significant. The observed probability value was $p = .65$ at the .05 alpha level. This value exceeds the alpha level, therefore, the interaction null hypothesis was not rejected. For main effects, the observed probability value for gender was $p = .00$. This value was less than the alpha level set at .05. Therefore, the main null hypothesis for gender was rejected. The probability value for length of stay was $p = .38$. This value exceeds the alpha level of .05. Therefore, the main null hypotheses for length of stay was not rejected. These values supported the one-way ANOVAs analyses conducted to determine the

difference in mean scores of peer attachment among genders, and the three different length of stay. Table 15 shows the observed probability value for gender was $p = .00$. This value is less than the alpha value set at .05. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. There was a difference in mean scores for peer attachment among male and female students. Table 23 (Appendix J) shows the difference in means between male and female students. The female students had a lower mean peer attachment score ($M = 79.03$, $SD = 10.63$) than the male students ($M = 91.90$, $SD = 14.69$).

As noted in Table 26 (Appendix K), the observed probability value for length of stay was $p = .48$. Since this value exceeds the alpha level set at .05, the null hypothesis was rejected. This result confirms the result of main effect for length of stay in the two-way ANOVA.

Section II: Results From the Qualitative Analysis

Results from this section of the chapter will be divided into three parts: (1) parental Attachment, (2) Peer Attachment, and (3) Documentation and Observation. The coding process conducted on the raw data resulted in the development of several themes from the three categories: (1) trust, (2) communication, and (3) alienation.

Eight students, four males and four females, from one of the participating universities were interviewed for the second phase of this study. Three out of the eight interviewees were in their junior year while the remaining five were in their senior year.

Table 15

One-way ANOVA Between Male and Female and Peer Attachment

Source	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Between Groups	8282.46	1	8282.46	49.61	0.00*
Within Groups	33390.40	200	166.95		
Total	41672.90	201			

* Significant at alpha .05 level.

Parental Attachment

In this part of the study, parental attachment was explored using 14 open-ended questions that basically asked about issues of trust, communication, and feelings of alienation as suggested by Armsden and Greenberg (1987). It was interesting to note that the raw data showed enormous richness in describing each category of trust, communication, and alienation pertaining to parental attachment as experienced by the interviewees.

The coding technique used was able to separate data from each category into different themes. Six themes emerged for trust, four themes for communication, and two themes for alienation. The six themes for trust were: (1) understanding, (2) respect, (3) mutual trust, (4) accessibility, (5) responsiveness, and (6) expectation. The four themes for communication were: (1) extensiveness, (2) quantity, (3) quality, and (4) modes of communication. The two themes for alienation were: (1) emotional

alienation, and (2) physical alienation. Table 16 shows the codes used for the coding process. For more detailed information on the codes please see Figure 1 (Appendix M).

Trust

Responsiveness. Data showed that responsiveness was the most salient theme that contributed to the development of trust between parents and interviewees. They described responsiveness as: (a) how fast their parents responded to their needs in times of crisis, (b) the attentive behaviors of the parents, and (c) the support and concern of the well-being of the interviewees. With regards to the promptness of the parents' response, one female interviewee commented:

When I need money. Sometimes my parents send some money. I know that they don't have much, but they will try to send the money as soon as they can. So I call them to say thank you.

On the same issue, another male interviewee remarked that:

When I need the money, they [my parents] will send it, but now with the high rate of exchange, they send me very little money. I don't know if they can afford to keep sending the money in the future.

Yet another male interviewee reflected on how concerned his mother was about his eating habits, and little domestic chores that she used to do for him, while wondering whether he would be able to survive living away from home:

OK, my mother is very concerned about whether I need ... she will say, are you eating properly? Do you eat proper food? You are so picky at home. So she always ask how is everything. Is everything OK?. So they [my parents] want everything to be OK.

Table 16
Codes for Themes

Themes	Codes
<u>TRUST</u>	
Understanding	TUND
Respect	TRES
Mutual trust	TMUT
Accessibility	TACCE
Responsiveness	TRESP
Expectations	TEXP
<u>COMMUNICATION</u>	
Extensiveness of Communication	CEXT
Quantity of Communication	CQUAN
Quality of Communication	CQUA
Modes of Communication	CMOD
<u>ALIENATION</u>	
Emotional Alienation	AEMO
Physical Alienation	APHY

The three excerpts seemed to suggest that parents whose children were studying overseas were very concerned about their children's well-being. Although the interviewees were sponsored by the government, this did not hinder the parents from sending extra money to help their children cope with living expenses incurred by the interviewees while living in college away from home. The parents also seemed to be constantly worrying about their children's health while being away from home. It

was interesting to note from the stories that for male interviewees the concern evolved around the issue of coping with the domestic chores [aside from the financial and academic issues] and taking care of personal needs, while for the female interviewees, the biggest concern was their social life.

Interviewees also suggested that their parents were not only concerned with their financial needs, but also with their mental and emotional well-being. Their stories reflect the parents' awareness of the importance of mental and emotional stability, and its influence on their children's ability to excel academically as commented by one male interviewee:

They expect me to tell them if I am worried about something, this means that they want me to be OK, not to worry about things, and all that. They want me to tell them if I am not feeling OK. Just concentrate on my study.

Another male interviewee echoed a similar sentiment:

They are very concerned about how I feel, if I sounded upset over the phone, they will ask me. I know that if I don't tell them, they will be so worried.

A young female interviewee who suggested that her parents responded immediately to her needs also suggested that she misses her parents' presence. This young female interviewee came from a middle class family, and her parents were very much involved in her education since youth. She was one of the female interviewees who had a strong propensity for parental attachment and revealed that going overseas to study was not her choice, but her parents. She was merely following her parents' wishes. When reflecting on her feelings toward her parents, she commented that:

I am grateful to have such parents, very caring, supportive, compassionate, loving, I miss them. They know what's best for me.

This same interviewee also reflected on her good relationship with her siblings. She told tales about her parent's attentive behavior when responding to her pleas for help, or when she was emotionally upset.

Every time I am upset or angry, my parents will respond positively to my anger. They listened to me. Sometimes they let me be by myself until the my anger subside. That way they do not embarrass me. I hate to cry in front of others, not even my parents or siblings.

Nonetheless, there were also non-attentive behaviors displayed by parents who were less responsive to their children. These parents, according to the interviewees' stories, were more detached, and were lesss concerned about their children's mental and emotional well-being. One female interviewee described her parents' insensitivity toward her feelings as follows:

I fought with my brothers and sisters. Anyway I get upset and they will sort of ask me why, and asked me to shut up in an angry tone. I mean, they should ask us what was wrong, but no, they prefer to just shut us up. That will make me more upset.

This female interviewee's sentiment was echoed by another male interviewee who described his parents as also being detached. He alluded this behavior as:

You know that they are not the type who will pat my back, and tell me nice things. They leave me alone.

He added that:

Sometimes they are fed up with me for telling them my ideas. Maybe, I tell them too much. You know like, I should know my limit. They just ignore me when I said too much.

It is noteworthy that most male interviewees suggested that their parents were more attentive to their needs than the female interviewees. Male interviewees saw their

parents as being more understanding, caring, supportive, and accommodating while there were mixed feelings toward parents by the female interviewees. Many interviewees agreed that their mothers were more responsive than their fathers. This was echoed by a male interviewee:

When I am upset, my mother will ask me, but my father will just keep quiet. My father just leave it to my mother. I don't know whether he did it on purpose or maybe it is his nature. I guess you can say that they respond differently to my mood.

Understanding. As suggested by many interviewees, it is critical for both parents and their children to understand each others' predicament in order to develop parent-child trust. Lack of understanding about another persons' predicament can lead individuals to be presumptive and view the other party's dilemma from their perspective. In view of this, Kim (1996) observed that Korean students gravitated toward assuming that "if you are my co-nationals, we are equal."

This theme of understanding was represented by ideas that pertain to: (a) the acknowledgement of parental understanding on issues presented by the interviewees, (b) patience displayed by parents when attending to the interviewees' needs, and (c) parents' willingness to compromise on some issues with the interviewees. Both male and female interviewees suggested that their parents tried to understand their situation while living in the United States, although it was more obvious among the male interviewees. This resulted in the interviewees feeling comfortable approaching their parents with their problems even though they knew that their parents would not

be able to help. As one male interviewee commented:

Well, she tries even when I said to her, “Mom this digital logic is difficult or this circuit analysis is difficult” she will say, “well that is normal the higher you study the more difficult it is going to be.” She tried to understand what I talked about. It matters to me that she try to understand my situation.

The same sentiment was echoed by another female interviewee:

They understand how difficult it is for me here ... to survive by myself, plus I don't have that many friends.

However, many interviewees also suggested that their parents would be less understanding when the issues presented evolved around the interviewees' social life, or some personal problems that encompassed different gender relationships. Many were told that their primary duty were “to be the best, to be role model to the siblings, and to achieve the academic excellence.” They were advised to put their social life on hold temporarily, only to consider different gender relationships, or intimate relationships upon graduation. One female interviewee shared her predicament:

I don't think they understand. OK, I am not taking any chances. They don't understand why I need somebody down here. It is very lonely [although friends are around], and I can't just make them understand. They think that if I find a boyfriend, it is going to be a Mat Salleh [an American]. No, they feel that I should just concentrate on my study, graduate and come home. If I tell them about this relationship, they will tell me to break off and will keep telling me until I do so. I like this guy too much to break the relationship.

This particular interviewee attributed the lack of understanding to the generation gap between herself and her parents. She was the youngest in the family of five, and felt overly protected by her parents, brothers and sisters who were much older than her. She commented on the lack of trust between them, and that affected her feelings of

connectedness toward her family. She could not contain her frustration:

My parents are old, and I am still young. They don't understand what young people want. They still think like in the early 20's, their time, when they were young. They think that we [the young people] are sinners.

Her sentiment was echoed by two other female interviewees who suggested that their parents did not have the compassion to understand, or listen to their problems.

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

When I tell them something, and they try to understand where I am coming from, that is good. That made me trust them more ... with what they said.

versus

They seldom show that they understand me or try to understand me. They never show any effort to try and understand me. If they don't understand me, how can they know what I am thinking, and how can they tell me what to do? Why should I trust their judgment then?.

However, many male interviewees were more positive when attributing understanding to the development of trust between them and their parents. They indicated that their parents, especially their mothers, will make an effort to try and understand their problems regardless of the issues being presented. Mothers seemed to function as friends, as well as parents to some of these male interviewees.

Mutual Trust. Another overriding theme that emerged when discussing the issue of trust was the existence of mutual trust between parents and interviewees. Interviewees agreed that mutual trust is important in their parent-child relationship. They commented on the importance of sincerity, and that honesty should accompany any feelings of mutual trust between parents and their children. In view of this, Gutman (1992) suggested that “trust is an individual’s characteristic belief that the sincerity, benevolence, or truthfulness of others can generally be relied on” (p. 989). Mutual trust should reflect “confidence that one will find what is desired from another, rather than what is feared” (Deutsch, 1973, p.149). With frustration, many interviewees commented on the parents’ demand that they constantly show their trustworthiness to them. Nonetheless, this was not expected from parents.

This was echoed by one female interviewee:

They want me to tell them what I did down here, where I went during summer vacations, with whom and so on. They want to see whether they can trust me. OK that is fair, but when I tell my mother something, you know like very personal things, the next thing I know, my father or sisters will say something. That is not nice, I expect her to just listen, and not tell anyone. It is hard to trust her again after that.

Many interviewees also indicated that it was difficult to develop mutual trust, particularly from parents who seemed to be “suspicious with my every movement.” But, once the trust was gained, many suggested that they will do everything to maintain their parents’ trust. It was noteworthy that interviewees were always the first one to initiate trust in the parent-child relationship.

I will tell them almost everything. I trust my parents any time more than I trust other people. So far they trust me too. I don’t want to break that trust.

The manifestation of trust from parents was shown through their willingness to trust the interviewees’ judgments and decisions, and by the amount of personal space given to interviewees when they were in the decision making processes. Trust was exhibited through the sharing of personal items or belongings and sometimes sharing of personal secrets with their parents. However, many interviewees posited that they were more willing to trust their parents with non-personal issues rather than sharing any personal secrets as indicated by the following female interviewee:

Trust them with my things, I am fine with that, but trust them with my secrets, I don’t know. That would be very difficult ... because they never trusted me before.

Another older female interviewee made a similar remark:

Of course I trust them with my things, my books, my clothes and all that. My secrets - No.

The interviewees suggested that their lack of trust towards their parents was caused by the parents’ untrustworthy behavior, and the habit of sharing the secrets with other family members. It is noteworthy that female interviewees seemed to feel the need to

be more reserved in sharing their personal secrets with their parents as compared to their male counterparts. One male interviewee suggested that: "I have nothing to hide from them, they knew what I did before, so why hide now." They suggested that by doing so they will not burden the parents with unnecessary issues or problems. Nevertheless, one young female interviewee commented on how comfortable she felt about sharing any personal secrets with her parents especially her mother. She looked upon her mother for guidance and advice, and added that:

I trust my parents, my mother that is, very much. I trust her judgment. I trust that she will make good decisions for me. They [my parents] said that my boyfriend is not a good partner for me, then forget him. My parents have to give their blessing, to me and the guy.

Many interviewees suggested that they were not willing to compromise their parents' trust. Once attained, they will abide by their parents' wishes, including conforming their life style in the United States to the life style determined by their parents. This increased their parents' trust level toward them. However, one male interviewee suggested that: "I won't tell because what they don't know won't hurt, but then sometimes I felt guilty." This created a dilemma for him and suggested that sometimes he would rather keep his secret from his parents because it will only get him into trouble.

Expectation. Interviewees also insinuated that their parents' trust was always accompanied by high expectations. The better they are at meeting their parents' expectations the higher the trust level. The majority of the interviewees indicated

that their parents expected them to excell academically, while maintaining a low profile in their social life. These expectations were also associated with “saving the family’s name” or “saving the parents’ face” to avoid any humiliation. Failure to maintain the expectations was deemed detrimental to the parents’ status in the society. As one interviewee suggested:

My father always reminded me to study hard, make sure you pass. You represent the family over there. Don’t do anything silly. Take care of the family’s name. Uphold the name ... don’t play around, don’t go to all these parties that I am hearing about. A lot of expectations. I am trying very hard.

Many interviewees commented on how these high expectations were making their life in the United States monotonous and uninteresting. The only life styles they knew were centered around school and study. Many were not willing to involve themselves in other activities aside from studying for fear of getting distracted from their studies. This emphasis on academic excellence can lead to frustration and anger because the interviewees felt that their parents did not understand their life situation, their needs and wants, while living away from home. This sentiment was echoed by one female interviewee:

They expect me to just stay at home, stay in the house, and study all the time. They tell me not to date anyone. I might do the wrong thing. You know what I mean. They said “your study is more important than having boyfriend.” I also want some life and some fun.

However, two interviewees indicated that their parents did not have these same expectations. Their parents encouraged them to study, but to do it at their own pace. These interviewees felt that lower levels of expectation promoted less pressure

which help them to develop a more balanced life style between their social and academic activities. Many reflected that they performed better academically when the pressure from parents was less. In view of this, one male interviewee commented that:

Actually, my parents don't expect me to be really good in my study. I mean they have that expectation, but not like I have to study and not enjoy myself. What is important to them is that I like what I do. They are very practical people, but I also have to prove to them that I can be good in my study, even when they did not have any expectation for me. I don't feel pressure that way - no pressure on me.

