The Pennsylvania State University

The Graduate School

College of Health and Human Development

POSITIVE YOUTH DEVELOPMENT IN MALAYSIA

A Dissertation in

Human Development and Family Studies

by

Mei-Mei Ang

© 2009 Mei-Mei Ang

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements
for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

August 2009

The dissertation of Mei-Mei Ang was reviewed and approved* by the following:

J. Douglas Coatsworth
Associate Professor of Human Development
Dissertation Adviser
Chair of Committee

Eric Loken
Assistant Professor of Human Development
Senior Research Associate

Jennifer L. Maggs
Associate Professor of Human Development

Edward A. Smith
Associate Professor of Human Development
Evaluation Research, Prevention Research Center for the Promotion of Human Development

Karen L. Bierman
Distinguished Professor of Psychology
Prevention Research Center for the Promotion of Human Development

Douglas M. Teti
Professor of Human Development and Psychology
Professor-in-Charge, Human Development & Family Studies Ph.D. Program

* Signatures are on file in the Graduate School

ABSTRACT

Positive Youth Development (PYD) is a strengths based approach that embraces an optimistic view of youth and clear definitions of positive outcomes. The goal of the three studies comprising this dissertation was to examine the application of the Five Cs PYD framework (Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections) beyond the United States, specifically among ethnically diverse youth in urban Malaysia. In Chapter 1, structural equation modeling was used to examine the factor structure of a PYD instrument among 1,470 adolescents in early secondary school (aged 13-14). Results demonstrated that a five-factor measurement structure which corresponded to the Five Cs had a significantly better fit to the data than a uni-dimensional or two-level factor structure. This five factor measurement model was also invariant across boys and girls. Tests of gender differences on the Five Cs scores indicated girls reported higher Caring, Character and Connections, and boys higher Confidence.

Chapter 2 built upon findings from Chapter 1 by investigating the relationship between the Five Cs with 1) youth positive functioning (prosocial Contribution), and 2) substance use. Four of the five Cs were significantly and positively associated with prosocial Contribution, and explained 18% of the variance in Contribution. Only Connections was significantly and negatively associated with cigarette and alcohol use. Together, the Five Cs explained between 3% to 4% of the variance in cigarette and alcohol use.

Chapter 3 describes an exploratory qualitative study to examine the conceptualization of PYD and the Five Cs in this Asian context and to identify culture-specific positive traits. Interviews with 15 professionals working in different settings (i.e., secondary schools, colleges, and the community) were analyzed using qualitative content analysis. Informants' ideas and examples of positive traits were then categorized into higher-order themes for each C, namely Caring (3 themes), Character (8 themes), Competence (6 themes), Confidence (5 themes), and Connections (4 themes). Several themes which may be culturally specific to this Asian region include being courteous, peaceful, responsible in social roles (themes under Character), and language proficiency (Competence). Spiritual values and practice was also considered important to complement the Five Cs framework.

Together, these three studies support the relevance of the Five Cs framework beyond the United States, particularly in Malaysia. Findings can inform future PYD measurement research in this urban Asian context, and intervention efforts aimed at promoting positive functioning; toward furthering the study of positive indicators and the promotion of human flourishing.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES vii

LIST OF FIGURES viii

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ix

General Introduction and Overview 1

CHAPTER 1.
A Measurement Model of Positive Youth Development Constructs in Malaysian Adolescents 12

Positive Youth Development 13
The Five Cs Framework 14
Caring 15
Character 17
Competence 18
Confidence 20
Connections 21
Positive Youth Development and SES 23
Positive Youth Development and the Asian culture 24
Aims of the Current Study 26

METHOD 26
Dataset and Participants 26
Procedures 27
The Five Cs Measure 27
Data Analyses 32

RESULTS 34
Identifying an admissible factor structure 34
The factor structure of the PYD instrument 35
Gender invariance of the factor structure 37
Measuring the Five Cs and Examining differences in Gender and SES 38

DISCUSSION 39

CONCLUSION 45

TABLES AND FIGURES 49

CHAPTER 2.
Positive Youth Development: Links with Prosocial Behaviors & Avoidance of Harmful Substances....66

A Positive Youth Development framework....67
Positive Youth Development and Prosocial Contribution....68
The Five Cs and Prosocial Contribution....70
Positive Youth Development and Substance Use....71
Cigarette Use....72
Alcohol Use....73
The Five Cs and Substance Use....74
The Role of Gender and SES in Prosocial Contribution and Substance Use....78
Research Aims and Hypotheses....80

METHODS....80
Participants....80
Measures....81
Data Analyses....84

RESULTS
Five Cs and Prosocial Contribution....85
Five Cs and Substance use....85

DISCUSSION....86
Five Cs and Prosocial Contribution....87
Five Cs and Substance use....90

CONCLUSION....93

TABLES....94

CHAPTER 3.
International Positive Youth Development: An Exploratory Qualitative Study of PYD and the Five Cs in an Asian context....100

Positive Youth Development: An overview of the Five Cs Model....101
Culture-sensitive conceptualizations of the Five Cs of Malaysian youth....102
Identifying potential new dimensions of PYD in Asia....104
Research Aims....105

METHODS....106
Participants....106
Measures: The Qualitative interview....107
Procedures....108
Analyses....108

RESULTS 110
Cultural conceptualization of the Five Cs in an Asian context.....110
Caring.....111
Character.....113
Competence.....117
Confidence.....121
Connections.....124
Positive themes mapping onto the Five C framework.....127
Positive dimensions beyond the Five C framework 130

DISCUSSION.....131
Multi-method assessments.....132
Additional scales for future empirical research 133

CONCLUSION.....136

TABLES AND FIGURES ……..……..…….. 137

Overall Conclusion and Future Directions.....146

Study Limitations.....146
Towards a Five Cs measurement model of Positive Youth Development in Asia.....148
Towards a Five Cs approach in prevention and interventions in Asia 149
Towards future PYD measures for use in Asia.....150

REFERENCES 154

APPENDICES.....176

Appendix A. IRB Approval for Dissertation.....177
Appendix B. IRB Approval for Qualitative Study.....178
Appendix C. Qualitative Interviews with Youth Professionals.....179
Appendix D. Most Valued Traits for Each of the Five Cs.....186
Appendix E. Inter-coder Checking Summary.....187

VITA.....188

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1-1. The Five Cs PYD Framework, and Corresponding Positive Indicators from Developmental Assets, Positive Psychology, and Adolescent Research.....49

Table 1-2. Descriptive Statistics and Reliability for PYD Scales.....52

Table 1-3. Correlations Among PYD Scales & Correlations Among the Five Cs Composite Scores.....53

Table 1-4. The Original Hypothesized and the Revised PYD Measurement Models 54

Table 1-5. Fit Indices from Structural Equation Modeling of 3 Alternative Models Tested.....55

Table 1-6. Fit Indices of Measurement Models: Gender Invariance of the Five Cs Model.....56

Table 1-7. The Five Cs in Malaysian Youth by Gender.....57

Table 1-8. Mean Values of The Five Cs in Malaysia by SES Levels (Parents' Education).....58

Table 2-1. Descriptive Statistics and Reliability for the Five Cs PYD Scales 94

Table 2-2. Descriptive Statistics for Independent, Dependent and Demographic Variables. 95

Table 2-3. The Five Cs with Prosocial Contribution: Correlation Analysis and Hierarchical Regression.....96

Table 2-4. The Five Cs with Substance Use: Correlation Analysis and Hierarchical Regression.....97

Table 3-1. Participant Demographics 137

Table 3-2. Qualitative Themes for each of the Five Cs.....138

Table 3-3. Key themes on Positive Youth Development.....139

Table 3-4. Inter-coder Agreement.....140

Table 4-1. Comparing PYD themes from Qualitative interviews in Chapter 3, with the PYD scales in the Five Cs Measurement model in Chapter 1 153

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1-1. Model 1-B: The Five Cs Factor Structure of the PYD Instrument 59

Figure 1-2. Model 2: A Two-level Model with Five Cs, and a Higher Order Latent Factor (LV-PYD) 60

Figure 1-3. Model 3: A Uni-dimensional PYD Structure 61

Figure 1-4. Gender Invariance Results: Baseline Model for Boys 62

Figure 1-5. Gender Invariance Results: Baseline Model for Girls 63

Figure 3-1. Key themes for Caring in Malaysian teens 141

Figure 3-2. Key themes for Character in Malaysian teens.....142

Figure 3-3. Key themes for Competence in Malaysian teens 143

Figure 3-4. Key themes of Confidence in Malaysian teens 144

Figure 3-5. Key themes for Connections in Malaysian teens 145

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation has been an opportunity to stretch to new heights and scale mountains, where the final destination seemed at times hidden behind clouds. Throughout this dissertation journey, God's grace and faithfulness have been instrumental, and I am indebted to Him for being my source of life and strength.

Professionally, I sincerely thank my advisor Dr Douglas Coatsworth, for challenging me to express thoughts in a logical and clear manner, providing consistent support, and patient encouragement throughout my graduate education. I am deeply appreciative to Dr Jennifer Maggs, Dr Eric Loken, Dr Edward Smith, and Dr Karen Bierman for modeling scholarly excellence, illustrating complex statistics using basic concepts, and for the many helpful consultation hours. I am honored to be able to learn from all Five of you as I researched the Five Cs, and thankful for your smiles and encouragement. Sincere appreciation goes also to Dr Mark Greenberg, all faculty and staff of the Department of Human Development and Family Studies, and the Prevention Research Center for support during my years at Penn State.

Personally, I am blessed to have my soul-mate and strongest cheerleader on this life's journey, Dr. Brendan Gomez; and thankful to family Ang Lay Cheng, Helen Ang, Aloysius Gomez and Fabiola D'Silva for their love and prayers.

This work is dedicated to youth around the world, and to adults who proactively reach out and journey with youth; let us continue supporting each other in holistic development and in living life to the fullest.

General Introduction and Overview

Positive Youth Development: A strengths-based approach to adolescent research

The chapters that follow are a doctoral dissertation on Positive Youth Development in Malaysia. Adolescence is characterized by distinct developmental changes, biological, cognitive, and psychosocial (Steinberg, 2008). As teenagers mature, they encounter various choices, opportunities, and challenges in their path toward adulthood (Nurmi, 2004). To have a good overview of this psychosocial development, different facets of an adolescent's life can be examined, namely their identity and feelings of self-worth, internal principles and values, ability to interact and get along with others, self or emotion regulation, having compassion and concern for others, and their relationships with significant others namely their parents and peers (Lerner et al., 2005). These areas map onto the study of positive youth development, specifically the Five Cs framework of Confidence, Character, Competence, Caring, and Connections (Pittman, Irby, Tolman, Yohalem, & Ferber, 2003).

Positive Youth Development (PYD) is a strengths-based theoretical framework that embraces an optimistic view of youth and focuses on clear definitions of positive outcomes (Benson, Mannes, Pittman, & Ferber, 2004; Damon, 2004; Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003). Research on adolescent development has mirrored the field of psychology, where in the past half-century there has been a prevailing focus on maladaptive outcomes, disorders, and things going wrong (Damon, 2004; Lerner & Galambos, 1998; Seligman, 2003). In contrast, the PYD framework asserts that "problem-free is not fully prepared", highlights the need to look beyond problem behavior prevention, and

illustrates how we each have a role in promoting positive developmental assets in *all* youth (Benson, 2006; Pittman et al., 2003). Above all, PYD contributes a necessary *wellness* paradigm and a more balanced view of development (Brown, 2005; Cowen, 2000).

Rationale and Overview of Study Aims

Several gaps remain in the emerging literature on positive youth development (Catalano, Berglund, Ryan, Lonczak, & Hawkins, 2004; Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003), including: 1) the lack of international studies on PYD, 2) the need to advance the measurement of PYD and positive indicators, and 3) the infrequent simultaneous assessment of both positive and problem behaviors in adolescent research.

This dissertation is structured into three sections, and strives to address the above gaps in the literature. Chapter 1 focuses on PYD measurement by testing a five-factor structure for PYD in urban Malaysian adolescents, assesses the model's invariance across gender, and subsequently describes current levels of positive development using the Five Cs. Chapter 2 investigates how the Five Cs is associated with key positive behaviors (specifically prosocial Contribution) and key problem behaviors (cigarette and alcohol use). Chapter 3 examines the conceptualization of PYD and the Five Cs in Malaysia through exploratory qualitative interviews with adult youth professionals, and concludes by providing recommendations for future PYD measures that are culturally sensitive.

Chapter 1: Measurement of PYD in an urban Asian context

Problem behavior outcomes such as teen pregnancy, delinquent and violent acts, or frequency and quantity of substance use are clearly operationalized and provide

objective measures of these less desirable developmental outcomes. Reliable positive developmental outcomes and more desirable indicators, however, have lagged behind, with few researchers making strides in this direction (e.g. Moore, Lippman, & Brown, 2004; Klein, Sabaratnam, Auerbach, Smith, & Kodjo et al., 2006). The Five Cs framework provides a simple yet holistic outlook of positive development, and is a model that warrants further investigation given recent measurement support in the United States (Lerner et al., 2005). In Chapter 1, the factor structure and measurement invariance of a Five Cs PYD instrument will be examined among urban Asian adolescents.

PYD research has primarily focused on youth within the United States. The importance of international research is necessary toward a more global understanding of youth development, yet there remains a poverty of culturally appropriate instruments on positive youth indicators (Catalano et al., 2004). These can illumine our understanding of PYD beyond the shores of the United States, particularly among youth who experience different developmental circumstances (Larson, Wilson, & Mortimer, 2002).

Chapter 2: PYD and Other youth outcomes

Having examined the measurement properties of the Five Cs model, of interest next is the association between PYD with other youth positive outcomes and problem behaviors. Two key youth outcomes analyzed in Chapter 2 are prosocial contribution, and substance use.

PYD and Prosocial Contribution. Prosocial contribution is defined as helping actions that benefit another individual. In one prior U.S. study based on the Five Cs, PYD was positively and significantly linked with Contribution (Jelicic et al., 2007). Individuals

with Caring, Connections (good parent relationships), and Confidence (self esteem) were also more likely to report prosocial behavior (Carlo, Crockett, Randall, & Roesch, 2007; Carlo et al., 2003; Elena, Giovanna, & Boccacin, 1999; Johnson, Beebe, Mortimer, & Snyder, 1998; Metz & Youniss, 2005). Prosocial contribution which directly benefits the giver, the recipient, as well as the broader community, is an important youth positive functioning outcome (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Pilavin, 2003; Seligman, 2003). Empirical evidence on what contributes to the promotion, maintenance, and enhancement of wellness, still lags behind when compared against the volumes of etiological research on problem behaviors (Cowen, 2000). This was the inspiration behind the dual goals in Chapter 2 as the Five Cs is potentially a versatile model to describe PYD in this Malaysian context, particularly if adolescents who demonstrate high levels of the Five Cs (i.e., experience positive development) in their lives, also report prosocial Contribution, and are less inclined toward problem behaviors such as substance use.

PYD and Substance use. Studies on singular PYD constructs in most cases demonstrate an inverse association with substance use and youth problem behaviors (Jacobs, Vernon, & Eccles, 2004; Jelicic et al., 2007; Leffert, Benson, Scales, Sharma, Drake, & Blyth, 1998; Miller & Eisenberg, 1988). However, a crucial gap in the literature remains because a majority of these studies focus on singular aspects of healthy adolescent development, in the absence of a well-defined PYD framework. In addition, although empirical support for PYD models has been demonstrated among U.S. youth, this link between Five Cs and youth substance use has not been investigated in a developing Asian context. A better understanding of the relationship between PYD and adolescent problem behaviors can inform competency-enhancement and substance use

preventive interventions, by pin-pointing potential dimensions to be targeted. Consequently, intervention programs that promote positive Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections could embrace a simultaneous goal of reducing problem behaviors and maladjustment.

Chapter 3: Qualitative views on PYD in an urban Asian context

Multiple spheres or levels of social influence impact individual development, starting from one's family, peers, and school at the immediate environment or the *microsystem* (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998; Collins, Maccoby, Steinberg, Hetherington, & Bornstein, 2000). At the broader macrosystem, cultural influences, economic, and historical factors indirectly impact the socialization and development of adolescents in different ecological contexts (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998). Cultural norms and expectations or a local way of life may emphasize particular positive traits or behaviors over others (Triandis, 1999). In the case of positive dimensions, the Five Cs may be conceptualized or expressed differently outside the United States where the framework was first described, yet done so in a manner which appropriately reflects positive development in a particular cultural context.

Such international research is crucial to expand our present PYD knowledge base, enhance our understanding of positive indicators across cultures, and aid in theory construction (Heppner, 2006). Moreover, the identification of 'new' constructs will guide the development of culturally-sensitive PYD instruments in the future. To this end, Chapter 3 describes an exploratory qualitative study which investigates how youth professionals conceptualize the Five Cs and PYD in Malaysian adolescents. This study

will describe any culture-specific PYD traits, and the appropriateness of utilizing this Five Cs framework in this urban Asian context.

Overview of the Malaysian Context

Three factors highlight the significance of the current study on PYD in Malaysia. First, this sample from an urban Southeast Asian region is an under-researched population, and findings would contribute toward international positive youth development research. Second, the focus on positive development is timely given the recent disruptions in the traditional family systems, increased vulnerabilities faced by urban youth, and rising rates of youth behavioral problems in Malaysia (Economic Planning Unit Malaysia, 2006; W.H.O., 2006). Third, there continues to be a dearth of quality research in this context on youth development, and a lack of understanding about the correlates of youth positive outcomes and problem behaviors. In the United States, several effective prevention programs for adolescents are also cost-effective, in that the economic and social benefits derived outweigh program costs incurred (Aos, Lieb, Mayfield, Marna, & Pennucci, 2004). Results from this study can inform research-guided youth prevention programs in this region. Interventions which demonstrate program effectiveness and cost-effectiveness would be of tremendous value given the shortage of mental health professionals in this developing country (W.H.O., 2002).

This dissertation is set in the largest urban region in Malaysia, the Klang Valley which encompasses the states of Selangor and Kuala Lumpur. Selangor, with its 87% urban population and 4.2 million residents, is the most populous state in West Malaysia. The federal capital Kuala Lumpur has a 100% urban population numbering 1.4 million

(Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2000; Jamaliah, 2003). In contrast to the United States, Malaysia is an Asian nation that can be considered more collectivist in nature; for example there remains an emphasis on 'Asian values' such as filial piety, humility, and respecting hierarchy in social relationships (Crinis, 2004; Hofstede, 1983; Kim et al., 2005; Wong, 2004). However as cities become more urbanized with greater exposure to Western influences, a gradual shift in values can be expected (Soontiens, 2007).

Overview of formal education in Malaysia. Students attend six years of elementary school years (Primary 1 to 6) starting from age 7, followed by five years of secondary school (Secondary 1 to 5) between ages 13 to 17. Secondary 5 is equivalent to senior year of high school in the United States. Enrolment rates are 96% for Primary education, and over 85% for secondary school (The Ninth Malaysia Plan, 2006-2010; UNESCO EFA 2002). Public schooling is free, with options for schools that are language-based (e.g., subjects taught in the Malay language, Chinese or Indian language). Some are all-girls or all-boys schools, with others are co-educational with both male and female students. Upon completing Secondary 5, some students attend pre-University studies (e.g., Matriculation studies, Secondary 6, or A-levels) toward a 4-year degree track, while others embark on further training in the form of a 2-year Diploma course, professional training, or Certificate- level courses.

Dataset and Participants

Chapters 1 and 2 of this study utilized secondary data from pre-intervention assessment of Mentoring Malaysia, an after-school Positive Youth Development program (Gomez & Ang, 2007). Three public secondary schools participated in the Mentoring Malaysia program: an all boys school, an all girls school, and a mixed-gender school. A

total of 1,484 13 and 14-year old adolescents completed the self-report *ARCCADE Youth survey* in their respective classrooms. In the present study, 51% of participants were male and 49% were in Secondary 1. The sample was ethnically diverse, as participants comprised 35 % Malay, 38 % Chinese, and 24 % Indians, in addition to 2.7% from other races. This approximates the ethnic distribution in West Malaysia, specifically in the Klang Valley states of Selangor and Kuala Lumpur. Figures from the National Census indicate Selangor's population comprised 54% Malay, 31% Chinese, and 15% Indian; while the Federal Territories of Kuala Lumpur had 44% Malay, 44% Chinese, and 11% Indian (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2000).

Chapter 3 involved purposefully sampled adult youth professionals from academic institutions (40%), secondary schools (33%), and community organizations (27%) in the Klang Valley. Fifteen teachers, lecturers, counselors, and youth workers; from Malaysia's three main ethnic groups (27% Malay, 40% Chinese, and 33% Indian) were interviewed on PYD and the Five Cs. Sixty percent of participants were male. Participants' average age was 40.3 years old, and their work with youth averaged 11.9 years, which enabled the observation of a range of adolescent behaviors and positive development.

Advancing PYD through research and practice

Integrating findings across all three chapters of this dissertation will provide an initial quantitative and qualitative understanding of Positive Youth Development, and how it relates to other outcomes in urban Asian youth. Results on the measurement structure of PYD may further advance research on PYD and the Five Cs, specifically in the area of

measurement, toward an eventual goal of developing a standardized tool for assessing and monitoring positive development in youth. It is hoped that researchers and practitioners will determine the best ways to apply current findings into research-based competency enhancement and preventive interventions, toward the goal of better promoting holistic youth development, and the healthy transition into young adulthood.

Chapter 1

A Measurement Model of Positive Youth Development Constructs in Malaysian Adolescents

Patricia M. Ang

The Pennsylvania State University

Correspondence should be addressed to: Patricia Ang, Department of Human Development & Family Studies, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park; *mua126@gmail.com*

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS: This research utilized secondary data from the Mentoring Malaysia intervention developed by the Asian Research Center for Child & Adolescent Development (ARCCADE), funded by the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) Malaysia, and implemented in cooperation with HELP University College, Malaysia.

ABSTRACT [Chapter 1]

Positive Youth Development (PYD) is a strengths based theoretical framework that embraces an optimistic view of youth and emphasizes clear definitions of positive outcomes. Existing PYD literature and empirical research has primarily focused on adolescents in the United States. The purpose of this study was to test a previously supported measurement model of PYD comprising five 'C's (i.e., Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections) in an urban sample of 1,470 Malaysian adolescents between ages 13 and 14. Structural equation modeling results showed a five factor structure which corresponded to the Five Cs had significantly better fit to the data, compared to a uni-dimensional or two-level factor structure. The measurement model also demonstrated satisfactory invariance across gender. Using this Five Cs measure, gender and SES differences in levels of PYD were ascertained. Girls reported higher Caring, Character and Connections, and boys higher Confidence. In relation to SES, higher Confidence was found in adolescents that had either parent with high educational attainment; while higher Character and Competence were reported by adolescents whose fathers had a higher educational attainment. Findings provide empirical support for a multi-dimensional measurement model, and extend the application of the Five Cs framework beyond the United States to this international context.

A Measurement Model of Positive Youth Development Constructs in Malaysian Adolescents

Research in the scientific area of positive youth development (PYD) has primarily focused on youth in the United States, prompting researchers to highlight the need for international research on PYD in helping establish a global understanding of youth development (Catalano, Berglund, Ryan, Lonczak, & Hawkins, 2004). Such efforts highlight culture-related issues raised by the scientific community, such as cultural influences on measurement, and the need for cultural awareness and sensitivity in research (Hofstede, 1983; Lopez, Edwards, Pedrotti, Ito, & Rasmussen, 2002; Mattis, 2002; Roosa, Dumka, Gonzales, & Knight, 2002; Triandis, 1999). However, few have conducted work to compile or develop culturally appropriate instruments on positive indicators and PYD, either in the United States or internationally (Moore, Lippman, & Brown, 2004; Klein et al., 2006; Shek, Siu, & Lee, 2007; for adult measures see Lopez & Snyder, 2003). One non-U.S. PYD study based on a Hong Kong Chinese sample has shown that PYD is a concept both applicable and reliably measurable in non-Western settings (Shek et al., 2007).

This international study tested the fit of a PYD measurement model utilizing the Five C framework in an ethnically diverse urban Asian youth sample. A few cross-cultural studies have examined *individual* dimensions or traits of the Five Cs such as self-esteem (e.g. Schmitt & Allik, 2005). However, what is not presently known is whether the entire Five Cs PYD framework can be applied in a non-Western context.

Positive Youth Development

Research on youth problems and problem behavior indicators predominate the field of youth development (Brown, 2005; Theokas, Almerigi, Lerner, Dowlin, Benson, et al., 2005). The trend remains that problem behaviors frequently raise concerned reactions, and are more easily recognized and measured (e.g., teen pregnancy, juvenile incarceration). Positive indicators, in contrast, are viewed less seriously. The lack of reliable and valid indicators on healthy emotional and positive psychosocial development, further contributes to the exclusion of such constructs in adolescent studies. The scarcity of studies on measurement, and the lack of standardized theory-guided instruments to assess positive outcomes are concerns that have been repeatedly raised by researchers studying adolescents (Klein, Sabaratnam, Auerbach, Smith, Kodjo, et al., 2006; Lerner et al., 2005; Moore et al., 2004).

PYD is a strengths-based and resource-focused approach, emphasizes explicit definitions of positive outcomes, and embraces an optimistic view of youth (Damon, 2004; Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003). This wellness paradigm contributes a broad and balanced view of development, providing a paradigm shift away from the prevailing focus on maladaptive outcomes in adolescence (Brown, 2005; Cowen, 2000; Damon, 2004; Galambos & Leadbeater, 2000). Moreover, such a paradigm is cognizant of the influences from diverse environments, and focuses on building positive inputs and social-emotional competencies for *all* youth (Benson, 2006; Catalano et al., 2004; Eccles & Gootman, 2002; Larson, 2000). There are two emerging models of PYD; namely the Five Cs and Search Institute's developmental assets. The *Five Cs* framework references five positive areas of development, namely Character, Confidence, Connections, Caring, and

Competence (Lerner et al., 2005; Pittman, Irby, Tolman, Yohalem, & Ferber, 2003), while the *developmental assets* framework points to building blocks essential for adolescent functioning and later adulthood (Scales, Benson, Leffert, & Blyth, 2000; Scales & Leffert, 1999).

The Five Cs Framework

Pittman and Lerner's PYD framework highlights five dimensions representing healthy youth development: Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections (Pittman et al., 2003; Lerner et al., 2005). This Five Cs framework provides a multi-dimensional and holistic overview of youth development that includes positive personal development, social-emotional skills, moral values, and cognitive competence (Catalano, et al., 2004; Moore & Lippman, 2005; CASEL, 2003). Several protective factors considered to be crucial in reducing negative outcomes, and assets promoting positive outcomes are featured; these include positive self-concept, perceived competence, youth-parent relationships, and interpersonal skills (Hawkins, Catalano, & Miller, 1992; Harter, 1982; Witt & Crompton, 1997). The framework represents multiple aspects of a person, and desired indicators of wellness or positive development: from internal representations (confidence), values and moral compass (character), empathy and concern for others (caring), efficacious behaviors, skills, and knowledge (competence in personal and interpersonal situations), to external networks (connections) (Lerner et al., 2005; Pittman et al., 2003).

Compared to lengthier lists such as the 40 developmental assets proposed by the Search Institute (Scales & Leffert, 1999); or a proposed list of 10 tasks of adolescent

development, (Simpson & Roehlkepartain, 2003; Simpson, 2001), the Five Cs provides a concise description of PYD, is a simple model for youth practitioners, and can be presented to youth participants as achievable program outcomes. Key developmental assets such as positive identity, positive values, and social competence, as well as connections to parents, can be integrated in the Five Cs framework (Theokas et al., 2005). Table 1-1 presents the Five Cs, and illustrates how the scales in this study map onto positive indicators from other PYD models, youth research, social-emotional learning literature (SEL), and Positive Psychology.

Several youth studies have utilized this Five Cs model (e.g., Lerner et al., 2005), and the definition and operationalization of PYD constructs continues to be refined. Studies in the U.S. have demonstrated that parents', youths', and youth practitioners' conceptualizations of thriving and positive development can be summarized using the Five Cs framework (King, Dowling, Mueller, White, Schultz, et al., 2005). At the same time, empirical evidence has been demonstrated for a two-level Five Cs measurement model (i.e., the five factors together with a single higher-order latent PYD factor) in a sample of youth in the United States (Lerner et al., 2005). The Five Cs are individually described in the following paragraphs.

