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Title:
Analysis of Self-Behavior And Juvenile Delinquency

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CERTIFICATE

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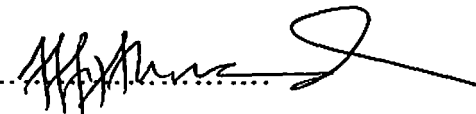
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ABSTRACT

In this present research, the relationship between self-behavior and delinquency was investigated. The research was conducted by using 3 parts of questionnaire as the instrument of measurement. Part B of the questionnaire was taken from the Jesness Behavioral Checklist (JBC) which is designed to provide a systematic way of recording data about social behavior. The JBC are comprise of 80 items or subscales which measure 14 bipolar behavioral factors. The 14 subscales of self-behavior that were being measured included: Unobtrusiveness, Friendliness, Responsibility, Considerateness, Independence, Rapport, Enthusiasm, Sociability, Conformity, Calmness, Communication, Insight, Social Control, and Anger Control. Participants were 230 delinquent juveniles from Henry Gurney School, located in Telok Mas, Melaka, and 190 juveniles from nondelinquent institutions as a control sample. Participants for the control sample were randomly selected at the area around Kota Bharu, Kelantan. Spearman Rho Correlation Test and Mann-Whitney Test were used to analyze the data. Results indicated that: (1) there is a significant correlation between subscale of unobtrusiveness, friendliness, conformity and social control toward self-reported delinquency for both delinquent and nondelinquent institution groups. Significant correlation between subscale of rapport, responsibility and calmness toward delinquency were present only among the nondelinquent institution group. Other subscales of self-behavior showed no correlation with delinquency for both delinquent and nondelinquent institution groups; (2) there is no significant difference in the mean score between delinquent and nondelinquent institution groups with regard to each subscale of self-behavior; and (3) no

significant difference in the mean score between delinquent and nondelinquent institution groups with regard to delinquent activities.

INTRODUCTION

Delinquent behavior has been the subject of considerable research since the last 50 years (Thornberry, Huizingh, & Loeber, 2004). According to O' Brien (2000), understanding the nature of delinquent behavior, or violent behavior, requires the look and insight beyond the child. It demands an examination of individual factors such as temperament (Caspi, 1995), development and personality variables (Patterson, 1992), situational factors such as socio-economic status, specific life events (Biglan, 1990), and external factors such as family, neighborhood, and sociocultural variables (Geismar & Wood, 1986). All of these domains contribute to how a young person responds to life events, including trauma, and chooses a delinquent or non-delinquent path.

Different approaches are used in scientific and practical literature on juvenile crime and violence to define and explain delinquent behaviour by young people. To criminologists, juvenile delinquency encompasses all public wrongs committed by young people between the ages of 12 and 20 (Fall, 1996). Sociologists view the concept more broadly, believing that it covers a multitude of different violations of legal and social norms, from minor offences to serious crimes, committed by juveniles (Wickliffe, 2000). Included under the umbrella of juvenile delinquency are status offences, so called because they are closely connected with the age status of an offender. Status offenders are particular actions or behaviours considered as a violation of the law only if it is committed by a juvenile (examples include truancy, vandalism and running away) (Wickliffe, 2000). In an attempt to explain the theoretical underpinnings of delinquency, sociologists associate the specifics of youth behaviour with the home, family,

neighbourhood, peers and many other variables that together or separately influence the formation of young people's social environment (World Youth Report, 2003).

According to American Psychological Association (1996), violence is a learned behavior, and it is learned in interaction with other persons in a process of communication (Sutherland and Cressey, 1943). Violence is often learned in the home from parents and family members or the community, friends, peers, or neighbours (Taroza, 1998). According to Taroza, the level of exposure to violence in the home and community also plays a part in persons who engage in violent acts. Children in these situations are more aggressive and grow up more likely to become involved in violence either as a victimizer or as a victim, especially if they witness violent acts. West and Farrington (1977) in their study found that, home is the most fertile breeding ground for violent behavior. Children, who witnessed a parent or other family members being abused, or abusing another, are more likely to view violence as a way to solve problems. Children who are exposed to domestic violence are more likely to abuse others, as they grow older (Farrington, 1977).