When asked what would their expectations be towards their parents, many interviewees suggested that they expected their parents to be able to help them in times of crisis, when they need extra money, or when they need someone to help them make decisions. They expected their parents to accept them for who they were, and in their abilities to pursue their academic careers by not pressuring them to excel in their studies. They also hope that their parents would learn to trust their judgment by listening more, and not jump into advice giving. In addition, it annoyed them because it sounded more like nagging. It is interesting to note that parents' and interviewees' expectations were not at all parallel. While parents' expectations were centered around academic issues, the interviewees' expectations were revolved around the need to feel loved, to be listened to, and to be recognized for their abilities to make sound judgments and good decisions. Interviewees indicated that their level of trust towards their parents increased when their expectations were met.

Respect. The salience of respect as one of the themes in trust development emerged when interviewees commented on parent-child relationships within the Malay culture. Many interviewees agreed that one's ability to pay respect to the elderly is a sign of an appropriate upbringing. One male interviewee even suggested that: "If I don't respect my parents, my kids will not respect me", and added that "my parents taught me that what you do to your parents now will be reflected back to you in the future." From the interviewees perspective, respect was seen as: (a) parents respecting interviewees' choices and decisions without imposing their own, (b) helping the interviewees make decisions, and (c) providing equal treatment to all their children, and valuing their opinions. Interviewees also agreed that respect has to be mutual in order for them to feel comfortable in the parent-child relationship. Nonetheless, this was rather difficult to achieve because of the parents' status versus the interviewees status within the Malay family setting. The parents have the ultimate respect from their children, while not necessarily providing the same respect to their children. In view of this, one male interviewee suggested that his feelings and opinions did not receive much respect from his parents. Contrariwise, he was expected to respect his parents in return for the help and support they provided. He added that:

I respected them for what they did, but there were times when I felt that they have no respect for my feelings or ideas. When they started ignoring me, or making fun of my ideas, which he [my father] always do, I lost my respect for them. But, I respect them, that is for sure. I have to.

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

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

Similar sentiment was echoed by another female interviewee:

No, I dare not [tell them my ideas]. They are always negative towards my point of view. In their eyes, I am just “budak mentah” [too young], and I am not supposed to know much about life. But I think that is not fair, they listened to my brothers’ ideas, even when they were young.

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

Male interviewee:

I told them about staying for another year after graduation to get experience, and they said yes, “if you think you can do it, and you are going to be all right.”

versus

Female interviewee:

They scolded me for wanting to do that. I was upset. They don’t respect my feelings, or my choices. They don’t trust me. They always think that I will do something stupid.

Accessibility. Parental accessibility was also one of the themes that emerged

when interviewees discussed parental trust. The idea of accessibility included: (a) being accessible (emotionally or physically), and (b) providing emotional support. Both male and female interviewees suggested that mothers were more accessible than fathers even during periods of crisis. Mothers were seen as providing the base for the interviewees to return to when emotionally upset. As one interviewee suggested:

If I have any problem I will go to my mom. Always my mom, seldom my father.

Commenting on similar issue, a young female interviewee remarked:

My parents are just wonderful, especially my mother. I can say that she is always there for me. She is my support, my best friend, as well as my guardian.

Interviewees also suggested that their mother's accessibility, especially in times of crises, was present even before they were in the United States. Interviewees agreed that this characteristic was maintained throughout their childhood and into adulthood. This resulted in the interviewees feeling closer and more comfortable with their mothers rather than their fathers.

Communication

Four themes relating to communication emerged when interviewees were asked questions regarding their parental attachment. The four themes were: (1) extensiveness, (2) quantity, (3) quality, and (4) modes of communication.

Extensiveness of Communication. When telling stories regarding their parent-child communication styles, many interviewees suggested that the amount of

information shared or to what extent communication was taking place between them, was a good indicator as to the quality of their parental attachment. Interviewees seemed to agree that the question of how much information to share with their parents depended upon the issue they want to share, and how comfortable they were in sharing the issue. In addition, they suggested that they were not willing to share some personal information for fear of the parents' negative perceptions toward them. However, they were more willing to share information that related to their financial situation, academic work, or ideas that did not involve anything personal. In view of this, one female interviewee commented:

I do discuss some issues with my parents, like my academic work, about some professor, or school, and if I badly need money. Aside from that - like boyfriend, or if I want to take a summer vacation with some friends who are guys - I don't tell them. They will not understand.

Interviewees who suggested that they have a strong attachment bond with their parents, particularly their mothers, insinuated that they shared almost all information with their parents including their social life. They preferred to do this sharing to avoid any misunderstanding. As one interviewee suggested:

I don't hide anything from them. We discuss almost everything from my study to my friends, and what I do. I think that made my life less complicated because I don't have to hide anything from them.

Quality of Communication. The theme "quality" represented the quality of the two-way communication that developed between parents and interviewees. It reflected the caring behaviors that accompany the communication process such as:

(a) the show of effort made by both parents and interviewees to communicate with each other, (b) encouragement given by parents, and (c) the comfort level felt by the interviewees when communicating with their parents. Many interviewees agreed that their parents' style of communication consisted mainly of advice giving. Everytime the information sharing process occurred, the parents followed it with non-stop advice giving, which to them sounded more like nagging. Inevitably, this frustrated many interviewees who preferred their parents to listen while maintaining an adult to adult relationship throughout the communication process. One interviewee remarked that:

Even if I tell them, they will scold me for not being strong. They will advise more and that sounded more like nagging. I cannot say anything, but listened. If I say something, it is "menderhaka" [being disobedient].

Interviewees who were more willing to share personal information with their parents seemed to have better communication patterns with their parents. These patterns were represented by a two-way communication accompanied by attentive behaviors such as willingness to listen, show of affection, support, and encouragement. Interviewees who were less willing to share any personal information with their parents indicated that their parents seldom encouraged them to talk about any personal issues with them. This resulted in feeling less comfortable talking or discussing anything with their parents.

Both male and female interviewees agreed that their mothers compared to their fathers provided better communication. They perceived mothers as being more patient, and easier to talk to than fathers. Mothers were also said to be more

understanding, compassionate, and were willing to make the effort to listen to their children. One younger male interviewee recalled:

She [my mother] will make the effort. If we talk long-distance, she will say, "don't worry about the bill, I will send the money, I want you to tell me even if it takes so much time. I want you to be OK." She will talk to me and try to be supportive.

The same interviewee suggested that his father was less sensitive when communicating with him. He said that:

He [my father] cannot communicate with his children. I know that he tried, but somehow it did not come out right. Even when he made jokes, they did not sound funny.

Another female interviewee who was never encouraged to discuss or talk about her problems with her parents, felt awkward when asked to do so. This particular interviewee also described her relationship with her parents as lacking in any display of emotions or feelings, and the communication pattern was very superficial, and "nothing deep." With a hint of sadness, she remarked:

If I asked something that is material, or I want to talk about something that is not related to emotions or feelings, they are OK, but if I do, that is not OK. What is so wrong about telling your parents that you don't feel OK, that I feel like a failure because I could not get good result? At least they can give me some encouraging words. They expect me to do well, yet never provide me with the encouragement.

Quantity of Communication. Interviewees described the quantity of communication as the number of times they communicated with their parents to either seek advice or help. Many interviewees suggested that they communicated with their parents at least twice a year via telephone. Interviewees who have constant

communication with their parents before arriving in the United States, communicated with their parents more frequently (once a month via telephone, e-mail or letters) than interviewees who suggested that they had a history of not having constant contact with their parents. As evidenced by the following excerpts:

We talk everyday when I was at home. I told her what happened at school. Now I called my parents or write to them every month. I can sense that I am not doing something right, if I have not call or e-mail them. Sometimes my mom and I were on the e-mail almost everyday.

versus

We talk, but very minimal. My parents don't talk very much to their children. Last year I called them three or four time. This year I think about three times, just to say "salam."

There is no difference between the number of contacts made by male and female interviewees. However, both male and female interviewees indicated that the number of contacts, especially telephone calls, depended on their financial situation and the type of communication accessible to them. The more accessible the modes of communication, the more contacts were made.

Modes of Communication. The communication was conducted via telephone calls, letters, and e-mail. Almost all interviewees indicated that their primary way of communicating with their parents was by way of telephone calls and letter writing. Only three of the interviewees indicated that they had the privilege of communicating via e-mail either to parents or siblings. Of the two who used e-mail to send messages to parents, only one represent the upper middle class group where the occupants used

personal computers at home.

Alienation

Two themes emerged when interviewees discussed their feelings of alienation and isolation toward their parents. The two themes were: (1) emotional alienation, and (2) physical alienation. Emotional alienation represented both the positive as well as the negative feelings interviewees felt towards their parents. Such feelings included: (a) anger, (b) happiness, and (c) feelings of love and caring. Physical alienation was the idea of togetherness or lack of togetherness in doing activities that involved family members (including interviewees).

Emotional Alienation. There were a number of factors mentioned by interviewees that led to emotional alienation. Such factors included parents: (a) making comparisons between interviewees and siblings, (b) treating interviewees as children rather than as adults, (c) assuming that interviewees were not able to make sound judgments, (d) ignoring interviewees after an argument, (e) assuming that interviewees were not worthy of trust, and (f) parents' need to control their children's lives. These led to feelings of anger and isolation towards parents. In view of this, one female interviewee remarked:

When they [my parents] said I am immature and cannot make good decisions, that made me mad. It made me feel like I don't have the right to grow up. Just because I am not married, I am 21, and still studying, they think that they can make decision for me, or tell me what to do. I think they need to know that I am a grown up woman who is capable of making her own decision.

One interviewee indicated that she preferred to be silent rather than show any sign of emotion when dealing with anger toward her parents. This was because she was taught that children were supposed to be seen, but not heard.

Interviewees who did not feel emotionally alienated toward their parents indicated that the feelings were triggered by their parents attentive behaviors. However, many interviewees also suggested that loving their parents is something that is expected from them without any question which is an issue of obedience. As one interviewee put it:

I love them. I think it is bad to say that I don't love them because they brought me into this world, I feel obligated to love them.

Physical Alienation. Interviewees suggested several activities that bound family members together: (a) helping parents around the house; (b) spending weekends at their grandparents' house as a family; (c) dinner outings; (d) outings to the bookstores, libraries, zoos, or museums; (e) recreational activities; (f) shopping; and (g) vacationing. It is interesting to note that female interviewees mentioned activities such as helping the parents around the house, spending weekends at the grandparents' house, and shopping more than the male interviewees. Contrariwise, the male interviewees mentioned outings to bookstores, libraries, zoos or museums, and recreational activities as their family activities. Two interviewees, who represented a middle class family indicated that their annual vacation (either locally or abroad) was their family's way of spending time together.

Interviewees who felt emotionally and physically alienated from their parents also maintained that their families did not have a strong emphasis on family activities. They indicated that their parents did not consider doing activities together as a family was a priority. With frustration, one female interviewee remarked:

Although my parents always go to the mosque, they never ask us to come along. That could be part of our family activities, but they prefer to go by themselves. Well, it is too late to ask us now. We [my siblings and I] prefer to do our own things.

Interviewees who had more positive feelings towards their parents portrayed family activities as something fun that the family do together over the weekend or during their annual vacation. They even considered helping around the house as activities that could promote togetherness among family members. This was reflected by one female interviewee who had a strong attachment bond with her parents:

Normally my mother and I will cook dinner together. It was fun. She let me cook my favorite food and I get to be the chef for the day. We sort of rotate this role, but my mom was always there to supervise us [the sisters]. Then the whole family sat down and eat. There were lots of comments [about the food], but everybody took it lightly.

Peer Attachment

Peer attachment was explored using 14 open-ended questions that basically raised the issues of trust, communication and the feelings of alienation, as suggested by Armsden and Greenberg (1987). Question 15: Do you feel that you relate to your parents better than your friend or vice versa for the last few months?, was used to explore any indication that might show a shift of attachment from parents to peers.

Themes similar to parental attachment were discussed by interviewees when they told stories related to trust, communication, and alienation to peer attachment. Comparable coding processes were used to identify excerpts that fall into one of the 12 themes.

Six themes emerged for trust: (1) understanding, (2) respect, (3) mutual trust, (4) accessibility, (5) responsiveness, and (6) expectation. Four themes emerged for communication: (1) extensiveness, (2) quantity, (3) quality, and (4) modes of communication. Two themes emerged for alienation: (1) emotional alienation, and (2) physical alienation.

Trust

Understanding. Stories on peer attachment told by interviewees described the theme “understanding” as willingness by the peers to understand the academic and social struggles, as well as their psychological well-being while living in the United States. Both male and female interviewees agreed that their close friends understood their struggles and difficulties and were more than ready to help. They described their self-peer relationships as not demanding, but with a defined boundry for personal space. One female interviewee described her friends as:

Very understanding. They can be my best friends for life. They know what is in my mind, and they know when I need to be by myself.

An older male interviewee who was also very comfortable with his self-peer relationship remarked that:

I think it is their way of telling me that, OK, try to settle whatever the problem is, but, tell us if you want to, no pushing or forcing. I am free to tell them what I want to tell them. I don't feel pressured.

These excerpts suggested that the interviewees experienced less constraint in their self-peer relationships when compared to their self-parent relationships. The interviewees attributed this to several reasons: (a) both interviewees and peers face the same academic and social struggle, (b) they did not have to be pretentious about who they were, (c) willingness to help each other in times of difficulties, (d) not demanding of each other's attention, and (e) they share the same culture. These reasons made the self-peer relationships more enjoyable and meaningful.

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

If I have a certain point of view, or ideas, I will tell my friends, but they don't have to agree with me. They have their opinions, and I don't have to agree with theirs. All of us have the right to reject them if we don't like them.

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

One younger male interviewee remarked that he felt threatened by his relationship with one of his peers. He pictured a close friend, a female, as very demanding and constantly pressuring him to change. With frustration he commented:

She really wants me to be more open, and less introverted and I am trying. I don't understand. Why she wants to change me? Why doesn't she like me the way I am?

This same male interviewee suggested that his male peer was less demanding, and he felt more comfortable interacting with him rather than his female peer. He attributed this to having the same interests and courses. Both male and female interviewees agreed that it was wrong to make an assumption that respect and self-peer relationship was in the same package. Respect needs to be earned before they can feel respected by their peers. Many interviewees commented on how the lack of respect destroyed their self-peer relationships and added that when their self-peer relationship became too close, the propensity to cross personal boundaries became greater. These led to anger, resentment and loss of respect.

Mutual Trust. The theme of "mutual trust" was defined by the extend to which individuals were willing to share their personal stories, information or belongings with their peers and vice versa. Mutual trust that developed between

interviewees and their peers promoted stronger feelings for peer attachment. Both male and female interviewees agreed that they had difficulty trusting their friends the first time, and added feeling intimidated when their new friends “trusted me too much when we first met.” They agreed that trust should develop slowly, but once gained they trusted their peers with personal belongings, and their secrets while suggesting that “We are part of a big family. So we share each other’s difficulties. If he [my peer] is in trouble, I will feel it too.” However, one younger female interviewee remarked that she was not willing to share any secrets with her peers for fear of embarrassment. She added:

Belongings, OK, but not secrets. I don’t like to share secrets. It is like letting other people know your dark secrets, the bad part of you. I do not know how they [my friends] will react toward me for telling them my secrets. They can be good friends now, and later they may become my enemy.