Caring

Caring is frequently defined as a construct with both affective and cognitive components (Chase-Lansdale, Wakschlag, & Brooks-Gunn, 1995; Zahn-Waxler & Radke-Yarrow, 1990). The affective ability to sense other people's feelings, being able to understand their perspective (i.e., being socially aware) and wanting to reach out to individuals who are sad, disadvantaged, or have difficulties is one of five key social-

emotional learning areas (CASEL, 2003). The current study focuses on empathy and social concern as two key dimensions of caring.

Empathy. Empathy is the capacity to explicitly understand and feel the positive and negative emotions and experiences of others, i.e., their "pleasure and pain" (Damon, 2004). It includes both an affective and a cognitive component, as it is the capacity to imagine and understand another's psychological state (Radke-Yarro, Zahn-Waxler, Richardson, & Susman, 1994). This construct therefore goes beyond merely feeling sorry for another individual's need. Empathy is displayed through having an emotional and/or behavioral response that matches the other individual's feelings or "feeling what the other person is feeling" (Eisenberg & Fabes, 1990), for example, sadness if a friend is grieving. Perspective taking or being able to understand the situation or view of another individual, is one component of empathy.

Social concern. Social concern is a sense of responsibility and keenness to help individuals who are in need or disadvantaged, and the construct embodies elements of concern for others, compassion, and kindness (Zahn-Waxler & Radke-Yarrow, 1990; Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2005). In this study, it is defined as placing importance in reaching out to people in need, and wanting to create a better situation for them.

The conceptualization of Caring intentionally excludes the behavioral expression of caring (e.g., helping behavior, instrumental assistance), because such actions can be assessed separately via a construct of prosocial outreach, in line with the goals of Chapter 2. In assessing Caring among adolescents in this study, girls are hypothesized to report higher levels of Caring compared to boys, given Gilligan's argument that women's

natural social and caretaking role leads to their extending concern and help in relationships (Gilligan, 1982; Karniol, Grosz, & Schorr, 2003).

Character

Character is broadly defined here as personal values and attitudes which have a positive impact on the adolescent and the broader society in which he or she lives. Character education and the positive psychology literature consider *character* to be multi-dimensional or multi-faceted (Battistich, 2005; Character Education Partnership, 2006; Peterson & Seligman, 2004), depicting the intellectual, social, emotional, and ethical elements of positive development (Battistich, 2005). Conceptually, character is believed to be a result of several psychological aspects working simultaneously, the most frequently referenced and measured being attitudes, values, virtues, skills, emotions, moral reasoning, and one's moral identity (Character Education Partnership, 2006; Berkowitz, 2005; Berkowitz, 1997; Battistich, 2005; Peterson & Seligman, 2004). In this study, I have elected to operationalize character through positive values of integrity and honesty.

Positive values of Integrity, and Honesty. Several virtues consistently highlighted in the literature are incorporated in this study's conceptualization of Character: personal values such as truthfulness, honesty, integrity, standing firm to one's principles (intrapersonal values), respect for others (an interpersonal value), and a sense of responsibility. Values were similarly referenced by Lerner and colleagues (2005), in defining character as "An adolescent… who respects societal and cultural rules, has moral standards for behavior, a sense of right and wrong, and integrity" (p. 23). *Integrity* and *honesty* are both included in the classification of 24 character virtues, most of which

are present across cultures (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Honest people are forthright, sincere in their communication with others, and in their actions (Josephson Institute, 2006; Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2005). Similarly, individuals of integrity act consistently according to their principles, and behaves in a moral and responsible way even when not being observed by others (Josephson Institute, 2006; Lickona, 1991). A youth with good character is trustworthy, responsible, and lives by core values as seen through his interactions with others (Character Education Partnership, 2006; Lickona, 1991).

Competence

Competence is the effective adaptation in one's environment at the individual level or the *self* domain (e.g., self-regulation), in interpersonal relationships (e.g., social competence), and the ability to successfully navigate developmental tasks (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). A review of PYD programs shows competence enhancement was a focus of all 25 programs reviewed (Catalano et. al., 2004). Two areas of competence that receive central focus in adolescent research and are of interest in this study are social skills and stress management. Together, these two concepts highlight aspects of *inter*personal and *intra*personal competence necessary for healthy and positive development, discussed previously by others (e.g. CASEL, 2003; Hansen, 1992; Masten & Coatsworth, 1998).

Social skills or Social competencies. A crucial indicator of positive adjustment is the ability to interact well and have good interpersonal relationships with peers and adults (Catalano et al., 2004; CASEL, 2003). Social skills is also referred to as interpersonal relationship skills (e.g., communication, relationship building), social competencies, and

even influences peer acceptance or peer approval as it involves reading, interpreting and responding to social cues (CASEL, 2003; Harter, 1982; Teglasi & Rothman, 2001). In adolescence, social competence includes the ability to have positive social interactions with one's peers, to initiate and maintain friendships, and to communicate with adults; and this definition is used in this study. In general, social skills are related to problem solving, the ability to form friendships, fewer problem behaviors, better adjustment and psychological health in adolescents (Scales & Leffert, 1999). A lack of social competencies predicts peer rejection, substance use, delinquency, and mental health problems (Bierman & Welsh, 1997; Griffin, Epstein, Botvin, & Spoth, 2001; Leffert et al., 1998). Skills for social interactions encompass behaviors appropriate for one-on-one or group interaction (e.g., listening when someone else is speaking) and communication skills (e.g., able to ask for help when needed).

Stress management is defined as youths' perceived ability to manage stress positively (Fearnow-Kelly, Hansen, & McNeal, 2002). The ability to adaptively cope with stressful situations and distressing emotions is the second component of competence used in this study (Buckley, Storino, & Saarni, 2003). As adolescents increase in their cognitive ability, autonomy, and become more adult-like in physical appearance, expectations and interactions with adults also shift. Cognitively, the increased ability to think abstractly is matched with more challenging academic content and major examinations; while the ability to view the world in shades of gray may bring about pessimism or hopelessness in some youth (Bryne & Mazanov, 1999; Steinberg, 2008). Changing dynamics of parent-youth relationships due to adolescent's increased cognitive maturity may also contribute toward increased family conflict and stress (Steinberg &

Silk, 2002). Regardless of the source of adolescents' stress, competence in coping effectively through stress management is key for positive development, and can prevent the need to resort to less healthy coping methods such as substance use (Bryne & Mazanov, 1999; Buckley et al., 2003; Wills, Sandy, & Yaeger, 2002).

Confidence

In this study, key indicators of confidence include self-worth, self-esteem and optimistic identity.

Self-worth and Self-esteem. Two streams of research on self-esteem or self worth have demonstrated its hierarchical and multi-dimensional nature. The self concept is simultaneously specific to singular domains such as sports, academics and relationships (Harter, 1982; Harter, Waters, & Whitesell, 1998; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2002), and a super-ordinate global construct reflecting a self-view that is more than just a sum of specific abilities or skills (Harter, 1982; DuBois & Hirsch, 2000). Global self worth is a strong indicator of positive development and is associated with positive developmental outcomes such as physical health, success at school, and overcoming adversity (Scales et al., 2000); and lower levels are related to negative outcomes like adolescent smoking or alcohol use (McNeal & Hansen, 1999). In the present study, global self-worth and self-esteem are used as a measures of Confidence based on its general stability during adolescence (Steinberg & Morris, 2001), and because the measurement of internal self-beliefs embodies externally observed confident behaviors.

Optimistic identity. Optimistic identity is defined as a positive sense about oneself and one's future (Theokas et al., 2005). Forming a positive identity is a central developmental task of adolescence (Erikson, 1968) and successful achievement of this

task has been represented in the PYD literature by indicators of self-esteem, sense of purpose, and positive beliefs about one's future (Damon, Menon, & Bronk, 2003; Leffert et al., 1998). There is a consistent relation between the lack a positive identity with higher levels of depression or attempted suicide (Leffert et al., 1998). Prior measurement studies of *positive identity* included indicators of self-esteem (Lerner et al., 2005; Theokas et al., 2005), confounding these two distinct but related concepts. The current study sought to rectify this by excluding self-esteem items from the current optimistic identity scale, but retaining those that reflect youths' feelings of present accomplishments, optimism for the future, and an ability to express individual preferences.

Connections

Connections are "positive bonds with people and institutions that are reflected in the bi-directional exchanges between the adolescent and peers, family, school, and community in which both parties contribute to the relationship" (Lerner et al., 2005, p. 23). During adolescence the presence of and support received from key individuals has a strong effect on attitudes, behaviors, and functioning (Ackard, Neumark-Sztainer, Stony, & Perry, 2006), and are essential to positive development (Scales & Leffert, 1999). In this study, I include positive parent connections, positive peer connections, and respect for others as indicators of Connections.

Positive Parent Connections. Teens with a supportive and positive relationship with parents have higher school engagement, self-worth, psychosocial competence, and identity development, as well as fewer mental health and behavioral problems (Scales & Leffert, 1999). Parental connection and support is associated with lower substance use, less anxiety, depression, and delinquency, better school performance, and youth self-

esteem, as well as impacts youths' relationships with others (Ackard et al., 2006; Collins & Laursen, 2004; Crockett, Brown, Russell, & Shen, 2007; Crouter & Head, 2002; Scales & Leffert, 1998). When adolescents from 7th to 12th grade report low connections with parents and difficulty communicating with parents about problems, this was significantly associated with less behavioral and emotional health (Ackard et al., 2006). Specifically, boys who were able to seek out Mum or Dad when faced with a problem reported significantly less substance use and suicide attempts (Ackard et al., 2006). In addition, feeling safe at home, which indicates a sense of security and absence of abuse is a crucial indicator of positive parent connections.

Positive Peer Connections. Peers are present in many different contexts of an adolescents' life, and the quality of peer relationships has been linked to youths' emotional health, learning ability, and problem behaviors (Brown, 2004; Hay, Payne, & Chadwick, 2004; Rubin, Coplan, Chen, Buskirk, & Wojslawowwicz, 2005). Clinical research demonstrates that poor peer relations or childhood peer rejection is significantly associated with school difficulties, mental illness, and psychiatric problems in adulthood (Bierman & Welsh, 1997). In contrast, positive peer relationships is related to better self-esteem, social competence, and behavioral adjustments among adolescents at-risk (Lansford, Criss, Pettit, Dodge, & Bates, 2003). Positive peer influence also protects against substance use, gambling, and aggressive behavior (Leffert, Benson, Scales, Sharma, Drake, & Blyth, 1998). In this study, *positive peer connections* describes adolescent's sense of being included among peers, and being able to receive positive support from them.

Respect for others. Respect involves showing regard for the dignity and worth of other human beings; it is necessary for healthy individual development and crucial for effective interpersonal relationships (Lickona, 1991). Respect is seen through treating peers and adults with courtesy, in a similar manner that one would like to be treated (Josephson Institute, 2006). In this study, respect references parents, teachers, and individuals from different beliefs. Valuing diversity, which involves a respect for individuals whose ethnicity, religion, or attitudes differ from one's own (Theokas, 2005; Lerner 2005), is included within this construct given the ethnic and religious diversity in Malaysian society. Respect acknowledges the inter-relatedness of adolescents with others, as well as the 'hierarchical' nature in the Malaysian society where communal values are emphasized more than individualistic goals (Schmitt & Allik, 2005).

Positive Youth Development and Socio-economic status (SES)

Family socio-economic factors influence youth development in varying degrees. In particular, prolonged socioeconomic disadvantage can disrupt parent-child relational processes (McLoyd, 1998; Shek, 2005). Adolescents whose parents have lower levels of attained education or from lower SES backgrounds reported lower connectedness with the family (Ackard et al., 2006). The other Cs may also be influenced by SES, for example, middle school youth with higher SES consistently report higher levels of self-esteem compared to lower SES youth (Rhodes, Roffman, Reddy, & Fredriksen, 2004). Children from middle SES groups had higher social competence compared to those from lower or upper SES groups (Larsson and Frisk, 1999).

Parent Education as an indicator of SES. In the present study, the highest level of education attained by youths' father and mother are used as indicators of SES. The parent education variable has a high response rate among adolescents, is more stable, normally distributed, and allows for cross-cultural comparison of studies (Ackard et al., 2006; Hoffman, 2003). There is a greater likelihood of adolescents accurately reporting their parent's education, than their parents' income, for example, about 80% of middle and high-school U.S. students were able to report their parents' education levels (Ackard et al., 2006). As an indicator of SES, parent's attained education is less volatile than measures of occupation or income, and is more easily compared across different cultures (Hoffman, 2003). Available statistics on attained education among Malaysian adults showed that 16.7 % did not receive any schooling, 33.6% completed or had some years of Primary schooling, 19.3% had some years of lower Secondary schooling, 23.5% finished Secondary 5, and just under 7% were educated beyond post-secondary levels (Acedo & Uemura, 1999).

Positive Youth Development and the Asian culture

This paper aims to uncover whether healthy and positive adolescent development can be reliably assessed in a culture outside of the United States. Culture influences our world view, values, and behaviors (Lopez et al., 2002; Mattis, 2002; Soontiens, 2007). Malaysia, with its diverse ethnic population comprised mainly of Malays, Chinese, and Indians, provides an important cultural context for study, with its societal emphasis on relatedness rather than individualism (Stewart, Bond, Deeds, & Chung, 1999). Individualism and collectivism are frequently utilized dimensions in cross-cultural research to describe cultural differences, specifically to extent individuals and a society

as a whole, emphasize *individual* priorities and self interests versus *group* goals and tightly integrated relationships (Hofstede, 1983). Malaysia is a fast-developing country in South-East Asia. Unfortunately, youth here are experiencing decreased traditional support systems, in a society in danger of shifting away from its relational culture that has traditionally helped nurture the young (Economic Planning Unit Malaysia, 2006; Stewart, Bond, McBride-Chang, Fielding, Deeds, & Westrick, 1998). Youth in Malaysia presently face increased vulnerabilities and problem behaviors such as delinquency and substance use (Koh, 2006; Naing, Zulkifli, Razlan, Farique, Haslan, & Mohd Hilmi, 2004; WHO Global Status Report on Alcohol, 2004).

Measurement challenges of PYD in international work. Current multi-dimensional models of PYD require further work in measurement and in international research, toward the goal of having psychometrically rigorous and culturally appropriate PYD instruments to assess youth development (Moore et al., 2004). A key way to begin is to have PYD constructs clearly conceptualized and defined (Damon, 2004). Subsequently, it is necessary to establish the reliability and empirical reality of the theory-based constructs. When conducting research with cultural groups or international populations that differ from the initial population for which an instrument or a program was developed, it is necessary to consider issues of measurement equivalence, instrument adaptation and validity, and an awareness of cultural influences (Geisinger, 1994; Hofstede, 1983; Lopez et al., 2002; Mattis, 2002; Roosa et al., 2002; Triandis, 1999). This study contributes to this process by testing the factorial structure and scale properties of a multi-dimensional PYD instrument in a non-US culture.

Aims of the Current Study

This study investigated the factor structure of a PYD measure, and assessed current levels of PYD in an urban Malaysian sample. Specifically, the current study: 1) examined the factor structure of the ARCCADE Youth Survey, a PYD instrument hypothesized to have a five-factor structure corresponding to the Five Cs of positive development; 2) tested the measurement invariance of its final factor structure across gender; 3) described levels of positive youth development using the Five Cs, and tested for differences by gender and socio-economic status.

Four hypotheses tested in this study were: 1) Compared to competing measurement models tested, a five-factor model corresponding to the Five Cs PYD theoretical framework will be empirically supported and will better fit the data; 2) The factor structure of the final measurement model will be invariant across gender; 3) Girls are expected to report significantly higher levels of Caring, compared to boys; and 4) Adolescents from higher SES are expected to report higher scores on Connections.

METHOD

Dataset and Participants

This study used secondary data from the pre-intervention assessment of the Mentoring Malaysia pilot project, an after-school Positive Youth Development program designed to build the Five Cs of positive development and reduce problem behaviors among Secondary 1 and 2 adolescents (13 and 14-year-olds) (Gomez & Ang, 2007)[1]. Three public schools participated in Mentoring Malaysia: an all boys school, an all girls school and a mixed-gender school[2]. A total of 1,484 adolescents out of a possible 1587

students completed an in-class survey, equivalent to a 93% participation rate. Non-participants were either absent from school on the day of the survey (4.6%), had changed schools (1.1%), or were involved in a school activity (e.g., band practice, athletics, event rehearsal) during the time of survey administration (0.8%). In the present study, participants comprised 35 % Malay, 38 % Chinese, and 24 % Indians, the three main ethnicities in West Malaysia, in addition to 2.7% from other races[3]. Fifty one percent of participants were male and 49% were in Secondary 1.

Procedures

Data were collected through the 298-item *ARCCADE Youth Survey*, an adolescent self-report instrument. Official permission was acquired from the Malaysian Ministry of Education, Selangor State Education Department, and the Federal Territory Kuala Lumpur's Education Department. Schools then provided consent for the surveys to be administered to students, and students' assent was acquired prior to taking the survey. Secondary 1 and 2 students in all three schools completed the paper and pencil surveys in their classrooms. Students took an average of two class periods (in total 70 minutes) to complete the survey. Surveys were administered by trained research assistants who were supervised by ARCCADE staff. Survey administrators were fluent in Malay and English, and some were also conversant in a third language or dialect (e.g., Mandarin, Tamil, Cantonese).

The Five Cs Measure

Table 1-2 summarizes the twelve PYD scales used in this study, with descriptive statistics, internal consistency values, and source of measures. Caring comprised two

scales, *empathy* and *social concern*; Character was operationalized through *values of integrity* and *honesty*; Competence was indexed by *social skills* and *stress management*; Confidence comprised *global self-worth*, *self-esteem*, and *optimistic identity*; and Connections referenced *close relationships with parents* and *positive peer support*. Seventy five percent of these scales had Cronbach alpha values above 0.70, indicating acceptable evidence of instrument reliability (see Table 1-2).

Instrument development. In developing the ARCCADE Youth Survey, constructs most relevant to the PYD Five Cs dimensions were ascertained, guided primarily by existing literature. Next, scales that fit these constructs were identified (e.g., personal values, empathy), and the relevant instruments acquired. Scales were selected by examining reported reliability values (Cronbach's alpha), and where applicable the factor loadings of items. Once the final draft of survey items was compiled, checks were conducted to ensure items were not repeated across scales, and several items were reworded to better suit the local cultural context and language.

Translation into the Malay language. Since all public schools use Malay as the medium of instruction and it is sufficiently understood by all Malaysian students, the entire survey was translated into the Malay language. A multi-step approach is recommended when instruments are translated for cross-cultural research: involving a forward translation, back-translation by independent experts, synthesis and review of the instrument after each of these steps to resolve disparities in translation, followed by piloting of the instrument, and analysis of instrument reliability and validity (Acquadro, Conway, Hareendran, Aaronson & ERIQA, 2008; World Health Organization / WHO, 2007; Hsueh, Phillips, Cheng, & Picot, 2005)[4]. In this study, translation was undertaken

by two bi-lingual Psychology undergraduates from a local University. Both undergraduates spoke and wrote fluently in Malay and English. *Dewan Bahasa and Pustaka*, the Malaysian Institute of Language and Literature, is the Malaysian authority on the Malay language and publishes a comprehensive English-Malay dictionary which was used as a primary translation reference by all translators (Dewan Bahasa & Pustaka, 2002).

Verification by Expert panel. Once the survey items were translated by the undergraduates, an expert panel consisting of two other bi-lingual Malaysians independently examined every item to ensure the translation and its back-translated version corresponded with the original English item. This instrument review process addressed key critiques of a formal back-translation, as it enabled the use of optimal Malay words which matched the original item content, and words that were most appropriate culturally (Geisinger, 1994; Mallinckrodt & Wang, 2004; Pena, 2007; van Widenfelt, Treffers, Beurs, Siebelink, & Koudijs, 2005). Members of this panel were native English speakers with over 16 years of Malay education, and each had over 7 years of graduate training in psychology, assessment, and quantitative methods for instrument development. For items where translation disagreements occurred, the panel reviewed the original item, discussed alternatives, and reached consensus on a final translation.

The final version of the instrument adhered to the following four principles: semantic equivalence, content equivalence, experiential equivalence, and metric equivalence. *Semantic equivalence* was maintained, in that specific words of the Malay survey were synonymous with the original item in English (Acquadro et al., 2008; Mallinckrodt & Wang, 2004). There was avoidance of *item bias,* as the translated Malay

items match the original English ones in meaning, intensity, and content (van de Vijver & Hambleton, 1996). For example, when the item “have you helped a classmate with homework?” is literally translated in Malay and then back-translated, it would mean “have you helped a classmate do his homework?” In order to adhere to the original item, the item in Malay reads “have you helped a classmate better understand homework?”

Secondly, the translated instrument maintained *conceptual* and *cultural equivalence,* or *content equivalence* (Hsueh et al., 2005; Pena, 2007; Vinokurov et al., 2007). When instruments are used in a different culture, researchers need to ensure that the concept explored is valid in that context (Vinokurov et al., 2007). A formal back-translation is not sufficient to ensure this element of cross-cultural equivalence is acquired (Mallinckrodt & Wang, 2004; Pena, 2007). One example is the item “How often do you do your chores?” from the Self-management scale (Flay, 2004). The term “chores” is an unfamiliar concept or word for a majority of Malaysians, but cleaning one’s own bedroom is frequently expected of teenagers. Therefore the item in the ARCCADE Youth Survey was revised to “How often do you clean your bedroom?”

The third principle is *experiential equivalence*, whereby items referring to specific scenarios which are unlikely or do not occur in the Malaysian context, were adapted in order to provide a more familiar local scenario. Two examples are: “have you offered to look after a neighbor’s pets or small children, without being paid for it?”, and “have you helped carry things for someone you didn’t know?” (Battistich 2000a, Altruism scale). Only the second item was retained in the ARCCADE Youth Survey, and was adapted to “have you helped when the teacher was carrying a big pile of books alone?” as this is a realistic scenario Malaysian teenagers encounter and where they could offer help.

Metric equivalence denotes that response options are scored equivalently in the original and new cultural context (Vinokurov et al., 2007). Words such as *occasionally, often,* and *somewhat* are vague when translated into Malay, and do not provide sufficient contrast between response options. For instance, in Malay the translated word for *occasionally* is 'kadang-kadang', which also means *sometimes*. To address this, a four-point Likert-type response option was used consistently across the ARCCADE survey, and 'extreme anchors' (Vinokurov et al., 2007) were provided for the first and fourth responses, specifically, *Never* and *Always*.

Original scale:	Never, Rarely, Sometimes, Often, Always Never, Occasionally, Sometimes, Usually, Always
Revised scale:	Never/ Almost never, Rarely, Sometimes, Always/ Almost always (In Malay: Tiada/ Hampir tiada, Jarang, Kadang-kadang, Selalu/ Hampir selalu)

Lastly, all survey items were constructed in short, simple and concise sentences, in the active voice, without technical jargon, and age-appropriate for adolescents in lower secondary level (W.H.O., 2007; van de Vijver & Hambleton, 1996).

Correlations among the 12 PYD scales are presented in Table 1-3, where in general, correlation of scales across dimensions did not exceed 0.50. Correlations among the Five Cs dimensions are also presented in Table 1-3.

Demographic variables

Socio-economic status (SES). Youth reports of their father and mother education levels, were the two indicators of SES. On a scale from 1 to 7, youth reported the education level of each parent (1 = primary school; 7 = post graduate degree). Following

SES categories frequently used in adolescent research, and to enable later tests of group differences, parents' education was recoded into three categories: SES 1 = Less than Secondary 5 (equivalent to less than high school in the US, or under 11 years of education); SES 2 = Some post high-school training ('SPM, Certificate, or 2-year Diploma,' in total 11 to 15 years of education), and SES 3 = University degree or more (16 or more years of education).

Ethnicity. Adolescents reported their race or ethnic background through a single item. Based on the major ethnic groups, race is recoded into four categories, Malay, Chinese, Indian, and Other races (comprising Ceylonese, Eurasian, Native or 'Orang Asli', and Mixed or others).

Data Analyses

Data analyses corresponded to the goals of this study: 1) to examine the factor structure of the PYD instrument used and gender invariance of the measurement model; and 2) to assess levels of the Five Cs in Malaysian adolescents.

Factor structure. First, I examined the factor structure of the PYD measure. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) through structural equation modeling (SEM) was performed using the Amos 16.0 software (Arbuckle, 2007). I initially tested a hypothesized model with five latent factors representing the Five Cs, and 12 observed indicators. I subsequently tested three alternative models guided by prior Five Cs empirical research. All models were evaluated using key indices of model fit: normed comparative fit index (CFI), Bentler-Bonet Normed Fit Index (NFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the Aikaike information criterion (AIC). CFI, and

NFI values close to 1 would indicate a very good fit, while values in the range of 0.95 or higher indicate good model fit (Bentler, 1990; Bentler & Bonett, 1980). RMSEA, which measures fit per degrees of freedom, of 0.08 or lower indicate a reasonable fit, while 0.05 or lower indicate a close fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The AIC enables comparisons across two or more non-nested models. Lower AIC values represent more parsimonious or better models (Arbuckle, 2007). In addition, pathways between variables in the measurement models would be statistically significant, when such relationships are supported by the data.

Measurement invariance across gender. Once a best-fitting model was identified, the second step in the analysis plan was to test the ability of the PYD instrument to assess constructs in a comparable manner for both boys and girls. Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted in Amos 16.0, and increasingly stringent degrees of invariance from *Weak* to *Strict* were investigated based on criteria specified by Meredith (1993) and Hofer (1999). First, two groups were specified (i.e., male and female adolescents). Starting with a baseline or unconstrained model, all the parameters in the model were allowed to differ across gender. Next, factor loadings or regression weights were constrained to be equal for boys and girls, a test for weak factor invariance. Thirdly, the strong measurement invariance model was executed, to examine the equivalence of mean intercepts and factor loadings between the groups. Fourth, the strict measurement invariance model was tested with factor loadings, intercepts, and variance estimates or residual variances constrained to be equal for both groups. The three models are compared with the baseline, based on model fit indices (i.e., CFI, NFI, RMSEA). If the final PYD model applies equally well

to boys and girls, the model's fit indices would be in the range of 0.95 and above for each test level.

Describing levels of the Five Cs. A series of analysis were conducted to report current levels of PYD among adolescents in this urban Asian context. Composite scores were created using the mean of corresponding PYD subscales for each of the Five Cs. For example, Caring was the average of youths' empathy and social concern scores. Subsequently, t-tests and analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used to investigate differences across socio-economic status and gender. This analysis served as tests of the study's third and fourth hypotheses.

RESULTS

Identifying an admissible factor structure

The initial hypothesized Five Cs model of PYD (Model 1-A, see Table 1-4) was not statistically admissible, and exploratory analysis was required to identify an alternative measurement model. This step was necessary before core analyses could commence. Table 1-4 compares the hypothesized model and the new revised model (Model 1-B) which resulted.

Model 1-A. This proposed Five Cs model was inadmissible because the correlation matrix of residual errors was 'not positive definite'. A common reason behind a non-positive definite matrix is multi-collinearity, when two very strongly correlated variables are seen as 'representing the same underlying construct' (Bryne, 2001). Correlations greater than 1 were noted between the dimensions of Character and Connections, and between Character and Competence. Three high correlations for scales

across dimensions likely contributed to the inadmissible solution: between the Respect and Connection with Parents (r = 0.50) scales from Character and Connections; between Respect and Self- management (r = 0.47), and between Positive values and Decision-making (r = 0.55) from Character and Competence respectively.

Model 1-B. Subsequently, exploratory analysis was conducted on a randomly generated pilot sample comprising 50% of all cases (Sample 1, N=732). Numerous models were tested to identify an alternative, error-free, and best-fitting model for the data. Strategies included: starting with only *two* latent factors and then testing three- and four- factor models, reorganizing the location of scales (e.g., placing Respect under Connections), systematically excluding PYD subscales (i.e., Decision-making and Self-management), as well as finally including a new PYD subscale from the dataset into the model (i.e., Stress management, placed under Competence). Through these steps, a best-fitting model was identified using SEM, with χ^2 = 217.0 (df = 44, p < .001), CFI = 0.940, NFI = 0.927, and RMSEA = 0.073 that consisted of five dimensions. This admissible Five Cs model was subsequently verified using the second half of the dataset or the validation sample (Sample 2, N=747). SEM results were encouraging, χ^2 = 205.0 (df = 44, p < .001), CFI = 0.947, NFI = 0.935, and RMSEA = 0.070. Table 1-4 lists the PYD indicators in the original hypothesized model, and this revised Five Cs model.