Referring to the Malaysian legal point of view there are various definitions of juveniles, depending on the group and age of the offender. According to the Prison Act 1995, a juvenile or a young offender is defined as "a prisoner who is under the age of 21 years". The Prison Department of Malaysia detains juveniles aged between 14 and 21 years in prison as young prisoners or in Henry Gurney School (approved school) as students. On the other hand, the Child Act 2001 defines a child as "a person under the age of 18 years and below" and the age of criminal responsibility at the age of ten. Meanwhile, the Child Protection Act 1991 defines a child as "a person under the age of

18 years and below". The Children and Young Persons Employment Act 1996 defines a child as a person aged between 10 and 14 years, and a young person as a person aged between 14 and 16 years (Abdul Wahab, 2004).

According to Abdul Wahab (2004), the nation has long been plagued by juvenile delinquency. Although much has been said and debated, the issue has not received its due attention. The problem of delinquency among juveniles is reported to be on the rise from time to time. The actual number of cases is estimated to be much higher than that reported.

Initial stage delinquency is in the form of abuse of school rules such as truancy, smoking and vandalism. The absence of effective measures to curb and overcome this problem is a catalyst to more serious criminal misconduct such as bullying, injury to others, rape, theft and murder.

There is an increase in the number of juveniles in prison. As illustrated in the Table 1 below, considerable increase in number of juveniles have been recorded throughout 2000 to 2003. Statistics for the year 2004 have recorded a slight decrease in the number of juveniles in prison to 2964 from 3177 in the year 2003.

Table 1: Statistics of Juveniles at the Prison Department of Malaysia

Year	Young Prisoners	Juvenile Detainees	Juveniles	Total
2000	1651	121	536	2308
2001	1565	119	533	2217
2002	2020	128	527	2675
2003	2517	125	535	3177
2004	2314	118	532	2964

Source: Prison Department of Malaysia, 2004

The increase in criminal misconduct among adolescents is influenced by several factors particularly involving those directly involved with adolescent development such as parents, the school, the family, social institutions, and the community (Derzon and Lipskey, 2000). Furthermore, according to Abdul Wahab (2004), the trend in juvenile misconduct under detention may be linked to socio-economic and legal aspects. The socio-economic trend is in turn influenced by the family background, citizenship, place of residence, level of education, household income, age, ethnic group and religion. The legal aspect can be viewed from the aspect of the type of crime committed and the length of sentence they serve.

Based on the statistics issued from the Prison Department of Malaysia, juveniles who are serving prison sentences was 1231 for Malays, 110 for Chinese, and 314 for Indians in year 2004. Other race including Bumiputera in Sabah and Sarawak and foreign juveniles was 197 and 1112. The distribution in juvenile delinquency according to race can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2: Juveniles Statistics according to Ethnic Group

Race	Young Prisoners	Young Detainees	Juveniles	Total
Malay	833	24	374	1231
Chinese	64	14	32	110
Indian	198	76	40	314
Others	113	2	82	197
Foreigners	1106	2	4	1112
Total	2314	118	532	2964

Source: Prison Department of Malaysia, 15 November 2004.

Table 3 shows a juvenile statistics according to offences.

Table 3: Juvenile Statistics according to Offences

Juvenile Category \ Act	Penal Code	Dangerous Drug Act	Firearms Act	National Registration Act	Road Transport Act	Immigration Act	Dangerous Drug Act,,	Special Preventive Measures	Restricted Residence Act	Child Act	Others	Total
Young prisoners	921	360	2	23	11	931	0	0	0	0	66	2314
Detainees	0	0	0	0	0	0	28	90	0	0	0	118
Juveniles	325	71	4	33	16	23	0	0	32	28	28	532
Total	1246	431	6	56	27	954	28	90	32	94	2964	
	42.1%	14.6%	0.2%	1.9%	0.9%	32.2%	0.9%	3%	1.1%	3.1%		

Source: Prison Department of Malaysia, 15 November 2004.

From the legal aspect, criminal misconduct among adolescents clearly shows that most of the crimes committed by the juveniles come under the Penal Code, particularly theft. The following statistics show that 1,246 juveniles are involved in crimes under the Penal Code and 431 under the Dangerous Drugs Act particularly possession and abuse of drugs. The percentage of foreign juveniles who are involved in crimes under the Immigration Act is 954. On the whole, 1,112 juveniles detained in prisons are foreign citizens. Apart from that, there are also crimes under other Acts, 56 come under the Registration Act (foreigner used forged identification card), 6 under the Firearms Act, 32 under the Child Act, 28 under the Dangerous Drugs Special Preventive Measures, 90

under the Restricted Residence Act, 22 under the Road Transport Act and the remaining 94 under other acts.