This same individual suggested that, unlike her family members, she did not know her peers long enough to trust them. She also indicated that feelings between herself and her peers were mutual. Her statement was supported by another male interviewee who referred his friends as strangers:

I trust them, but I am cautious. I think they also trust me, but with some reservation. They are very cautious. I have to be careful, and I don’t simply trust strangers.

Another male interviewee indicated that he felt uncomfortable sharing family information or family secrets with his peers, especially if they were not favorable to avoid humiliation toward himself and his family. However, he was willing to share his personal secrets with his peers if the feelings were mutual. Overall, female

interviewees perceived their peers to be more trustworthy than male interviewees. They were more willing to share personal belongings and personal secrets with their peers when compared to male interviewees who were more cautious. The female interviewees also suggested that making friends was easier than finding trusted friends. This sentiment was echoed by one older female interviewee:

It is difficult for me to trust friends if I am not really close. It is hard to get friends that you can really trust. I have many friends, but I trusted probably one or two of them.

She continued by saying:

So, in term of my trust for them, it actually depends on the issue that I decide to share with them.

Accessibility. Another overriding theme that emerged for trust is “accessibility” which described the physical and emotional support given to and received by the interviewees from their peers when in crises. Many interviewees shared their relief for having reliable friends, someone they can depend on during difficult times. They showed immense gratitude and appreciation toward their peers who were willing to share with them. As one interviewee remarked:

They helped me got through a bad relationship. They were always there for me. I felt touched. I will do anything for them. They are my best buddies.

Both male and female interviewees agreed that they need support from each other because “we encountered similar struggles; studies, girls, foods, cooking, professors, and the list can go on forever.” This sense of support was necessary because they felt

that they needed a base away from home and someone they could lean on. In view of this, an older female interviewee suggested:

We are away from home, so we figured we needed each other, especially in times of crisis or difficulty. It would be more difficult to rely on our parents because they are back home. Crisis means you need to solve the problem now, and the friends can help.

This is different from the sense of accessibility that emerged with parental attachment where interviewees expected parents to be accessible, but there was no similar expectation from parents.

Interviewees felt that their peers were more accessible than their parents or family members. This was probably due to the physical separation which made it more difficult for parents to visit their children while they were studying in the United States. Because of the inaccessibility of their parents or other family members, many interviewees looked upon peers as siblings or other family members. This was most notably true for those who lived together with their peers in the same apartment as described by the following excerpt:

It is up to us as friends to help each other out in times of trouble. We do that for each other, especially now that we live in the same apartment, we need to help each other out. I don't like to see my housemate feeling sad the whole day because it will affect how I feel. I am sure they feel the same way when I am in one of those mood. When you are away from home, friends become your most important family. That is true for me.

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

Responsiveness. Another theme that emerged during the coding process with respect to trust was the issue of “responsiveness” which describes the attentive behaviors displayed by the peers towards interviewees. Responsiveness was manifested by the peers: (a) being supportive, (b) concerned of the interviewees’ well-being, (c) sincere and honest, (d) forgiving, (e) listening attentively, and (f) willingness to be more open. Interviewees remarked that most of their close friends were very responsive regardless of the issues presented to them, and suggested that: “If I tell them something, they will listen, and not talk or argue with me.” Their peers were also very observant of any changes happening to the interviewees, and sometimes the peers responded to those changes without waiting for the interviewees to ask for their help. As expressed by one male interviewee:

My friend saw that my life was miserable. They talk to me about it. They were very concerned because my grades were going down, and I wasn’t studying as hard as I should.

This relational pattern was consistent for both male and female interviewees.

Another female interviewee whose close friends were male agreed, and added that:

They can sense when I am upset, and one of them will make jokes about me being so quiet, then they like to make me smile and feel good for the day.

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

Expectation. With regards to the theme of expectation, both male and female interviewees suggested that the feelings were mutual. Both expected that the others: (a) will help in times of difficulties, (b) accompany them on social occasions, and (c) share some personal items when permissible. Nevertheless, many interviewees indicated that they do not expect their friends to help them financially because “each of us have limited fund, so we have to know how to budget our spending, and not to bother others with money.” These mutual expectations can be seen from the following excerpts:

They expect me to help them if I can. That is OK, because I expect them to do the same. When I have a problem, they expect me to tell them.

They want me to do well in exam. All of us help each other out, try to so that everybody get through the exam.

However, one male interviewee suggested that too many expectations from a close friend can be overwhelming. The friendship became less attractive because of these expectations. He remarked that:

He expected me to be just like him. I think that is a little too much because I am me, and can never be him. This expectation made him less favorable as a friend.

Communication

Overriding themes similar to parental attachment emerged for “communication” when interviewees were asked questions related to their communication styles with peers. The themes were: (a) extensiveness, (b) quantity,

(c) quality, and (d) modes of communication. Many interviewees suggested that when the self-peer relationships were accompanied by effective communication, it helped overcome misunderstanding that could lead to anger and bitterness.

Extensiveness of Communication. Extensiveness described how much of the communication was taking place between interviewees and their peers, or the depth of the communication. Data suggested that interviewees felt comfortable sharing information that was related to academic, social life, and personal issues. However, they were not willing to share any information regarding family matters, and if they do, they were always cautious to avoid embarrassment or humiliation. One female interviewee suggested a Malay proverb to describe this situation: “*tepuk air di dulang, terpercik dimuka sendiri*” which means “anything one’s does that can embarrass oneself, will also embarrass the whole family.” Therefore the cautiousness was necessary to avoid any situations that might denigrate the individual and his family. They suggested several reasons for not sharing family issues with their peers: (a) they or their peers may get hurt or embarrassed, (b) the friendship might be strained after the information was shared, and (c) peers were not family members. This was consistent with the data describing mutual trust where interviewees suggested that they trusted their peers with much information with the exception of family matters. In view of this, one male interviewee remarked:

When it is not too personal, like family stuff. Family stuff I keep it to myself. I don’t tell them my family stuff, plus I am sure they have things to handle themselves.

The interviewees were also willing to share ideas or opinions related to academic work. In fact, they agreed that peers were the best individuals to share their ideas and opinions. However, they suggested that their peers did not have to agree with those ideas and opinions. Although they argued about them, this did not seem to deter the friendship. One male interviewee recalled a heated argument he had with his friends a couple of weeks prior to the interviewee:

They listen, they argue, or fight with me about the idea but we always decide, OK, make conclusions before we leave. Those were just ideas we threw to each other, so they were not worth fighting for. If they rejected my ideas it is not like I lost something valuable.

Quantity of Communication. The number of times they communicated with their peers defined the quantity of communication. Both male and female interviewees whose close friends were either housemates, roommates, or classmates, suggested that they communicated constantly, or on a daily basis with the peers. This was echoed by one male interviewee:

I talk to them like almost everyday. We have the same class most of the time, except when we work at the library, but sometimes he will come and disturb me or the other guy [another friend]. We just like to joke around.

While a female interviewee remarked:

So I am in constant touch with her. No, we are not in the same class, but we do make time after class to go somewhere. We always have something to talk about.

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

If I get upset over something, then I will call them, sometimes two or three times in one day.

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

I feel comfortable discussing my personal issues with my friends more than I do with my mother. They understood me better because we are of the same age, have same interest, and we think alike. Can be scary.

When asked why she used the word “scary” to described the sharing process, the female interviewee suggested that it described cautiousness, and she did not want to “overdo” the sharing process. This was also echoed by a male interviewee who suggested that he was very cautious when communicating with his close friends. He remarked that:

If I am upset I will jokingly tell him. I don’t want to sound so serious. Might scare him away.

The stories told suggested that although communication styles between interviewees and their peers displayed support and encouragement, there was also a tone of cautiousness or prudence. They agreed that this was necessary in order to preserve the friendship. Many argued that the self-peer relationship was essential for their own well-being while living in the United States. This helped avoid any feelings of isolation which they described as “can drive me crazy at times.”

Modes of Communication. There were three modes of communication employed by the interviewees: (1) direct contact or talking on a daily basis, (2) telephone calls, and (3) e-mail. Six out of eight interviewees suggested direct contact and telephone calls as their primary mode of communication with their peers. E-mail was used as a secondary mode of communication.

Alienation

As with parental attachment, two themes emerged when interviewees were asked questions relating to their feelings of being liked or cared by their peers. Both male and female interviewees suggested that there were two ways to describe those feelings: (1) feeling emotionally alienated, and (2) feeling physically alienated. Emotionally alienated feelings were either positive or negative. The positive feelings were described as: (a) secured, (b) grateful, and (c) happy. The negative feelings were described as: (a) angry, (b) annoyed, and (c) resentful.

Emotional Alienation. Interviewees who described their self-peer relationships as being very positive, comfortable, and accompanied with little pressure, suggested that they felt secure in the relationship, elated with the friendship, and less lonely. They expressed their relief in having those peers as their close friends and hope that the friendships will continue even when they were back in Malaysia. As commented by one interviewee:

I am grateful to have friends like them. I am more close to them than my own brothers and sisters.

Interviewees who suggested that their self-peer relationship was accompanied with some pressure, felt intimidated by the friendship. Sometimes the relationships were accompanied with anger and resentment, as suggested by the following excerpt:

She makes me angry. She likes to tell me what to do. I asked her what was wrong but she just ignored me. I just let it go.

Physical Alienation. Physical alienation was described as doing or not doing activities together that might include: (a) discussing academic work; (b) doing house chores; (c) traveling; (d) social activities (going to movies, shopping etc.); and (e) other recreational activities which included sports. Many interviewees agreed that they did not feel physically alienated because they were involved in many activities that they shared with their peers. The most common activities were traveling, recreational activities, and social activities. These were carried out together during semester breaks and over weekends. They agreed that by travelling together they felt safe, and helped eliminate the feelings of loneliness. In addition, they were able to

reduce costs of travelling by sharing the same vehicle and gas as described by one male interviewee:

We do things like traveling together to Chicago or Washington. It is nice because we don't feel so alone during the journey. I can't afford to travel alone. It is pretty expensive. When we travelled together, we chipped in for gas, food and all that.

Documentation and Observation

Figure 2 (Appendix N) shows the number of times each interviewee made contact with their parents in Malaysia. The data gathered represented the number of telephone calls each made during the month of April, May, and June. The data also represented the number of e-mail messages sent to parents or family members, and the number of family memorabilia found within the interviewees' residence that the researcher was able to observe while conducting interviews at the residence.

Data from the figure suggests that interviewees were constantly in contact with their parents in Malaysia. On the average, most of the interviewees made at least one contact every month. Five interviewees used e-mail to send messages to their parents, either directly or indirectly through their siblings. Data from documentation also suggested that letters were the least favored way of communicating with parents.

Interviewees were also asked to show any family photos that they might have with them. Two interviewees did not have any family photos displayed on the walls of their residence, or in any photo album. One male interviewee preferred to keep photos of his parents in his wallet. The other five interviewees, four females, and one

male, displayed the family photos in several ways: (a) in an album, (b) picture frame on the wall, and (c) picture frame on the side table. One female interviewee who suggested that she had a very close relationship with her parents had the most family photos.

Data from observations suggested that seven out of eight interviewees interacted very well with their housemates or roommates. Since the interviews were conducted on Sunday morning around 9 o'clock, many of them were either busy cooking breakfast, having breakfast, or cleaning their apartments. The interactions took place in the form of conversations, and doing the house chores together. The interviewer was not able to observe any self-peer interaction with one female interviewee because she lived alone in her apartment. This was the same interviewee who suggested that she was very close to her parents, and felt uncomfortable sharing any kind of information, especially personal information with her peers.

In general, many interviewees indicated that they were able to relate well to both their parents and peers. However, two interviewees indicated that their friends would never have the same privilege of sharing ideas or personal information as much as their parents. Four interviewees indicated that their peers were their substitute family while they were living in the United States.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter is divided into five subtopics: (1) Summary, (2) Discussion, (3) Conclusion, (4) Implications, and (5) Recommendations. The summary provides an overview of the study. This is followed by discussion on the research findings based on the analyses of data and conclusions drawn. Two types of implications are presented: (1) theoretical, and (2) practical. Finally, readers are presented with recommendations for future research.

Summary

This study explored parental and peer attachments of Malaysian students of Malay ethnicity studying at universities in the Midwestern region of the United States. It also attempted to identify whether age, gender and length of stay in the United States had any effect on the parental and peer attachments as experienced by the students. The study was conducted in two phases. Phase One involved a quantitative approach to research design, and used a paper-and-pencil test. Phase Two used a qualitative approach to research design, where the primary method for data collection was an interviewing technique. This technique was triangulated with

observation and documentation. Member check was conducted with two interviewees to help confirm the result of the transcription. Two-hundred and two students were involved in the first phase of the study, while eight students participated in the second phase of the study.

The instrumentation used for Phase One was comprised of two sections. Section I provided the demographic data while Section II provided information on the quality of parental and peer attachment of the participants in the study. This section used the Inventory of Parental and Peer Attachment (IPPA) developed by Armsden and Greenberg (1987) as the instrument to measure the quality of parental and peer attachment as experienced by the participants. The researcher revised the instrument by changing the scale from a 5-point Likert scale to a 7-point Likert scale. The instrument is divided into two sub-sections: (1) Parental Attachment, (2) Peer Attachment. The first sub-section has 28 items while the second has 25 items. The second phase of the study involved an interview protocol developed by the researcher. The protocol consisted of 25 open-ended questions that sought to explore the interviewees' parental and peer attachments while living in the United States.

Data collected from the first phase of the study was analyzed using inferential statistics: (a) Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, and (b) Two-way and One-way ANOVAs. Data collected from the second phase of the study were coded according to the themes that emerged from the interviewees' stories. Twelve themes emerged throughout the coding process, six themes described the development of

trust. The themes were: (1) understanding, (2) respect, (3) mutual trust, (4) accessibility, (5) responsiveness, and (6) expectations. Four themes that depicted the communication patterns developed between interviewees, their parents and peers were: (1) extensiveness, (2) quantity, (3) quality, and (4) modes of communication. The two themes that illustrated the feelings of alienation as experienced by the interviewees while interacting with their parents and peers were: (1) emotional alienation, and (2) physical alienation.

This study was guided by conceptual framework of attachment theory by Bowlby (1969, 1982, 1988), and the work of Armsden and Greenberg (1989) on parental and peer attachments. The research questions that guided this inquiry were as follows:

1. Does a relationship exist between students' parental and peer attachments?
2. What will be the patterns of the students' perceived parental and peer attachments (i.e. do variables such as age, gender, and length of stay impact the students' perceived parental and peer attachments) ?