The factor structure of the PYD instrument

Model fit results for Model 1-B. The revised five- factor model was tested using the full sample. Results were similar to analyses from the two partial samples, with χ^2 = 373.9, df = 44, p < .001; CFI = 0.944, NFI = 0.938; RMSEA = 0.071, and AIC = 465.9,

illustrating that Model 1-B had adequate to good fit. Additionally, all hypothesized pathways in this revised Five Cs model were significant. Standardized factor loadings ranged from 0.52 to 0.82 (see Figure 1-1). The five latent dimensions were correlated between 0.56 (Character and Confidence) to 0.82 (Competence and Confidence).

That correlations between the latent variables were high (i.e., above 0.70) and statistically significant, suggested that all Five Cs could be summarized under a single PYD construct. At the same time, results did not negate that the five dimensions may be distinct. Therefore, two competing plausible models were tested (i.e., Model 2 and 3, see Figures 1-2 and 1-3).

Model 2, a two-level PYD model. Model 2 is a two-level model with a second-order PYD latent variable (LV-PYD). Empirical support was found for such a two-level model for U.S. adolescents (Lerner et al., 2005). Standardized regressions which link the Five Cs to the twelve PYD indicators, and factor loadings between first-order and second-order latent factors are presented in Figure 1-2. This two-level model showed adequate fit (see Table 1-5), and indicates empirical support for a two-level PYD measurement model. But the fit indices of Model 2, especially χ^2, RMSEA, and AIC, suggest a poorer fit compared to Model 1-B.

Model 3, with a single PYD dimension. A third model was tested, where all PYD scales load directly onto a single latent LV-PYD construct, rather than onto the five distinct dimensions (see Figure 1-3). This uni-dimensional model had a poorer fit compared to Models 1-B and 2. As shown in Table 1-5, the CFI was much lower, and the chi-square and AIC values were much higher that either of the other two models.

From the three competing models tested, Model 1-B, a five-factor structure that corresponded to the Five Cs best fit the current PYD data. Findings lend support for a single level five-factor measurement structure for the PYD instrument.

Gender invariance of the factor structure

Structural equivalence of the final model (Model 1-B, in Figure 1-1) across gender was explored using guidelines by Meredith (1993) and Hofer (1999). Four steps of nested hierarchical tests of invariance were conducted: baseline, weak, strong, and strict. Starting with constraining factor loadings to be equal for boys and girls, constraints were added on the strong (i.e., intercepts), and strict models (i.e., variances). Results showed that weak measurement invariance was achieved across gender, that is, the 12 PYD factor loadings in boys were proportionally equivalent to the corresponding factor loadings in girls (see Table 1-6).

In the baseline model, factor loadings were all significant, and standardized regression weights for boys ranged from 0.67 to 0.71 for Caring, from 0.63 to 0.81 for Character, from 0.62 to 0.85 for Competence, from 0.68 to 0.82 for Confidence, and from 0.55 to 0.70 for Connections (Figure 1-4). For girls, standardized loadings in the baseline model ranged from 0.61 to 0.63 for Caring, from 0.55 to 0.83 for Character, from 0.63 to 0.68 for Competence, from 0.71 to 0.80 for Confidence, and from 0.48 to 0.68 for Connections (Figure 1-5). That these factor loadings could be constrained to be equal for both boys and girls, provides “a basis for unambiguous comparison” of the Five Cs across gender (Hofer, 1999 p37).

Measuring PYD using the above Five Cs factor structure, and examining differences in Gender and SES

Composite scores of Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections were created. Mean scores on the five dimensions ranged from 2.93 to 3.18 (see Table 1-7). As each item for the PYD constructs had four possible response options, mean scores for all scales ranged from 1 (representing None/ almost none) to 4 (Always/ almost always). These scores indicate that on average, youths agree that a particular positive dimension is present and is experienced in their lives.

The Five Cs across Gender. As predicted, girls (M = 3.21, SD = 0.47) reported significantly higher levels of Caring than boys (M = 3.00, SD = 0.54), t (1468) = -7.85, p < 0.001. Interestingly, girls also reported significantly higher Character (t = -2.97, p < 0.05) and Connections (t = -2.21, p < 0.05, see Table 1-7). Confidence was the only dimension where boys (M = 3.05, SD = 0.46) reported significantly higher levels compared to girls (M = 2.99, SD = 0.46), t = 2.39, p < 0.05.

The Five Cs across SES. In general, adolescents' positive development differed according to socio-economic status as indexed by father's and mother's education.

Father's education. Fifty percent of adolescents had fathers without a high school education, 42% of fathers had some education beyond high school, and the remainder had a college degree or higher. Father's education was positively associated with adolescent PYD scores, in that youth whose fathers had more education generally are reporting higher scores on the Five C dimensions. Adolescents whose fathers did not complete Secondary 5 education (under 11 years in school or 'less than high school') had significantly lower levels of Competence, (p < 0.01), Confidence (p < 0.01), and

Character ($p < 0.05$), in addition to approaching significantly lower values of Connections ($p < 0.06$); when compared with adolescents whose fathers had a college degree or higher (see Table 1-8). Adolescents at the lowest level of paternal education also reported significantly lower Competence and Confidence levels compared to their peers whose fathers had completed Secondary 5 or had some post-secondary education (i.e., Certificate or 2-year Diploma). Although moderately limited by missing data due to adolescents not knowing their parents' education levels, results indicate father's attained education is related to significantly different scores on four positive dimensions, with the exception of Caring where differences across SES levels are not significant.

Mother's education. Maternal education levels were associated with fewer dimensions of positive youth development. A majority of adolescents (87%) reported that their mothers had less than a college degree. In the present study, youth in the lowest SES group (mothers with less than Secondary 5 education) reported significantly lower Confidence ($p < 0.05$) and marginally lower levels of Competence ($p < 0.06$), compared to youth whose mothers' had competed Secondary 5 or had some post-secondary qualification lesser than a degree (see Table 1-8). This first group also reported lower levels of Character when compared with the group whose mothers had the most education, but this difference was not significant ($p < 0.08$).

DISCUSSION

The Five Cs model for wellness is multi-dimensional and inclusive of key areas of PYD (Pittman et al., 2003). Achieving good fit in the data through Model 1-B meant the

Five C measurement model was empirically supported, and the study's primary aim was attained. This five-factor measurement structure was also gender invariant, allowing for gender comparisons. Lerner also found empirical support for a five-factor structure of PYD, though with different measures and scales, and with a higher order latent factor (Lerner et al., 2005). Model 1-B remained the best-fitting model for the present data on urban Asian youth compared to the competing PYD models tested. A two-level PYD model where the Five Cs were represented by a higher-order latent PYD factor (Model 2) that was similar to Lerner's structure was found to have some support or acceptable model fit. A third model with a *single* PYD factor structure (Model 3) was tested, because the high correlation values among the Five Cs suggested dimensions could be collapsed. The poorer model fit indices proved Model 3 was statistically inferior to Model 1-B, as was Model 2.

One important implication here is that organizations such as The World Health Organization or groups conducting international comparative studies may find a single latent PYD factor an attractive measure for ease in cross-cultural comparisons. Even so, such a construct is less descriptive and does not illustrate *different* aspects of development, as does the five Cs. Youths' lives are multi-faceted in nature, thus multi-dimensional measures are still more valuable for researchers and practitioners. For example, having a single measure which tells us a youth "has PYD" provides a general overview but is incomplete, as we lack specific information about youths' Character, Confidence, areas of Competence, or the presence of Connections and supportive relationships in their life. In implementing PYD or other interventions, multi-dimensional

measures enable the assessment of specific program components, which can inform us about mediators and factors contributing toward overall program effectiveness.

The five latent constructs (i.e., the Five Cs) were well represented by the twelve PYD scales in Model 1-B, as factor loadings of scales onto respective dimensions were generally high. These twelve scales had good internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha for most scales were between 0.70 to 0.85), and incorporated key positive dimensions and assets in adolescence (Scales & Leffert, 1999; CASEL, 2003). In moving from Model 1-A to 1-B, some changes were made to the scales. Respect for others was initially included under Character (Model 1-A), reflecting existing literature (Josephson Institute, 2006; Lickona, 1996; Lickona, 1991). SEM results, however, showed that this structure did not reflect the current data, as the dimensions Character and Connections were very highly correlated in Model 1-A; and the Respect scale was more appropriately included within Connections. Two reasons likely explain this. First, several of the items on the Respect scale directly referenced parents, and close *parent* relationships was a scale within Connections. Second, in more collectivist cultures where harmonious relationships and social hierarchy are emphasized such as in Malaysia, respect for parents, teachers, and others may be integral in youths' social relationships (Hofstede, 1983; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). As for Decision-making and Self-management, understandably, information was lost when these were excluded from the PYD model. For example, decision-making is important because analyzing a problem or situation then evaluating alternative actions reflects adolescents' cognitive development, increased reasoning, and logical thinking (CASEL, 2003; Catalano et al., 2004; Keating, 2004). Future research may want to examine how to include these scales within a PYD model, given their

importance both in the literature and for positive development. However, it would be necessary to ensure that items in both these scales are distinct from items in other scales to avoid cross-loadings between dimensions, and thus issues of multi-collinearity.

Emphasizing the role of Culture in PYD instrument development

This study adds to the current PYD literature by highlighting the importance of culturally sensitive measures in international studies. It is important to avoid importing a measure in its entirety from one country into another without first examining whether it is culturally suitable, since various cultural factors may lead to biases, and affect instrument reliability and validity (e.g., Mattis, 2002; Roosa et al., 2002; Triandis, 1999). For example, in instances where original item phrases or examples may not be understood, such items need to be adapted to accurately match local realities experienced by youth, as were the instruments used in this study. Such steps which include language translation and adaptation minimize item and construct bias (Van de Vijver & Hambleton, 1996). In addition, culturally valued indicators need to be included within the Five Cs measurement model (e.g., respect for others, in cultures that emphasize relatedness). Thus, this study provides preliminary data which can guide subsequent international cross-cultural PYD studies. It is a first step to assess PYD in this cultural context through an instrument based on the Five Cs framework, and designed to best tap into positive dimensions experienced by youth in Malaysia.

As different groups across the globe engage in PYD instrument development, this inevitably will result in different measurement models (though based on the Five Cs theoretical framework) given specific research aims or the cultural context. For example

in the present study, *empathy* and *social concern* tapped into affective and cognitive elements of Caring; while the study by Lerner and colleagues (2005) indexed Caring using items on sympathy. Consequently in interpreting PYD studies, we should take into consideration such differences in the measurement model, or at the scale level.

When researchers start from a common theoretical framework (e.g., the Five Cs), and agreement is met that a particular measure sufficiently captures PYD in its cultural context, we would then be better able to compare PYD constructs cross-culturally, starting with general comparisons at the dimensional level. Restated, the development of measurement models conforming to the Five Cs framework allows us to examine PYD constructs across cultures. Therefore in a limited way, this study already enables broad comparisons to be made between youth in the U.S. and Malaysia. Specifically, the present study has demonstrated that positive dimensions corresponding to the Five Cs framework have been empirically supported within in a five-factor measurement model, and that Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections were assessed across gender and different SES levels in this Asian sample.

The empirical support and measurement invariance of the present Five Cs measurement model, together with the successful assessment of PYD among Malaysian youth, provides preliminary work on understanding positive development and PYD measurement beyond the United States. As researchers conduct international cross-cultural measurement studies of PYD or cross-cultural comparative studies, international discussions are crucial; for example regarding using similar measures, or a combination of common and culturally appropriate indicators. Groups may strive for a balance between adopting scales validated in the U.S., and emphasizing measures developed

specifically for a region. In instances where a construct has been validated in both contexts, such a measure would be ideal in international PYD comparative studies.

Assessing the Five Cs in male and female Malaysian adolescents

This study is one of the first international studies to assess the Five Cs in a non-Western context. On average, Malaysian adolescents reported the presence of the Five Cs in their lives, providing an optimistic overview that positive development is occurring for these youth (see Table 1-7). When boys and girls were compared, significant gender differences were found in four dimensions. First, as hypothesized, girls reported significantly higher levels of Caring compared to boys, indicating greater empathy and concern for others. Western studies report similar gender differences where females were higher on empathy (Eisenberg & Lennon, 1983; Davis, 1983). The literature suggests girls continue to report higher levels of Caring through middle school, high school, and college (Davis, 1983; Eisenberg, 2003; Eisenberg & Lennon, 1983; Karniol et al., 2003). Second, boys scored higher than girls in Confidence. These findings are consistent with meta-analysis research using nationally representative U.S. datasets (Kling, Hyde, Showers, & Buswell, 1999). Higher self-esteem was consistently reported by male youth aged 11 to 18 across different studies, although actual effect sizes were not very large (d = 0.23 among adolescents aged 11 to 14, and d = 0.33 in high school) (Kling et al., 1999). In different communities across Asia, boys continue to enjoy a higher status and gender preference, possibly explaining boys' higher self-worth and self-esteem (Belanger, 2002; Chung & Das Gupta, 2007; Das Gupta, Zhenghua, Bohua, Zehnming, Chung, et al., 2002). One study revealed that the Malaysian society has a slightly greater emphasis on

masculinity compared to the United States, wherein traits such as showing off, performing, and achieving something visible is important for boys (Hofstede, 1983). In regards to girls, it would be interesting to explore if urban Asian girls are experiencing similar developmental issues as their Western counterparts, such as negative body image, which could be influencing confidence.

CONCLUSION

There are several limitations in the present study. Firstly, data were collected only from adolescents, and therefore triangulation or convergence of multiple reports could not be done. Multiple reporters provide more information against which this measure could be structurally validated. Second, although the Five Cs was the best measurement model for the current data, it is not necessarily *the* best PYD model. This is because the current measure with its set of constructs and items, is not purported to be an all-encompassing model which includes *every* promising PYD indicator. Construct saturation was not the objective, and moreover, the length of such an instrument would be overly burdensome for adolescents. A third limitation is generalizability, as findings are primarily applicable to youth in Malaysia.

Future research should include longitudinal studies examining the Five Cs over time, the application of findings into youth interventions, and further validation of PYD constructs. The present measurement model can be tested in other similar urban Asian contexts, such as in Singapore whose population includes individuals of Chinese, Malay, and Indian ethnicity (statistics from 2000 Census of Population indicate Singaporeans consist of 77% Chinese, 14% Malay, 8% Indian, and 1% others). Longitudinal studies are

needed to investigate the stability of these positive dimensions as adolescents move through their secondary school years. Research on developmental assets shows that males and females in high school report lower levels of assets, compared to youth in grades 6 to 8 (Leffert, Benson, Scles, Sharma, Drake, & Blyth, 1998). Of interest also would be to see whether girls maintain the higher levels of Caring, Competence, and Connections, and boys their higher Confidence levels.

Two aspects of construct validity important to test in future studies are *content validity* and *criterion-related validity*. Content validity refers to the extent to which a measure accurately represents, and is relevant to the construct it assesses; this is evaluated by examining the relationship of new scales to other theoretically related constructs (Haynes, Richards, & Kubany, 1995; Shek, 2006; Wasserman & Bracken, 2003). This aspect of validation will be addressed in Chapter 2, which will examine whether these PYD constructs strongly and positively correlate with behaviors supported in literature (i.e., youth positive functioning), and negatively correlate to problem behaviors. Another aspect of construct validity, *criterion-related validity* is tested by simultaneously administering a new instrument (e.g., a depression scale), with a psychometrically established assessment tool that measures the same construct (e.g., Beck's Depression Inventory) to one group of individuals. Future research can establish the cross-validation of PYD constructs. Currently, there is no 'gold standard' PYD measure, and this poses a challenge as few positive indicators have reached levels widely accepted by a majority of researchers, practitioners, and professionals in the field. Agreement occurs even less frequently *across* the different fields that study adolescent behavior, namely psychology, education, human development, sociology. Nevertheless,

as research on positive indicators continues to expand, the prospects of moving beyond face validity of PYD measures toward establishing good construct validity are bright for both U.S. and Asian populations.

In conclusion, this study demonstrated empirical support for a Five Cs measurement model in Malaysia, and indicated the model was invariant across gender. The current measure shows good scale-level reliability, face validity, and substantive validity (construct validity of the current PYD instrument, given that its formulation was based upon a theoretical framework) (Wasserman & Bracken, 2003). This study informs future research on positive youth development in Asia, potentially guides intervention programming and local policy in Malaysia, and provides impetus for international cross-cultural comparisons.

Endnotes for Chapter 1

1. The dataset was provided by the Director of the Asian Research Center for Child & Adolescent Development (ARCCADE) with all participant identifying information removed. This study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of The Pennsylvania State University (Appendix A).

2. Schools were selected by researchers based on several criteria: (a) school counselors and principals who responded to an invitation to attend a 'Managing Teens Today' forum, sent to schools in the Klang Valley by the State Departments of Education and the research team, (b) at the initial forum, school personnel expressed interest to participate in the intervention, (c) schools that served average to below-average SES communities, (d) schools had a good representation of the three key ethnic groups in the region, (e) interviews conducted with school leaders and school personnel to determine school needs and available support, (f) that no existing similar interventions were present, and (g) accessibility of the school from the university.

3. The sample's ethnic distribution approximates that of the Klang Valley: Selangor (54% Malay, 31% Chinese, 15% Indian) and the federal territory of Kuala Lumpur (44% Malay, 44% Chinese, 11% Indian).

4. Groups of researchers differ in specific steps outlined for cross-cultural translations, or in the prioritization of particular steps and processes (Vinokurov, Geller, & Martin, 2007; Wang, Lee, & Fetzer, 2006; W.H.O., 2007). No empirical evidence favored one technique over another, although a multi-step translation process results in more accurate translations (Acquadro et al., 2008).

TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 1-1

The Five Cs PYD Framework, and Corresponding Positive Indicators from Developmental Assets, Positive Psychology, and Adolescent Research.

The Five C's and **The current PYD Instrument**	**Developmental Assets** (Scales & Leffert, 1999; Theokas et al., 2005)	**Social- Emotional Learning** (CASEL, 2003)	**Positive Psychology, Character Virtues** (Peterson & Seligman, 2004)	**Youth Research**
CARING Empathy (Perspective-taking) Social Concern	Caring Values helping others Social conscience Equality and social justice	Social awareness (Sensing others feelings) Able to take others' perspective Social awareness	Love/ Humanity Ability to love and be loved Kindness, Generosity, Nurturance Justice Citizenship Equity, fairness	Empathy (Eisenberg & Fabes, 1990) Perspective taking (Davis, 1983; Barber, 2003) Concern for others (Battistich, 2000) Prosocial behaviors (Eisenberg et al., 2006)
CHARACTER Values: Integrity and Honesty	Integrity Honesty Responsibility [P. Values] Restraint [Positive values]		Courage Integrity, Honesty, Authenticity	Moral values, Moral reasoning, Prosocial norms (Berkowitz, 2004; Grusec, 2006; Lickona, 1996)

Table 1-1 (continued)

The Five Cs PYD Framework and Related Positive Indicators

The current Five Cs instrument	**Developmental Assets**	**Social- Emotional Learning**	**Positive Psychology Character Virtues**	**Youth Research**
COMPETENCE		Relationship skills; Social awareness;	Love/ Humanity	Social competence
Social competence	Interpersonal competence	(Interacting with diverse groups)	Social intelligence	(Bierman & Welsh, 1997; Catalano et al., 2004)
	Peaceful conflict resolution	Self-management (Handling emotions)	Emotional intelligence	Emotional competence (Buckley et al., 2003; Goleman, 1995)
Stress management			Temperance	
			Self-control, Self-regulation	Self-regulation (Masten & Coatsworth, 1998)
CONFIDENCE				
Self- worth		Self-confidence		Global self-worth (Harter, 1982; Marsh et al., 2004)
Self-esteem	Self-esteem	Self-awareness		Self-esteem (DuBois & Hirsch, 2000; Rosenberg et al., 1995)
Optimistic Identity	Positive Identity			Adolescent identity (Hart & Fegley, 1997; Steinberg, 2008)
	Sense of Purpose		Transcendence	Personal goals (Emmons, 2003)
	Positive view of personal future		Hope, Optimism, Future-mindedness	Optimism (Peterson, 2000)

Table 1-1 (continued)

The Five Cs PYD Framework and Related Positive Indicators

The Five Cs and **The current PYD instrument**	**Developmental Assets** (Scales & Leffert, 1999; Theokas et al., 2005)	**Social- Emotional Learning** (CASEL, 2003)	**Positive Psychology Character Virtues** (Peterson & Seligman, 2004)	**Youth Research**
CONNECTIONS				Parent acceptance (Khaleque & Rohner, 2002)
Parent Connections	Family support			
	Positive family communication [Support]			Parent-youth relationship (Collins & Laursen, 2004; Steinberg, 2001)
Peer Connections	Positive peer influence			Peer relationships (Brown, 2004; Smetana et al., 2006)
	(Peer) Resistance skills			
Respect			Transcendence Gratitude	Respect (Lickona, 1991; Josephson Inst., 2006)
(Values diversity)	Cultural competence Values diversity			

Table 1-2.

Descriptive Statistics and Reliability for PYD Scales

PYD Dimensions and Scales	Source / Reference	Number of Items	Mean	Std. Dev.	Cronbach's Alpha
CARING					
Empathy	California Healthy Kids survey, 2006; Barber, 2003; Davis, 1983; Theokas et al., 2005	6	2.98	0.65	0.84
Social concern	Battistich, 2000a; Theokas et al., 2005; Peterson & Seligman, 2004	6	3.22	0.56	0.78
CHARACTER					
Values of Integrity	Peterson & Seligman, 2004; Search Institute, 1996 / Theokas et al., 2005	6	2.98	0.54	0.68
Values of Honesty	Flay, 2004	3	3.24	0.57	0.56
COMPETENCE					
Social skills	California Healthy Kids, 2006; Harter, 1982; Theokas et al., 2005	7	3.08	0.48	0.73
Stress management	McNeal & Hansen, 1999	3	2.79	0.61	0.65
CONFIDENCE					
Global self-worth	Harter, 1982	6	3.07	0.56	0.82
Optimistic identity	Theokas et al., 2005	5	3.10	0.51	0.74
Self esteem	Harter, 1982; Rosenberg, 1965 MCAW, 2003	5	2.90	0.57	0.75
CONNECTIONS					
Parents	Theokas et al., 2005	7	3.27	0.62	0.85
Positive peer Connections	Battistich, 2000; MCAW, 2003; Harter, 1985a	4	3.02	0.70	0.76
Respect	Josephson Institute, 2002, 2006; Leary et al., 2005; Theokas et al., 2005	5	3.25	0.67	0.85

Table 1-3

Correlations Among PYD Scales and Correlations Among the Five Cs Composite Scores

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	Empathy	1											
2	Social concern	0.44	1										
3	Values: Integrity	0.44	0.35	1									
4	Values: Honesty	0.35	0.24	0.49	1								
5	Social skills	0.41	0.47	0.42	0.29	1							
6	Stress management	0.25	0.31	0.34	0.22	0.48	1						
7	Global self-worth	0.18	0.34	0.28	0.18	0.39	0.39	1					
8	Optimistic identity	0.33	0.44	0.39	0.27	0.52	0.42	0.57	1				
9	Self-esteem	0.31	0.38	0.37	0.27	0.47	0.44	0.55	0.60	1			
10	Connection Parents	0.19	0.29	0.40	0.29	0.37	0.28	0.40	0.35	0.44	1		
11	Positive peers	0.37	0.26	0.37	0.31	0.36	0.25	0.24	0.26	0.38	0.32	1	
12	Respect for others	0.24	0.35	0.35	0.26	0.36	0.28	0.34	0.42	0.44	0.50	0.29	1

	Caring	Character	Competence	Confidence	Connections
Caring	1				
Character	0.48	1			
Competence	0.48	0.42	1		
Confidence	0.45	0.40	0.59	1	
Connections	0.44	0.50	0.48	0.56	1

All correlations are significant at $p < 0.01$

Table 1-4

The Original Hypothesized and the Revised PYD Measurement Models

Original hypothesized Five Cs model (Model 1-A)		**Revised Five Cs model (Model 1-B)**	
Five Cs	PYD Indicators	Five Cs	PYD Indicators
CARING	Empathy Social concern	CARING	Empathy Social concern
CHARACTER	Positive values (comprising Integrity & Honesty subscales) Respect for others	CHARACTER	Integrity Honesty
COMPETENCE	Social skills Self- management Decision making	COMPETENCE	Social skills Stress management
CONFIDENCE	Global self-worth Self esteem Optimistic identity	CONFIDENCE	Global self-worth Self esteem Optimistic identity
CONNECTIONS	Connections to parents Connections to peers	CONNECTIONS	Connections to parents Connections to peers Respect for others

Table 1-5

Fit Indices from Structural Equation Modeling of Three Alternative Models Tested

Model	**Significance tests**	**Fit measures**				
	Chi^2 (df)	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA	AIC
Model 1-B (Five Cs, 1-level)	374 (44)	0.94	0.94	0.90	0.07	466
Model 2 (with LV-PYD, 2-levels)	473 (49)	0.93	0.92	0.89	0.08	555
Model 3 (Single PYD dimension)	949 (54)	0.85	0.84	0.78	0.11	1021

All Chi-square values are significant, $p < 0.01$

Table 1-6

Fit Indices of Measurement Models: Gender Invariance of the Five Cs Model

Model	χ^2	*df*	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA	AIC
Baseline (no constraints)	382	88	0.95	0.94	0.91	0.05	566
Weak	425	100	0.95	0.93	0.92	0.05	585
Strong	648	112	0.91	0.89	0.88	0.06	784
Strict	682	124	0.91	0.89	0.88	0.06	794

All Chi-square values are significant, $p < 0.01$

Table 1-7

The Five Cs in Malaysian Youth by Gender

	Whole sample		Boys		Girls	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Caring	3.10	0.52	3.00	0.54	3.21**	0.47
Character	3.11	0.48	3.07	0.49	3.15*	0.46
Competence	2.93	0.47	2.93	0.48	2.94	0.46
Confidence	3.02	0.46	3.05*	0.46	2.99	0.46
Connections	3.18	0.50	3.15	0.50	3.21*	0.50

Note * t-test shows significance at $p < 0.05$ for mean difference between boys and girls;
** t-test shows significance at $p < 0.01$

Table 1-8
Mean Values of The Five Cs in Malaysia by SES Levels (Parents' Education)

	Father's Education level				**Mother's Education level**			
	SES-1	SES-2	SES-3	Contrasts	SES-1	SES-2	SES-3	Contrasts
Caring	3.13 (0.51)	3.17 (0.52)	3.17 (0.49)	ns	3.13 (0.50)	3.17 (0.50)	3.10 (0.51)	ns
Character	3.12 (0.46)	3.13 (0.52)	3.24 (0.41)	SES 3 > SES 1 * SES 3 > SES 2 #	3.10 (0.48)	3.14 (0.49)	3.22 (0.44)	SES 3 > SES 1 #
Competence	2.89 (0.46)	2.98 (0.53)	3.04 (0.44)	SES 2 > SES 1 * SES 3 > SES 1 **	2.92 (0.45)	2.99 (0.49)	2.99 (0.46)	SES 2 > SES 1 #
Confidence	2.98 (0.47)	3.08 (0.47)	3.12 (0.47)	SES 2 > SES 1 * SES 3 > SES 1 **	2.99 (0.46)	3.07 (0.48)	3.08 (0.49)	SES 2 > SES 1 *
Connections	3.17 (0.50)	3.24 (0.51)	3.28 (0.49)	SES 3 > SES 1 #	3.19 (0.49)	3.22 (0.51)	3.22 (0.51)	ns
N	370	313	140		395	385	115	

Notes:

1. SES-1 = Less than Secondary 5 or high school (< 11 years of education)
   SES-2 = Some post high-school training (Between 11 – 15 years)
   SES-3 = University degree or more (16 or more years)
2. Standard deviation values are in parentheses.
3. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, # $p < .08$