Referring to the Journal of Royal Malaysian Police College (2004), one of the areas which has long term implications on policing, is the challenge posed by social change. Among the most perceptible indicators of change and social transformation is urbanization. This matter was supported by the Social Strategic Foundation (2001) which the effects are plain for all to see, such as social ills, broken families, drugs and crime, juvenile delinquency and a sense of despair.

In the nations rush to embrace modernization and industrialization, families and whole communities are sometimes displaced or uprooted, as individuals leave the comfort of their homes and community in search of better employment opportunities in the cities. However the reality and aggressive tempo of urban life is bound to cause a dislocation of expectations. Costly housing, traffic congestion, bureaucracy, the lack of jobs, higher incidence of crime and drug abuse tends to leave a deep sense of dissatisfaction and frustration for the majority of city dwellers (Royal Malaysian Police College, 2004).

Urbanization has also been blamed for the decline in family, moral and human values which are regarded as bulwarks against the intrusion of social violence and deviant behaviour (Royal Malaysian Police College, 2004). The erosion of such values is often reflected in the higher incidence of juvenile delinquency, and other forms of deviant behaviour (Royal Malaysian Police College, 2004). According to Ku, Yong, and Goh (1995), urbanization will have to come to terms with the new socio-cultural terrain and dealing with the plethora of social ills and crime churned up by juvenile delinquents,

drug-dependants, and various other forms of anti-social behavior. A similar study conducted by O'Neil, (1995) claimed that, youth alienation in the urban environment has resulted in juvenile delinquency, criminal activities and gangs. These social ills are largely due to a sense of hopelessness, low self-esteem, and lack of educational or employment opportunities. In addition, the adolescents tend to drop out of school and there is a corresponding rise in juvenile delinquency cases, criminal activities and gangs.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Self-behavior

Self is broadly defined as the essential qualities that make a person distinct from all others. In philosophy, self is the idea of a unified being which is the source of an idiosyncratic consciousness. Moreover, this self is the agent responsible for the thoughts and actions of an individual to which they are ascribed. It is a substance, which therefore endures through time; thus, the thoughts and actions at different moments of time may pertain to the same self.

Philosophist William James stated that the self of one individual is exhibited in the conduct and discourse of that individual. In general the self refers to the conscious reflective personality of a person. Essentially described by Mead (1947) as the ability to take on oneself as an object. In sociology, the self refers to an individual person from the perspective of that person. It is the individual's conception of himself or herself, and the underlying capacity of the person's mind or intellect which formed that conception (one's "true self").

Behavior is defined as a manner of acting or controlling ourselves. In behavioral attributes, it is the way a person behaves toward other people. In psychology, behavior is defined as the aggregate of the responses or reactions or movements made by an organism in any situation. It refers to any action or reaction that can be measured or observed, such as the blink of an eye, an increase in heart rate etc. In social psychology, behavior can be viewed as a function of the person and the environment. In sociological

perspective, individual behavior and individual attitudes are profoundly influenced and shaped by the social environments or backgrounds or locations that surround them (Barkan, 2006). In the study of criminology, behavior is related to crime that violates the basic values and beliefs of society.

Juvenile Delinquency

Juvenile delinquency involves some form of “offending” by youth in a certain stage of age (Hussin, 2005). According to Baginda (1984), delinquency in Malaysia is largely an urban phenomenon brought about mainly by the process of national development and, more specifically, by the increasing pace of industrialization and urbanization. Poverty, in itself, is not a cause, but combined with other circumstances may induce delinquency. Other possible causes of delinquency are suggested by cultural-transmission theory, psycho-biological perspectives, and family and community factors. There is a considerable body of research that has been explored to study the risk factors of juvenile delinquency. It includes the role of the school, family and peer variables on delinquency.

Study conducted by Abdul Hamid (1998) showed that lack of positive contribution from the juvenile’s personal life, surroundings, environment, religious and academic education are the factors that restate them in the juvenile delinquency cases. The researcher stated that, various ways and method have been utilized to prevent as well as minimized the juvenile delinquency problems including punishment to both

delinquents and parents but the implementation does not prevail. In addition, the researcher believes that the only right way to solve this problem is that the total implementation and enforcement of the Islamic Syariah Law (Hudud) in Malaysia should be done without any doubts.