Discussion

There are limited data that explore parental and peer attachment of Malaysian students studying at local universities in Malaysia, in the United States, or other parts of the world. Apparently, the need exists to examine the quality of parental and peer attachment that illuminates issues of trust, communication and feelings of alienation

of Malaysian college students. Although the Malaysian government sponsored these students, and was aware of psychological problems that arose from issues relating to peer pressures as well as parental expectations, few measures were taken to help students cope with these pressures. This resulted in many students feeling depressed, unmotivated, and unable to comply with the government's expectations of academic excellence. Mahyuddin (1996) suggested that students who were able to cope with pressures of adjusting to their new environments were able to perform exceedingly well. These students not only benefited from the academic curriculum offered by their universities, but also from the non-academic activities offered by their departments or student organizations. This involvement helped enhance their social and professional skills upon graduation.

Mahyuddin (1996) remarked that students who coped well normally developed a support system among their peers, particularly from the same country. This was supported by Kim (1996) who suggested that when students developed support systems among co-national peers they felt less lonely and less isolated in their host country. This increased their confidence and their comfort level while interacting in the new environment. As suggested by Bowlby (1969, 1982, 1988), the ability to feel confident in exploring new environments is important for the development of healthy emotional and psychological well-being.

Bowlby (1982) added that individuals' ability to seek support systems, and develop bonds with others relied on interactional patterns with their past significant

figures, particularly their parents. Therefore, how individuals interacted relationally with their parents was mirrored in their interactional patterns with their peers. The dynamic that evolved within the relational patterns prompted a shift in attachment from parents to peers as individuals grew older.

Although this study did not quantitatively measure this shift in attachment, the phenomena was reflected by the data produced through the interviewing process. Many interviewees reflected on stronger bonds with their peers while living in the United States. They suggested developing more restraint with respect to personal information they perceived they should share with their parents. In contrast, because of the feelings of connectedness with their peers, they were willing to share more intimate information with them regardless of gender and age. Their peers were perceived as substitute parents or family members. Kim (1996) regards this as “cheong” or the “emotional glue”, a binding force that represented interpersonal connectedness among students who were studying in a foreign land away from home. This binding force may act as a relational basis that allows attachments among these individuals to remain stable, and to continue across time and space.

If this phenomenon holds true for Malaysian college students studying abroad, or away from home, then Bowlby’s (1969, 1982) postulation that shifting of attachment from parents to peers occurred when children grow older is confirmed. What seemed to vary with respect to Bowlby’s (1969, 1982) postulation was that interviewees did not perceive their parental and peer attachment as resulting in

similar strength and intensity, and that both relational patterns did not mirror each other. The data from the current study suggested evidence that secured attachment patterns toward parents will not necessarily display strong secured attachment patterns toward peers. Nonetheless, many interviewees commented that parental attachment was necessitated mostly by their financial needs, and the need for advice, guidance, and decision making revolved around academic issues.

The study (in Phase One) found a low negative correlation between the parental and peer attachment scores. This provided information on the pattern of the two attachments, whereby, a high score on parental attachment reflected a low score in peer attachment and vice versa. This information could be an indicator of the Malaysian college students' parental and peer attachment patterns. The value of the coefficient of determination suggested that only 10% of the variance in parental attachment of the students could be associated with the variance in peer attachment. This finding seemed to support the sentiment echoed by many interviewees who felt more comfortable disclosing personal information to their peers rather than their parents. They seemingly had greater propensity to feel connected to their peers physically and emotionally, especially in times of crises. The need to seek proximity from the secure base, portrayed by the holding environment provided by the peers, seemed more inviting than to try and get connected to their parents who were living in their homeland.

One question remaining was: What triggered the interviewees to feel more comfortable disclosing personal information to their peers? The interviewees' stories did indicate a strong attachment bond toward parents from the beginning of the parent-child relationship. However, along the developmental pathways the intensity of the attachments toward parents decreased. Is this an issue of parenting style, or did the parent-child proximity play a role in decreasing the parental attachment bond while increasing their peer attachment bond? Did the presence of peers bolster the interviewees' confidence in exploring their new environment while living in the United States, and therefore, eschew the need to be attached to their parents? This study was able to answer some of these questions while the remaining questions need further research on similar issues.

Results from the two-way analysis showed an interaction effect between age and gender on parental attachment scores. The implication is that there was a difference in parental attachment between the female and male younger participants, as well as female and male older participants. This variation in parental attachment was supported by some comments made by two female students, one younger than the other. The older female student who lived alone in a two bedroom apartment suggested that she had a strong attachment bond with her parents since youth, and felt comfortable sharing her personal information with them. Nonetheless, she emphasized that the sharing process depended on the importance of the issues she wanted to discuss. Contrariwise, the younger female student was more comfortable

with her peers, mostly male undergraduate students from the same program, suggesting that “they are my best friends and I will tell them my problems.” Two other female students seemed to agree with this young female interviewee. With regards to this, Kim (1996) suggested that: “when compared with their male peers, women in general were more apt to situate themselves at the periphery of their co-national student community” (p. 338).

Both younger and older male interviewees suggested an attachment preference for parents, with some inclination toward their peers. This did not seem to support findings from Lapsley’s et al. (1990) study in which they concluded that the degree of affect toward parents and peers were similar for both younger and older college students. One out of four male interviewees (who happened to be the youngest in the sample) suggested a strong attachment toward his peer who helped him with academic work. This particular interviewee was in his first semester, and remarked that he was still struggling with the adjustment process. Therefore, the peer’s help was an immense relief for him in terms of making an adjustment. His predicament paralleled Bowlby’s (1988) suggestion that careseeking behavior is displayed by a weaker and less experienced individual toward someone regarded as stronger or wiser. In this case, the interviewee was the less experienced individual and his peer the wiser. Rice and Whiley (1994) commented that this careseeking behavior is particularly salient during the stressful period of transition to college. Knowing someone who understands the dynamics of the new environment provides a

buffering effect for the individual and helps lessen feelings of uncertainty toward the new environment. This promoted environmental exploration and mastery, while shortening the length of adjustment periods in the new environment (Bowlby, 1988; Lapsley et al. 1990).

Data from the main effects (in Phase One) showed that there were differences in parental attachment across gender and age. The male participants scored lower on parental attachment than the female participants. This indicated a stronger parental attachment displayed by the male participants. Evidence from stories told by the interviewees supported this finding. However, studies conducted by Paterson et al. (1994) and Haigler et al. (1995) suggested that for both male and females, their quality of affect toward parents, particularly mothers, remained stable over time. Two of the four male interviewees (in Phase Two) who expressed attachment toward their parents suggested that it developed from the parents' attentive behaviors, characterized by understanding, respect for personal space, encouragement, support and concern, as well as continuity in those attentive behaviors. Interviewees' accounts concerning trust revealed an appreciation toward their parents' judgments, decisions, and advice. As articulated by one male interviewee: "My parents know what is best for me." These male interviewees felt comfortable discussing academic, social and personal issues, and sharing their ideas with their parents.

Within the realm of Asian culture, sons are held accountable for everything that is happening both to themselves, and their family. They are responsible for

“saving the family’s name” from any humiliation, and are always deemed as good role models to be followed by their siblings. The oldest sons who are successful in their academic work, and thus in their careers, are held more accountable than daughters who are equally successful in their academic careers. To accomodate this accountability, the sons learn to favor their parents’ decisions, and accept their parents’ judgments in order to avoid any life complications. A “good” son within the boundry of Asian culture is a person who can emulate their parents’ “good” standing within the norms of society. Therefore, it is imperative that sons model similar paths of life as those modeled by their parents. This promotes a need to approach parents for advice, to trust their judgments and decisions, and to respect their opinions and views about life. Parents were perceived as “*lebih dulu makan garam*” (Malay) or “they were the first to taste the salt” which signifies their wisdom and knowledge gained from life experiences. Sons are able to model parents’ lifestyle and worldview when they maintain constant contact with their parents, and, in due time, this can lead to stronger attachment bonds with parents.

The irony is, although male individuals raised within Asian culture are encouraged to pursue academic excellence, they are not trained to do domestic chores (which are left to the women in the family) or in meeting their personal needs. Consequently, they might have difficulty taking care of their personal needs, and this can lead to dissapointment and frustration. They had to learn to take care of their personal responsibilities, as well as master domestic chores probably for the first time

in their lives. Due to these predicaments, they tend to rely on their parents both for a supply of Malay local food and advice on how to manage their domestic responsibilities in the United States. This might contribute to more feelings of being attached to parents as one male interviewee commented: "My parents are very concerned about my health, and asked me whether I am eating right ... I love them because they show concern for me." Although this might fit a dependency theory, according to Bowlby (1988) "the desire for comfort and support is not regarded as childish" (p.121).

Male interviewees did not seem to have difficulty making their voices heard by their parents. Stories regarding communication showed evidence of their self-parent relationship which included quality communication that enabled them to endure discussions of any issue with their parents, and make suggestions without fear of rejection. The extensiveness of their discussions included sensitive family issues where opinions were always taken into consideration. The male interviewees described their parents' responses to their ideas, and opinions as being supportive and understanding. This also contributed to the development of trust and attachment bonds resulting in the male interviewees having less difficulty expressing their opinions and personal views in public.

In comparison to the male interviewees, the female interviewees did not seem to enjoy the same parental privilege and comfort as their male counterparts. Many female interviewees expressed frustration over their parents' responses, especially

when they attempted to share some personal information with them, or when they suggested ideas or gave opinions to their parents. One female interviewee expressed her frustration in which she needed her parents' blessing in pursuing a personal relationship. Nevertheless, she was reluctant to share this information for fear of being berated by her parents. Another female interviewee suggested that it would be easier to just not discuss any personal information with her parents because: "They would never be able to understand my situation." The female interviewees lacked the trust toward their parents and felt disconnected from the self-parent link. This promoted feelings of emotional alienation and affected the quality of their parental attachment. Apparently, there seemed to be a chain reaction among trust, communication and alienation as experienced by these female interviewees.

It is an unspoken rule of Asian culture that females, particularly young single females, are not positioned to voice their opinions to their parents. Their image portrays a submissive individual who does not question authority, in this case their parents. They are taught to pursue a "less complicated life" because supposedly everything has been determined for them. Their life was meant to complement the lives of their significant others. In view of such a sociocultural milieu, Kim (1996) suggested that: "Women in traditional Korean society stipulates the unconditional obedience of a women to her parents in childhood, to her husband in marriage, and to her sons in old age" (p. 339). This sentiment was echoed by one female interviewee who reflected her parents' refusal to inherently understand her situation and struggle

while living abroad. The interviewee reflected on how much her parents wanted her to follow their lifestyle with which they were comfortable and familiar. She attributed this to difference in age, as well as the fact that she is a woman.

Although Asian females are given less room to voice their opinions, they are indirectly trained to be independent since youth, helping them gain some ground for autonomy. They retain family responsibilities (looking after their siblings and helping around the house) at an early age, often as young as 12 years old. Almost always they become substitute caregivers to replace the parents. This dynamic is notable among families with working parents, especially when the mothers actively participate in the job force. Given this scenario, it is natural for Asian females living outside their parents' home to move away from the family responsibilities imposed by their parents. Being away from home is a passport to personal freedom. They then develop the image of women pursuing their academic aspirations in a foreign land away from direct parental supervision for a prolonged period of time (Kim, 1996). Therefore, they will try to adopt a more independent lifestyle that heightens awareness of individuality including being more responsible for their own personal needs. Inevitably, they find a reduced need to connect to parents, and this lessened the attachment bonds between themselves and their parents.

Looking at these dynamics, it is difficult to explain Bowlby's (1969, 1982, 1988) theory of attachment without injecting the influence of culture. Although Ainsworth et al. (1988) suggested that attachment theory cuts across cultures, this did

not seem to apply to the sample in this study. Both male and female interviewees suggested that their parents were good providers. The difference lies in what is being provided for both groups, or what the secure base provides for both groups that enhance or lessen the attachment bonds between children and parents. Evidence clearly suggested that parental attachment among the male interviewees remains stable over time because they enjoyed some privileges that enhanced their attachment bonds. This basically included self-parents' trust, effective communication, and positive feelings of closeness and togetherness. In this respect, this study did not support Rice and Whaley's (1994) findings which showed that attachment processes for males was not a continual process, but emerged only when the sons sought their parents during times of crisis.

In contrast, the female interviewees were deprived of those privileges, but were indirectly trained to be more independent, which increased their awareness for individuality and the importance of meeting their personal needs. This promoted more autonomy among females. Given Bowlby's (1969) postulation that a secure base provided by parents will promote mastery in exploring new environments, does this statement hold true for both male and female Malay students who were studying in universities away from home? Does parenting style affect parent-children attachment bonds?

Results from the main effect of two-way ANOVA also suggested that there is a difference in parental attachment among the younger (less than 21 years old) and

older students (more than 21 years old) who participated in the study. The younger students had a lower mean score for parental attachment than the older students which implicitly explained the higher quality of parental attachment among the younger students. This evidence supported Bowlby's (1969, 1982) postulation that the less experienced individual will seek the wiser individuals for support, and thus encourages attachment behaviors. Therefore, it is fair to say that younger individual experience a need to be attached to parents until they procure enough confidence to explore new environments by themselves. The breaking away process from the primary attachment bonds will occur at a slower pace before they can develop new relationships with others aside from primary caregivers. This predicament was echoed by a young male interviewee who was struggling with his first semester in an engineering program. He expressed the need to be in constant contact with his parents, his mother in particular, to seek advice on almost all matters including his academic struggles, regardless of her understanding about the subject matter. The comforting and reassuring words from his mother provided the emotional stability that he sought when dealing with his struggles. However, as he learned to adapt more to the new environment, and found a peer to share his struggles with, he acquired a new bond with his peer who had been in the United States for three semesters.

It was worth noting that regardless of age, both male and female interviewees had a greater propensity to be attached to their mothers than fathers. Their stories depicted mothers as appreciative, more understanding, responsive, supportive, and

encouraging while fathers were pictured as detached and unattentive. Mothers were perceived as better communicators than fathers which allowed more room for quality in the communication process. These views supported Bowlby's (1988) statement that "Sensitive mothers, attuned to her child's actions and signals, responds to him or her more or less appropriately, and is then able to monitor the effects her behavior has on her child, and to modify it accordingly" (p.13). Bowlby (1988) added that a sensitive father would have similar descriptions, but it is the mother who usually bears the brunt of parenting.

In spite of the fact that this study did not specifically ask participants separate questions regarding perceived attachment toward mothers and fathers, this theme kept emerging whenever the interviewees narrated their stories pertaining to their trust and communication processes with their parents. The questions remain: (a) Is this pattern of parenting styles effective in helping children promote confidence and competency in exploring their new environments?; and (b) Should the responsibility of being a nurturing caregiver be shouldered by mothers while fathers take the secondary role? Bowlby (1988) posited that "Children with a secure relationship to both parents were most confident and most competent; children who had a secure relationship to neither were least so; and those with a secure relationship to one parent but not to the other came in between" (p. 10). This probably explained why the Malay students' confidence and competency in exploring new environments was not being optimized, although they have the capability and support from their

mothers. The lack of support from fathers could be one possible reason why these students felt uncertain about exploring beyond what was permitted by their parents. They felt connected to both parents, but uncertain about their fathers' responses toward them. With regard to this, Bowlby (1988) suggested that "The patterns of attachment that individuals develop during the years of immaturity ... is profoundly influenced by the way his parents treat him" (p. 124). He argued that the same attachment pattern that developed during early age with the primary caregivers, will shape the individuals attachment patterns during their adulthood with some significant others. Therefore, if both parents conveyed different messages on the quality of attachment toward their children, the children felt ambivalent about how much they should invest in their attachment processes with others, particularly peers.