Figure 1-1

Model 1-B: The Five Cs Factor Structure of the PYD Instrument

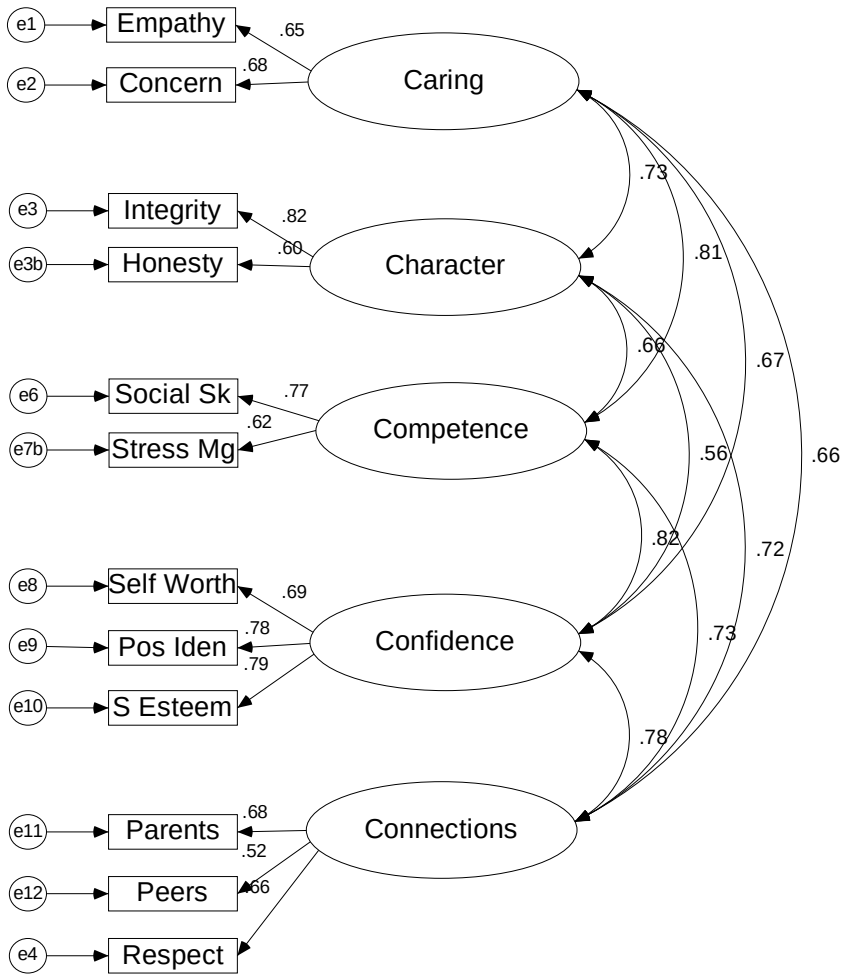


Figure 1-2

Model 2: A Two-level Model with Five Cs, and a Higher Order Latent Factor (LV-PYD)

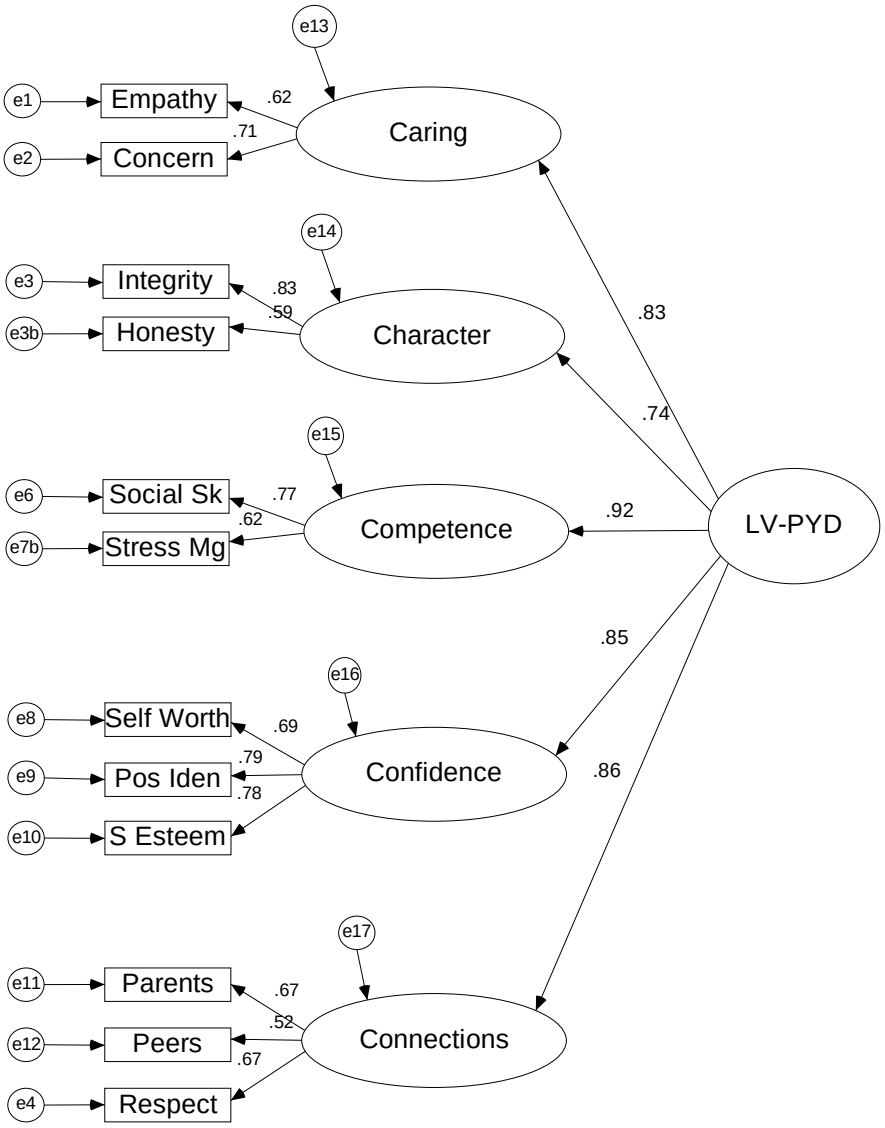


Figure 1-3

Model 3: A Uni-dimensional PYD Structure

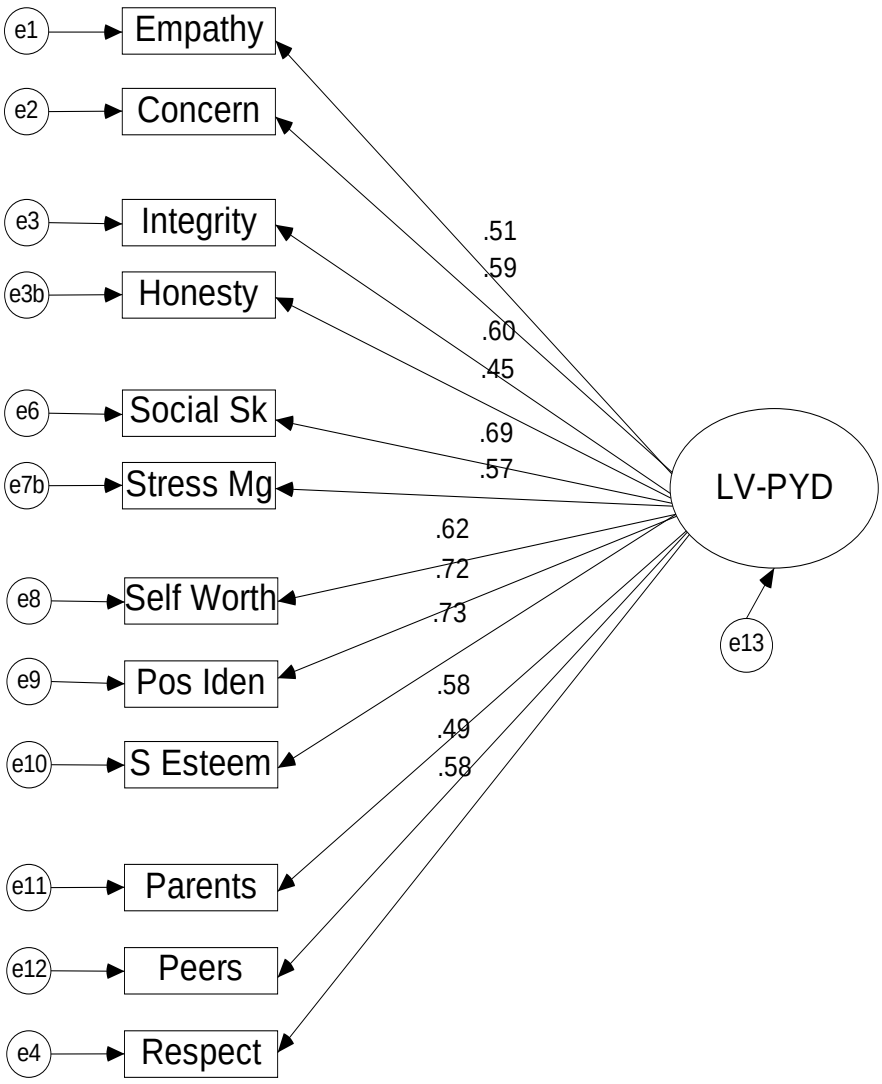


Figure 1-4

Gender Invariance Results: Baseline Model for Boys

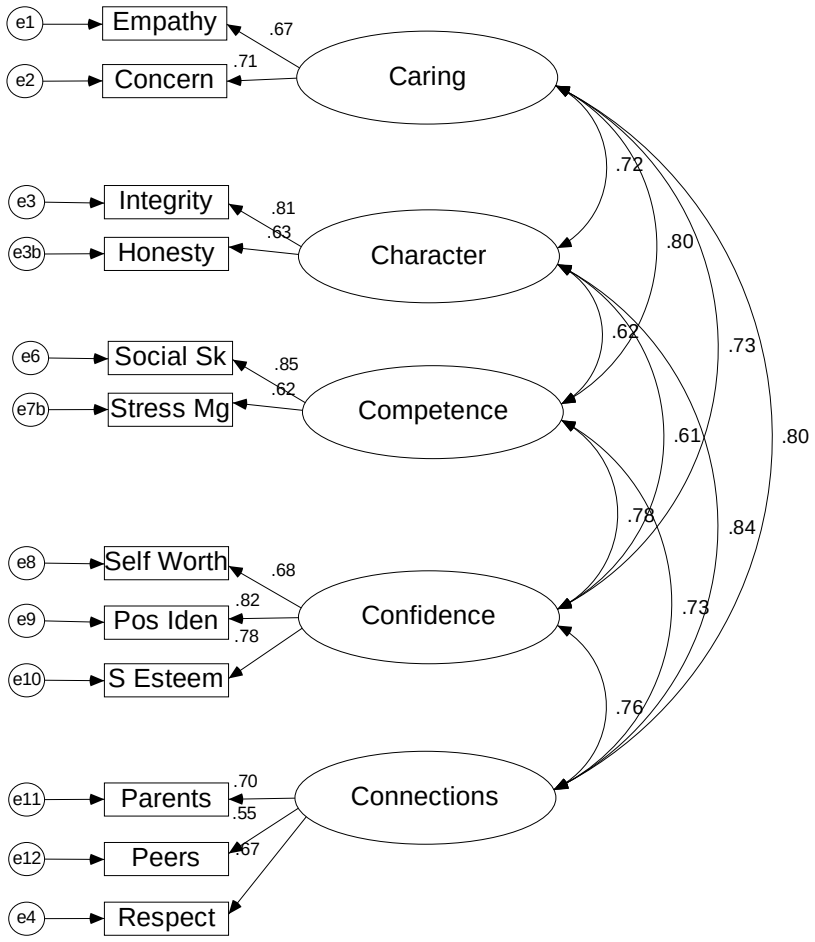
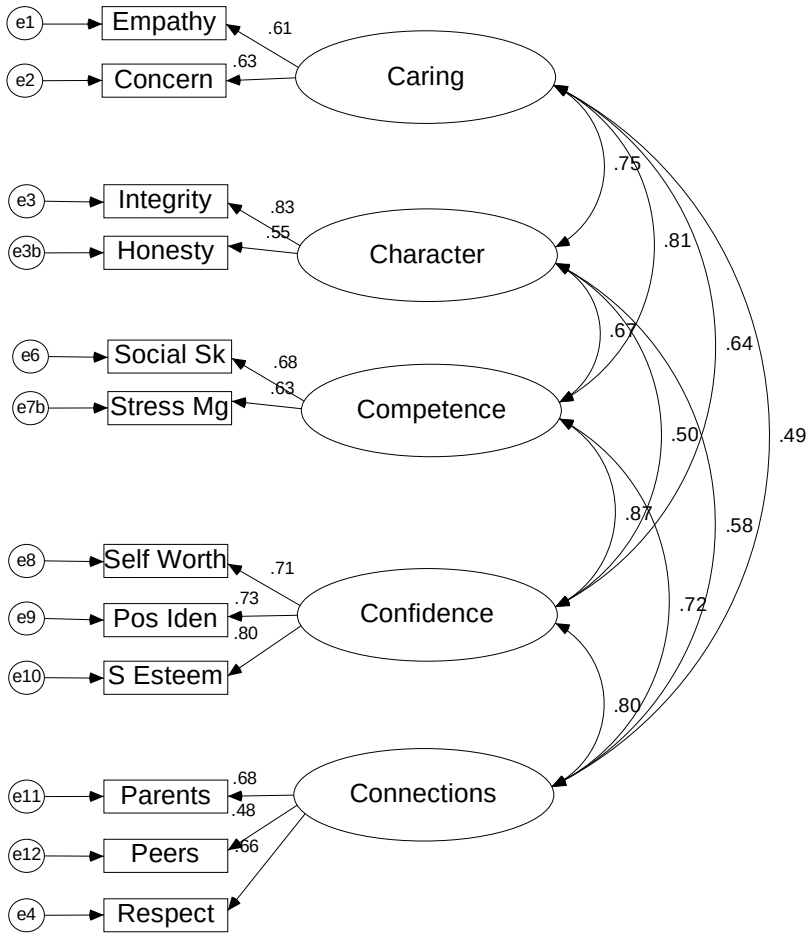


Figure 1-5

Gender Invariance Results: Baseline Model for Girls



Chapter 2

Positive Youth Development: Links with Prosocial Behaviors and Avoidance of Harmful Substances

Patricia M. Ang

The Pennsylvania State University

Correspondence should be addressed to: Patricia Ang, Department of Human Development & Family Studies, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park; *mua126@gmail.com*

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS: This research utilized secondary data from the Mentoring Malaysia intervention developed by the Asian Research Center for Child & Adolescent Development (ARCCADE), funded by the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) Malaysia, and implemented in cooperation with HELP University College, Malaysia.

ABSTRACT [Chapter 2]

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship of the Five Cs of Positive Youth Development (PYD) namely Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections, with positive functioning and with substance use. Participants were 1,470 adolescents in early secondary school from an urban Asian context. Univariate correlations showed each of the Five Cs was positively associated with prosocial Contribution and negatively associated with substance use. Boys reported significantly higher levels of smoking and drinking, while youth from higher SES backgrounds had higher Contribution scores. Taking into account gender and SES, hierarchical multiple linear regressions showed that Caring, Competence, Confidence, and Connections were significantly and positively associated with prosocial Contribution, and only Connections was significantly and negatively associated with smoking and alcohol use. The Five Cs explained 18% of the variance in Contribution and 3% to 4% of the variance in substance use. Findings support the application of this Five Cs framework beyond the United States, and the prospective role of these positive dimensions in interventions for increasing youth prosocial contribution in communities.

Positive Youth Development: Links with Prosocial Behaviors and Avoidance of Harmful Substances

Proponents of positive psychology and positive youth development have lamented how the study of human behavior and adolescence in the past decades has primarily focused on things going wrong, disorders, and problems such as substance use, delinquency, teenage pregnancy, depression, and violence (Brown, 2005; Damon, 2004; Galambos & Leadbeater, 2000; Pittman et al., 2003; Pittman, Irby, & Ferber, 2000; Seligman, 2003; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). In recent years, there has been a gradual increase in the number of studies that focus on Positive Youth Development (PYD) indicators, various positive developmental outcomes, and PYD programming (e.g., Catalano, Berglund, Ryan, Lonczak, & Hawkins, 2004; Lerner et al., 2005; Moore, Lippman, & Brown, 2004). Despite this growth, most studies fail to assess both positive and negative behaviors, thus the field of adolescent research remains dichotomized. Only when studies include *both* positive and problem outcomes will researchers gain a broader and more holistic view of youth.

This study examines positive youth development in relation to Contribution, an indicator of positive functioning, and in relation to youth substance use. Utilizing the Five Cs PYD framework (Pittman et al., 2003; Lerner et al., 2005), I will analyze the relationship of Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections with prosocial Contribution, cigarette smoking, and alcohol use. The strength of associations will provide important information regarding whether these positive dimensions simultaneously predict other desirable outcomes, as well as whether they provide a protective role against substance use. In investigating the effects of the Five Cs on these

youth behaviors, gender and socio-economic status will be examined and controlled for as these variables were associated with PYD indicators (Chapter 1 of this dissertation), prosocial behaviors (Carlo et al., 2007; Eisenberg & Morris, 2004) and substance use levels in prior studies (Wallace et al., 2003; Johnson et al., 2006).

A Positive Youth Development framework

Scholars have highlighted the need for more research on positive functioning, given the predominant focus on youth problem behaviors (Brown, 2005; Galambos & Leadbeater, 2000; Damon, 2004). The Five Cs model posits that positive development comprises Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections; and is positively correlated with a sixth C, Contribution (Lerner, Lerner, Almerigi, Theokas, Phelps, et al., 2005; Jelicic, Bobek, Phelps, Lerner, & Lerner, 2007). This PYD framework merits additional study, given evidence for measurement validity within the United States (Lerner et al., 2005) and its application for youth programming in both U.S. and Asia (Bers, 2006; Gomez & Ang, 2007; Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003). Empirical support for this Five C framework and evidence of the model's gender invariance has also been established among urban Asian adolescents (Chapter 1 of this dissertation). Still lacking however, are international studies guided by a PYD framework that simultaneously examine links between Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections with other indicators of youth positive functioning. It is presently unknown if the PYD link with Contribution found in U.S. adolescents will also be seen in youth outside the United States (Jelicic et al., 2007).

Another goal of this study is to understand the association between PYD and adolescent substance use behaviors. This is crucial as there are irrevocable health consequences and long-term health risks associated with substance use (Ballie, 2001; Mukamal, 2006; NIAAA, 2004/ 2005; NIDA, 2006; White, Pandina, & Chen, 2002). The link between Five Cs and youth problem behaviors, specifically substance use, has not been investigated in a developing Asian context. A better understanding of this relationship can inform competency enhancement and substance use preventive interventions by identifying prospective positive dimensions to be targeted. Consequently, intervention programs that promote Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections could embrace a simultaneous goal of increasing positive functioning and reducing problem behaviors.

Positive Youth Development and Prosocial Contribution

Positive youth outcomes include thriving, academic achievement, meaning and purpose, constructive leisure time use, sports participation, religiosity, and others (Boone & Leadbeater, 2006; Damon, Menon, & Bronk, 2003; Jacobs, Vernon, & Eccles, 2004; King & Furrow, 2004; Scales, Benson, Leffert, & Blyth, 2000). A crucial indicator of positive functioning is when adolescents “give back” to others, through volunteer community activities, prosocial actions, or service learning (Johnson & Notah, 1999; Metz & Youniss, 2005; Piliavin, 2003). Youth who contribute are “fully prepared, and also fully engaged” within their communities (Pittman et al., 2000). The developmental systems perspective which draws from Karen Pittman’s model, stipulates that when adolescents experience positive development as indexed by the Five Cs, a sixth C representing

Contribution to one's family, community, and society will occur (Lerner et al., 2005; Pittman, Irby, Tolman, Yohalem, & Ferber, 2003). Recent empirical data in the United States has shown that when the Five Cs were represented by a single latent PYD factor, a significant relationship with Contribution was observed (Jelicic et al., 2007).

Prosocial contribution is a positive functioning behavior that directly benefits both giver and recipient, and indirectly inspires a positive cycle of giving. To the individual, benefits of helping others include better self-esteem, increased positive affect, psychological well-being, and health (Gibbons, 2000; Piliavin, 2003; Seligman, 2003). At the same time, the recipient of the prosocial actions also benefits from the helping behavior, be it a classmate, teacher, parent, family member, elderly individual, or someone in the community. Such voluntary contribution can promote positive and harmonious functioning in society (Clary & Snyder, 1999). Further, adolescent volunteers who contribute prosocially reported lower rates of school dropout, pregnancy, and school suspension (Piliavin, 2003). When students volunteer or engage in prosocial behavior, their constructive time use and improved school bonding is inversely linked with involvement in problem behaviors (Catalano & Hawkins, 1996; Piliavin, 2003).

PYD researchers have measured Contribution through indicators such as service, helping actions, sharing, and other prosocial behaviors (Carlo, Crockett, Randall, & Roesch, 2007; Lerner et al., 2005). It is frequently operationalized as youth engagement, counts of actual occasions of helping in the community (e.g., Carlo et al., 2003; Rushton, Chrisjohn, & Fekken, 1981), or frequency of volunteering (e.g., in large-scale studies like Monitoring the Future, or the Youth Risk Behavior Study). In this study, *prosocial contribution* is defined as helping actions or behaviors that benefit another individual, and

is operationalized as the number of occasions of actual prosocial helping behavior. This construct is distinguishable from the Five Cs, for example, its behavioral focus differs from the affective and motivational aspects of Caring, and it contrasts from prosocial attitudes, intentions, or competencies (e.g., Scales & Benson, 2005).

The Five Cs and Prosocial Contribution

Studies based on the *entire* Five Cs framework have demonstrated: 1) a significant association between a latent PYD factor and youth Contribution (Lerner et al., 2005), and 2) that PYD in fifth grade positively predicted youth contribution one year later (Jelicic et al., 2007). Empirical studies that assessed *singular* traits of caring, connections, confidence, competence, or character also showed a positive relationship with prosocial contribution (Allen & Rushton, 1983; Carlo, Hausmann, Christiansen, & Randall, 2003; Elena, Giovanna, & Boccacin, 1999; Johnson, Beebe, Mortimer, & Snyder, 1998).

Caring and Contribution. In this study, Caring includes empathy and social concern. Empathy and placing importance in helping others in society were positively associated with prosocial actions among both middle and high school youth (Carlo et al., 2003; Elena et al., 1999; Johnson et al., 1998; Metz & Youniss, 2005). Youth and adults involved in volunteer activities report higher empathy and more positive attitudes toward themselves and others, compared to non-volunteers (Allen & Rushton, 1983; Metz & Youniss, 2005). Similarly, social concern was seen in youth volunteers in Italy who were primarily motivated by a desire to help others, prosocial motives, and altruism (Elena et al., 1999).

Connections and Contribution. In the present study, *connections* was assessed as positive parent relationships, positive peer support, and respect for others. Quality parent connections and positive peer relationships correlates with prosocial contribution (Carlo et al., 2007; Metz & Youniss, 2005). A strong predictor of youth prosocial contribution is having a parent who led by example. Metz and Youniss (2005) found that youth volunteers were significantly more likely to have parents who volunteered. It is likely that a mediating variable between parent volunteering and youth's volunteering is a good parent-child relationship, as those who are close to their parents are likely open to participating in similar activities together as a family at younger ages, or independently as they grow older. Studies on peer relationships, however, show mixed associations with prosocial contribution. In one study, sixth grade adolescents lacking reciprocal peer connections demonstrated less prosocial behavior (Wentzel, McNamara-Barry, & Caldwell, 2004). While data from a different longitudinal study showed that girls reporting *improved* peer relationships had less prosocial behavior (Carlo et al., 2007).

Confidence and Contribution. Confidence is indexed by self-esteem, global self-worth, and positive identity. Individuals with a positive sense of self and a secure identity were more likely to be other-focused and contribute prosocially. Specifically, adolescents and adults with good self-esteem and higher self-efficacy were more likely to volunteer (Allen & Rushton, 1983; Metz & Youniss, 2005).

Positive Youth Development and Substance Use

In many Western societies, adolescent substance use is almost regarded as the norm, synonymous with one of the things youth do. Lifetime prevalence data from the

United States and Australia reveal that between 21% to 29% of 7th grade boys and girls smoke, and 38% to 66% drink alcohol (McMorris, Hemphill, Toumbourou, Catalano, & Patton, 2007). According to the gateway hypothesis, youth substance initiation often begins with cigarettes or alcohol and later progresses to other illicit drugs (Kandel, 2002). Youth substance use is also a risk factor for later drug addiction and a range of health consequences (NIAAA, 2004/ 2005; NIDA, 2006; Pelucchi, Gallus, Garavello, Bosetti, & La Vecchia, 2006).

Cigarette Use

Smoking leads to lung cancer and bronchitis, and essentially harms every organ in the body (NIDA, 2006). The World Health Organization reports that cigarette use kills almost 1.1 million people a year from Southeast Asian countries (Cruez, 2008a). Despite this, cigarette companies conduct aggressive marketing to entice new and existing smokers, particularly youth throughout the growing market regions of Asia and Malaysia (Cruez, 2008b; Greenlees, 2005). Early initiation of smoking can lead to life long patterns of cigarette use (NIDA, 2006; White, Pandina & Chen, 2002). In the United States and Australia, the prevalence of cigarette use increases across adolescence. Among U.S. adolescents, smoking increases between 7th and 9th grade, from 21% to 34% for boys, and 25% to 35% for girls (McMorris et al., 2007). Based on available Malaysian data from a cross-sectional study of 1,818 adolescents, lifetime smoking prevalence is 5% at age 13, 10 % at age 14, and 16% among youth age 16 (The Malaysian Child & Adolescent Well-being/ MCAW Study, 2003). Given that anti-tobacco policies in Malaysia have not

effectively curbed youths' easy access to cigarettes, nor the escalating smoking rates, we urgently need to identify positive dimensions which help prevent and reduce substance use.

Alcohol Use

Alcohol is the most widely used and abused substance by teenagers (Assunta, 2001). Youth alcohol and drug experimentation is associated with health and behavior problems, including delinquency and early sexual activity (Ballie, 2001; Spoth, Guyll, Chao & Molgaard, 2003). More adverse effects and consequences of excessive alcohol use and alcoholism include car fatalities, unplanned pregnancies, liver damage, and lasting brain neurological impairment (Adolescent Research & Health, 2004/5; Ballie, 2001, Mukamal, 2006; NIAAA, 2000; NIAAA 2004/5; Pelucchi, Gallus, Garavello, Bosetti, & La Vecchia, 2006). One U.S. nationally representative study reports that 17% of 8th grade youth, and 34% of 10th graders drank alcohol in the past month (Monitoring the Future, 2006). Among 7th graders in the U.S., lifetime alcohol use was 38%, while in Australia, 56% of girls and 66% of boys reported alcohol use (McMorris et al., 2007).

In Malaysia, a study involving 1,614 Malaysian adolescents aged 13 to 15 reported that 1% drank daily, 1.3% drank weekly, and 9% drank less than once a month (Hoo & Navaratnam, 1988). Another source reports that 45% of Malaysian youth under age 18 consume alcohol regularly (Assunta, 2001; WHO Global Status Report on Alcohol, 2004). A cross-sectional study of 1,818 adolescents in Klang Valley, Malaysia, found that lifetime alcohol use was 9% in Secondary 1 (age 13) and 25% in Secondary 4 (age 16) (MCAW, 2003). Thus, similar to smoking, alcohol use escalates among older adolescents. Although Malaysian regulations state it is illegal for minors to purchase alcohol (Ministry of Energy, Water, and Telecommunications Malaysia, Community Portal, 2006), a lack of

enforcement makes it easy for youth and even children to purchase alcohol from grocery stores. Identifying antecedents of underage drinking will be a first step toward planning interventions to curb irresponsible alcohol use in adolescents.

The Five Cs and Substance Use

Adolescents who demonstrate high levels of the Five Cs (i.e., experience positive development) or developmental assets in their lives also report less substance use (Jelicic et al., 2007; Leffert, Benson, Scales, Sharma, Drake, & Blyth, 1998). Studies on *singular* dimensions of the Five Cs also indicate a negative association with substance use, risk-taking and other problem behaviors (Jacobs et al., 2004; Miller & Eisenberg, 1988). Effective substance use prevention efforts focused on increasing assets within a PYD framework and instilling protective factors (e.g., values, skills and key competencies) have been found to decrease rates of cigarette and alcohol use (Battistich, Schapps, Watson, Solomon, & Lewis, 2000; Botvin & Griffin, 2004; CASEL, 2003; Flay & Allred, 2003; McNeal, Hansen, Harrington, & Giles, 2004; NIDA, 2003). However, international research that investigates the link between the Five Cs and substance use remains scarce.