Another study by investigated among Indian population in Malaysia, one consequence of mass displacements to an urban environment is youth alienation. The parents are also spending less time at home to supervise their children as they work longer hours to meet the high costs of living in urban areas. Many of the young have difficulty coping with the sudden forced change from a closeknit community to a competitive and impersonal urban environment. As they lose the fields and open spaces for sociocultural and sports activities, they tend to look for other outlets. The adolescents tend to drop out of school and there is a corresponding rise in juvenile delinquency cases, criminal activities and gangs. These gangs thrive in an environment of hopelessness, lows elfesteem and lack of opportunities to pursue education and employment (Centre for Public policy Studies).

Stockdale have been conducted a juvenile delinquency on Asian youth. Stockdale revealed that peer delinquency was the strongest predictor of self-reported delinquency. From Stockdale study, the predictive power for the Chinese group is about one half that of the other groups. However, school attachment negatively predicted delinquency for Chinese and Vietnamese, and for males and females, but not for Cambodian and Lao/Mien. Stockdale also found that, parent attachment and parent discipline were found to be nonsignificant predictors.

In addition to the fact that spending time with parents reduce opportunities for delinquency, Asian youth may refrain from engaging in delinquent activities or hanging out with delinquent peers because they want to avoid parental disapproval and shaming (Warr, 1993). This may be particularly relevant for Asian youth in the context of collectivistic culture like Asia in which following group norms, obeying authority figures like parents, and maintaining group honor and harmony take precedence over individual autonomy and expression. Similarly, Bankston and Caldas (1996) suggested that families, particularly Vietnamese American, play an important role in delinquency because they facilitate youth integration into the social structures of their ethnic community as well as the larger mainstream society. Vietnamese youth who were closely connected with their ethnic community through their parents are less likely to engage in delinquent activities. Finally, to the extent that the processes of migration result in disrupting family functioning, family cohesion, and intergenerational conflict, the nature and degree of parent relationships is an important consideration in Asian youth delinquency.

Studies showed that, there is a direct and positive relationship between delinquent peer association and delinquent behavior among Chinese, Korean, and Japanese American youth, (Kim & Goto, 2000). Thai (2003) also found that Vietnamese adolescents who associate with delinquent peers and have problems in the home, school, or neighborhood are apt to become delinquents or join gangs. In contrast, Vietnamese youth who do not associate with delinquent peers but have the same problems are less likely to exhibit delinquent behavior or become gang members (Thai, 2003).

Jang (2002) recently compared Asian vs non-Asian adolescents in self-reported arrest, evaluating the relative predictive value of family vs. school factors, and found that the difference between Asian vs. non-Asian on general forms of delinquency was attributed to differences in family backgrounds and school attachment. More specifically, Asian youth tend to have a more intact family structure and to be more attached to school. Interestingly, family bonding variables (closeness, engagement, monitoring) was nonsignificant. Jang (2002) also conducted comparisons across four regional groups (Far East, East, Southeast, and South Asian) and found more within-group homogeneity than heterogeneity, with differences among these groups attributed to family background and school bonding, similar to the racial group comparisons.

In addition to adolescent peer and parent issues, what distinguishes the Asian adolescent from majority groups like Western youth is the ethnic identity formation. For many ethnic minorities, the task of identity formation is compounded by multiple social expectations (Phinney, 1990). In the United States for example, the presence of a dominant culture that places an emphasis on individuality socializes adolescents to develop a sense of self that is separate from others (Phinney, 1990). In contrast, most Asian cultures emphasize the development of a self that is interlaced with others (Lebra, 1992). Thus, in establishing a personal identity, many Southeast Asian minority adolescents are faced with the additional task of grappling with differences in values, expectations, cultural orientation, and acculturation.

Drawing on research that links minority youth acculturation and delinquency, Hill et. al., (1994) reported that Latino youth in United States gangs who were more acculturated were more likely to engage in violence than those less acculturated. Wong (1997) found a similar pattern in a comparative study of Chinese and Canadian youth. Specifically, Chinese youth who were more acculturated to Canadian society were more likely to be involved in delinquency than those who were less acculturated.