Despite Bowlby's (1988) suggestion that time spent away from a secure base affects parental attachment, this study was not able to confirm this position. Probably the participants' length of stay in the United States was too short to show any effect. The majority of students had been living in the United States for a short period of time; between one and two years.

Findings from this study also suggested a difference in peer attachment between younger and older students across gender. The two-way ANOVA showed an interaction effect between age and gender on peer attachment. This was supported by the interviewees stories as they narrated their relational patterns toward their peers. Both male and female interviewees appeared to value and seek more responsive

engagement with peers. This supported Paterson et al. (1994) study that showed an increase in utilization of friends for support and proximity over time. They commented on their close friends' ability to understand their struggles and difficulties, and their accessibility in times of crises. In alluding to this, one younger female interviewee concluded that she selected her peers over her parents when choosing to share personal information because "They understand my struggles, and we look out for each other." The older female interviewee seemed to argue that her self-peer relationships were as equally important as her self-parent relationship. Nonetheless, due to easy access to the self-peer contact she preferred to stay connected to her peers.

There appeared to be some level of compatibility between what the interviewees expected and needed from their peers, and how the peers were relationally oriented to them. For example, in the case of the younger female interviewee who reported feeling attached to her peers, her peers seemed to carry out their relationships with the interviewee in a manner that was consistent with the interviewee's relational patterns. This kind of compatibility helped sustain the attachment bonds between both interviewees and their peers. Kim (1996) suggested that individuals who developed close connections with their peers, particularly co-nationals, will be able to sustain their friendship through mutual respect for differences and willingness to accommodate each other's needs. In view of the interviewees' self-parent relational orientation, such compatibility was almost non-

existence. Parents' expectations toward the interviewees far exceeded their capability to accommodate those expectations, while the interviewees' expectations toward their parents were minimal.

Male interviewees' suggested that they trusted and communicated effectively with their peers and readily acknowledged their needs for empathic and supportive responses from their peers, but they remained cautious with what they shared with them. In doing so, they were able to maintain personal boundaries and regulated their own behaviors so as to avoid any humiliation. For these male interviewees, the idea of "saving face" and "family's name" remained their utmost priority. However, it was evident that the older male interviewees had a greater propensity to form attachments with their peers and attributed these feelings to their shared struggles over their course of stay in the United States, yet they maintained their parental attachment. This groups' attachment behaviors seemed to fit with Bowlby's (1969) attachment theory. However, this does not indicate that the theory is applicable to the general population of older Malay males who are in colleges.

Analysis from the two-way ANOVA showed a difference in peer attachment between younger and older students and between male and female students who participated in the study. The older students had lower mean peer attachment scores than the younger students. One younger male interviewee who had been in the United States for less than a year concluded that his self-peer relationship was at times very demanding, and that deterred him from seeking proximity or feeling

attached to his peers. He described the self-peer relational patterns as complicated, and consumed a lot of energy. This same interviewee cherished, with pride and appreciation, the close affinities with his parents and siblings, and former friends that were in Malaysia. However, an older interviewee reported in his stories about his peer's presence which helped make his adjustment process less difficult. Over the time of their friendship he was able to increase his trust toward his peer. His sense of connectedness made the self-peer attachment process more appealing, yet the process was set on limited personal boundaries based on sociocultural milieus and his felt attachment toward his parents. This evidences seems to disconfirm Lapsley's et al. (1990) findings which suggested that there are no differences of felt attachment between freshmen and upper class students. However, their study showed that the upper class students were more emotionally and socially adjusted as compared to the freshmen. This is in agreement with findings from the present study. However, the differences were small when compared to the differences between male and female students. The female students had lower mean scores than the male students.

These differences in means can be explained in terms of attachment theory within the cultural context of the students. Consider Bowlby's (1988) description of attachment behavior: "... any form of behavior that results in a person attaining or maintaining proximity to some other clearly identified individual who is conceived as better able to cope with the world" (p. 27), and taking into consideration the norms of Asian culture, it is not entirely incorrect to suggest that the older students were more

attached to their peers because they were able to identify with individuals [during the period of adjustment] whom they perceived as capable of guiding them through crises while living in the United States. Bowlby (1988) remarked that “To remain easy access to a familiar individual known to be ready and willing to come to our aid in an emergency is clearly a good insurance policy” (p. 27). Therefore, the peers were their insurance policy because they were easily accessible, both physically and emotionally. These older students had moved beyond the self-parent relationship and now the peers were a source of guidance. Nonetheless, the cautiousness persisted within their self-peer relationships, especially when there was an attempt made to share some family information with peers. Since it is their responsibility to uphold the family name, they had to avoid issues that might spur some humiliation, or that might destroy the family’s good name. This provided guidance for the interviewees on how much self-peer mutual trust should exist. Therefore, the quality of their communication was in question.

In spite of the fact that this study was not able to confirm the effect of length of stay on peer attachment, this might play a role in the students’ patterns of attachment to their peers. The longer the length of stay in the United States, which also indicates more time spent away from a secure base, the greater the familiarity the individuals had with their new environments. It is acceptable to say that students who were older and had been away from home for a period of time tended to be more attached to their peers. These peers represented the new relationships that the

individuals developed during their adulthood and this relational partnership was a major component of secure attachment behaviors.

The younger students' higher mean scores in peer attachment indicated a lesser attachment to their peers. This pattern proved to be the inverse relationship between younger students' parental and peer attachments, in which they scored lower in parental attachment. This also supported data analyzed using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient where the value of r is negative. In this case, the younger students who had been in the United States less than one year, still maintained their proximity and sense of connectedness toward their parents. One young interviewee in her story expressed how much she missed her family, and constantly needed reassurance from her parents, especially her mother. In due course she was able to develop friendships. Both she and her friend were in constant contact with each other through telephone and e-mail. Nonetheless, she displayed cautiousness with the new relationships that developed within her living environment. She distrusted her friends indicating that she did not know them long enough to trust them, and they could become her worst enemy. Interviewees who were older developed more trust in their self-peer relationship, and enjoyed better interpersonal relationships characterized by effective communication and a sense of togetherness. Four of the older interviewees hoped that eventually their self-peer relationships would develop into a long-term close friendship long after they completed their academic work. They reflected on this possibility, and alluded to hardship and

struggles they encountered while living in the foreign land that promoted connectedness, and thus attachment bonds. As suggested by Bowlby (1988): “When alarmed, anxious, tired, or unwell he feels an urge towards proximity” (p. 121).

Results from the study showed that the female participants scored lower in peer attachment than the male participants which indicated more attachment to their peers. This finding supported Lapley’s et al. (1990) study as well as studies conducted by Berman and Sperling (1991), Kenny (1987, 1990), Rice et al. (1995, and Lopez et al. (1988). Their studies showed that the female students developed propensities for attachment toward peers, as part of their adjustment processes, especially after separation. This sentiment was echoed by some female interviewees who experience stronger relational patterns similar to those of the male interviewees where propensity for attachment was stronger toward peers. This variation in attachment can be attributed to: (a) parenting styles (which also defines attachment styles), (b) sociocultural milieu (which helped shape the social and moral ethics), and (c) a natural tendency to seek attachment (especially in times of crises). These concepts are related to attachment theory. Bowlby (1982, 1988) suggested that it is a natural human tendency to seek attachment to some significant other who might provide support and comfort. Therefore, daughters, who felt that they were physically or emotionally alienated from their parents, would seek attachment from their peers regardless if they were living at home or away from their secure base. Female interviewees who indicated that they felt emotionally alienated by their

parents felt comfortable substituting their peers as family members or siblings while living in the United States. This provided them with emotional stability, support, and understanding that could be conducive for academic excellence.

Compared to females, male students scored higher in peer attachment while scoring lower in parental attachment. The higher score attested to their lack of peer attachment when living in the United States while maintaining their parental attachment. This finding contradicted Paterson et al. (1994) which suggested that males only seek parental attachment in times of crises. It also did not seem to support Bowlby's (1988) assumption that during adulthood the attachment will shift from parents to peers. Only one male interviewee suggested that he felt attached to his peers, but with some reservation, while the remaining three felt strongly attached to their parents. The lack of attachment to peers signified the inability to identify with someone significant besides parents and family members. Since these individuals received respect, support, understanding, and encouragement from parents, they had less desire to invest in building new relationships that might only interfere with their long-term relationships with parents and family members. Peers were considered friends whom they socialized with and from whom they received support in their academic work. More personal issues were left to be discussed with their parents. Although Bowlby (1988) proposed that relational patterns during childhood are reflected during adulthood in some other non-parental relationship, this pattern was not evidenced by interviewees who participated in the second phase of

the study. These interviewees suggested that their self-peer relationships were less demanding and less constrained when compared to their self-parent relationships, yet there was a sense of ambiguity surrounding self-peer relationships.

The tree diagram (Figure 1, Appendix M) displays overriding themes that emerged from the coding process. Results from the qualitative analysis were able to support findings from the statistical analyses. Data analyzed qualitatively produced 12 themes that centered around the issues of trust, communication, and alienation. The interviewees' stories about trust toward parents and peers evolved around six themes: (1) understanding, (2) respect, (3) accessibility, (4) mutual trust, (5) responsiveness, and (6) expectation. When analyzing these themes, the writer was again reminded of Bowlby's (1988) central feature of parenting:

The provision by both parents of a secure base from which a child or an adolescent can make sorties into the outside world and to which he can return knowing for sure that he will be welcomed when he gets there, nourished physically and emotionally, comforted if distressed, reassured if frightened. This role is one of being available, ready to respond when called upon to encourage and perhaps to assist, but to intervene actively only when clearly necessary (Bowlby, 1988, p. 11).

The six trust themes described the central feature of parenting suggested by Bowlby (1988). Most of the interviewees stories told tales of parents who were responsive to their needs, understood their struggles, trusted their decisions, accepted their opinions, worldviews, and expected academic excellence, yet respected their personal space, and themselves as individual. These features created a very secure base for these interviewees. Bowlby (1988) also suggested that "No parent is going to provide

a secure base for his growing child unless he has an intuitive understanding of and respect for his child's attachment behavior and treats it as the intrinsic and valuable part of human nature" (p. 12). This statement was true for the parenting styles of those parents whose children were involved in this study. Nevertheless, it was apparent only when the children involved were sons, and not daughters.

From the stories about daughters it appeared that the sons were molded to be "confident", but daughters were forced to be "competent" by indirectly training them to be responsible as caregivers at a very early age. Daughters were not allowed to express their opinions, nor make judgments on issues pertaining to family matters. These were reflected throughout the four themes that surrounded the issue of communication: (1) extensiveness, (2) quantity, (3) quality, and (4) modes of communication. The interviewees' stories suggested that males evidenced effective communication patterns accompanied by attentive listening, encouragement and support from their parents. These patterns were not extended to daughters. In contrast, female interviewees did not experience similar extensiveness and quality of communication that male interviewees received. Nonetheless, documentation on telephone bills indicated that both male and female interviewees were in constant contact with their parents at least once a month. This suggested that the "natural need" to seek proximity to primary caregivers exists for both groups, regardless of the parent-child relational pattern.

Female interviewees also displayed more family memorabilia in their residences as compared to male interviewees (Figure 2, Appendix N). This evidence conflicted with narratives that suggested that they considered themselves as less attached to their parents. The emergence of this evidence indicated that female interviewees' representation of their parents in which parents were remembered in their schema or internal working model (Bowlby, 1982), was greater than the actual contact with their parents. As they permitted their progressive shift of attachment from parents to peers, they could form a cognitive representation of their parents in their mind. This holds true for female interviewees because they were trained to remember instructions from parents about how to manage their home since youth. This was an asset to them while living away from their parents. The schematic representation helps guide them in dilemmas or when uncertainties arose.

The stories portrayed female interviewees as feeling emotionally alienated from their parents. Two female interviewees felt less loved, less supported by their parents, yet felt obligated to love their parents. This was not a good indicator of a healthy parent-child relationship. Being away from home meant that the interviewees were not able to be with their parents and siblings on many occasions. They were physically alienated from all the family activities. Therefore, it was imperative that parents provided emotional stability for their children, especially when crises arose.

The interviewees were asked similar questions pertaining to their parental and peer attachments. This resulted in similar overriding themes for peer attachment as

was described for parental attachment. Stories about self-peer relationships attributed self-peer relational development to trust, effective communication, and fewer feelings of alienation. The development of trust with peers centered around six themes: (1) understanding, (2) respect, (3) mutual trust, (4) accessibility, (5) responsiveness, and (6) expectation. Salient to trust were themes describing responsiveness, mutual trust, understanding, and peers accessibility in times of crises which helped promote peer attachment. These features of self-peer trust were similar to the parenting skills component suggested by Bowlby (1988). Peers played the role of secondary caregivers when individuals moved away from the primary caregivers. This movement can be a physical or emotional movement that bears some tension within the individuals. Inevitably, they found a need to seek proximity to another individual who would replace the role of primary caregiver. This enhanced continuity of attachment processes from parents to peers that is detrimental to mental health and well-being of the individuals (Bowlby, 1988).

Interviewees described their communication styles with peers as less demanding, but limited to sharing information on academic, and personal issues. The majority of interviewees felt that they had a better quality of communication with peers when compared to their parents. This was due to several reasons: (a) interviewees and peers encountered similar experiences while living in the United States and therefore understood each other better, (b) they were about the same age,

(c) they shared similar struggles and difficulties while living abroad, and (d) they relied on each other for help and thus developed “symbiotic” relationships.

The majority of the interviewees agreed that they were not physically alienated by their peers unless it was their own choice. As suggested by one female interview: “... they asked me to go out, but I said no, and they were OK with that.” Feelings of togetherness helped the interviewees and their peers develop a sense of cohesiveness. This helped eliminate emotional alienation that might be damaging to their adjustment process.

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

1. Within the Malay culture and Asian cultures in general, parental and peer attachment are seen as inversely related to each other. Therefore, these two attachments do not mirror each other.

2. Parenting styles that emphasize trust, effective communication, and fewer feelings of alienation can promote better parent-child relationships.

3. Individuals who were attached to only one parent are less confident and less competent in exploring their new environments when compared to individuals who feel attached to both parents. However, this does not indicate that parents who are still married provide a more secure base than a single parent.

4. Parental and peer attachments are influenced by the norms of the society, and therefore, attachment processes are not culturally free.

5. Peers play an important role as secondary caregivers in providing attachment processes continuity which assists in ensuring mental and emotional stability when individuals live away from their secure base.

6. There is a difference in the provision of attachment processes between mothers and fathers, with mothers providing a more comforting and secure base than fathers.

7. Within the context of Asian cultures, females build better internal working models of their parents than males.

Conclusion

Variations exist within the Malay students' self-parent and self-peer attachment processes depending on age, gender, parenting styles, and the needs to seek proximity to some identified significant other when in crises. Data from the present study produced mixed results which may confirm or disconfirm attachment theory. However, evidence suggests that the application of attachment theory to explain parental and peer attachment processes among Malay students needs to be examined within a cultural context. Ainsworth et al. (1989) posited that the theory cuts across culture, but this was only partly true for the Malay students. It appeared that older male students were a better representation of the theory as a whole. They

experienced a very caring and supportive environment from their parents, and therefore sought and achieved a similar environment among their peers. As suggested by Bowlby (1988), these individuals experienced a shift of attachment from the parents to peers, while maintaining the primary attachment to parents. Therefore, there was a continuity in the attachment processes which is important for their mental and emotional stability.