Caring and Substance Use. Caring comprises empathy and social concern. One study among youth in the U.S. reported that African American males with empathy and who cared about the feelings of others were significantly less likely to smoke or use alcohol (Reininger, Evans, Griffin, Sanderson, Vincent, et al., 2005). Substance use, which is a form of *self*-gratification (e.g., self-pleasure through drinking), may be a behavior that contrasts with Caring traits which are more *other*-centered in nature. Reininger and colleagues (2005) did not elaborate on why higher caring may be related to less substance

use, but since empathy was assessed in tandem with other developmental assets, it is also plausible several positive factors interacted with Caring in predicting this overall lower substance use outcome.

Character and Substance Use. Honesty and integrity are frequently considered core human values or character virtues (Berkowitz & Bier, 2004; Peterson & Seligman, 2004). Yet the relationship of these positive values in relation with substance use has rarely been examined in the literature. In adults, honesty was significantly associated with less alcohol and other drug use (Kosterman, Hawkins, Abbott, Hill, Herrenkohl, & Catalano, 2005). Programs which incorporate character education elements (e.g., honesty, integrity, responsibility) have shown effectiveness in decreasing cigarette and alcohol use among middle school adolescents; these include the Child Development Project, Life Skills Training, and All Stars (Berkowitz & Bier, 2004; Battistich et al., 2000; McNeal et al., 2004).

Competence and Substance Use. Social competence (or social skills) and stress management show mixed findings in the literature in relation to substance use. Some studies show that youth who were socially competent, have better communication skills and were assertive report less cigarette and alcohol use (Griffin, Epstein, Botvin, & Spoth, 2001). Higher social competencies are related with less willingness to be involved in peer influenced risk-taking (Jacobs et al., 2004) and when enhanced through interventions, youth reported less intent to use alcohol, less alcohol use, and less binge drinking (Caplan, Weissberg, Grober, Sivio, & Jacoby, 1992; Griffin et al., 2001). However, other studies have shown that involvement in social activities with peers was positively and significantly correlated with substance use from early to middle adolescence (e.g., Maggs, Almeida, &

Galambos, 1995). This peer involvement construct which assessed social skills may more strongly reflect popularity amongst peers.

Adolescents' emotional competence which includes the ability to manage stress and emotional self-control moderates youths' intentions to smoke (Trinidad, Unger, Chou, Azen, & Johnson, 2004), but has not shown significant effects on drinking in some interventions (Fearnow-Kenny, Hansen & McNeal, 2002). Still, interventions with a specific stress management component promote overall psychosocial protection, and can alleviate the association between adolescents' stress and alcohol use (Byrne & Mazanov, 1999; Larimer & Cronce, 2002; Rohsenow, Smith, & Johnson, 1985). Finally, good intrapersonal self-control is negatively related to substance-using peers, a significant predictor of adolescents' own substance use (Hawkins, Catalano, & Miller, 1992; Wills, Walker, Mendoza, & Ainette, 2006).

Confidence and Substance use. The literature shows mixed findings on the relationship between confidence and youth smoking or alcohol use. Studies have shown either a positive association with substance use (Eccles, Lord, Roesser, Barber, & Jozefowicz, 1997; Patton, Barnes, & Murray, 1993; Patton, Hibbert, Rosier, Carlin, Caust, & Bowes, 1996; West & Sweeting, 1997) or no direct relationship (DuBois & Silverthorn, 2004; Glendinning & Inglis, 1999; McGee & Williams, 2000; Scheier, Botvin, Griffin, & Diaz, 2000; White, Pandina & Chen, 2002). Youth's sense of self-worth results from different sources (e.g., peers, family, school, specific ability). For adolescents with low academic achievement or whose self-esteem is derived from association with peers who drink and smoke, *higher* self-esteem is associated with substance use (West & Sweeting,

1997). Here substance use provides peer endorsement and a confidence boost (Patton et al., 1993; Patton et al., 1996) compensating for low academic attainment or other weaknesses.

Conversely, other studies show the reverse, where *low* self-esteem increases the risk for substance use. For example, adolescent girls aged 10 to 15 with lower levels of self-esteem compared with their peers, were significantly more likely to be smokers (Lewis, Harrell, Bradley, & Deng, 2001). When peers first offer them a cigarette, adolescents with low self-esteem are less likely to refuse (Children, Youth, & Family, 1999). It is possible youth with low self-esteem have a higher likelihood of engaging in substance use, in order to gain higher self worth or to better cope with challenges (Jessor et al., 1995; Gilchrist, 1991; Rutter, 1993).

Connections and Substance Use. Connections comprises positive relationships youth have with their parents, peers, and having respect for others. Connections with parents involves a two-way relationship (Lerner et al., 2005) where parents listen to youths' perspective, and youth in turn openly share, seek advice and counsel from their parents in variety of circumstances. Negative parental communication patterns involving blaming, criticizing, and an absence of praise was associated with adolescent substance use (Hawkins et al., 1992). Quality parent- youth relationships which include emotional support and communication, was related to lower rates of drinking and smoking (Wills, Resko, Ainette, & Mendoza, 2004). Youth with respect for parents and other adults are also less likely to engage in anti-authority actions such as underage drinking or smoking. According to the Social Development Model, a social bond between youth and key adults in their life facilitates the transmission of conventional values that could help steer youth away from substance use (Catalano & Hawkins, 1996). Even among youth exposed to

drug-using peers, a strong youth-parent connection and parent conventionality is linked with less smoking and drug use (Hawkins et al., 1992).

The role of peers is less straightforward. Given that substance use frequently occurs in the peer context, connection with peers is not necessarily a protective factor against youth smoking (Wills et al., 2004). Throughout adolescence, youth often associate with like-minded peers, and frequently their source of support comes from that group of peers. Thus when friends drink alcohol, peer support was associated with adolescent drinking (Urberg, Goldstein, & Toro, 2005). However, *positive peer* influence or the connection with responsible peers was protective, and was inversely related to substance use and other risk-taking behavior (Leffert et al., 1998).

The Role of Gender and SES in Prosocial Contribution and Substance Use

Gender

Studies have shown gender differences in both prosocial contribution and substance use. Girls were significantly more likely to engage in prosocial behavior, including volunteering or participating in school-required service (Fabes, Carlo, Kupanoff, & Laible, 1999; Karnoil, Grosz, & Schorr, 2003; McLellan & Youniss, 2003). For example, 43% of girls in one study volunteered compared to 23% of boys (Karnoil et al., 2003).

Although U.S. data suggests narrower gender differences for lifetime and past-month smoking, favoring boys in 12th grade (Wallace, Bachman, O'Malley, Schulenberg, Cooper, & Johnson, 2003; see also McMorris et al., 2007), in Malaysia the majority of youth and adult smokers are male (Dzulkifli, 1996; MCAW, 2003; Shalihin, Razak, Rahmat, Harris, Shahrul & Hafilah, 2006; Tobacco Control Country Profiles, 2003).

Among youth between ages 13 to 17, 1% of girls reported smoking compared to 25% to 40% of boys (Shalihin et al., 2006; W.H.O., 2002). As for alcohol use, U.S. and Australian studies show higher lifetime and past month drinking among middle and high school boys (McMorris et al., 2007; Richards, Miller, O'Donnell, Wasserman, & Colder, 2004; Wallace et al., 2003). In Australia, drinking prevalence was 65% of boys and 56% of girls in 7th grade (McMorris et al., 2007); while a U.S. nationally representative study reported that 54% of boys and 52% of girls in 8th grade had used alcohol in their lifetime (Wallace et al., 2003). In Malaysia, 65% of adult males, and 36% of females reported drinking alcohol in 1994 (WHO Global Status Report on Malaysia, 2004).

Socio-economic status (SES)

The literature reviewed indicated a positive association between SES background and prosocial contribution in younger but not older adolescents. Middle school youth whose mothers had more years of education were more likely to help others, volunteer, share, or raise money for charity (Carlo et al., 2007). Among high-school students however, parent education levels did not significantly predict prosocial service or volunteering (McLellan & Youniss, 2003).

Studies in the U.S. show that low SES predicts smoking, but in the case of alcohol use, higher SES may be associated with a higher likelihood of drinking. Lower SES predicts smoking in adolescents, while those from more educated families smoke less (Hanson & Chen, 2007a; Johnston, O'Malley, Bachman, & Schulenberg, 2006; Lewis et al., 2001; West & Sweeting, 1997; White et al., 2002). The reverse seems to be the case for alcohol use, where higher parents' education was associated with youth drinking in some studies (Hanson & Chen, 2007a; Hanson & Chen, 2007b). However, overall results

indicate no significant association between SES and youth drinking (Hanson & Chen, 2007a). In Malaysia, the relationship between SES or parents' education level with youth substance use is unknown, and requires further investigation.

Research Aims and Hypotheses

The first aim of this study was to examine the associations of PYD with prosocial contribution. It was hypothesized that each of the Five Cs would be *positively* associated with Contribution, with Caring, Connections, and Confidence showing the strongest associations. The second aim of this study was to examine the associations of PYD with substance use. It was hypothesized that each dimension would independently be *negatively* associated with youth smoking and alcohol use, in that youth with higher levels were expected to report less cigarette and alcohol use. Gender and SES are controlled for in the analysis because both were related to positive functioning and substance use in previous studies (i.e., youth from higher SES and girls had higher levels of prosocial Contribution, while boys reported higher smoking and drinking).

METHODS

Participants

Participants were 1,470 adolescents from three schools from Klang Valley, in Malaysia. There were 35% Malay, 38% Chinese, and 24% Indians, which corresponded to the three main ethnicities in this region. Just over half of all participants (51%) were male, and 49% were in Secondary 1 (13 years old). Descriptive information is summarized in

Table 2-2. Participation rate was 93%, from the maximum possible 1,587 students in 39 classrooms. Non-participants were either absent from school (5%), had changed schools (1%), or were involved in another school activity (1%). Adolescents took an average of 70 minutes to complete the survey, which were administered by trained Research Assistants and staff of the Asian Research Center for Child & Adolescent Development (ARCCADE).

This study used data from pre-intervention assessment of Mentoring Malaysia, an after-school Positive Youth Development pilot program designed to build the Five Cs of positive development and reduce problem behaviors in Secondary 1 and 2 (13 and 14 year olds) (Gomez & Ang, 2007). School Principals or the Assistant Principal provided consent for students to participate in the surveys. In Malaysia, approval was acquired from the Ministry of Education, and State Departments of Education. This study was reviewed and considered exempt by the Institutional Review Board of the Pennsylvania State University, and data was received from the Director of ARCCADE with all original participant IDs recoded.

Measures

The ARCCADE Youth Survey incorporated the Five Cs PYD dimensions of Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence and Connections, as well as other background variables. Empirical support for the Five Cs measurement framework was detailed in Chapter 1. Descriptive statistics for all variables included in this study are provided in Table 2-2, and reliability of the PYD scales are summarized in Table 2-1.

PYD: The Five Cs. Briefly, the *Caring* dimension comprised empathy and social concern, which had 6 items each (Barber, 2003; Battistich, 2000; Hanson & Kim, 2007; Peterson & Seligman, 2004; Theokas et al., 2005). Empathy items include "I try to understand how other people feel and think", and for Social concern "It is important to help people in need, not just friends and family". Four response options were provided for all items within the Five Cs dimensions.

Character points to standing firm to one's principles, honesty, truthfulness, and integrity. It was operationalized through values of honesty (3 items, e.g., "I admit my mistakes"), and integrity (6 items, e.g., "I do what I believe is right even if my friends make fun of me.") Items originated from measures on personal values (Theokas et al., 2005), integrity (Peterson & Seligman, 2004), and self-honesty (Flay & Allred, 2003).

Competence comprises two subscales, social skills, and the ability to manage stress in an emotionally competent manner, which had 7 and 3 items respectively (CASEL, 2003; McNeal & Hansen, 1999). Social skills, a measure of social competence included items on peer acceptance, adolescent's ability to initiate and maintain friendships, and to communicate with peers and adults (Hanson & Kim, 2007; Harter, 1982; Theokas et al., 2005); while stress management included items such as "I know how to handle a stressful situation".

Youths' *Confidence* comprises global self-worth and self-esteem, and an optimistic identity regarding one's present accomplishments and future (Harter, 1982; MCAW, 2003; Rosenberg et al., 1995; Theokas et al., 2005). In total there were 16 items in this dimension.

The fifth PYD dimension *Connections* points to a two-way positive parent-youth relationship, peer supportive relationships, and respect for others; scales had 7, 4, and 5 items respectively. In close connections to parents, support, and communication was key (Theokas et al., 2005), while youths' peer connections included the experience of peer support and care (Battistich, 2000; MCAW, 2003). The respect scale assessed regard for parents, teachers, and other individuals of a different race or religion (Josephson Institute, 2002, 2006; Leary, Brennan, & Briggs, 2005; Theokas et al., 2005).

The ***dependent variables*** of interest in this study are prosocial contribution and substance use.

Prosocial Contribution assessed the occasions of actual prosocial helping behavior in different contexts, and was based on an altruism scale with good internal reliability (Alpha = 0.80; Battistich, 2000). In the current study, the 11 items in this scale had an Alpha of 0.83. Sample items include "During the past year, how often did I… help a classmate better understand the homework", "help someone blind or old cross the road," and "help in projects to care for the environment." Response options range from 1= Not at all, to 4= Five or more times.

Substance use was assessed separately for smoking and drinking. Adolescents were asked about *Cigarette smoking* behavior in the past 12 months. A 5-point response option was given, ranging from 1=Never, 2=Used before, but not in the past year, 3= About once or twice, 4=About 3 or 4 times, to 5= Five or more times. Past year *Alcohol use* was assessed using the same five response options.

Demographic variables. A dichotomous variable assessed *gender*, with males coded 1, and females 0. For *socio-economic status* (SES), adolescents reported their father's and mother's highest attained education level. A proportion of adolescents only knew one parent's education level (N = 235 or 16 %), over 26% (N= 390) reported that both parents had similar years of education, while 34% were not knowledgeable of either parents' SES. Therefore a single SES variable was computed so that all available SES information could be taken into account. In cases where adolescents reported only one of their parents' education, or when parents' years of education differed (N= 354 or 24 %), the highest known education in the household was utilized as the SES level. This reduced incidences of missing data, and follows the assumption that the highest level attained by either parent would accurately represent the household SES and environment experienced by the adolescent (Davis-Kean, 2005). Parents' education or SES ranged from 0 to 19, and adolescents' parents attained an average of 11 years of schooling.

Data Analyses

To investigate the relationship of PYD with prosocial Contribution and substance use, correlational analysis and separate hierarchical linear regressions were utilized. In regression analyses, gender and SES were entered first in step 1, all Five Cs were entered in step 2, and interaction variables were entered in step 3 (e.g., SES X Connections, Gender X Connections). Significant interaction effects would mean that a linear relationship between a positive dimension and youth outcome would differ by youth's SES or gender.

RESULTS

Five Cs and Prosocial Contribution

Individual correlations between the PYD dimensions and Contribution revealed that each C is positively and significantly associated with Contribution, with Pearson's *r* values ranging from 0.22 for Character, to 0.36 for Caring, all $p < .001$ (see Table 2-3, first column). Hierarchical linear regression showed that when all Five Cs were entered as predictors, Caring, Competence, Confidence, and Connections were significantly and positively associated with Contribution, even after controlling for gender and SES (Table 2-3). Caring was most strongly associated with Contribution, as hypothesized (Beta = 0.22, $p < .001$). Strong associations linking Confidence and Connections with Contribution were also hypothesized. Results showed significant associations between these variables, however, the dimension Competence emerged more strongly associated with Contribution (Beta = 0.15, $p < .001$).

These four Cs accounted for 18 percent of the variance in Contribution ($R^2 = 0.18$, $p < .001$), a desirable outcome representing actual occasions of helping and altruistic behaviors (e.g., helping a friend or stranger in need, giving donations, environmental outreach). In the presence of all five positive dimensions, an association between Character and Contribution was not seen, possibly because of shared variance between the Cs.

Five Cs and Substance use

A total of 110 youth or 7.5% of the sample reported cigarette use in the past year, and 93 youth (6.4%) reported past year alcohol use. Results from correlational analysis and hierarchical regression demonstrate that in general, the Five Cs are inversely related

with smoking and alcohol use. Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections were each significantly and negatively correlated with cigarette and alcohol use. Pearson's *r* ranged from -0.08 to -0.18 for smoking and -0.08 to -0.21 for alcohol (Table 2-4, first and fifth columns).

Separate hierarchical linear regressions showed that the Five Cs explained 3% of the variance in smoking and 4% of the variance in alcohol use (Table 2-4), after controlling for gender and SES. *Connections* was significantly related with less smoking (Beta = -0.15, $p < .001$), and with less alcohol use (Beta = -0.21, $p < .001$)[1]. The other Cs showed weak associations with substance use, likely due to shared variance among the independent variables. The small number of adolescents reporting substance use, or the low incidence of this problem behavior may have also contributed to these results (i.e., the lack of significant relationships with the other positive dimensions). The low prevalence is not unexpected as rates reported by these early secondary school adolescents matched other available statistics. Interactions between Connections with gender, and with SES were entered in the third step of the regression model, but were not significant for either cigarette or alcohol use.

DISCUSSION

This study demonstrated that the Five Cs dimensions of PYD are positively associated with prosocial Contribution, thus confirming the PYD-Contribution link in a

[1] Given the non-normal distribution of the cigarette and alcohol use variables (Skewness = 4.42, Kurtosis = 19.98; Skew = 4.76, Kurtosis = 23.46 respectively), regression analysis was also conducted with transformed dependent variables (log of Cigarette use and log of Alcohol use). Results were essentially similar, so results of non-transformed variables are presented for ease of interpretation.

non-U.S. youth sample. It also demonstrated that the Five Cs were inversely related with substance use, providing preliminary support towards future research and interventions that incorporate these positive dimensions.

Five Cs and Prosocial Contribution

The developmental systems and the Five Cs PYD framework states that when Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections are present, prosocial Contribution will also be observed in youth (Jelicic et al., 2007; Lerner et al., 2005; Pittman et al., 2003). In this study, individual correlations among the Five Cs and Contribution were all significant, confirming the independent positive associations between all six Cs in Malaysian youth. In addition, four of the five Cs (Caring, Competence, Connections, and Confidence) demonstrated unique significant associations with Contribution, after controlling for gender and SES. Combined, these positive dimensions explained 18% of the variance in Contribution. Given these significant relationships, one interpretation of findings is that when we focus on building Caring, Competence, Connections, and Confidence, we potentially nurture youths who contribute positively to society. Youths' engagement in communities, volunteering, or other prosocial contribution, promotes positive and harmonious functioning in the broader society (Clary & Snyder, 1999; Johnson & Notah, 1999; Metz & Youniss, 2005; Piliavin, 2003). Longitudinal intervention studies are thus necessary to investigate whether increasing the five Cs of positive development will be predictive of youth Contribution.

In this study, the strongest bivariate and unique association was between Caring (comprising *empathy* and *social concern* constructs) and Contribution. This finding is

consistent with studies on prosocial outreach which showed empathy, perspective taking, prosocial attitudes, altruism, and social helping intentions are several antecedents of prosocial behavior (e.g., Carlo & Randall, 2002; Elena et al., 1999; Scales & Benson, 2005). One noteworthy observation is that the current measurement of Caring excludes any behavioral helping actions, and based on colinearity statistics its components are empirically distinct from the actual counts of Contribution or prosocial actions.

Some researchers suggest that to be a caring and contributing individual, *other* positive dimensions need to be simultaneously present, namely social-emotional competence, a secure sense of self, and personal experiences of nurturing relationships (Chase-Landsdale & Brooks-Gunn, 1995). Additional analysis showed that alongside the Caring constructs, social skills, self-esteem, and respect were significantly associated with Contribution, when all PYD scales were examined simultaneously. The specific manner in which these PYD dimensions interact is beyond the scope of this study. However, interventions to promote prosocial behaviors should ideally target *all* five Cs, given that each dimension showed strong independent associations with Contribution.

Gender and Contribution. Studies have shown that girls are significantly more likely to volunteer, engage in prosocial behavior, and participate in required service (Eisenberg & Morris, 2004; Karnoil et al., 2003; McLellan & Youniss, 2003). Regression analysis indicated gender was not associated with Contribution in this study. Girls, however, did report significantly higher Caring, and Caring strongly predicted Contribution. In re-examining the items in the *prosocial contribution* scale, two categories of helping behavior could be distinguished: prosocial actions toward familiar individuals within youths' immediate social circle (e.g., peers, friends, teachers; also known as

relational helping), and contribution toward strangers, which includes helping the environment. A variety of prosocial behaviors have been researched, such as helping within a relational context, helping of strangers, 'compliant prosocial behavior' (providing help in response to a request), volunteering, and emergency responding (Carlo & Randall, 2002; Levine, Norenzayan, & Philbrick, 2001; Metz, McLellan, & Youniss, 2003). In emergency situations and where helping is publicly observed, adolescent males were more likely to contribute; whereas when helping was altruistic, or in response to an emotionally evocative situation, girls were more likely to respond (Carlo et al., 2003). Therefore the role of gender and PYD antecedents in these different forms of prosocial contribution need to be considered, and can be investigated in a follow-up study. At the same time, contextual influences cannot be dismissed as in this Asian context which emphasizes harmonious social relations, perhaps boys and girls are equally socialized to be prosocial in nature.

SES and Contribution. Regression analysis showed that higher SES (indexed by parents' education) was significantly associated with higher Contribution. The association between SES and Contribution remained significant, even when the Five Cs were included as predictors. Studies have shown that middle school youth with higher maternal education were more likely to behave prosocially by helping others, volunteering, or donating money (Carlo et al., 2007). It would be presumptuous to think, however, that lower SES youth lack inclination or ability to contribute prosocially. Perhaps, given their family SES, it is a lack of time, opportunity, or energy to reach out given their more challenging daily life. In Malaysia, it is not uncommon to see young adolescents helping their parents who are hawkers tend their food stall or shop each day. Adolescents who are expected to help out

their parents this way have little free time to be involved in prosocial Contribution. Although not investigated in the current study, future studies can examine related variables to better understand this SES – Contribution link; such as parents' work hours and employment status, the number of hours youth are required to help in the family each day, youth's access and available opportunity to contribute, and situations where youth desired to help but was not able to due to his or her SES.

Five Cs and Substance use

The low prevalence rate of smoking (7.5%) and drinking (6.4%) among early secondary school adolescents in this study limits statistical power to detect small significant effects between PYD and substance use variables. In the present study, all Five Cs were negatively and significantly correlated with youth cigarette and alcohol use. Findings suggest that the Five Cs could likely function as protective assets and help minimize adolescent substance use, although there remains the need to identify other key antecedents of substance use for this sample (e.g., parent and peer attitudes toward smoking and alcohol use) as the percentage of variance explained by these positive dimensions was low. Together, these positive dimensions explained 3% to 4% of the variance in substance use (R^2 = 0.03 for smoking, and 0.04 for alcohol use), which is consistent with prior studies where PYD and gender together explained 5 % of the variance in 'risky behaviors' which included substance use and delinquency (Jelicic et al., 2007). Future studies should examine the role of these positive dimensions, above and beyond established risk and protective factors for smoking and alcohol use.

Results from hierarchical regression indicated that Connections was significantly associated with less smoking and less drinking, even after controlling for gender and SES. In this study, two key scales of Connections were *respect for others* that included parents and teachers, and Connection with parents. Adolescents' respect for parents and teachers, which denotes their regard and appreciation for adult guidance is indicative of social bonding with adults, which is associated with lower substance use (Catalano & Hawkins, 1996; Catalano, Kosterman, Hawkins, Newcomb, & Abbott 1996; Lonczak et al., 2001), and fewer problem behaviors (e.g. Ayers, Williams, Hawkins, Peterson, Catalano, & Abbott, 1999; Lonczak et al., 2001). Adult disrespect can be seen in the rejection of conventional norms, parental and adult authority, or in extreme cases, defiance and rebellion; this predicts acts of delinquency, substance use, and other high-risk behaviors (Hawkins, 1999; Hoffman, Sussman, Unger, & Valante, 2006). *Connections with parents* is similarly linked with lower rates of substance use (Hawkins et al., 1992; Shek, 2005; Wills et al., 2004). In close parent-youth relationships, parent's supportiveness and youth's openness to communicate about different aspects of their life results in greater parental knowledge; and the later is also inversely related with youth substance use (Crockett, Brown, Russell, & Shen, 2007; Crouter & Head, 2002). Future studies in Asia may want to explore the pathways between respect, parent- youth connections, and parental knowledge as it relates to substance use.

Longitudinal studies on substance use have demonstrated links with self-esteem, low academic achievement, and deviant peers (Bryant, Schulenberg, Bachman, O'Malley, & Johnston, 2000; DuBois & Silverthorn, 2004; Eccles et al., 1997; Lifrak, McKay, Rostain, Alterman, & O'Brien, 1997). In this study, Confidence is not significantly

associated with substance use. However, additional analyses showed self-esteem (one scale within the Confidence dimension) was positively and significantly associated with smoking and drinking. Future studies in Asia may want to investigate the longitudinal relationships between substance use, self esteem, and peers, in relation to youths' level of academic achievement. For example, whether weak academic performance and peer support (youths association with substance-using peers to gain acceptance), leads to increased self-esteem which is observed simultaneously with substance use.

SES and Substance use. Regression analysis indicated SES was not significantly associated with either cigarette or alcohol use. Studies in the U.S. showed lower SES was associated with smoking (Hanson & Chen, 2007a; Johnston et al., 2006; Lewis et al., 2001), while the relationship between SES and alcohol use was mixed (Hanson & Chen, 2007a; Hanson & Chen, 2007b; Maggs, Patrick, & Feinstein, 2008). By adding parent reports particularly on SES information in future studies, a clearer picture between SES and substance use in Malaysia may emerge. This would address missing data where a significant number of adolescents were not able to report their parents' education level.

Gender and Substance use. Results from hierarchical regression indicate boys reported more substance use than girls. A variety of individual- , family-, and community-level factors may explain this gender-substance use association. At the individual-level, perceived substance use rewards and coping methods may vary with gender, with adult males electing to cope with challenges through alcohol use and abuse (Afifi, 2007; Catalano & Hawkins, 1996; Wills, Sandy, & Shinar, 1999). At the family-level, parents' favorable attitudes toward smoking and drinking are associated with youth's own substance use, particularly when a strong parent-youth relationship exists (Wood, Read,

Mitchell, & Brand, 2004). At the community-level, culture exerts norms on behaviors, and in a more 'masculine' culture as is Malaysia, a male youth smoking in public may be socially acceptable and viewed with more tolerance, than an adolescent girl engaged in similar behavior (Hofstede, 1983; Triandis, 1999).

CONCLUSION

Efforts to build the Five Cs could potentially set in motion other positive functioning outcomes such as prosocial Contribution, an important indicator of youth engagement and outreach to others. Findings linking PYD with substance use highlight the importance of strong Connections, specifically quality parent-youth relationships, and respecting parents and teachers. The protective role of the Five Cs needs further investigation in longitudinal studies and intervention research, and the inclusion of program content specific to smoking or alcohol prevention may well complement PYD interventions. Together, these results corroborate the importance of the Five Cs, in that: 1) Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections are positively associated with prosocial Contribution; and 2) higher levels of these PYD dimensions are correlated with lower levels of youth smoking and drinking.

TABLES

Table 2-1

Descriptive Statistics and Reliability for the Five Cs PYD Scales

Dimensions and Scales	Items	Sample item	Mean	SD	Alpha
CARING					
Empathy	6	I try to understand how other people feel and think	2.98	0.65	0.84
Social concern	6	It is important to help people in need, not just friends and family	3.22	0.56	0.78
CHARACTER					
Values of Integrity	6	I do what I believe is right even if my friends make fun of me	2.98	0.54	0.68
Values of Honesty	3	I admit my mistakes	3.24	0.57	0.56
COMPETENCE					
Social skills	7	During group activities, I pay attention when others are talking.	3.08	0.48	0.73
Stress management	3	I know how to handle a stressful situation	2.79	0.61	0.65
CONFIDENCE					
Global self-worth	6	I do like the way I am leading my life	3.07	0.56	0.82
Optimistic identity	5	Things will generally go well in my future even if there are a few difficulties	3.10	0.51	0.74
Self esteem	5	I feel good about myself	2.90	0.57	0.75
CONNECTIONS					
Parents	7	I have lots of good conversations with my parents	3.27	0.62	0.85
Peers	4	Students in my class care about each other	3.02	0.70	0.76
Respect	5	I treat my parents with respect	3.25	0.67	0.85

Note: All scales ranged from 1 to 4, corresponding with lower to higher values.