Another study by Go (1999), there are also potential gender differences in the relative predictors of delinquency for Cambodian and Southeast Asian adolescents. In his Southeast Asian sample, Go (1999) found that in response to family conflict, males tended to externalize and to engage in delinquent behaviors with their peers whereas females reacted to family conflict by internalizing such that depressive symptoms were present regardless of family conflict. Although Go's study measured family conflict, it may also be that parenting disciplinary style may differentially influence male and female delinquent behavior. Given a harsh parenting disciplinary style, female may respond by internalizing and males may react by engaging in delinquent behaviors.

In summary, previous studies have documented linkages between parent and peer factors with adolescent delinquency. Several other studies also have focused on minority populations and the relationship between parent and family relations, peer relations, and adolescent delinquency. However, in this current research, the researcher would like to study self behavior of the juvenile, and its relationship with delinquency.

Self-behavior and Delinquency

To study delinquent behaviors, several factors of self-behavior can be measured. Several variables have been produced by Jesness (1970) in Jesness Behavioral Checklist which describes behaviors of delinquents in institutions. The variables are unobtrusiveness, friendliness, responsibility, considerateness, independence, rapport, enthusiasm, sociability, conformity, calmness, communication, insight, social control, and anger control.

Unobtrusiveness. More obtrusive behaviors are related to low anger control (Poulin, Harris & Jones, 2000). Obtrusive behaviors are characterized as, aggression against people (e.g. bullying, fighting, mugging, rape), destruction of property (e.g., vandalism), deceitfulness or theft (e.g., lying, shoplifting, breaking and entering), and other serious violations of rules (e.g., running away from school, absence from school) (Alloy, Acocella, & Bootzin, 1996).

A study done by Sukhpolsky and Ruchkin (2004) showed that physical aggression, after controlling for antisocial behavior, was positively associated with higher levels of anger experience and stronger approval of fighting as a legitimate response to provocation. The result of the study confirmed the findings of the association between anger experience and generalized aggression (Cornell, Peterson, & Richard, 1999; Granic & Butler, 1998). Regression analyses conducted by Cornell and colleagues (1998) indicated that both anger experience and beliefs legitimizing aggression had significant unique contributions to the frequency of aggressive acts. Referring to Sukhpolsky and Ruchkin (2004) showed that, higher frequency of aggressive acts was significantly

associated with higher levels of anger and stronger beliefs that physical aggression is an appropriate course of action in conflicts. After statistically controlling for nonaggressive antisocial behavior, the relationship between physical aggression and antisocial beliefs was not significant. Similarly, with physical aggression controlled, nonaggressive antisocial behavior was uniquely associated with approval of deviancy, but not with anger or beliefs legitimizing aggression. The researchers add, juvenile offenders reported higher levels of anger experience and higher frequency of aggression and antisocial behavior compared to non-offenders. There were no differences in normative beliefs between these two groups. This specificity of association of social-cognitive and emotion-regulation processes to aggressive and nonaggressive forms of antisocial behavior may be relevant to understanding the mechanisms of cognitive-behavioral therapy for conduct disorder and antisocial behavior.

Friendliness. Hostile behavior has been linked to delinquency. Study by Arbutnot, Gordon, and Jurkoviv (1987) revealed that an individual with hostility cannot develop conventional moral reasoning with roots in acceptance of mutual expectations, positive social intentions, belief in and maintenance of the social system, and acceptance of motives that include duties and respect. Delinquency can be anticipated when adolescents cannot see other people's perspective and lack empathy for other people's circumstances (Arbutnot et. al., 1987)

Responsibility. Curry and Spergel, (1992) and Schwartz (1989) suggested that, poor academic performance at school may lead to low self-esteem. This, in turn, may

lead to truancy and dropping out. Bowker and Klein (1983) have reported that students who have low educational expectations are at increased risk for gang membership. Bowker and Klein (1983) also notes that "Gang membership is also more likely among adolescents whose parents have low educational expectations for them (Schwartz, 1989). Poor school performance and low commitment and involvement are also correlated with gang membership. Poor school performance is known to be a strong predictor of involvement in crime. Children with lower academic performance are more likely to offend, more likely to offend frequently, more likely to commit more serious offences and more likely to persist in crime. (Maguin and Loeber, 1996).