Both the younger male participants and the majority of the female participants developed a propensity for stronger attachment toward their peers. Nonetheless, this did not reflect their relational history with their parents; that differed tremendously. For these two groups, the peer attachment processes were influenced by social and moral ethics that dictated parenting styles. In general, the study found differences in parental and peer attachments among these younger and older students, as well as among male and female students. Therefore, results from this study lend support to some of the findings conducted earlier within the domain of attachment theory.

Twelve overriding themes emerged throughout the interviewing process in when interviewees described their trust, communication styles, and feelings of alienation toward parents and peers. Both male and female interviewees seemed to agree that responsiveness, or how parents or peers respond to pleas for help, were the most important theme that promoted the development of self-parent and self-peer trust. Interviewees also contributed to the quality of communications as the predominant theme that enhanced parental and peer attachments, while emotional

alienation was favored over physical alienation as the theme that hindered parental or peer attachments.

In conclusion, the evidence presented helps to illuminate the attachment processes experienced by Malay students while studying in a foreign land. However, the present study represents only a beginning step toward learning, understanding and articulating attachment processes of students from Asian ethnic groups. The attachment theory presented by Bowlby (1969, 1982, 1988) helped explained the innate capacity for individuals to develop intimate emotional bonds which explained the intricate attachment behaviors of the Malay students whose lives intertwined so much with the social and moral ethics of their culture. In general, Malay and Asian communities are built upon the idea of extended family; a complicated network of family systems that involve hierarchy and status. Within these systems many healthy and unhealthy intimate emotional bonds developed. Some might encourage and some might hamper children's capacities to explore or master their new environment. Development of healthy emotional bonds, and thus healthy attachment behavior is important for children to feel self-assured and self-competent in breaking away from the whole system and being on their own.

Implications of the Study

Results from the present study may have several important theoretical and practical implications. Two important implications are identified and discussed.

Theoretical Implications

The emerging patterns of variations in parental and peer attachments identified among the Malay students reflected the influence of sociocultural milieus that governed their developmental progression. Taking into consideration that individuals' personality development is not static, and is influenced by the socio-environmental factors, an appreciation of both cultural patterns and individual preferences concerning interpersonal relationships between Malays students, their parents, and peers would seem critical in understanding their attachment behaviors.

Within the Malay culture, attachment theory would have to be analyzed both within and between ethnic groups that interacted within the Malay culture for a number of reasons: (a) the Malay culture is a combination of different cultures presented by the different ethnic groups each with a different view of the extended family process, (b) low awareness among Malay parents on the impact of culture on parenting styles, (c) cross-parenting styles within the extended family that cause confusion among children of Malay or Asian ethnic background, (d) low awareness on the psychological components of parenting styles that affect children, (e) assumption that any parenting style is effective regardless of the children's environment, and (f) impact of similar parenting styles on different children.

Malay parents' propensity to ignore the variations within the child's personality while making the assumption that what works for one child, will work for others, is an indication of the lack of awareness in understanding the variability that

exists among Malay children. The proverb *rambut sama hitam, tapi hati lain-lain* (the black hair is similar, but the heart might be different) is a constant reminder about the variability of personality differences. However, this phrase, which has been taught to children has never been fully internalized by some Malay parents.

Practical Implications

The present study illuminated several areas for those working with Malaysian students and Asian students, in general, whether in administrative, academic, or clinical settings while assisting these students in adjusting to a foreign environment, and thus optimizing their ability to explore that environment. The insights gained from studying Malay students' attachment processes may suggest the following practical implications.

First, results from this study revealed that variability exists within the Malay students' attachment processes to parents and peers and the impact these processes have on their mental and emotional stability. Regardless of age and gender, these Malay students were deeply affected by their parents' and peers' trust, communication styles, and feelings of alienation as they interacted with each other. Their predicament was exacerbated by the lack of understanding of their struggles while living abroad, particularly from parents. Many parents assumed that the Malaysian government would bear the burden of responsibility in caring for these students while they pursue their academic careers abroad. Parents should be made

aware of their children's transition from the home culture to the culture of the host country. Orientation programs for prospective students to United States and other countries should focus on the psychological impact of relational patterns on emotional adjustment while living in the new cultural environment. These programs should require parents' participation along with the prospective students. The orientation programs should be designed to help students and parents develop a sense of attachment and connectedness, while maintaining the importance of learning the new culture.

Second, the Malaysian Student Departments' officers should be made aware of the relational dynamics involved while living away from home. By understanding these dynamics, these officers might be able to assist students with their academic and personal problems more effectively. Therefore, it would be beneficial if these officers were trained counselors and educators who could provide strategic interventions to help students make a smooth transition from their home to the host country.

Third, in view of the strong propensity to develop peer attachment as corroborated by the need to get connected to their peers for physical and emotional support, the Malaysian Student Department and the Office of International Student Services at these universities could engage in a mentor-mentee program that involve the more senior students as mentors. This could help relieve the new students' apprehensions and anxieties concerning their new life in the host country. Mentors

could be co-national peers or persons who are familiar with the students' cultural background. Training for the mentors could provide more productive outcomes for the mentor-mentee program.

Fourth, this research extends the understanding of parental and peer relational patterns within Asian culture by elucidating how aspects of attachment behaviors and relational patterns vary among students with different age groups and genders. These differences may be useful to mental health counselors at universities when students present with relationship difficulties. As attachment-oriented views suggest, distress may be associated with lack of trust, understanding, responsiveness, accessibility, ineffective communication styles, and a strong feelings of physical or emotional alienation between the individuals and their significant others. Therefore, an appropriate goal for mental health counselors at these universities should involve enhancing the individuals' development toward more secure attachment. In designing interventions to increase felt security, mental health counselors can equip themselves with knowledge about different Asian cultures and norms that influence students' relational histories. Mental health counselors should be encouraged to be more sensitive to culturally related values and understand the students' relational needs from their cultural perspective.

Additionally, when working with clients' attachment issues, mental health counselors may be able to listen and intervene in a more balanced way. This can be achieved by recalling the clients' histories of relational patterns with parents;

promoted within a cultural context and linked the past relational patterns to their present relational patterns that were being influenced by their new environments in the host countries. Individuals may be more aware of their relational patterns when they are able to notice incongruities between their past and present relational histories.

Recommendations

The study of attachment theory among Malay college students could provide important information about the different ways in which attachment behaviors are displayed among Asian students. Their patterns of relational history with significant others in Malaysia could provide a basic understanding of their present relational behaviors. In view of the findings and limitations mentioned in Chapter I, the following recommendations are suggested for future research:

1. Determine whether the findings obtained for this educationally privileged group of Malay college students can be generalized to more culturally diverse groups. Future research should be directed to addressing methodological limitations of this study. These Malay students were a select group from the top 10 % of the best students in the country to be sent abroad to pursue their academic careers. Therefore, they might have greater ability to analyze the socio-environmental dynamics that influenced their parental and peer attachments.

2. The sample obtained in this study was not representative of the divorce rate among parents of Malay college-age students. Lopez et al. (1988) suggested that parental marital conflict is associated with adjustment difficulties among college students, particularly women. Kenny (1990) indicated that parental conflict and divorce may influence the extent and value of parental attachments for young adults. Therefore, the effect of parental marital status on the value of attachment needs to be explored.

3. Longitudinal research that periodically assesses the relationship between parental and peer attachments and indices of sociocultural milieu could be helpful in understanding Asian college student patterns of attachment to both groups.

4. Due to the influence of extended family on Asian children's mental and emotional development, future research is needed to clarify the complex relationships between cross-parenting styles, and their influence on the attachment behaviors.

5. Future research is needed to examine the differing impacts mothers and fathers have on their children's attachment processes. Interviews conducted in this study illuminate issues pertaining to mother-child and father-child relationships that promote or hinder parental attachment.

6. The instrument used in this study was developed by Armsden and Greenberg (1989) in English. Due to time constraints, the instrument was not translated back-to-back into the Malaysian language. There may be variations in how these participants made meanings from the statements in the instrument. The

different meanings may have caused some variability in the scores. Therefore, future research should focus on translating the present instrument, or develop new instruments that measure the quality of parental and peer attachments using the Malaysian language while injecting the cultural values, and norms into the instrument.

Appendix A

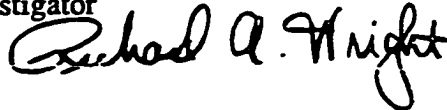
Approval Lettter From the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board

WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY

Date: 10 June 1998

To: John Geisler, Principal Investigator
Noriah Ishak, Student Investigator

From: Richard Wright, Chair



Re: HSIRB Project Number 98-05-12

This letter will serve as confirmation that your research project entitled "An Analysis of Parental and Peer Attachment and Their Determinant Factors - A Test of Attachment Theory Among Malaysian Students Studying at Universities in the United States of America" has been **approved** under the **exempt** category of review by the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board. The conditions and duration of this approval are specified in the Policies of Western Michigan University. You may now begin to implement the research as described in the application.

Please note that you may **only** conduct this research exactly in the form it was approved. You must seek specific board approval for any changes in this project. You must also seek reapproval if the project extends beyond the termination date noted below. In addition if there are any unanticipated adverse reactions or unanticipated events associated with the conduct of this research, you should immediately suspend the project and contact the Chair of the HSIRB for consultation.

The Board wishes you success in the pursuit of your research goals.

Approval Termination: 10 June 1999

Appendix B

Approval Lettter From Malaysian Student Department and MARA



JABATAN PENUNTUT MALAYSIA
(MALAYSIAN STUDENTS DEPARTMENT)

WILAYAH TENGAH

(MID-WEST REGION)

820 DAVIS STREET, SUITE 510
EVANSTON, ILLINOIS 60201

Telephone (847) 258-1111
Fax (847) 258-1173
E-mail msd@uic.edu

Noriah Mohd Ishak
Dept. of Counselor Education & Counseling Psychology
Western Michigan University
Kalamazoo, MI 49008

Ruj. Kami:

U.S. Ref.

Ruj. Tuan:

Your Ref.

Tarikh:

Date 2/18/98

**DOCTORAL RESEARCH ON MALAYSIAN STUDENTS STUDYING AT
UNIVERSITIES IN MID-WESTERN REGION OF UNITED STATES.**

With regards to the above, I am very happy to grant you permission to conduct your Doctoral Research in :

"Relationship between parental and peer attachment and it's determinant factor(s)
- A test of attachment theory on Malaysian students studying at universities
in Mid-Western Region of United States of America. "

2. However the Department is not able to furnish you with the personal information of every students as requested by you. This is due to the fact that it is against the Department's policies in giving out personal informations.

We wish you luck in your dissertation.

Thank you.

Yours sincerely

(DARUZAMAN BAHRI)

Director

Malaysian Student Dept.

Chicago

SILA CATIT RUJUKAN JABATAN INI APABILA BERHUBUNG
PLEASE INDICATE OUR REFERENCE IN ANY CORRESPONDENCE.



**MARA STUDENTS OFFICE-MIDWEST REGION
MALAYSIAN STUDENTS DEPARTMENT
EMBASSY OF MALAYSIA
5225 Old Orchard Road, Suite 19
Skokie, Illinois 60077**

**Tel. 847-470-1544/ 174
Fax: 847-470-8144**

**Ruj. Kami:
Our Ref.: CH1HUB-MSU 68
Ruj. Tuan:
Your Ref:
Tarikh:
Date: 3/13/98**

**Pn. Noriah Mohd Ishak
1940 Howard St., Apt. 306
Kalamazoo, MI 49008**

**REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT
RESEARCH STUDIES ON MARA STUDENTS**

Your letter of February 6, 1998 on the above matter refers.

Please be informed that we now grant you permission to conduct research for your doctoral dissertation using MARA students in the Mid-Western region as your subjects.

We will forward you the updated list of MARA students' names and addresses soonest possible. We would also like to request that a copy of your research paper be extended to us for our record and as a resource material.

Please don't hesitate to seek additional information about any area of your research and here's wishing you all the very best in your doctoral studies.

Sincerely,

**ISMAIL BIN HJ. ABD. WAHID
Assistant Attaché (Education)
MARA Chicago**

iaw/aa.

**c.c. En. Aziz b. Shaffie
Ketua Pegawai MARA
Washington DC.**

Appendix C

Approval Lettter From Mark T. Greenberg Ph.D

Subject: Re: Permission to use IPPA
Date: Wed, 04 Mar 1998 17:40:01 -0500
From: Mark Greenberg <mxg47@psu.edu>
To: x95mohd12@wmich.edu

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Noriah

This is the first communication I have received from you. As you see belo, I have moved to Penn State and apparently your mail has not caught up with me-my apologies. I will mail you a copy of the manual today and this email serves as formal permission to use the IPPA. Ifyou have questions, I would be glad to answer them and email is a good vehicle.

Good luck and sorry for the delay!

At 09:37 AM 3/4/98 -0500, you wrote:

>To Dr. Greenberg,

>

>I am a doctoral student at Western Michigan University. I have been
 >interested in your work with the attachment issue ever since I started
 >my doctoral program at WMU. I choose similar issue to work on my
 >dissertation - attachment to parents and peers among Asian international
 >students (and discussing the issue within the Asian cultural context as
 >well as using Bowlby's theory).

>

>I have written to you twice but have not received any response. I would
 >like to ask your permission to use the instrument, as well as to enquire
 >more about the instrument. What I have now is just a copy of the
 >instrument from the journal (Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 16(5),
 >1987).

>

>I would appreciate it if you could respon to my e-mail. Thank you

>

>Noriah Mohd. Ishak

>Department of Counselor Educator and Counseling Psychology

>Western Michigan University

>Kalamazoo, MI. 49008

>

>Tel: 616-387-7772

>e-mail: x95mohd12@wmich.edu

>

>

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Visit our website: <http://www.psu.edu/dept/HDFS>

Mark T. Greenberg Ph.D.
Bennett Chair of Prevention Research
Director, Prevention Research Center

College of Health and Human Development
PHE 814 863-0112
FAX 814 863-7963
Email: mxg47@psu.edu

Dear:

Thank you for your request for information concerning the research that we have been conducting on adolescents' perceived attachment to peers and parents. First, we have enclosed a copy of the article that you requested which appeared in the Journal of Youth and Adolescence in 1987. This article introduced the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment. We have also enclosed an information scoring manual that provides information on our factor analyses of the scales, information on reliability of the scales, and a scoring key.

More recently, we have also adapted the IPPA. In her dissertation, Gay Armsden revised the IPPA in order to separately assess perceived quality of attachment to mothers and fathers (instead of parents together). We have enclosed a copy of this measure, The IPPA (Mother, Father, Peer Version), and a page of scoring information. The measures have been used in a study of over 400 college students and Gay has found (with minor changes) that most of the same items fall on the same factors for mothers and father separately that we found in the factor analysis of parents together on the IPPA. We have included scoring for this version (both total score for Mother, Father, and Peer) as well as subscale scores.