Table 2-2
Descriptive Statistics for Independent, Dependent and Demographic Variables.

Variable	Mean	SD	Scale range	Correlations				
Independent variables				Caring	Character	Competence	Confidence	Connections
Caring	3.10	0.52	1 to 4	1				
Character	3.11	0.48	1 to 4	0.48	1			
Competence	2.93	0.47	1 to 4	0.48	0.42	1		
Confidence	3.02	0.46	1 to 4	0.45	0.40	0.59	1	
Connections	3.18	0.50	1 to 4	0.44	0.50	0.48	0.56	1
Total Cs	2.97	1.64	0 to 5					
Dependent variables				Contribution	Smoking	Alcohol use		
Prosocial Contribution	2.30	0.59	1 to 4	1				
Past year Cigarette use	1.17	0.66	1 to 5	-0.01	1			
Past year Alcohol use	1.14	0.58	1 to 5	-0.04	0.17	1		
Demographic variables								
Socio- economic status (Parents' education in years)	10.98	3.53	0 to 19					
Gender	51% Male, 49% Female							
Ethnicity	35 % Malay, 38 % Chinese, 24 % Indian, 3 % Other							
Living with both parents	74 %							

Table 2-3

The Five Cs with Prosocial Contribution: Correlation Analysis and Hierarchical Regression

	Independent variables	Pearson's *r*	B	SE	β
1	Gender (0=Female, 1=Male)		-0.03	0.04	- 0.03
	SES		0.02	0.01	0.12 ***
				$R^2 = 0.01$ **	
2	Gender		0.03	0.04	0.02
	SES		0.01	0.01	0.08 **
	Caring	0.36 ***	0.26	0.04	0.22 ***
	Character	0.22 ***	-0.05	0.04	- 0.04
	Competence	0.34 ***	0.19	0.05	0.15 ***
	Confidence	0.33 ***	0.10	0.05	0.08 *
	Connections	0.32 ***	0.14	0.05	0.12 **
				$R^2 = 0.20$ ***	

** $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$*

Table 2-4

The Five Cs with Substance Use: Correlation Analysis and Hierarchical Regression

	Independent variables	Cigarette Use				Alcohol Use			
		Pearson's *r*	B	SE	β	Pearson's *r*	B	SE	β
1	Gender (0=Female, 1=Male)		0.19	0.04	0.15 **		0.08	0.04	0.07 *
	SES		0.004	0.01	0.03		0.01	0.01	0.04
				$R^2 = 0.03$ ***				$R^2 = 0.01$ *	
2	Gender		0.17	0.04	0.13 ***		0.07	0.04	0.06
	SES		0.01	0.01	0.04		0.01	0.01	0.05
	Caring	- 0.13 ***	-0.04	0.05	- 0.04	- 0.08 **	0.05	0.05	0.04
	Character	- 0.13 ***	-0.05	0.05	- 0.04	- 0.12 ***	-0.02	0.05	- 0.02
	Competence	- 0.08 *	0.05	0.06	0.03	- 0.11 ***	-0.05	0.05	- 0.04
	Confidence	- 0.10 **	-0.01	0.06	- 0.01	- 0.11 ***	0.02	0.06	0.02
	Connections	- 0.18 ***	-0.18	0.05	- 0.15 ***	- 0.21 ***	-0.25	0.05	- 0.21 ***
				$R^2 = 0.06$ ***				$R^2 = 0.05$ ***	

** $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$*

Chapter 3

International Positive Youth Development: An Exploratory Qualitative Study of PYD and the Five Cs in an Asian context

Patricia M. Ang

Correspondence should be addressed to: Patricia Ang, Asian Research Center for Child and Adolescent Development (ARCCADE), Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS: The author wishes to acknowledge all youth professionals for participation in the interviews, and the Research Assistants at ARCCADE for their role in transcription, and in checking interview transcripts and codes.

ABSTRACT [Chapter 3]

The purpose of this study was to examine the conceptualization of Positive Youth Development and the Five Cs by youth professionals in Malaysia, and to identify culture-specific traits that may be important additions to existing models. Fifteen adult practitioners from secondary schools, colleges, and the community were interviewed. Informants' ideas and examples of youth positive traits were content analyzed, and categorized into higher-order themes for each positive dimension. Caring comprised empathy, helping behaviors, and caring for social institutions (3 themes); Character included being courteous, caring, having positive values, being peaceful, responsible in social roles, having self management, leadership qualities, and self direction (8 themes); Competence consisted of interpersonal skills, academic skills, leadership, positive leisure, language proficiency, and self-directed learning (6 themes); Confidence included being comfortable with oneself, confidence in interpersonal situations, self- direction, public speaking, and coping in challenging situations (5 themes); while Connections referenced close relationships with parents, positive peers, relationship with teachers, and siblings (4 themes).

Themes that seemed more specific to this Asian region were Language Proficiency (under Competence), Peaceful (within Character), and Respect for social hierarchy during interpersonal encounters (within Competence). A majority of respondents (80%) deemed the Five Cs framework suitable and applicable for use in this Asian context. Prior to introducing the Five Cs, respondents had identified four themes important for PYD in Malaysia which mapped on well to the existing framework, specifically 1) interpersonal competencies, 2) confidence and self-direction, 3) cognitive flexibility and emotion regulation, and 4) positive leisure. In addition, *spiritual values and practice* was considered important to complement the Five Cs framework. The contribution of present findings towards assessment of positive indicators, and the need to continually promote the above wellness paradigm in adolescent development is highlighted. Recommendations are provided for future youth development research in Asia.

International Positive Youth Development: An Exploratory Qualitative Study of PYD and the Five Cs in an Asian context

The Positive Youth Development (PYD) framework differs from a deficit-based or problem-focused approach and centers instead on strengths and positive indicators in adolescents (Damon, 2004; Moore, Lippman, & Brown, 2004). Still lacking however, are international PYD studies (Catalano, Berglund, Ryan, Lonczak, & Hawkins, 2004), specifically research guided by PYD frameworks such as the Five Cs (i.e., Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections). International youth research is critical for increasing our understanding of adolescent development in different cultural contexts. The present study will expand PYD research beyond the most frequently studied groups within the United States (Brown, 2005; Catalano et al., 2004), and provide insight into important domains for PYD in an international context.

Identifying and conceptualizing PYD outcomes in this urban Asian context is an essential first step in international PYD research, and the present qualitative study has this exact objective. Specifically, this study will explore positive traits that transcend cultural differences, ascertain distinct culture-sensitive conceptualizations of the Five Cs, identify whether certain PYD characteristics within the Five Cs are valued more than others in Malaysia, and identify potentially new dimensions of positive youth development. The use of qualitative methodology will tap adult professionals' perspectives of PYD in this setting, as well as a more in-depth analysis to describe PYD and positive characteristics desired for youth (Fine & Elsbach, 2000).

The present study is conducted in the Klang Valley, the center of fast-paced Malaysia, a country located in South-east Asia. Here, youths from diverse ethnicities (i.e., Malay, Chinese, and Indian) are experiencing decreased traditional support systems, in a society in danger of shifting away from its relational culture that has traditionally helped nurture the young (Economic Planning Unit Malaysia, 2006; Stewart, Bond, McBride-Chang, Fielding, Deeds, & Westrick, 1998). It is thus a crucial time to introduce the positive development framework, and be able to understand how it is conceptualized by locals for assessment and programming efforts.

Positive Youth Development: An overview of the Five Cs Model

Positive Youth Development is a growing area of research which emphasizes youths' strengths, competencies, and positive outcomes. A key framework is the Five Cs model which originated from studies and theoretical work within the United States (Pittman, Irby, Tolman, Yohalem, & Ferber, 2003; Lerner et al., 2005). The Five Cs is an empirically supported PYD framework that includes five dimensions Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections (Jelicic, Bobek, Phelps, Lerner, & Lerner, 2007; Lerner et al., 2005). In recent years, adolescent researchers have empirically validated the PYD structure of the Five Cs (Lerner et al., 2005), shown the negative association of PYD with problem behaviors (Jelicic et al., 2007), and demonstrated the utility and application of Five Cs model for youth programming (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003).

A full description of the Five Cs model and dimensions in the context of adolescent literature is beyond the scope of this paper but is available elsewhere (see Chapter 1 of this

dissertation; Lerner et al., 2005). Briefly, *Caring* contains both affective and cognitive components (Chase-Lansdale, Wakschlag, & Brooks-Gunn, 1995; Zahn-Waxler & Radke-Yarrow, 1990), and encompasses feeling empathy, and having concern for individuals in society who are in need. Being attuned to another individual's feelings, and having social awareness are key aspects of positive development (CASEL, 2003). *Character* points to personal values that have a positive impact on the adolescent (Lerner et al., 2005), and the broader society in which he or she lives in. These values include honesty, integrity, and standing firm to one's principles (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). In addition, a youth with Character shows respect for the dignity and worth of others (Character Education Partnership, 2006; Lickona, 1991). *Competence* refers to adolescents' abilities or skills in areas pertinent to this developmental stage, such as in cognitive and social areas (Lerner et al., 2005). These include social competencies (CASEL, 2003), reasoning, decision-making, and problem-solving skills (Caplan, Weissberg, Grober, Sivo, Grady, & Jacoby, 1992; Keating, 2004; Steinberg, 2008), and self-management of one's behavior and emotions (Flay & Allred, 2003; CASEL, 2003). Some have also identified academic skills and grades as elements of competence (Lerner et al., 2005). *Confidence* describes youth's self-esteem or global self-worth (Harter, 1982), and a positive sense of identity (Lerner et al., 2005). The fifth dimension, *Connections* refers to youths experiencing support from key people in their lives particularly parents and peers, and having positive social relationships with them (Lerner et al., 2005).

Culture-sensitive conceptualizations of the Five Cs of Malaysian youth

Researchers have called for international studies to examine positive youth development, and to investigate indicators of well-being and development (Catalano et al.,

2004; Larson, Wilson, & Mortimer, 2002). Larson and others have documented unique developmental circumstances and diverse challenges experienced by youth globally (Larson et al., 2002). Youth in different regions of the world live within specific cultures and communities, where culture-specific traits may be emphasized, or particular positive behaviors are valued over others (Triandis, 1999).

A key goal of this study is to examine how youth Character, Competence, Caring, Confidence, and Connections are conceptualized in this Asian setting. It is plausible that a trait which is valued in the United States may be similarly highlighted by youth professionals for the Malaysian context, yet its definition or specific focus differs. For example when describing good Character, humility and respect are part of the repertoire of 'Eastern values' that is strongly emphasized among Asians (Wong, 2004; Kim, Li, & Ng, 2005). Thus, humility may be a culture-specific trait for PYD in Asia where emphasis is placed on relatedness with others, more than individualistic goals. Additionally, although *respect* is highlighted as an important trait in the U.S. particularly in character education (Character Education Partnership, 2006), a key cultural difference is the underlying Malaysian emphasis on respecting *adults*, namely parents, teachers, individuals older in age, or with higher social status. A second example of a *culturally unique* trait is Connections with one's extended family comprising aunts, uncles, and cousins. These social relationships are important in Malaysia where the extended family gets together several times a year for cultural celebrations such as Chinese New Year, Aidilfitri, Deepavali or Christmas, or just to get together on a weekend or holiday. Grandparents are often not seen as 'extended family' in Asia, but instead considered part of one's immediate family as they often share the same household. A final illustration: social science researchers would immediately have a mental image of what a youth with "good self

esteem" looks like. Cross-cultural research on self-esteem demonstrates it can in fact be viably measured in European, African, Asian, and South American cultures (Schmitt & Allik, 2005). However, the way of life, cultural expectations, or other local factors may encourage and promote a different way of expressing these traits, which more appropriately reflects positive development in a particular context. Schmitt and Allik (2005) found evidence for this when they noted differences in sub-components of self-esteem between individualistic (e.g., United Kingdom) and more collectivist cultures (e.g., Malaysia). Similarly, an important contribution of this study will be a context-specific conceptualization of the Five Cs, in addition to a qualitative account on how particular dimensions are viewed differently.

Identifying potential new dimensions of PYD in Asia

The third aim of this study is to derive a local definition of positive development, and to identify potentially new dimensions of PYD for this context. When a relatively new field is researched or when theoretical models and constructs originating from one cultural context are applied to another, differences can arise from the ecological or cultural influences (Claassen, 1998). Understanding positive development in this international cultural context enables the expansion of our present PYD knowledge base, and the discovery of new information or new constructs, which may add valuable information toward theory construction (Heppner, 2006). Findings would also play a role in the development of future PYD instruments, as these key positive traits and dimensions can be incorporated in subsequent assessment tools in similar international contexts.

Culture is the shared language, beliefs, history, and institutions of individuals of a similar ethnic group (Schweder & LeVine, 1984 as cited by Roosa, Dumka, Gonzales, &

Knight, 2002; Triandis, 1989). Researchers have organized cultures as individualist and collectivist cultures (Triandis, 1999). PYD has been studied more frequently in individualistic cultures such as the United States, but needs to be researched in other cultural contexts particularly those that emphasize relatedness; Malaysia is one example of a collectivist culture for such a study (Stewart, Bond, Deeds, & Chung, 1999). For example, in more collectivist cultures, harmonious relationships and peacefulness may be important indicators of PYD.

Religion is another important facet of everyday life in Malaysia. Malaysia's diverse ethnic population has various religious practices and celebrations. Drawing from this, we might expect important indicators of positive development to include spirituality, or religious values and practices, and this would effectively add on to the Five Cs model either as a trait or a separate dimension.

Research Aims

Given the geographical and cultural differences between Malaysia and the United States where the Five Cs PYD framework originates, the first aim of this study is to identify how the Five Cs are qualitatively conceptualized for youth in the Malaysian context. An important contribution will be the identification of any culture-specific traits for the Five Cs of positive development. The second aim is to acquire Malaysian perceptions and definitions of what broadly constitutes positive development of youth, so as to identify dimensions which map onto the Five Cs, and dimensions that potentially add on to the Five Cs.

METHODS

Participants

Fifteen youth professionals were purposefully sampled from three types of youth-serving organizations (academic institutions, secondary schools, and community organizations), and from the three main ethnic groups in Malaysia (Malay, Chinese, and Indian). Respondents from academic institutions were lecturers in the social sciences, and college counselors; secondary school personnel comprised teachers and school leaders; and participants from the community included youth trainers, counselors, and professionals from youth-focused organizations. Recruitment of participants started with an initial researcher-generated list of individuals whose work centers around youth (N=18). This list was expanded as more potential respondents were identified through nominations of colleagues and other experts in the field, by individuals who were interviewed. This snowball sampling aided in the recruitment of several respondents (N= 4), particularly Malay youth professionals. Nine individuals who were approached did not respond to telephone and email contact, had consistent scheduling difficulties, or declined to participate.

Throughout the participant recruitment process, records of organization type and other demographic variables (gender, ethnicity) were kept, toward ensuring the final sample comprised a balanced mix of participants in these dimensions. Participants' mean age was 40.3 years (S.D. = 9.9 years), and had worked with youth for an average of 11.9 years (S.D. = 11.1 years). Participants' work experience ranged from 3 to 39 years, and in their interactions with youth were able to observe incidences of positive development and a variety of behaviors. The sample was 27% Malay, 40% Chinese, and 33 % Indian; with 60 % male participants. According to organization type, 40% were from academic institutions,

33% from secondary schools, and 27% from community organizations. Descriptive information of participants is presented in Table 3-1.

Human Subjects Protection. This study was reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board of the Pennsylvania State University (Appendix B). Interviews with youth professionals began after they were provided an overview of the study, and consented to participate. Research assistants involved in interview transcription and checking of qualitative codes were trained in Human Participant protection issues.

Measures: The Qualitative interview

Respondents were interviewed using a semi-structured format with open-ended questions (see Appendix C). In this qualitative interview, Malaysian youth professionals were asked, a) How they envision each of the youth outcomes of Character, Confidence, Caring, Competence, and Connections (Part 2), b) The extent to which the Five Cs model was appropriate for use in the local cultural context, c) What aspects of positive development were lacking in the Five Cs model, and d) How they would describe PYD in general (Part 1).

Youth professionals were briefly introduced to the Five Cs framework in Part 2 of the interview. They were asked to describe the characteristics, attitudes, or behaviors of a youth with each dimension of positive development: starting with a youth who is Caring, a youth who is Confident, Competent, and a youth with good Character. Participants were also asked which social relationships are important for youth Connections, as well as the qualities of such relationships.

Related to the second aim, participants were asked to describe three main attributes and behaviors of a youth who is ‘doing well’ or developing positively. The first portion of

the qualitative interview protocol began with a very broad question, while questions in latter sections become more specific to the Five Cs, which mirrors the conceptual 'funnel-like' approach some researchers have described (Fassinger, 2005; Marshall & Rossman, 1999). No a-priori frameworks were introduced to respondents, given the goal to generate an unbiased local conceptualization of PYD and identify PYD traits that are relevant and current. Such a qualitative process enables a rich snapshot of naturally occurring behavior and youth positive development as it is seen through the eyes of youth experts (Fine & Elsbach, 2000).

Procedures

Interviews were conducted in person by a single interviewer, namely the first author. After respondents provided consent to participate, the interviewer explained the goals of the study. Respondents were asked to keep in mind adolescents from different socio-economic backgrounds and contexts within the Klang Valley as they provide their responses. On average, Parts 1 and 2 were completed in 40 minutes (ranging from 23 to 76 minutes). All interviews were audio-recorded, and later transcribed verbatim by undergraduate and graduate research assistants (RAs), or by the first author. In cases where interviews or portions of the interview were in the Malay language, transcription was first done in Malay, and then translated to English by the first author.

Analyses

Transcribed interviews were evaluated using textual analysis, a form of qualitative *content analysis*, defined as a systematic technique for compressing larger amounts of text into fewer content categories (Stemler, 2001). Following the principles of qualitative

grounded theory coding, codes were *not* predetermined by the researcher but emerged from a careful line-by-line examination of the data (Charmaz, 2004; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006).

Identification of lower-order codes. First, interview transcripts were read while listening to its audio recording to identify individual units of informant concepts, ideas, or 'codes'. Informant concepts describing positive development were identified within a sentence, or across sentences of the interview. In the current study, some sentences contained one or more codes; for example the following sentence had three: "They have decision-making skills, problem solving skills, even communication skills" (Interview #6). Conversely, a complete description of a code was sometimes acquired over several sentences, paragraphs, or pages of the interview (Ryan & Bernard, 2000). In general, lower-order codes are independent and non-overlapping descriptors (Ryan & Bernard, 2000). Synonyms and multiple meanings for words referenced by respondents were grouped under the same code (Stemler, 2001). For example, 'good public relations' and 'good social skills' were both codes that described interpersonal competencies, and later were grouped under the theme *Interpersonal and communication skills*.

Identification of higher-order themes. The second step involved taking a step back to see the 'recurring patterns' or the 'bigger picture' across respondents (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2008). Similar concepts expressed by several respondents were grouped together into broader themes, which include several inter related lower-order codes. In Grounded Theory procedures, this level of coding is termed *axial coding* which differs from the initial level of *open coding* (Fassinger, 2005). Higher-order themes or categories are more conceptual and analytic than codes (Charmaz, 2004). For example, 'shared family activities' is a broader category that encompassed informants' descriptions of 'eating

dinner together', 'going for outings together', and 'joint family activities'; this category was later incorporated within the theme "Connections with Parents and Family". Higher-order themes across all interviews were discussed with the Dissertation Chair to ensure independence between categories, and to facilitate a concise conceptualization of key themes. Although numerous themes emerged, in the final stages of analysis, a theme was presented in the Results when it was brought up by 20 percent or more of respondents.

Reliability of codes and Inter-coder agreement. One quarter of interviews in this study were independently checked by a second coder. Specifically, this process involved the verification of the list of codes compiled by the first author for all sections of these interviews. Trained Research assistants evaluated whether they disagreed or agreed with codes found, and also documented specific lines of the interview from which a code originated. RAs were provided the interview transcript, audio recording, and the list of codes generated for each interview segment. Overall inter-coder agreement was 98% (Table 3-4 and Appendix E).

RESULTS

Cultural conceptualization of the Five Cs in an Asian context

The first aim of this paper was to explore cultural-sensitive conceptualization of each of the Five C's of PYD. The following section summarizes findings across respondents for each dimension (see Table 3-2), and provides examples of the themes that emerged.

Caring

Three key themes describe caring in Malaysian adolescents: 1) Empathy and emotional support, 2) Helping and caring behaviors to individuals, and 3) Cares for Social institutions and the environment (see Figure 3-1). Sixty seven percent of youth professionals interviewed highlighted ***empathy and emotional support***. A caring youth shows *empathy*, is able to "put himself in another's shoes", to see and feel from the other's perspective, and understand their situation.

> "(At soccer, one) young person.. lost his bag. And then the whole team, their friends, went around the field. Just to look for his bag. And you can see the empathy for this guy, because he is not from a rich family. And.. all of (his teammates) really wanting to look around for the bag, ..showing concern, showing that they care. And showing.. empathy to that person" (Eddie, #5, community youth worker).

> "(Public) property.. they will think (about) others: 'Oh, if I spoil the public telephone then so many other people cannot use (it)'. That's the element of care, ..good thoughts for other people." (Mr Lee, #11, school leader)

Emotional support is extended through listening, by just being there, or lending support to a friend in need.

> "Sometimes I have seen (when) a student gets emotional.., the other students, will usually group around… Those who are closer (friends).. they try to talk to the person, ..give some emotional support. By just being there also." (Mr Raj, #8, college lecturer and counselor).

> "They are there.. lending a shoulder, ..giving an ear. They are willing to speak to a friend who is going through rough times. ..They show caring." (Thomas, #4, college lecturer).

> "I see it in a lot of (college-going) teens I work with.. they actually check in with the (younger) kids that they are working with. And they listen to what they have to say. .. That's a big part of caring" (Premala, #20, community youth worker).

The theme ***helping and caring behaviors*** which comprises caring actions toward youth's friends, parents, family, teachers, or other adults was described by 56% of

respondents. In addition to the examples below, a variety of caring behaviors were observed by respondents, such as “helping a fellow student in studies”, giving up one’s seat on the bus, or helping at home by doing chores.

> “When friend is sick, (they) write a note of encouragement. … They will visit, or they will (call and) ask how they are.” (Charmain, #7, community youth counselor).
>
> “My son (16, eldest), if there’s no one at home during lunch, he would prepare lunch for (his) two younger sisters. It’s just something that he would do. I wouldn’t have to tell him. My middle girl (age 12) would always look out (for her) younger sister – help her wash her hair or take her to the playground. Just keeping an eye on each other.” (Eliza, #10, lecturer)
>
> “I always carry 3 to 4 bags. Students – I don’t know them and they don’t know me – actually come (up to me) ‘Can I help you carry (your bag)?’ That is one part of being caring, being helpful. They see that you have a need and they just come over,” (Ms Poh, #6, counselor and lecturer).

The third theme ***Cares for social institutions and the environment****,* captures youth’s ability to care beyond one’s immediate friends or family. Areas highlighted were one’s school, the environment or nature, and an awareness of social issues. This ability to see beyond oneself and one’s immediate circle indicates youths’ growing maturity and potential to feel connected with a broader social institution, or to be in solidarity with a social cause.

> “(A caring student) takes care of school property. .. he shows concern. Example, a (visitor) went to the toilet, broke a pot of flowers. So this student was very concerned, comes (and reports) ‘Sir, sir…Somebody…’. He comes and tells you that. So that means.. his heart is in the school. If it (were) other people, they would think ‘Ahh, Don’t bother lah! Why should I bother?’ ” (Mr Lee, #11, school leader).
>
> “Caring for (her) school. ..The school’s functions, collecting donations, or to beautify the school compound, she will (get involved). She is caring.. With the environment or with the school.” (Mrs Sharifah, #12, school teacher).
>
> “Some are very environmental friendly. Or some would love animals. The way they treat ..nature, ..animals, it’s different. .. This group (of College youth)... ran a

> project on (the) environment.. After that.. finished, they were so into it. They (went to) other institutions to promote their exhibit.. these are all volunteers. They want to bring awareness on what happens under our seas." (Ms Poh, #6, counselor and lecturer).
>
> "Most youth.. are very concerned about.. the world, things affecting youth, things affecting people. They are very concerned about what's happening around them, now. Especially.. if something terrible crops up in the newspapers. Most of them are able to look at it and say that 'This is not just a piece of news, but it is something that I need to be concerned about.' And very often they are very.. socially aware" (Mr Raj, #8).

Character

Youth professionals perceived a youth with good character as one who is: 1) Courteous, 2) Caring, 3) with Positive values, 4) Peaceful, 5) Responsible in social roles, 6) has Self management, 7) Leadership qualities, and 8) Self direction (see Figure 3-2).

C*ourteous* was described by 73% of respondents in this study. It includes having "good manners", being polite, and "courteous" in interactions with different people.

> "…….he is very well mannered. .. You will see the politeness in that particular person" (Mr Lee, #11, school leader).
>
> "Good manners… Being polite… to anyone they come in contact with. Irrelevant of whether they are of the same age, or race, or gender." (Eliza, #10, lecturer).

Slightly over half the sample felt that ***Caring*** could be considered one component within Character.

> "Character is the big umbrella. Caring is part of it" (Ms Poh, #6, counselor and lecturer).

This theme is not dissimilar from the earlier Caring dimension. Described by 60% of youth professionals, *Caring* encompasses helpfulness, being compassionate, a youth who "appreciates others", and understands another's perspective. A *Caring* youth is one who

willingly extends his or her hand to help when a need arises, for example, being willing to help a student encountering difficulties, or to help a peer better understand a subject topic.

> "..is compassionate.. sharing the emotions of another person; feeling for the other person. And (caring) can be (observed) through a compassionate act." (Thomas, #4, lecturer).

In this Asian culture where harmonious living and inter-relatedness is emphasized over individualistic behaviors, it is not surprising that Caring was spontaneously brought up when respondents were asked to describe good Character.

Thirdly, a teen with good Character lives by ***positive values*** such as honesty, integrity, and moral values, according to 60% of respondents. It encompasses the ability to "discern between right and wrong", being aware of one's beliefs, and translating into practice one's values or religious teachings.

> "A person with good character will have principles that they abide in. Good values… you can see that they have strong values. They do not compromise. They stand.., speak up for their rights. .. Stand up among (their) peers – just because of what they believe in, their strong principles that guide them. … Integrity.. and of course honest. .. Someone (who) walks the talk." (Eddie, #5).

Peaceful is a culturally-specific theme for Character that illustrates a youth who is calm and pleasant. Described by 53% of respondents in total, adjectives used include "gentle", "humble", "likeable", "patient", and content, which as a whole illustrate a peaceful individual who has harmonious interpersonal relationships with others.

> "Well-liked by people" (Mr Lee, #11, school leader).

> "(He is) humble enough… to learn" (Eddie, #5, community youth worker).

Responsible in social roles was described by one third of respondents. It refers to being dependable and responsible as a student, student leader or family member (e.g., adolescent child, sibling), and behaving responsibly as a youth. Youth are cognizant of what adults expect of them in these social roles, and dutifully follow through with responsibilities given. Examples include, at home a teen obeys parents' curfew and returns home on time; in school a student behaves well, follows rules, and responsibly carries out school tasks; and student leaders are aware of their duties and effectively perform them.

> "A teenager who is responsible with their actions, with their words. A simple example: parents who allowed their teenagers to go out in the night, and they are given a curfew. A responsible teenager will.. be punctual; if they say they are going to come back at 10, they will come back at 10pm. So they would not misuse the freedom that is given to them." (Eddie, #5).

> "Responsibility (in relation to) tasks given in school. The rules, the role that they play. They are students, so (their) responsibility is to be a good student." (Eddie, #5).