Considerateness. Social competence plays an integral part in how well a young person transitions into adulthood. Without adequate social skills a person may experience trouble in the areas of employment, daily living skills, independent living and participating in the community. Being able to organize thoughts and questions, having a sense of humor, dealing with money and successfully communicating with co-workers have been stated by employers to be critical attributes for doing well on the job (Doren, et al., 1996; Mellard & Hazel, 1992). Also, poor peer relationships and low social skills have been linked to drop outs, juvenile delinquency, job termination, suicide, police contacts and dishonorable discharges from the military (Bryan, 1997). Adolescents must display appropriate social skills within the rules of their culture to maintain relationships that will help them to be independent and successful. Those who display inappropriate social behaviors are less appealing to their peers and have been found to have continual problems in life (Pavri & Luftig 2000).

According to Pavri (2001), adolescents who are labeled learning disabled are more likely to have emotional problems, low self-esteem, and conduct deficiencies. Students with learning disabilities often exhibit social misbehaviors in the classroom. Teachers comment that these students are off-task and engage in more negative peer interactions (LaGreca & Stone, 1990; Sitlington, 1996). Other problems include not being able to comply with the rules of the classroom, being unable to communicate effectively and difficulties with independence (Pavri & Luftig, 2000). Also, children with learning disabilities frequently have trouble making themselves understood. Being unable to ask clarifying questions or express their needs creates barriers, which may lead to interpersonal problems such as making friends, working in groups and self-control (Bender & Wall, 1994; Mellard & Hazel, 1992).

Independence. Taris and Bok (1997) suggested that the encouragement of independent behavior was interpreted to be a contributing factor in the development of an internal locus of control. The independent behavior maybe conforming where the person tends to follow others, including criminals. This type is less clearly defined among adults than among juveniles.

When criminal behavior does occur, it may be the result of the influence of others and their limited cognitive functioning. Locus of control identifies the extent to which persons perceive that events in their lives are contingent upon their own behavior or own characteristics (Rotter, 1966). Persons with internal locus of control believe they have control over reinforcing events in their lives (Stone & Jackson, 1975). Individuals with

internal locus of control attribute change to their actions. They believe and act as though they control their own futures and see themselves as effective in determining the occurrence of reinforcing events (Stone & Jackson, 1975).

People with external locus of control attribute change to external sources. They believe, report, or act as though forces beyond their control (such as fate, chance, powerful others, social constraints, or instructions) are important factors in determining the occurrence of reinforcing events (Stone & Jackson, 1975). Persons with external locus of control perceive that reinforcement follows some action of their own but is not entirely contingent upon their action. Rotter (1966) has contended that those with external locus of control believe that reinforcement is "the result of luck, chance, fate, as under the control of powerful others, or is unpredictable because of the great complexity of the forces"

Rotter (1966) also asserted that persons with internal locus of control show more overt striving, than do persons with external locus of control, who seem to feel that they have little control over their rewards and punishments. Erlund (1984), Deci (1975), Weiner (1972), and Parsons (1983) have seen internal locus of control as a facilitator of achievement. In fact students who believed that they could influence the outcome of their work are more likely to be motivated in academic studies (Lefcourt, 1981; Strain, 1993).

An extensive body of literature supports the premise that persons with internal locus of control show higher motivation than students with external locus of control

(Coleman, 1966; Weiner, 1978; Parsons, 1983). Research studies have supported the idea that individuals who score high on achievement motivation assume personal responsibility and attribute success to something they personally do, rather than to luck or ease of task (Crandall, Katkovsky, & Preston, 1962; Crandall, Katkovsky, & Crandall, 1965; Weiner, 1978; Parsons, 1983; Strain, 1993). In addition, evidence suggests that persons with internal locus of control are more independent, cognitively able, mentally aware, predisposed to learning, motivated, and able to constructively process conflict than persons are with external locus of control (Howard, 1996).

Rapport. The causes of alienation are linked to academic failure, disruption of the relations between school and the community-family support systems, and characteristics of the schools themselves which militate against participation in roles of responsibility (Garbarino, 1973). Alienated adolescents are more prone to juvenile delinquency, to academic failure, to aimlessness and social disruption (Garbarino, 1973). Garbarino suggested that, drug abuse is also linked to alienation.

The alienation of youths has long garnered public and scholarly attention, related as it is to behavioral disorders, family conflict, and larger social problems (Newman, 1981). It has also been prominent in educational research, with an extensive literature demonstrating how students' alienation contributes to academic problems on the individual and institutional levels and larger inequalities on the societal level (McLeod, 1995).