If you have further questions, please feel free to call (814 863-0112) or Gay Armsden at (206 526-1291), or write. If you decide to use our measures in data collection, please let us know. We would also appreciate a copy of papers that utilize the measure(s).

Sincerely,

Mark T. Greenberg, Ph.D.
Professor

Gay Armsden, Ph.D.
Research Consultant

Appendix D
Participation Consent Form

Participation Consent Form

Western Michigan University
Department of Counselor Education and Counseling Psychology

Principal Investigator: John Geisler, Ph.D
Student Investigator: Noriah Mohd. Ishak

WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY
H. S. I. R. B.
Approved for use for one year from 6/17/98
JUN 17 1998
Richard A. Wright
HSIRB Chair

You have been invited to participate in a research project entitled "An analysis of parental and peer attachment and its determinant factors - A test of the attachment theory on Malaysian students studying at universities in the United States of America". This research is intended to study the quality of attachment of individuals to their parents and peer. This is a student research project submitted to Western Michigan University, in partial fulfillment of the Ph.D in Counselor Education and Supervision.

Your consent to participate in this project indicates that you will be asked to respond to a set of questionnaires concerning parental and peer attachment. Participation in this project will take approximately 30 minutes. You will be given a package which will contain the set of questionnaires and asked to return it back to the researcher within a week. You will be sent two reminders by mail, if you fail to do so,

As in all research, there may be unforeseen risks to the participant. If an accidental injury occurs, appropriate emergency measures will be taken; however, no compensation or additional treatment will be made available to the subject except as otherwise stated in this consent form. One potential risk of your participation in this project is that you may feel uncomfortable by the content of the questionnaire. If discomfort arises from responding to the questionnaire, you may contact the Counseling Center of your institution to make an appointment for counseling. You will be responsible for the cost of therapy if you choose to pursue it.

One way in which you can benefit from this activity is having the chance to reflect on the quality of your attachment to both your parents and friends. Research indicates that attachment to significant others is important in ensuring healthy psychological development and is beneficial for personal growth. Results from the study may also benefit your parents, your institution as well as institutions that sponsor your education in United States.

All information collected from you is confidential. This means that your name will not appear on any papers on which this information is recorded. The questionnaire will be coded. However, no name will be associated with the code numbers. All questionnaires will be retained for three years in a locked file in the researcher's doctoral chair office at Western Michigan University.

You may refuse to participate or quit at any time during the study without prejudice or penalty. If you have any concerns or questions about this study, you may contact Dr. John Geisler at (616) 387 5100, Noriah Mohd. Ishak at (616) 387-7772 or e-mail at x95mohd12@wmich.edu. You may also contact the Chair of the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board at (616) 387 8293 or the Vice President for Research at (616) 387 8298 with any concerns that you may have. Your signature below indicates that you understand the purpose and requirements of the study and that you have voluntarily given your consent to participate in this study.

Signature

Date

Appendix E

Cover Letter

June, 1998

Dear Mr/Ms.

I am Noriah Mohd. Ishak, a doctoral student from Department of Counselor Education and Counseling Psychology, Western Michigan University. I am inviting you to participate in my doctoral research project entitled "An analysis of parental and peer attachment and its determinant factors - A test of the attachment theory on Malaysian students studying at universities in the United States of America". This study is designed to examine the quality of parental and peer attachment of the Malaysian students while studying away from home. One way in which you can benefit from this study is having the chance to reflect on your quality of attachment to both parents in Malaysia as well as friends in United States.

My survey instrument consists of two parts. Part I requires you to answer some demographic data, and Part II consists of 53 items on a 7-point scale (from always true to never true). These items measure quality of attachment to parents and peers.

Your response will be completely anonymous. Do not put your name anywhere on the survey instrument. Each survey instrument is given a set of number for identification purposes. Once your survey instrument is returned back to me, the number will be cut off and discarded. You may also choose to not answer any question and simply leave it blank. If you choose to not participate in this survey, you may return the blank survey to me using the self-addressed envelope that I provided. Returning the survey indicates your consent to use the answers you provide.

If you have any questions regarding the study, you may contact Dr. John Geisler (principal investigator) at (616) 387-5100, or Noriah Mohd. Ishak (student investigator) at (616) 387-7772, or e-mail me at the following address: x95mohd12@wmich.edu. You can also contact the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board at (616) 387-8293, or the Vice President for Research at (616) 387-8298 for any concerns regarding the project. I would appreciate it if you could return the survey instrument to me by June 30, 1998.

Thank you for your time and effort in helping me with this study.

Sincerely,

Norah Mohd. Ishak
Department of Counselor Education and
Counseling Psychology
Western Michigan University
Kaamazoo, MI 49008

WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY
H. S. I. R. B.
Approved for use for one year from this date
JUN 10 1998
Richard A. Wright
HSIRB Chair

Appendix F
The Interview Protocol

The Interview Protocol

The following items are questions concerning parents

1. Can you tell something about your family in particular about your parents, their educational background, where they are working, the number of siblings you have and anything that you think I should know about your family?
2. What are the factors that you think make them a better/worst parents?
3. How do you describe your feelings towards your parents?
4. How do you communicate with your parents before as well as after you came to United States?
5. How do you describe your parents expectation of you academically, socially, emotionally, and physically?
6. What type of personal issues do you discuss with your parents?
7. Do you think they understand what you are going through at the moment? Why?
8. Do your parents encourage you to discuss your personal issues or ideas with them? Why?
9. Do you feel comfortable discussing the issues with them? Why?
10. How do you describe your level of trust towards your parents?
11. What do you think their level of trust towards you? Why?
12. When you were at home, do you do things together with your family especially your parents? What sort of activities do you do together?
13. When you are upset or angry, how does your parents response to those reactions?
14. What are your expectations toward your parents?

The following items are questions concerning friends

1. Can you tell something about your your close friends, in particular your friends in Kalamazoo? Who he or she is? Are both of you living in the same house or apartment, or are you in the same program with her or him? Tell me anything that I should know about your close friends.
2. What are the factors that you think make them a better/worst parents?
3. How do you describe your feelings towards your friends?
4. How do you communicate with your friends here, in USA?
5. How do you describe your friends expectation of you academically, socially, emotionally, and physically?
6. What type of personal issues do you discuss with your friends?
7. Do you think they understand what you are going through at the moment? Why?
8. Do your friends encourage you to discuss your personal issues or ideas with them? Why?
9. Do you feel comfortable discussing the issues with them? Why?
10. How do you describe your level of trust towards your friends?
11. What do you think their level of trust towards you? Why?
12. When you are here in USA, do you do things together with your friends? What sort of activities do you do together?
13. When you are upset or angry, how does your friends response to those reactions?
14. What are your expectations toward your friends?
15. Do you feel that you relate to your parents better than your friends or vice versa or the last few months?

Appendix G

Means of Parental Attachment Among Students With Different Age and Genders

Table 17

**Means of Parental Attachment Between Younger
and Older Malaysian Students**

	Frequency	Mean	SD
Younger Students	92	92.97	10.88
Older Students	110	97.45	14.63

Table 18

**Means of Parental Attachment Between Male
and Female Malaysian Students**

	Frequency	Mean	SD
Male	106	91.30	13.71
Female	96	99.95	11.06

Appendix H

Two-Way and One-Way ANOVAs Between Two Age Groups and Across Different Length of Stay on Parental Attachment

Table 19

A Two-way ANOVA Between Two Age Groups and Across
Length of Stay on Parent Attachment

Source	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Main Effects					
Age	1046.25	1	1046.25	6.19	.01*
Length of Stay	277.62	2	138.80	.82	.44
2-way Interactions	847.05	2	423.53	2.51	.08
Total	35122.90	201	174.74		

* Significant at alpha .05 level.

Table 20

A One-way ANOVA Between Length of Stay
and Parental Attachment

Source	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Between Groups	5.97	2	2.99	0.02	0.98
Within Groups	35116.90	199	176.47		
Total	35122.90	201			

* Significant at alpha .05 level.

Appendix I

Two-Way ANOVA Between Genders and Across Different Length of Stay on Parental Attachment, and Means of Peer Attachment Between Students With Different Age Groups

Table 21

A Two-way ANOVA Between Gender on Parent
Attachment and Across Length of Stay

Source	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Main Effects					
Gender	3607.22	1	3607.22	22.70	.00
Length of Stay	25.58	2	12.79	.08	.92
2-way Interactions	187.62	2	93.81	.59	.55
Total	35122.90	201	174.74		

* Significant at alpha .05 level.

Table 22

Means of Peer Attachment Between Younger
and Older Malaysian Students

	Frequency	Mean	SD
Younger Students	92	87.04	14.96
Older Students	110	84.78	13.89

Appendix J

Means of Peer Attachment Between Genders and Two-Way ANOVA Between Two Age Groups and Across Different Length of Stay on Parental Attachment

Table 23

**Means of Peer Attachment Between Male
and Female Malaysian Students**

	Frequency	Mean	SD
Male	106	91.90	14.69
Female	96	79.08	10.63

Table 24

**A Two-way ANOVA Between Two Age Groups and Across
Length of Stay on Parent Attachment**

Source	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Main Effects					
Age	146.15	1	146.15	.69	.40
Length of Stay	207.14	2	103.57	.49	.61
2-way Interactions	67.54	2	33.77	.16	.85
Total	48011.10	201	238.86		

* Significant at alpha .05 level.

Appendix K

One-Way ANOVAs Between Age and Length of Stay and Peer Attachment

Table 25

A One-way ANOVA Between Length of Stay
and Peer Attachment

Source	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Between Groups	306.38	2	153.19	.74	0.48
Within Groups	41366.50	199	207.87		
Total	41672.90	201			

* Significant at alpha .05 level.

Table 26

A One-way ANOVA Between Age
and Peer Attachment

Source	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Between Groups	256.26	1	256.26	1.24	0.27
Within Groups	41416.60	200	207.08		
Total	41672.90	201			

* Significant at alpha .05 level.

Appendix L

Two-Way ANOVA Between Genders and Across Different Length of Stay on Peer Attachment

Table 27

A Two-way ANOVA Between Male and Female and Across
Length of Stay on Peer Attachment

Source	<u>SS</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>p</u>
Main Effects					
Gender	7280.50	1	7280.50	43.34	.00*
Length of Stay	322.96	2	161.48	.96	.38
2-way Interactions	145.11	2	72.56	.43	.65
Total	45172.90	201	207.33		

* Significant at alpha .05 level.

Appendix M

Figure 1: Tree Diagram of Parental and Peer Attachment

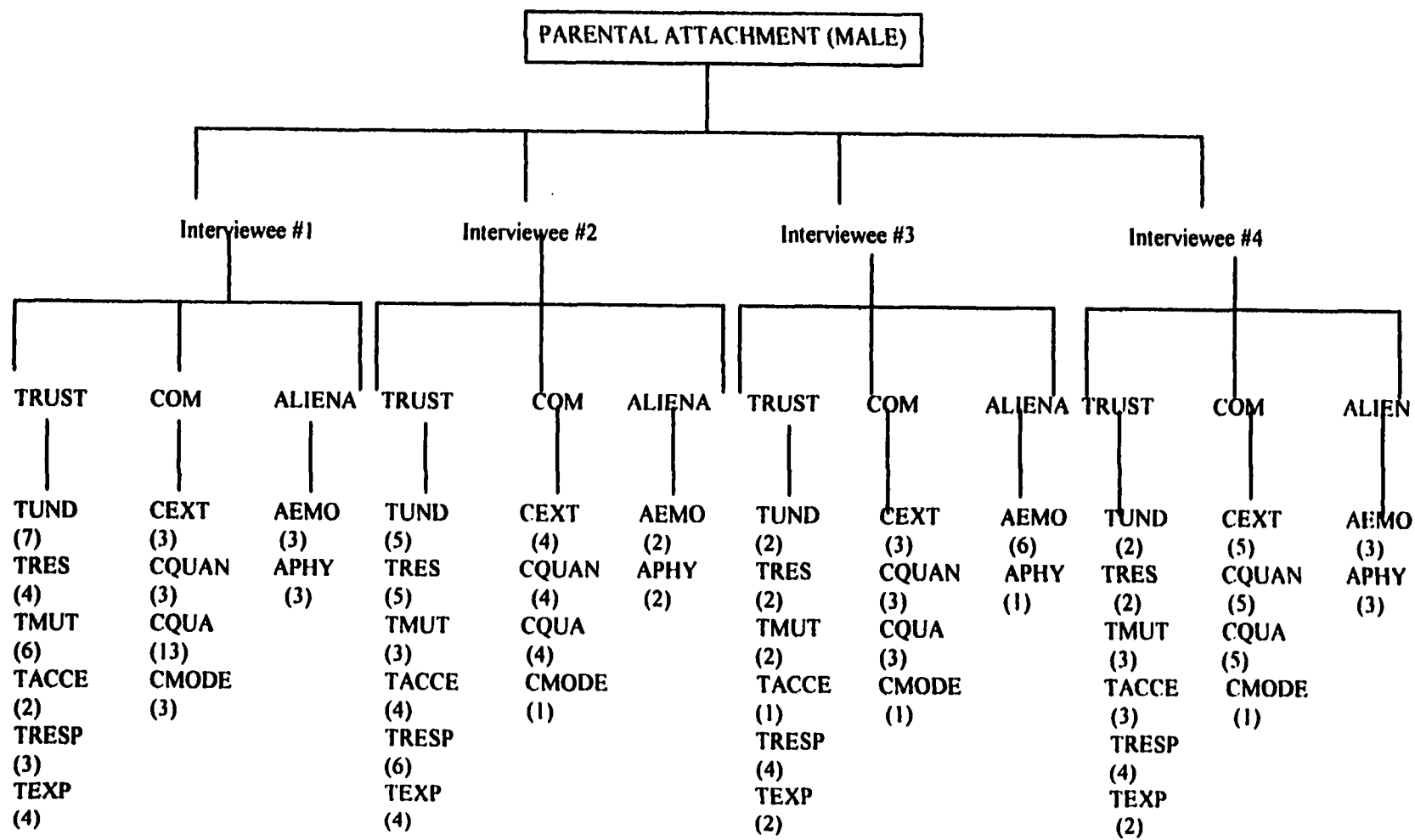
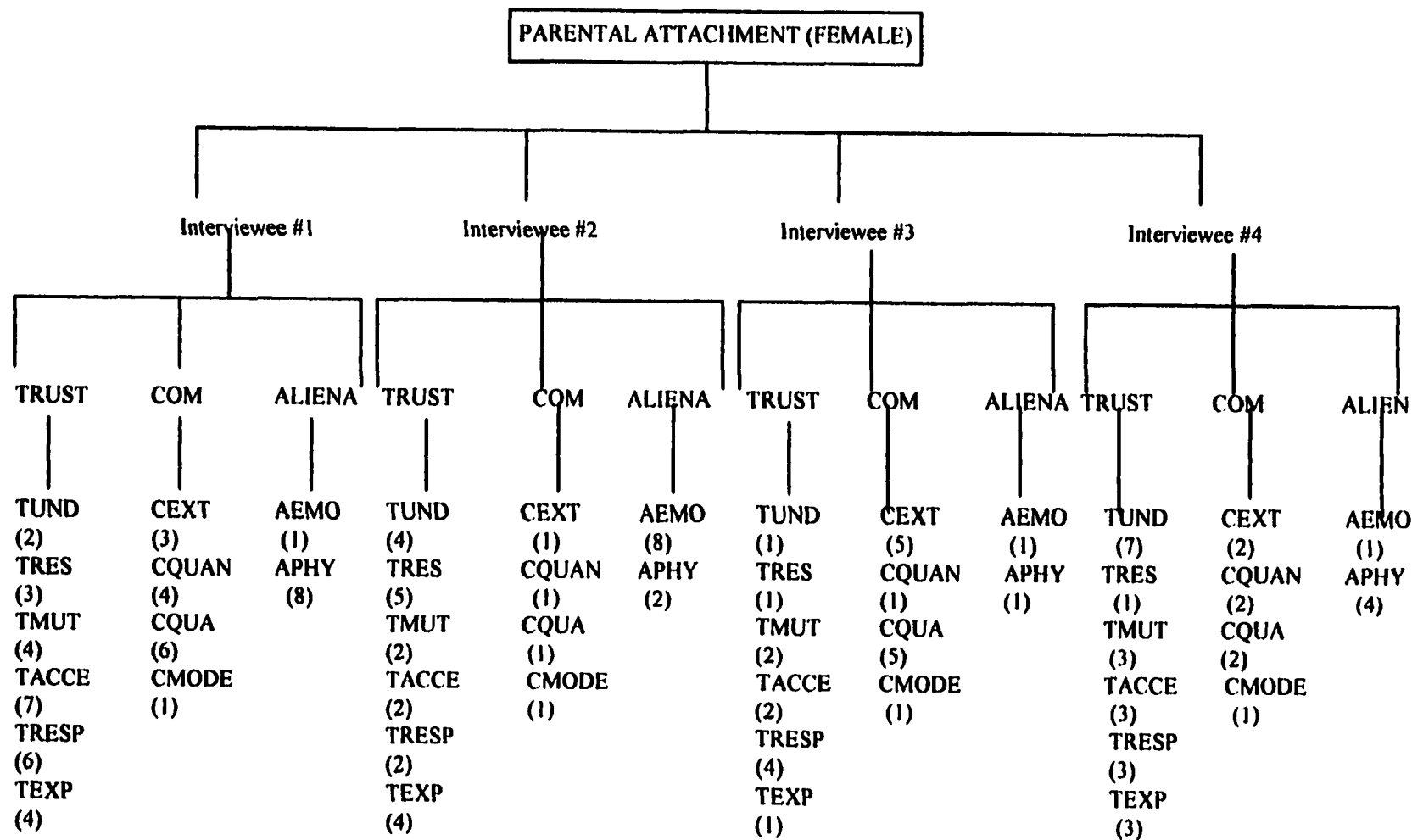