> "The first thing that comes to my mind is responsibility.. the (student) knows what are his duties and he carries it out well. .. There are some (Class) monitors who are very good, they know their duties.. example, they.. collect their student attendance book {buku rekod kawalan pelajar}" (Mr. Shan, #28, school teacher).

> "I know cases of students.. After school he has to go home and bathe his brother who is autistic. So he has to go home and brush his (brother's) teeth, bathe him and give him lunch. So I find strong character and responsible." (Mr Shan, #28).

Behaving responsibly, in an acceptable manner, and being trustworthy also comes under this theme, with respondents using words such as "well-behaved" and "trustworthy" to describe good character. One respondent noted how teens who smoke or go to pubs, and boys who wear ear-rings may be automatically stereotyped as having 'bad character'. In reality, non-delinquent behavior *is* favored although this was raised indirectly.

> "A.. young person who shows good character.. (is one who) doesn't put earrings on his nose, or his ear if he's a male. … That young person is smoking – (that's) bad

> character. This young person is not smoking – good character. That young person goes clubbing – bad character." (Thomas, #4, college lecturer).

Character is also seen in youths' ***self-management***, in that they have good time management, are "self-disciplined", have an "internal locus of control", and take responsibility for themselves.

> "They are quite disciplined" (Robert, #19, community mental health professional).
>
> "Time management.. giving priorities: what to do first, what to do next" (Mrs Zaitun, 23).

While ***self-direction*** points to youths who know what they want in life, then work toward achieving these goals. *Self-management* and *self-direction* were highlighted by 33% and 27% of respondents respectively.

> "Someone who knows what he or she wants in life. .. Someone who is very driven. ... They set (long-term) goals for themselves.. as young as 14, 15 (years old). Starting from early secondary school, this (13-year old) girl wanted to be a doctor. Her parents thought, give her a few more years to think it through. (Consistently until Secondary 5), she still wanted to (be a doctor). There is a clear goal. .. She's a doctor right now." (Eddie, #5)

Leadership quality was brought up by a third of the sample. Different facets of leadership were described, such as the willingness to take charge, the "ability to lead other people", and to organize a group. Being systematic and organized may be core attributes of a leader.

> "Leadership… first we can see (this from) whether that (youth) is organized or not". (Mr Lee, #11, school leader).
>
> "Leadership, it actually starts with… self-leadership. Then.. taking responsibility for the benefit of others" (Mr Raj, #8).

Competence

Competence in youth is firstly characterized by *interpersonal and communication skills with peers and adults*, according to 53% of youth professionals interviewed. Closely related was the theme *leadership skills*. Just under half the sample emphasized *academic and learning skills*, while one third of respondents provided examples of *positive leisure.* Another theme, *self directed learning* points to youths' initiative and effort to acquire knowledge and skills, and was brought up by 27% of respondents (see Figure 3-3).

Interpersonal- communication skills encompasses being competent in social interactions, ability "to express one's thoughts" clearly, skills to converse with both peers and adults, and being able to initiate friendships with peers. This first theme was highlighted by over half of the sample.

> "Interpersonal communication, interpersonal relationships. … They are able to communicate. They dare to talk, speak their mind; they are able to dialogue with you." (Ms Poh, #6).

> "Social skills.. some (youth) are capable of interacting well with other people on a one-on-one basis. (Others are) ..able to get people together.. Groups of people getting involved with groups of people. Able to.. interact well. But not only just with friends." (Mr. Raj, #8, lecturer and counselor).

> "Make friends.. have social skills. Within their own environment, whether it's at school, ...when they go for tuition classes – Not being shy or introvert, but.. able to really mix well and get to know different people (their own age). Social skills would be to know how to get along with different people. To know that there are differences, and to be very aware of how not to hurt people's feelings." (Eliza, #10, lecturer).

One respondent felt that Malaysia's education system should better emphasize interpersonal-communication skills for holistic youth development, versus its current primary focus on examination preparedness.

> "In our education system, we are trained to (focus on) the final exam. We can be smart, quite intelligent in school, score As. But.. when young people come out in the world, it is a *totally different* environment. It's not how much you memorize or

> how much you know. But it's more of how you connect with people. The life skill of communicating.." (Eddie, #5, community youth worker).

Several respondents talked about the youths having good friends and "a good social network". Interpersonal skills includes being able to choose friends wisely, and to handle peer pressure.

> "Getting along with peers is another competence. Being friendly.. getting along with everybody. But at the same time, (youth) also has some best friends that you like to hang around more often than other people" (Mrs Zaitun, #23).

> "Peer pressure… Standing up to your friends is difficult. It is also extra difficult if you've never done it before, and you don't know how. So it's a skill, of knowing how to say No. That would be a competent teen, someone who can say "No, I don't want to do it, but we are still friends" (Premala, #20, community youth worker).

> "Able to know which friend they need to (approach or to avoid).. Choosing friends" (Robert, #19, community mental health professional).

In discussing interpersonal-communication skills, several Malaysian respondents pointed out the importance of showing deference to those senior to youth. With peers, this involves older students or 'seniors' in school or community organizations. Respecting adults in general, addressing them in a way that portrays this (e.g., Mr, Mrs), and using proper salutations was necessary (e.g., Professor, Dr). This corresponds with cross-cultural work where Malaysia was described as highly valuing power distance and hierarchy in social relationships (Hofstede, 1983).

> "Social skills.. Using the right words to different groups of people. I'm talking about (in the) Malay (language), there are certain terminology which is more appropriate for peer group, some other (terms) for (use) with adults. Like the word 'awak' (in English 'you'); In Malay 'awak' is just to your own peers. But to someone who's older you call 'kakak, abang, encik, puan' {sister, brother, Mr, Mrs}" (Mrs Zaitun, #23).

> "P.R. (interpersonal skills). Able to know which friend… friendship, choosing friends. Showing seniors (that) you respect them. Social (skills)." (Robert, #19, community mental health professional).

> "Talking about social skills.. at university.. I always emphasize (when I introduce myself on) the first day of class. "I'm (a Professor, with) a PhD. You don't call me 'Puan' {Mrs}. 'Puan', you don't need a PhD to get a title 'Puan' ...you just get married to get that title." Just to illustrate, that social skill(s) you must address the person according to their proper status. (Mrs Zaitun, #23)"

Leadership skills, described by 33% of the sample, includes skills such as organizing skills, the ability to "bring people together", or to "lead the organization" at school. These specific abilities are necessary for youth leaders in student clubs or organizations, or even as a leader among one's peers.

> "(Able to) influence people.. Being a leader, things like that" (Eddie, #5).

> "Organize activities. This coming Saturday there is a singing competition (in the school). On their own, (the students) went and invited the Astro superstar to come (as a guest). The school didn't do it. This shows their organizing skills." (Mr Lee, #11, school leader).

The same set of respondents had discussed *leadership skills* (under Competence) as well as leadership quality (under Character). Within Character, leadership quality appears to reference personality attributes within the individual. While within Competence, leadership skills focuses more on observable behaviors within one's social environment.

The next Competence theme was brought up by 60% of youth professionals in this study. ***Academic and learning skills*** incorporates having basic academic skills such as the 3 Rs (reading, writing and arithmetic), understanding schoolwork, and performing at an average to above-average level in school. Twenty percent of respondents noted that some youth with such academic competencies simultaneously achieve good grades in school.

However, the majority emphasized acquiring fundamental academic skills, or youths' desire to learn.

> "Academic. They have.. at least the basic calculation, basic words. (Getting) Bs or Cs." (Ms Poh, #6)

> "Not just getting good grades, but going a bit beyond, ..like learning well. Because getting good grades is very task oriented – 'I learn this so I can get the grade'. But there are some students who will go beyond that. That means they.. actually learn a lot more. And.. being able to articulate things that revolve around the subject at hand" (Mr Raj, #8).

Language proficiency is one culturally-specific competency, and was talked about by 27% of respondents. It intersects with both interpersonal and academic themes. Living in a multi-ethnic society, respondents highlighted the advantage of youth being able to converse in different languages, and the necessity to master at least one.

> "Language.. the way they speak. In Malaysia, ..the main (languages) are English, Malay, and Mandarin maybe. For example.., my son, when he goes to (Buddhist) Sunday school, his friends are all from Chinese schools – so there he speaks Mandarin. When in.. his own school, he speaks English. At home.. it's a mixture (of) English, Malay, Mandarin." (Mr Yung, #2, school teacher).

> "Good command of language (is important)" (Mrs Sharifah, #12, school teacher; Charmain, #7, community youth counselor)

Employers have consistently cited the lack of language skills both spoken and written, as a main cause of unemployment among college graduates (Hii, 2007).

> "Because the problem in this school is the language. (Students) don't understand BM {the Malay language}, (they) don't understand English, and there's also a low understanding of Mandarin. So there's problem in language." (Mrs Sharifah, #12).

Self-directed learning. Several respondents (including Mr Raj above) talked about youth's initiative and effort to acquire competence in academic and non-academic competence. They take charge of their learning, and are *self-directed*.

> "The drive to know more, ..to learn. (The competence or) life skill is: that drive to equip yourself to know more, to learn more. So that you can be.. prepared for life, for (the) journey ahead. Not when you are forced to, (because) when you are forced.., you don't really want to." (Eddie, #5)

> "MSN.. Computer skills.. General knowledge (from) around the world. A lot of things (this youth) is knowledgeable about. He learnt from the internet.. (Picks things up) on his own, nobody taught him." (Mr Yung, #2, school teacher).

Positive leisure. Having a hobby, or area of interest in which youths were competent was another important theme, according to 33% of the sample. Youth professionals provided examples such as music, dance, sports, computer or technology related, cooking, or sewing. Being competent in one of these non-academic leisure areas can bring about opportunities for innovation, serve as useful skills later in life, or point to a future career direction.

> "Competent.. Knowledgeable in some specific skill. ..They can fix a phone. Or they are good in sports. Well-rounded person." (Charmain, #7).

> "He can rap.. songs. He uses his own words. Raps (the tune) on his own, changes the (lyrics) everything. Just the way he moves his fingers, the way he shakes his body." (Mr Yung, #2, school teacher).

> "(Youth) take up certain hobbies – it does not matter what (type of) hobby – in sports or cooking… When studying overseas, you need to know how to cook. (Or) knowing how to sew.. shoemaker. Like our Datuk Jimmy Choo.. You know how to sew, you sew for the Queen {Permaisuri Agong}, you get into the inner circle." (Mrs Zaitun, #23, college lecturer).

Confidence

Five key themes describe Confidence in Malaysian youth: 1) Comfortable with oneself, 2) Confidence in communication and interpersonal situations, 3) Self- direction, 4) Public speaking in a large group, and 5) Calm and copes in challenging situations (see Figure 3-4).

At the core of Confidence is being ***comfortable with oneself***, having self-acceptance, or good self esteem. This theme was raised by 47 % of respondents. A youth with this fourth C is happy with himself, not overly concerned about what others think, is open and honest when relating to others. The manner in which he carries himself (e.g., external behavior such as walking tall, maintaining eye contact) reflects the presence or lack of this secure sense of self.

> "They have good self-esteem, or at least to a reasonably good level. .. They carry themselves well.. it's walking, talking, how they deal with people." (Mr Raj, #8, college lecturer and counselor)
>
> "Just the way they present themselves. They're very open, they're honest with themselves. They are honest with people around them. Very secure in themselves." (Eliza, #10, college lecturer).
>
> "Just being confident of his or her own self. Not being swayed anywhere. They do things because *they* want to do it. And they don't really care about what other people think. ... A shy person can still be confident of himself.. 'I want to be shy, I *like* the way I am' " (Ibrahim, #24, college lecturer).

The theme ***confidence in communication and interpersonal situations*** points to youths who are self-assured in their interactions with others, can confidently express their thoughts and intentions, and clearly communicate. This was highlighted by 47% of respondents. In contrast to the focus on being *able* to communicate and having interpersonal skills (when discussing Competence), the emphasis here is the *confident* manner in which youth expresses her views, and carries out conversations with adults beyond presenting memorized facts.

> "(A youth) who is confident is someone who can – without being forced – to stand up, and state whatever it is they are thinking.. with respect to others" (Premala, #20).
>
> "They are able to present what they want to say, ..articulate whatever their intentions are. .. Willing to voice their opinions and ideas. Not worrying so much

> about other people's opinions. It's not that they are not respecting other's opinions; but to be able to voice their own view points." (Mr Raj, #8).

Closely related is the theme ***public speaking in a large group***, highlighted by 27 % of respondents. A confident youth speaks up clearly when giving a presentation, or making an announcement during the school assembly, and throws his voice when acting in a performance. This theme is different from *confidence in communication and interpersonal situations*. It is distinguishable in that the youth is able to face a crowd of people, and not just one or two individuals. Respondents acknowledged that such confidence generally does not occur spontaneously, but can be garnered through preparation before the event, practice, or past experience.

> "So even when they have to do public speaking, these (youth) are not afraid to speak in a crowd. Because when a person is confident, they will speak out loud. They will really throw their voice. The not-confident ones: they will tend to mumble." (Ms Poh, #6, college counselor and lecturer).

> "(A youth) who is willing to stand up in front of an audience - to just share his or her thoughts. Someone who is willing to speak up. .. It is different, because I think the extent of standing in front of public, there is more fear that creeps in. Someone who can overcome fear, overcome all this 'What will people think?', that kind of mindset." (Eddie, #5, community youth worker).

According to a third of respondents, another theme of Confidence is youth ***self-directedness***, encompassing having both an internal locus of control of one's present behavior, and a future vision. Different examples of self-directed behavior include setting personal goals, self-management, and self-selecting a new activity, or a future career. Although this theme shares close resemblance to *self-direction* in Character, only one respondent discussed this in both Character and Confidence dimensions.

> "They are more focused, they know what they want. They know what they need to do.. to get it. Goal setting." (Ms Poh, #6).
>
> "Confident about their direction in life" (Charmain, #7, community youth counselor).
>
> "Able to be in control. Sense of control. (Youths who) know when to discipline themselves back again (to their studies). (When they) play games, ..computer games or internet, .. have this discipline to stop." (Robert, community mental health professional).

The theme ***stays calm and copes in challenging situations*** emphasizes youth's ability to remain level-headed and cope well when faced with challenging circumstances or failure. This youth keeps a quiet sense of confidence, does not get agitated or panic, handles things calmly, and starts looking toward at a solution.

> "So many things happen, so many things we get at the last minute. And we have to run around to (attend) to so many things. At the last minute I can go to this Head Prefect and say, 'Look, I want this done'. And he will coolly say 'OK, it will be done'.. (he) doesn't panic. (This) I don't see in (other years') Head Prefect and Deputy Head. The others, they will shriek 'Arrhhhhhhhh!', 'Teacher, please don't tell us to do this now'… panics a lot. That's what I mean by lack of confidence." (Mr Shan, #28).
>
> "When there is difficulty, (a confident youth) will somehow find ways to troubleshoot, or find ways to cope with it, and to get through." (Ms Poh, #6)
>
> "(I) especially see her confidence, ..when she doesn't do very well (in a tournament). She doesn't break down. She has enough confidence in herself to say 'Yes I had a bad day, I made mistakes. But it's okay' " (Premala, #20).

Connections

Four key social relationships characterizing positive development are close relationships with parents (67% of respondents), positive peer connections (60% of respondents), opportunity to connect with teachers (33% of respondents), and sibling relationships (33% of respondents; see Figure 1.5).

Connections with Parents and Family. Respondents reported that quality youth-parent relationships are characterized firstly by *open communication*. When parents are non-judgmental, teens are willing to share about different aspects of their life, be it on their friends, studies, or even discuss topics such as sex and drugs.

> "Number one is of course the family – parents, siblings. There is adequate communication.. open lines of communication. There is respect.. mutual respect." (Mr Raj, #8, college lecturer and counselor)

> "(They are) able to communicate like friends… Share (about) anything under the sun." (Thomas, #4, college lecturer)

> "As sensitive as teenagers are, their defenses will be up. So even the slightest hint of being judgmental, they'll clam (up) and.. won't talk about it any more. So it's important (parents are) open.. to be sensitive enough. Just let the teen talk." (Premala, #20, community youth worker)

The youth-parent relationship is strengthened through *shared family activities* such as spending quality time, having a meal together, or by going on family excursions.

> "Eating together at dinner. Teenagers having dinner (with) family; family time. Even though it's 20 minutes, but it's quality time." (Mrs Zaitun, #23, college lecturer)

> "A good family connection will.. be bringing family together for (an) outing. Where they can bond and build relationship, and catch up with one another – knowing where they are in terms of work, in terms of school. Bringing family out for 'makan' {a meal}, or for a movie, or bowling. Where they can do family things together. .. So that (youth) know that they belong, they know that they are cared for." (Eddie, #5, community youth worker).

Connections with friends and peers is seen through mutually supportive friendships. Respondents highlighted how friends provide positive support, "a sense of belonging", "solidarity", and influence positive behaviors (e.g., respect, gratitude, being obedient to elders). At the same time, peers can also lead youth astray. Thus being able to

wisely select one's friends was important, similar to what was mentioned under Competence.

> "(From age) 13 to 19, it's peers which (are) most important. (Youth) know how to choose friends: (there are) good friends and bad friends. Everything good comes from their friends.. close friends, school friends. .. A (positive) friend.. can motivate you for good things; (gives) support, motivates" (Mrs Sharifah, #12, school teacher).

> "Friends.. give a certain sense of similarity… 'Hey, I'm not the only one going through these problems, my friends are also going through it.' .. Friends provide a sense of how far (one) can go, how much you can do. Provides.. challenge to do as well as, or better than your peers. It gives measures of conduct, measures of achievement" (Thomas, #4, college lecturer).

A theme which was brought up by one third of respondents is being able to ***connect with teachers*** in school, or with other adults. Given the large class sizes in the Klang Valley (teacher-student ratio of 1:40 or larger), frequently an entire academic year passes where most youth did not have any opportunities for a one-on-one conversation with teachers on non-academic matters. These connections likely need to be initiated by teachers, as most youth in this context would not confidently come forward on their own to do so. When youths and teachers do get the opportunity to connect (e.g., through an informal chat), teachers can provide important support, or be role models. Once this "bridge" or connection has been established, if in the future youth require advice or counseling, they would be more willing to come forward to ask for help.

> "Teachers (are) good role models and supportive (in relating with youth). Paying attention to them; to be caring. Be available to help.. in their character building. Not so much in academics… but the human connection. I think we emphasize too much on.. academic performance." (Charmain, #7, community youth counselor).

> "Talking about school, (youth having) some teachers whom they can trust. Not all teachers perhaps. Maybe better chemistry with some teachers, (or) one teacher." (Mrs Zaitun, #23).

Good ***sibling relationships*** is another theme for Connections, based on a third of the sample. These are characterized by respect, open communication, or shared activities.

> "A close bonded relationship (among siblings) will help because the brother and sister are in the (same) immediate family unit. (Having) open communication… Sharing something similar, they have a common interest." (Charmain, #7).

Respondents were also asked to rank the importance of a list of traits, for each of the Five Cs dimensions. To ensure Chapter 3 remained succinct, results from this portion of the qualitative interview were not included. However, the top three most valued traits for Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections are summarized in Appendix D

Positive themes mapping onto the Five C framework

Prior to introducing the Five Cs framework in the qualitative interviews, respondents were asked to provide three traits, characteristics, or behaviors that best describe positive and healthy development in youth. The themes that emerged include: 1) Interpersonal competencies (53% of respondents), 2) Confidence and self-direction (47%), 3) Cognitive flexibility and emotional regulation (47%), and 4) Positive leisure activities (47%) (see Table 3-3).

Interpersonal competencies encompasses social skills, and youths' ability to communicate with others. Being polite, "having good manners", and behaving in a responsible manner in different social roles (e.g., student, family member) were highlighted. This theme maps on well to Competence and interpersonal elements of Character (i.e., *Courteous*, and *Responsible*) in the Five Cs model,

> "The main.. factor for positive development of a teenager, a young person, is going to be seen from the social aspect.. the relational aspect. This teen is comfortable relating with people around him. And it could be relating to people from different age groups" (Thomas, #4, lecturer).

> "Behavior.. instilled with positive virtues such as Eastern values.. being polite and courteous. More specifically, (when) teens do not go against elders or argue with them. That is considered having good manners" (Mr Nizar, #17, school teacher).

Confidence and Self-direction encompasses self acceptance, having an optimistic future view, the courage to express one's individuality, and to explore new things. A central focus of adolescent years relate to learning, and looking ahead to the years beyond secondary school. Confidence thus includes having an optimistic future vision and purpose. With this comes self-directedness, having personal goals, and youth channeling their energy toward that vision for self. This theme corresponds with the dimension Confidence.

> "They are.. more confident in how they interact with people. They are confident with themselves, ..confident with their own image (Eddie, #5, community youth worker)"

> "They are not afraid to speak up and be heard. They are also confident that they have a *right* to their own opinion as well. So they don't (follow submissively), they don't say 'OK, I'll just go with mainstream.' But they dare to be different" (Premala, #20, community youth worker).

> "How self directed they are.. whether they have goals, ..purpose. It doesn't have to be a grand vision of 'I'm going to be a world leader' or something like that. I've met some at very young age and they said 'Oh, by the age of 35, I want to be the CEO in a company.' Some. But others also have their own vision so they'll say, 'I want to get this degree.' At least have some intermediate or (short) term goals. 'While I get a degree in this, and then from there I plan to proceed and do this.' So that there is direction, there is purpose ..that channels their energy towards something. (Mr. Raj, #8, lecturer and counselor)"

Positive leisure activities emerged as a theme here as well as when Competence in the Five-Cs model was discussed. In an Asian context such as in Malaysia where academic achievement is frequently over-emphasized, this points to the need for exploration and involvement in non-academic positive activities. Youth who are very motivated actively invest much time and effort in pursuing their interest area.

> "We have one boy here, he is not good in academics. But.. he is interested in Taekwando (and) he is willing to (travel a long distance) for training. His family is not so well off. But (with this strong) interest.., he can do it. I think that's (a) positive thing that's happening. So even though a student is not rich, and not smart, but he (has) one (positive activity) that drives him." (Mrs Sharifah, #12, teacher)

> "A lot of young people, boys especially – They are very interested in technology. They have the interest and they just try out… They are willing to spend money, to invest - to fix.. to build their own computer. They do not learn from school, but.. from experience." (Charmain, #7, community youth counselor)

The theme, ***cognitive flexibility*** *and emotion regulation* contains elements similar to those described earlier in the Five Cs framework, specifically under Competence (the theme 'academic and learning skills'). Cognitive flexibility is the ability to think things through when making a decision, faced with a challenge or a problem (e.g., considers consequences of an action, evaluates costs and benefits of two choices).

> "A healthy teen would be someone who is able to think through the issues. So I'm saying cognitive, quite deep cognitive – to *think* through the pros and the cons, to think about the possible implications of a certain action or a certain word" (Thomas, #4, lecturer)

Youth exercise problem-solving and decision-making skills in different situations, and youth leaders likely do so more frequently. In learning institutions, these cognitive abilities are demonstrated when youth reason well, and observed in their desire and passion to

learn. Essentially, this youth does not hastily give up or avoid a challenging situation. Instead, she is open toward taking on a difficult task, is hardworking, and willing to learn.

> "They are open to things that are difficult to understand. (They are) still trying to understand.., open to it. (Charmain, #7, community youth counselor)

With ***emotion regulation***, youth cope well with stress, manage emotions well, and can move forward after experiencing a failure or tragedy. Essentially he does not despair or give up easily in the face of difficult circumstances, but shows cognitive and emotional flexibility to be able to regroup then start over.

> "Quite a number of my students (show) resilience, the ability to bounce back from personal tragedy. When I said 'tragedy' it doesn't have to be.. a crisis. It could be small personal tragedies, like.. failing in an exam. (So) taking a look at it and say that 'Ok, I failed. I need to move on. What can I do differently?' (Mr. Raj, #8, college lecturer and counselor).

Regarding emotions, youth are able to effectively talk about their feelings, particularly negative emotions such as anger, and know how to appropriately express them. When translated into coping, this cognitive- emotional flexibility is seen when youth effectively multi-task, are not overwhelmed by stress, can balance different expectations or responsibilities (e.g., own studies, from parents), and is able to stay happy.

Positive dimensions beyond the Five C framework

Forty percent of respondents viewed ***spiritual values and practice*** as a necessary *additional* dimension to the Five Cs to describe positive development in this cultural context (see Table 3-3). Youth that align to a religion or a spiritual tradition have a higher purpose, sense of what's right or wrong, and principles which guide their behavior.

> "God- fearing (attitude). You live out a life that would please God… you know that you need to do your best. Be responsible, be accountable to things around you ..not hurt or harm other people intentionally. Living it as a way of life. .. As long as you

> are God-fearing then you would work on your character that is based on godly values" (Ms Poh, #6, counselor and lecturer).

Having a God-fearing attitude translates into being responsible and accountable in their interactions with others, doing one's best, and living life according to religious teachings and universal values (e.g., the 'golden rule' of treating others as you would like to be treated).

> "In order to see whether a person has matured, developed as a whole, ..we should also see how his relationship with God.. When you have good relationship with God, there is some kind of anchor in life. It shows in the way you talk, your attitude, the way you deal with others, the way you allow other people to deal with you" (Mr. Shan, #28, teacher).

For some youth, spiritual knowledge and their relationship with a higher being, influences their *entire* character and development. It even inspires other positive elements, from caring to genuine connections with others.

> "All religions in this world ask their followers to do good. Love your neighbor like you love yourself. Religion (provides) a guideline.. we must do good in this world, (because we also believe in the) hereafter" (Mrs. Sharifah, #12, school teacher).

> "Spiritual values. To have a knowledge and a relationship with a higher being. Spiritual principles… that guide one's life. And I've seen it before, how it transform a young person. Their character, motives (are) driven by the spiritual principles, driven by their spiritual relationship (with God). (Eddie, #5, community youth worker)

DISCUSSION

Youth live within specific cultures where certain behaviors or culture-specific traits of youth development are emphasized (Triandis, 1999). For example, in Malaysian society which emphasizes relatedness rather than individualism, unique developmental-contextual circumstances could emerge (Larson et al., 2002; Stewart, Bond, Deeds, & Chung, 1999).

This study's effort to promote culturally-sensitive conceptualization of PYD and its assessment is important towards developing effective youth programming.

Malaysian youth professionals agreed that the Five Cs provide a workable framework in conceptualizing PYD in this Asian country. In general, the broader positive themes identified appear to transcend Western and Asian cultural differences. At the same time, examples of how these positive traits are expressed and specific behaviors highlighted may be culture specific. Results indicate the distinctiveness of each C from the other is not always clear, as a few similar themes are reported in more than one dimension. For example, leadership quality or leadership skills are similar themes reported in both Character and Competence. It highlights the complexity of human behavior that is dynamic and that overlaps across dimensions. What is encouraging, however, is that Malaysian respondents were *able* to clearly illustrate these traits and behaviors, and to identify specific themes that reflect positive development. This is likely more important than fitting traits neatly into a Five C framework, even though findings in this paper in general support five dimensions with well-defined descriptors.

Two key recommendations are provided for future PYD research efforts, namely qualitative studies involving multiple reporters, and the inclusion of culturally sensitive scales in quantitative studies to more comprehensively assess PYD in an Asian context.

Multi-method assessments

Adult youth practitioners interviewed in this study provided an objective view of positive development among adolescents, as respondents were not faced with pressures to respond in a socially desirable manner. Adult participants' perspectives consisted of both observed PYD, and expectations of healthy behaviors. Although their responses would be

viewed positively by other adults, their professional expectations may not equal to youth's own reports or researcher observed positive behaviors. Future qualitative studies could therefore include multiple reporters especially youths' perspectives, parent or teacher reports, or observational studies. Youths' voices on what constitutes PYD may well provide additional themes (e.g., peer loyalty), or reveal positive developmental themes specific to adolescents' age. For instance, youth in early adolescence may highlight examples of being comfortable with one's changing body, while youth in late adolescence may emphasize romantic relationships.