Student-teacher relationships are the primary source of intergenerational bonding (Crosnoe, et. al., 2004). For example, within schools, young people interact daily with

their teachers, who can serve as mentors, models of behavior, and sources of support (Pianta, Steinberg, & Rollins 1995). This study focused on this type of in-school intergenerational bonding, examining students' general feelings about their teachers, how well students get along with their teachers and whether they perceive them to be caring and fair. This focus on teachers as a group is based on past research (Sanders & Jordan 2000; Steinberg, Brown, & Dombusch 1996), from which we borrow the term teacher-bonding. Thus, we examined the tone of students' connections to the teachers in their school, with positive feelings at one end of the continuum and alienation at the other.

Alienation, which refers to feelings of disconnectedness from others and from key social institutions, has been implicated in a variety of educational issues, such as students' behavioral problems and academic failure, as well as the maintenance and stability of schools (Agnew, 1997; Crosnoe, 2002; Newman, 1981). On the other hand, social integration can promote more positive outcomes on the student and institutional levels (Coleman, 1988; Hirschi, 1969). One key source of social integration that serves as an antidote to students' alienation is intergenerational bonding.

According to social bond theory (Hirschi, 1969), strong bonds to social institutions raise the costs of problem behavior, thereby promoting conventional trajectories. By strengthening the connection of students to the normative order of the school, affective bonds with teachers serve this purpose (Crosnoe, 2002). Although research on adolescents has typically focused on the instrumental aspects of student-teacher relationships, such as teaching styles and mentoring, rather than on the affective aspects (Good & Brophy, 1997), an interdisciplinary literature suggests that affective ties

with teachers promote the adjustment and learning of children through the transmission of social capital and the creation of communal learning environments (Birch & Ladd 1998; Pianta et al. 1995). Recent research has extended this focus on affective dimensions to adolescence with similar results (Muller 2001; Sanders & Jordan 2000).

Positive student-teacher relationships serve as protective forces in secondary school, associated with higher academic achievement and fewer disciplinary problems (Crosnoe, et. al.,2004). Although we recognize that these associations can be bidirectional, with well-adjusted students also more likely to bond with teachers, we focus on the protective mechanism in our conceptual discussion and attempt to address selection issues in our longitudinal statistical analyses.

Enthusiasm. Adolescent problem behavior is conceptualized as two empirically derived syndromes, externalizing problems, including delinquency and aggression, and internalizing problems, including depression, anxiety, and withdrawal (Achenbach, 1991a, 1991b). Depression, have been found to be a risk factor for delinquency and to exacerbate disruptive and acting-out behaviors in a variety of ways, and depression frequently co-occurs with conduct disorder (Loeber et al., 1998). For example, the presence of a manic state may lead to risk-taking and sensation-seeking behavior, and the hopelessness and lack of future orientation that can accompany depression may also lead to a juvenile engaging in risk-taking behavior while discounting the future consequences of such behavior.

According to Loeber (1998), as compared to adults, juveniles (particularly boys) are much more apt to "act-out" their depression through disruptive and aggressive behaviors, and in some cases, through delinquency and even violence. In addition, depression can impair social functioning and peer relations and distort information processing in ways that can make a juvenile more vulnerable to engaging in delinquent behavior; for example, they may be more susceptible to peer pressure and more likely to make hostile attributions in social situations and to respond aggressively (Kazdin, 2000).

Sociability. Lotz and Lee (1999) showed that, some adolescents are attracted to hedonistic activities because of their active sociability and negative school experience. Lotz and Lee (1999) study showed that active sociability is a strong predictor of delinquent behavior. One's negative self-image was correlated with each of their measures of delinquency. Additionally, they found that, having a negative self-image was a significant predictor of property and violent crime as well as for vandalism. Specifically, as an adolescent's negative self-image increased so did their involvement in property crime, violent offenses, and vandalism.

A review of studies by Loeber (1982) showed that, children who initially display high rates of antisocial behavior are more likely to persist in this behavior than children who initially show lower rates of antisocial behavior. Chronic delinquents compared to nonchronic or nondelinquent individuals, tend to have been children who were antisocial in more than one setting, who displayed a higher variety of antisocial behaviors, and who showed an early onset of such behaviors. Once high levels of antisocial behavior have been established, youths tend to maintain such levels rather than to revert to lower levels