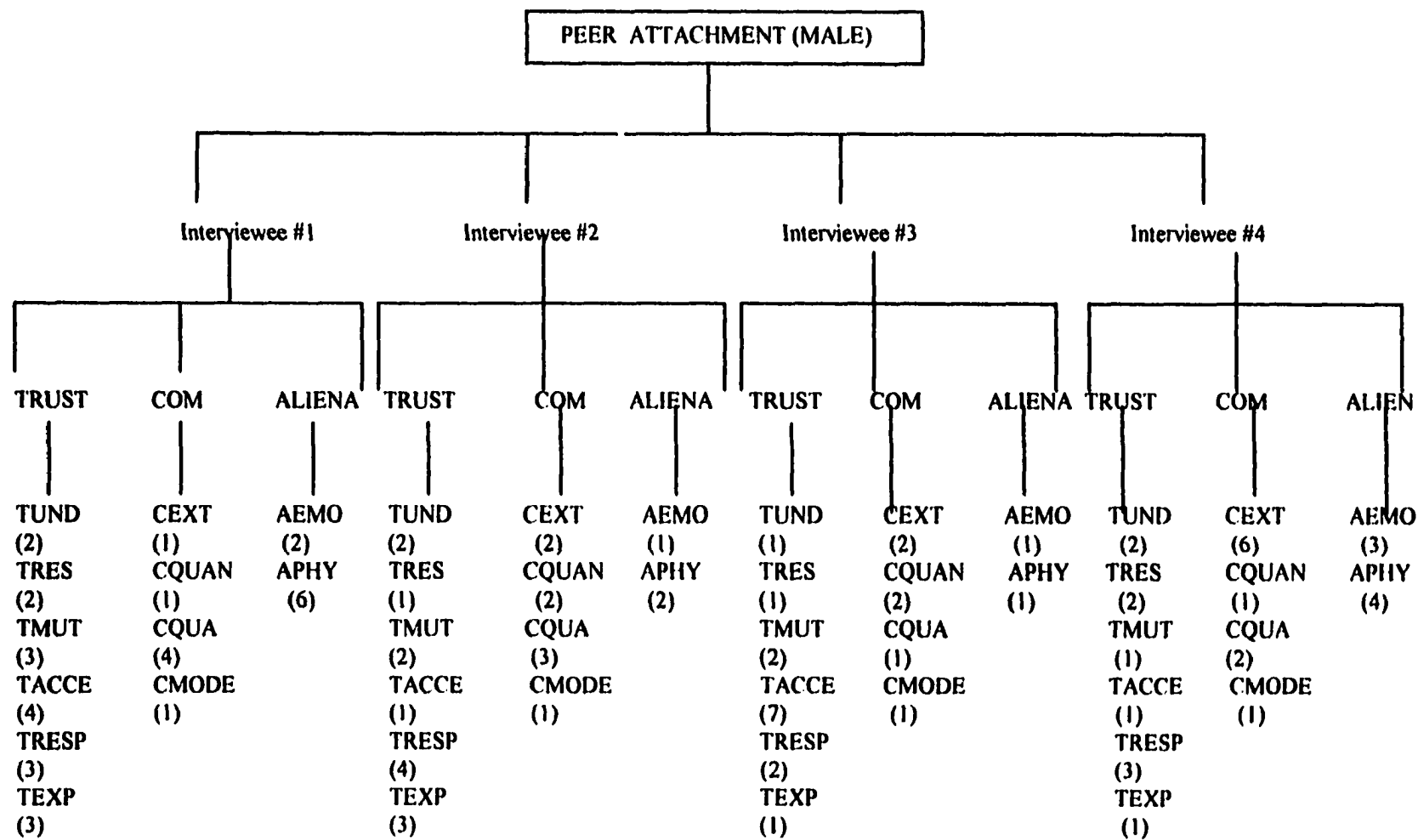
Figure 1: Tree Diagram of Parental and Peer Attachment

Key: (*) indicates the number of times the themes were being mentioned during interviews

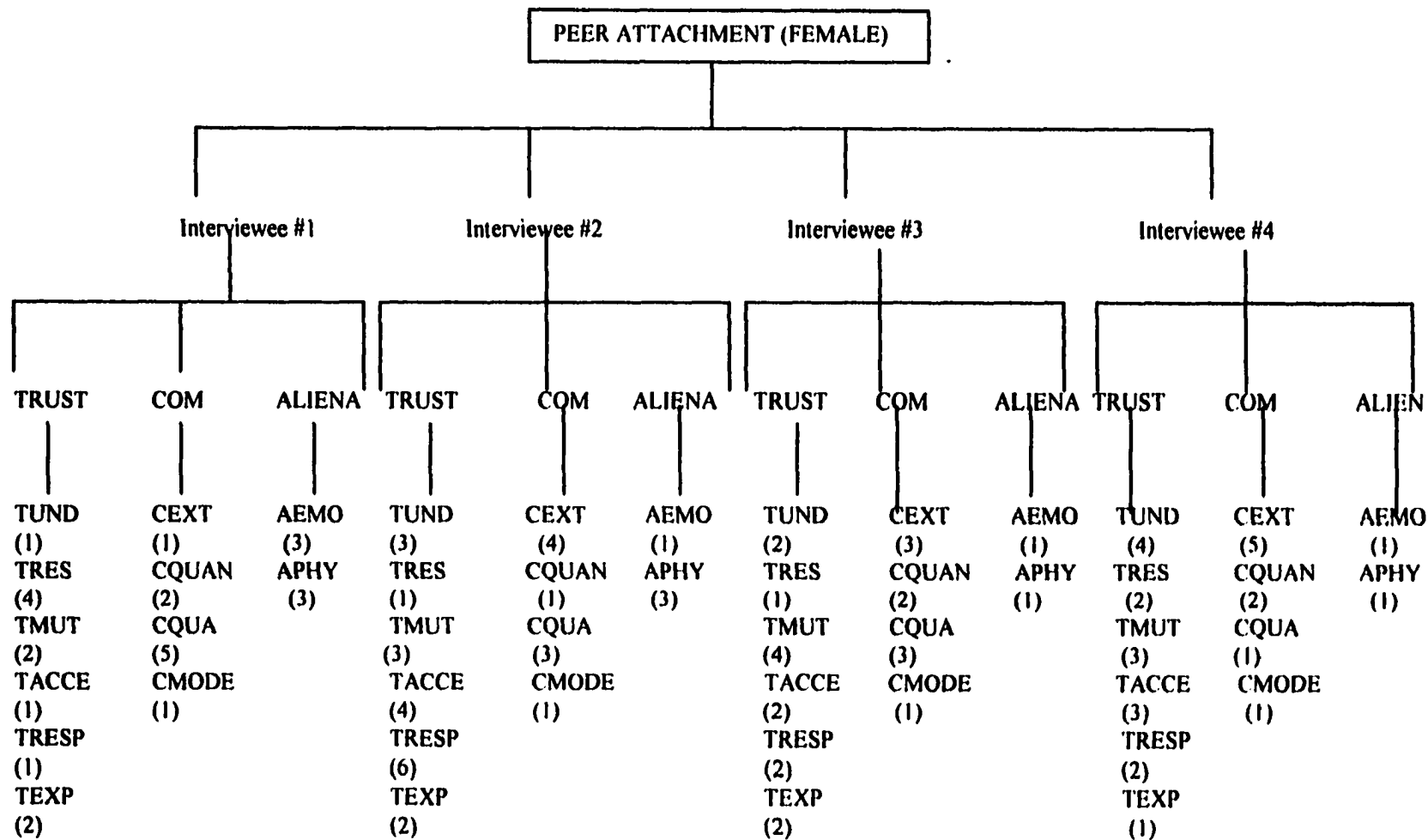
* Numeric numbers



Key: (*) indicates the number of times the themes were being mentioned during interviews
 * Numeric numbers



Key: (*) indicates the number of times the themes were being mentioned during interviews
 * Numeric numbers



Key: (*) indicates the number of times the themes were being mentioned during interviews
 * Numeric numbers

Appendix N

**Figure 2: Number of Contacts Made With Parents and
Peers, and Family Memorabilia**

Interviewee	Month	Telephone	E-Mail	Letter	Family Memorabilia	Peer Interaction
#1 (Male)	April	1		1	No display of family photo	Yes
	May					
	June			1		
#2 (Male)	April	1	1	1	Family pictures in small album	Yes
	May		1	1		
	June	1				
#3 (Male)	April	2	3		No display of family pictures	Yes
	May	1	4			
	June	2	4			
#4 (Male)	April	2		1	Family photos in small album and in wallet	Yes
	May	3		1		
	June	2		1		
#1 (Female)	April	2	4		Display of family photos photo album, photo frames	No, live alone
	May	3	3			
	June	2	4			
#2 (Female)	April		1		Family photos in small album	Yes
	May	1	2	1		
	June	1				
#3 (Female)	April	2		4	Family picture on the wall and in a big album	Yes
	May	1		2		
	June	2		2		
#4 (Female)	April	2			Family pictures in small album	Yes
	May	1	3			
	June	1	2			

Figure 2: Number of Contacts Made With Parents and Peers, and Family Memorabilia

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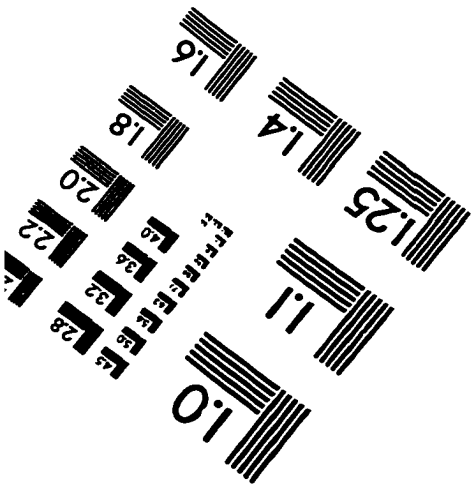
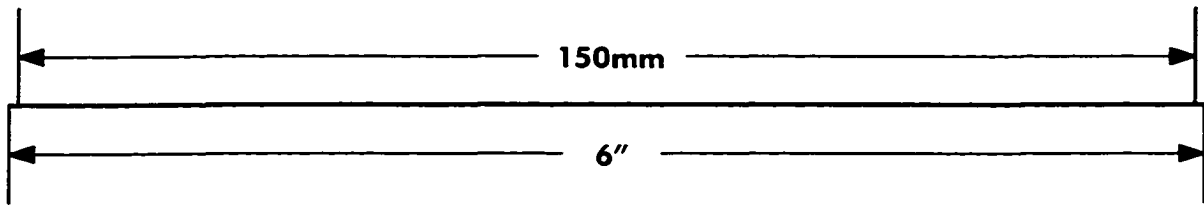
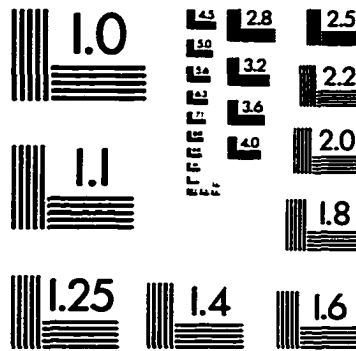
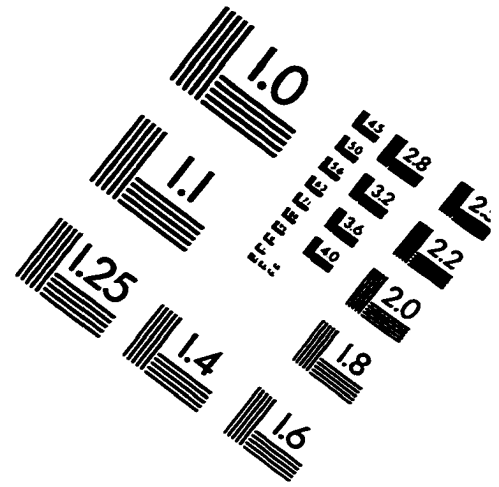
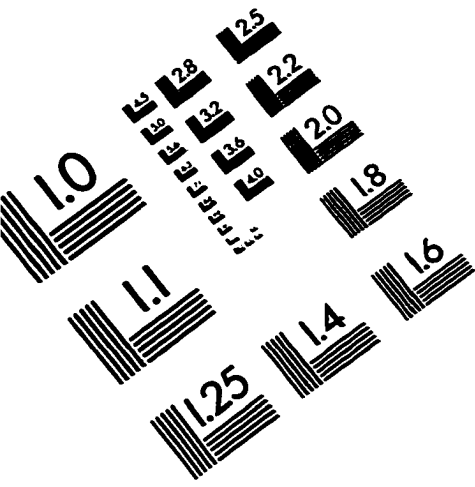
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IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)



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