Additional scales for future empirical research

Courteous and polite behavior as part of good Character. In a prior study (see Paper 1), Character was assessed through *honesty* and *integrity* scales. Youth professionals had ranked honesty, integrity, and positive values as the top three most valued traits representing good Character (Appendix D). Qualitative results also showed that seven other Character themes were important in this context (see Figure 3-2). Future studies may wish to include a scale on *courteous and polite behavior*, which reflect the importance of maintaining social cohesion and power hierarchy in a Malaysian setting (Hofstede, 1983; Maria, 2002). Items would include examples of being well-mannered, "I say Good Morning, or Hello to a school teacher when I meet him outside of school", "When I speak to adults, I am polite and do not raise my voice" "When I ask my teacher questions, I speak in a gentle or respectful manner", "When somebody helps me in a small way, I always remember to say Thank You." These are social expectations by adults in this sample, but which appear to be more 'surface-level' social etiquette gestures in nature. That is, when one is polite and courteous, it does not necessarily point to a deep-seated respect of the

individual they are interacting with. Respect is a deeper appreciation and valuing of what parents and teachers say (see Paper 1), and is distinguishable from being courteous and polite.

Positive leisure and Learning skills as elements of Competence. In a prior study (see Paper 1), *social skills* and *stress management* were scales used to tap into youth Competence. Based on qualitative results from this current study, future research assessing Competence could potentially include scales such as learning skills, and positive leisure activity. *Learning skills* which includes basic reading, writing, and arithmetic skills, and knowing how to learn material taught in school are crucial, for otherwise academic and school failure are imminent. It remains to be debated and tested however, whether such academic competencies should be incorporated *within* a PYD Five Cs measurement model. The inclusion of education-related constructs in the measurement model may powerfully drive a relationship with grades, classroom engagement, thriving, and other desirable youth indicators; whilst the role of other PYD indicators and dimensions remain less understood or hidden. *Positive leisure activity* has multiple benefits including enjoyment, confidence in self, opportunity for skill development, and acknowledgement from others. It especially serves as a protective factor for youths who struggle in school, or have poor academic performance.

Positive role models for Connections. A supportive role model is an important protective factor against risky behaviors, and can promote health, educational achievement, or resilience (Grossman & Bulle, 2006; Werner, 1995). Two things stand out in regards to Connections for youth in Malaysia. Firstly, several healthy elements of connections were described, namely open communication, mutual respect, and authoritative parenting behaviors (e.g., love, warmth). Results showed that the preferred relationship in which

youth experience this was through a close parent-youth connection. However, due to the many demands faced by parents in urban Asian countries, particularly in single-parent families; other adults such as teachers, extended family, older youth, or adult siblings can step in to be this positive *role model* in youth's life. Secondly, there is a need for adults to take the lead in facilitating healthy youth-adult relationships especially where strong social hierarchy norms exist. In Malaysia for example, youth are generally told what to do, and there are expectations to behave in a certain ways (for example, being a *responsible* student). Unprompted, several respondents talked about how adults must be attentive, and reach out to connect with youth at their level. An average Malaysian teen is more reserved, and less confident in initiating conversations or relationships with adults, even with their teachers. Further, teachers or adults may not consider such forward behavior as appropriate. Yet youth are not able to build all Five Cs solely on personal effort.

Spiritual values and practice is the relationship with God, one's Creator, and putting into practice the universally accepted values of one's religion (e.g., being God-fearing, showing compassion, practicing moderation). Malaysian youth professionals believe that this influences one's principles (Character), interactions and generous disposition toward others (Competence and Caring), feeling acceptance for oneself (Confidence), and relationships with other people (Connections). Spirituality can fit in at two places, one into positive values (under Character), or as its own separate dimension (i.e., Five Cs and Spirituality). Most respondents who talked about spirituality felt that it was not within Character, but a more prominent higher dimension. To measure spirituality, particularly in a context like Malaysia where different religions are embraced, questions may need to contain phrases which map onto common terms of reference in Islam, Buddhism, Hinduism, and Christianity, the four key religions practiced here. This may

help avoid confusion due to the unfamiliar terms used within a particular religion. For example, to a Buddhist teenager, concepts such as ‘a personal relationship with a loving God’ may be puzzling, whereas ‘following the right path’ would be more meaningful. Overly general questions regarding spirituality may not be understood by teens in Malaysia, as in this age range, their spiritual beliefs are primarily guided by their distinct religious faith. In developing the above scale, much thought is needed. What is interesting is several respondents’ suggestion that spirituality could essentially be the root from which grows the Five Cs.

> “The basis, the foundation has to be spiritual. When you have the spiritual right, then your character will come in. Then the care will come in. Then the competence, the confidence, the connections will come in.” (Eddie, #5)

CONCLUSION

The conceptualization of the Five Cs in Malaysia is generally similar to what has been found true in the United States. While certain themes may vary by cultural context, it is believed that the main dimensions of PYD namely Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections are important positive dimensions illustrating healthy youth development across the globe, and thus worth pursuing in both research and application. In Asia, while technological progress continues, more traditional themes remain important as a reflection of healthy development, one of those highlighted being the spirituality and core beliefs of the young person.

TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 3-1 *Participant Demographics*

Participant Code	Pseudonym	Organization	Ethnicity	Gender	Age	Years working with youth
20702	Mr. Yung	School	Chinese	Male	44	10
20704	Thomas	Academic	Indian	Male	44	3
20705	Eddie	Community	Chinese	Male	30	3
20706	Ms Poh	Academic	Chinese	Female	35	7
20707	Charmain	Community	Chinese	Female	35	6
20708	Mr. Raj	Academic	Indian	Male	48	3.5
20710	Eliza	Academic	Indian	Female	38	7
20711	Mr. Lee	School	Chinese	Male	56	34
20712	Mrs Sharifah	School	Malay	Female	40	13
20717	Mr. Nizar	School	Malay	Male	45	16
20719	Robert	Community	Chinese	Male	31	11
20720	Premala	Community	Indian	Female	27	3
20723	Mrs Zaitun	Academic	Malay	Female	62	39
20724	Ibrahim	Academic	Malay	Male	29	4.5
20728	Mr Shan	School	Indian	Male	40	18
N = 15		School = 5 Academic = 6 Community=5	Malay = 4 Chinese = 6 Indian = 5	Male = 9 Female = 6	Mean = 40	Mean = 12 years

Table 3-2 *Qualitative Themes for each of the Five Cs*

Five Cs Respondents	**Theme**	**%**
CARING	Empathy and emotional support	67
	Helping and caring behaviors to individuals	60
	Cares for Social institutions and the Environment	40
CHARACTER	Courteous	73
	Positive values	60
	Caring	60
	Peaceful	53
	Responsible in social roles	40
	Self management	33
	Leadership Qualities	33
	Self-direction	27
COMPETENCE	Interpersonal & communication skills with peers & adults	53
	Academic and learning skills	40
	Leadership skills	33
	Positive leisure	33
	Language proficiency	27
	Self- directed learning	27
CONFIDENCE	Comfortable with oneself	47
	Conf. in Communication & Interpersonal situations	47
	Self- directedness	33
	Public speaking in a large group	27
	Stays calm and Copes in challenging situations	27
CONNECTIONS	Connections with Parents & Family	67
	Connections with Friends and peers	60
	Connections with Teachers	33
	Connections with Siblings	33

Table 3-3
Key themes on Positive Youth Development

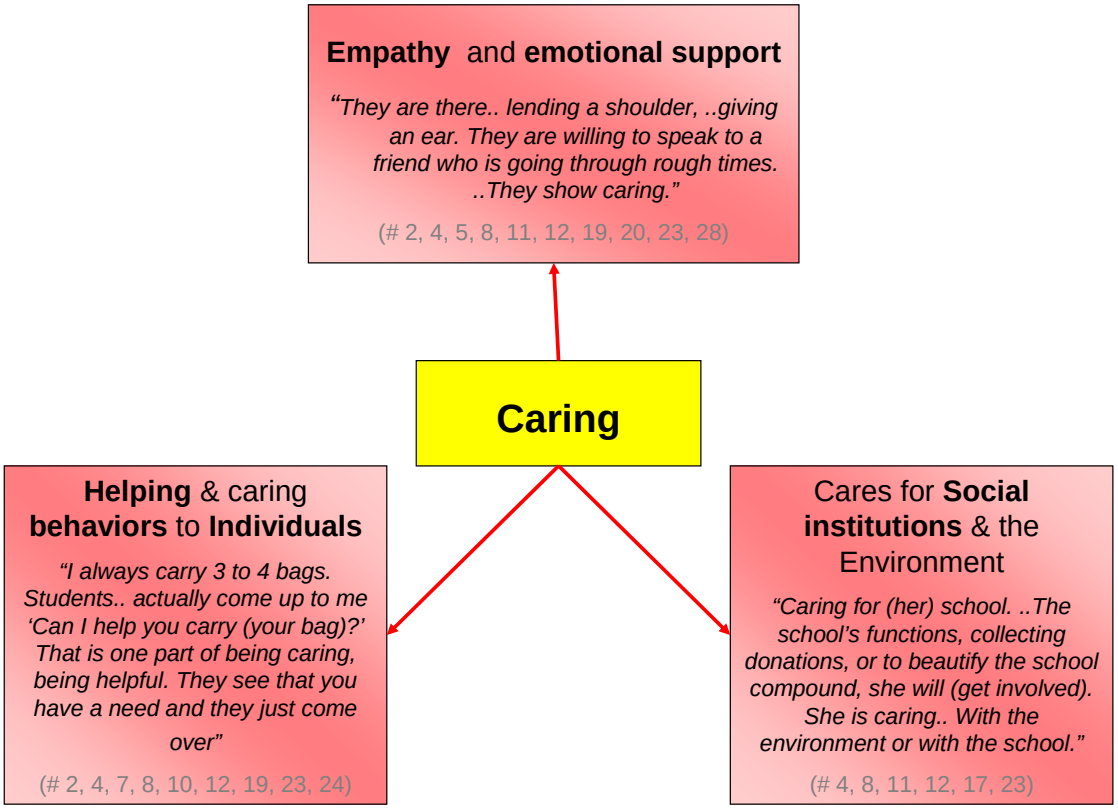
Positive dimensions mapping on to the Five Cs framework
• Confidence & Self-direction (N# 2, 4, 5, 12, 20, 23, 24) • Interpersonal competencies (N# 4, 5, 6, 7, 12, 17, 19, 20, 28) • Cognitive flexibility (N# 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 23), and Emotion regulation (N# 6, 7, 20, 23) • Positive leisure activities (N# 6, 7, 12, 17, 23, 24, 28)
Positive dimensions beyond the Five Cs framework for PYD in Asia
• Spiritual values and practice (N# 5, 6, 12, 19, 23, 28)

Table 3-4
Inter-coder Agreement

Interview ID	Number of codes	Codes in Agreement	% Agreement
20706	63	63	100.0
20707	41	40	97.6
20723	48	48	100.0
20728	39	37	94.9
	Average across interviews:		98.1 %

Figure 3-1

Key themes for Caring in Malaysian teens



Note: *# Numbers in grey refer to respondents who brought up this theme*

Figure 3-2

Key themes for Character in Malaysian teens

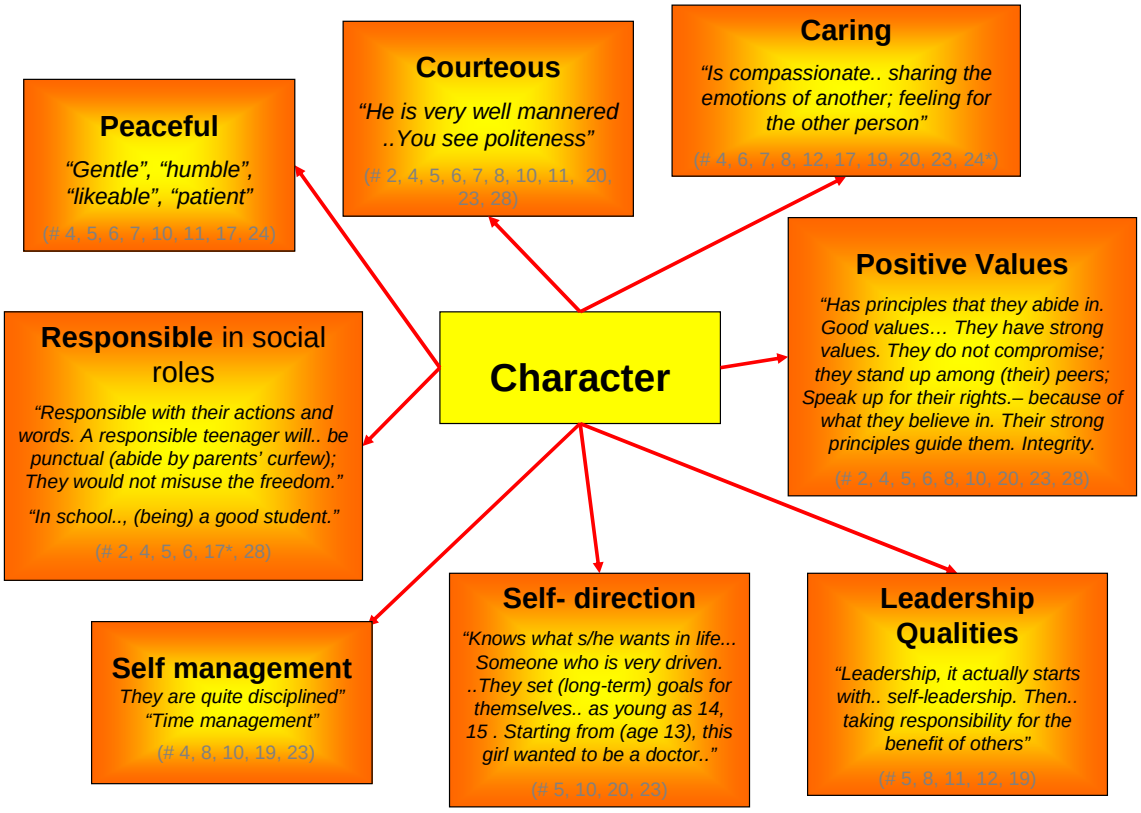


Figure 3-3

Key themes for Competence in Malaysian teens

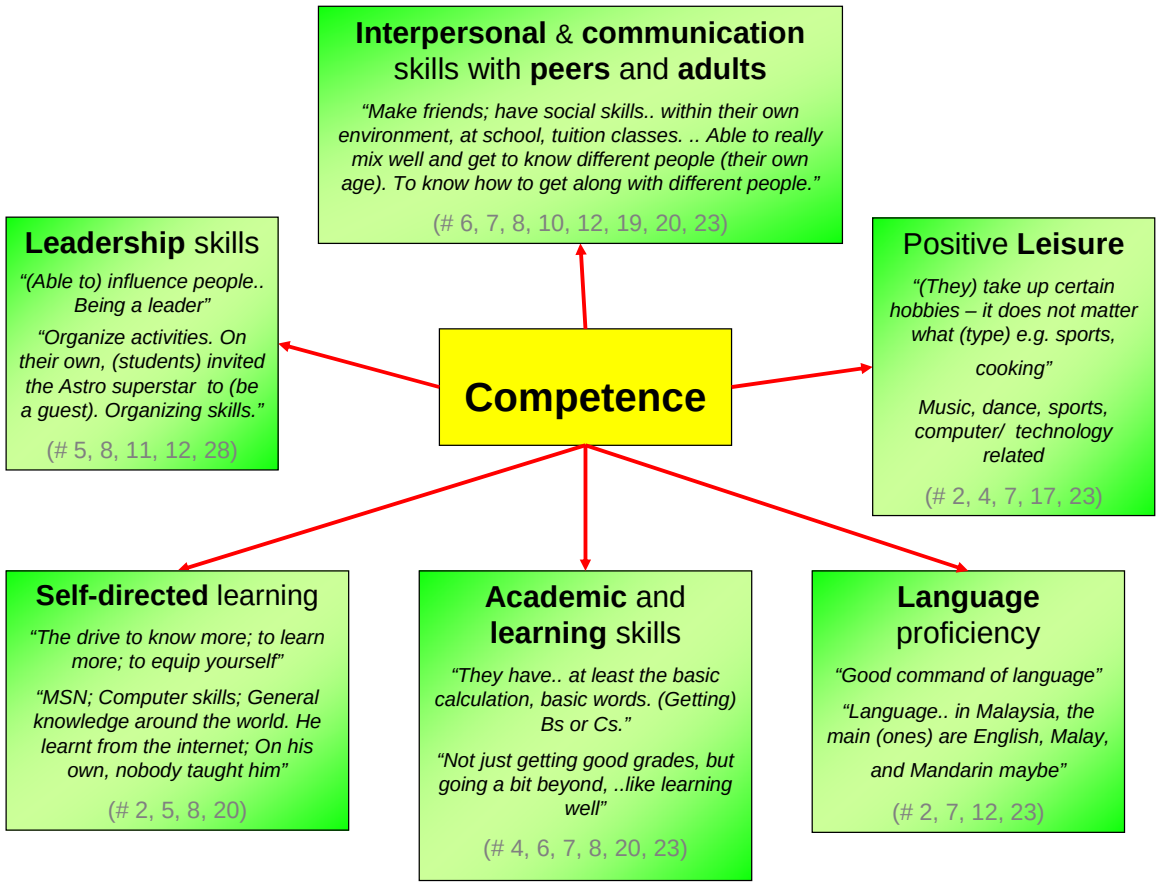


Figure 3-4

Key themes of Confidence in Malaysian teens

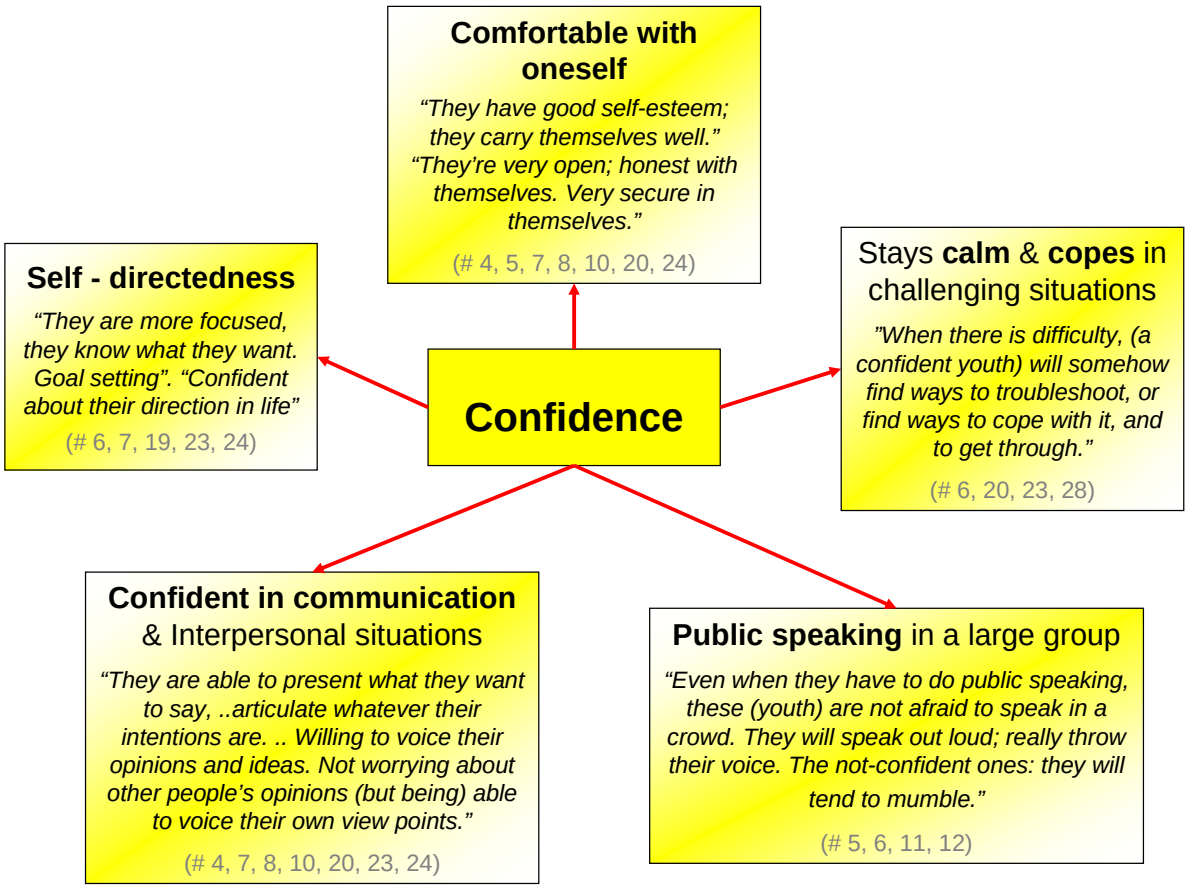
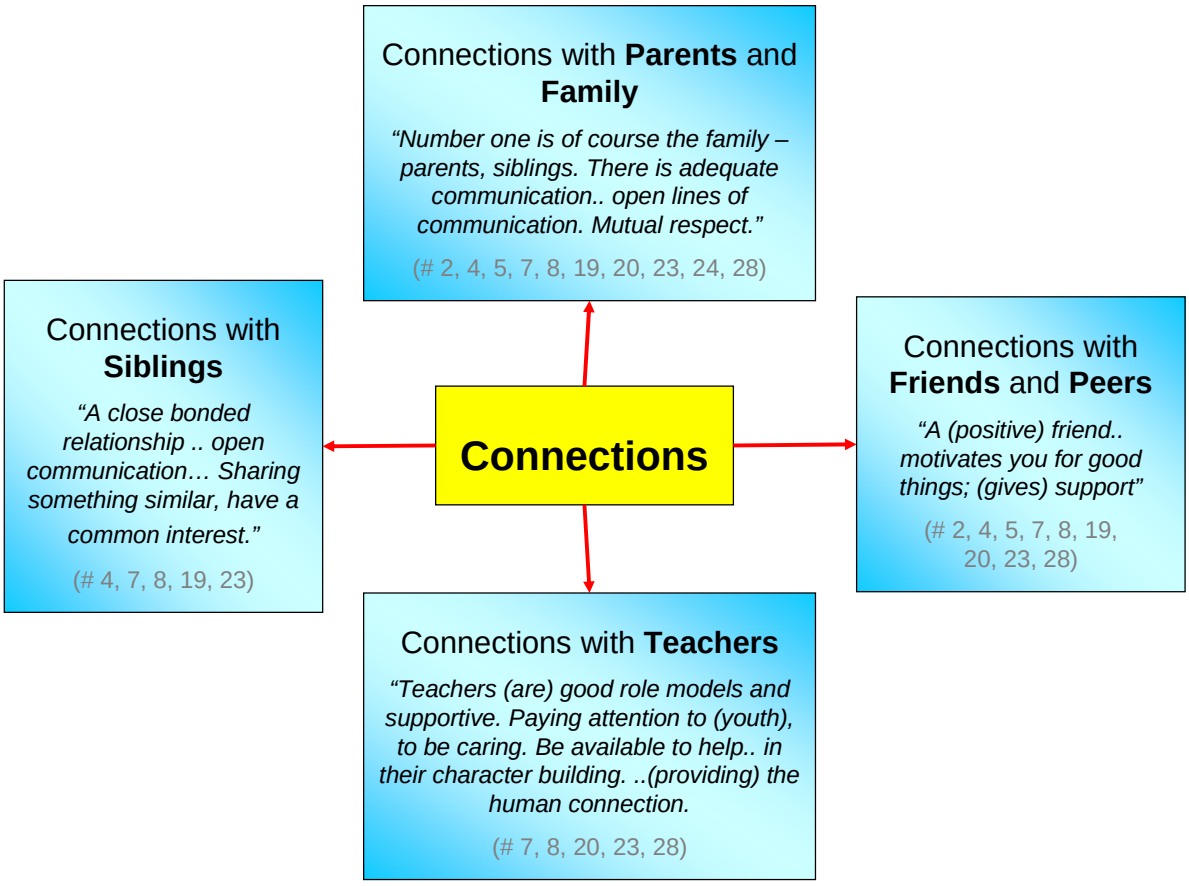


Figure 3-5

Key themes for Connections in Malaysian teens



Overall Conclusion and Future Directions

Overall, findings across chapters in this dissertation support the relevance of a multi-dimensional Five Cs framework in Malaysia, an urban Asian context, and the framework's application for PYD beyond the United States. In Chapter 1, quantitative measurement support was demonstrated for the Five Cs PYD framework among adolescents in early secondary school. In Chapter 2, the Five Cs were shown to be positively associated with youth healthy functioning (i.e., Prosocial Contribution), and negatively associated with youth substance use. In Chapter 3, Malaysian youth professionals were able to qualitatively conceptualize the phenomena of PYD, and provide examples of observed Five Cs behaviors among youth. Future work is suggested including testing the measurement model in other parts of Asia, exploring its utility in intervention research, further development and enhancement of the measurement model for use within Malaysia, and for comparative cross-cultural work across the globe.

Study Limitations

In Chapter 1, results confirmed a multi-dimensional measurement model, and the 12 PYD scales measured were summarized within the five latent dimensions Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections. Results may be specific to this particular sample of Malaysian adolescents and how they responded to items on the scales. Present findings may not be broadly generalizable, and it is not known whether youth from a different cultural context would respond in the same way, or whether a similar measurement model would fit best and be confirmed.

Secondly, this study utilized data from a single time point, and results that show significant relationships among variables do not confirm causality, or the directionality of relationships. For example, the inverse association between Connections and alcohol use could be arising from either direction (e.g., weak parent-youth relationships results in drinking, or that youth who drink report less Connections). Longitudinal intervention studies are necessary to show support for the protective role of the Five Cs. If youth who receive a Five Cs intervention demonstrated increased levels of these positive dimensions at post-test, and subsequently less substance use in high school compared to their peers who did not receive the intervention, this provides support that these positive dimensions can be enhanced, and that they predict less smoking and drinking.

Third, the present data originated from a single reporter. In Chapters 1 and 2, adolescent self-reports could be supported with data from other reporters. For example, parent reports, peer reports, and teacher reports would strengthen information on the quality of parent-youth relationships, on peer social interactions and supportiveness, and on youths' prosocial behaviors in the classroom respectively. In Chapter 3, adult youth professionals were interviewed to identify how they conceptualized PYD and the Five Cs. While their descriptions richly illustrated the perspective of a sample of adult practitioners, presently lacking were youths' own voices. The inclusion of both adults and youth in future studies would provide a more complete picture of PYD, illustrate the degree to which particular traits are emphasized by adult or youth respondent, and better enable the identification of PYD traits within a society.

Towards a Five Cs measurement model of Positive Youth Development in Asia

Empirical support and good model fit was found for a five-factor measurement structure which mapped on to the Five Cs PYD framework, namely Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections. This model was also satisfactorily invariant across gender, confirming that PYD can be assessed reliably for both boys and girls. Caring comprised two scales *empathy* and *social concern*, Character through *values of integrity* and *honesty*, Competence was indexed by *social skills* and *stress management*, Confidence consisted of *global self-worth*, *self-esteem*, and *optimistic identity*, and Connections encompassed *positive parent connections* and *positive peer connections*. Utilizing this Five Cs measure, girls reported higher Caring, Character and Connections, and boys higher Confidence; while higher Confidence and Competence was seen in adolescents from higher SES.

In many instances, Five Cs themes spontaneously raised by respondents in Chapter 3 matched the PYD scales utilized in the first and second Chapters; for example, the scales empathy in Caring, social skills in Competence, Connections with parents, and positive peer Connections. Table 4-1 shows that *all* the scales utilized in the Five Cs measurement model (Chapter 1) were identified as important by adult youth professionals (in Chapter 3). Among these only two scales brought up by youth professional were in dimensions different than in the Chapter 1 measurement model. The first, *stays calm and copes in challenging situations* was viewed as a theme under Confidence, while it was included within Competence in the first study. The second theme, *courteous* was viewed as an integral theme reflecting good Character, and most closely mapped on to the respect scale. Structural equation modeling results showed that respect was more appropriately modeled within the dimension Connections.

The significance of the twelve PYD scales in the measurement model was corroborated in another portion of the third study, where respondents rated the degree to which scales were valued in this Malaysian context. These results are summarized in Appendix D. Given the quantitative support and preliminary qualitative support for this PYD measurement model in urban Malaysia, future research can test the five-factor measurement model in different urban Asian contexts so as to further the measurement of positive indicators, and increase our understanding of international positive youth development.

Towards a Five Cs approach in prevention and interventions in Asia

In Chapter 2, Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections were each significantly and negatively correlated with smoking and alcohol use. Regression analysis showed that higher Connections was significantly associated with less smoking and drinking. Prevention researchers in Asia may want to start with building positive Connections (particularly with parents), and subsequently add other Cs to their intervention model for preventing substance use. Although the inverse associations found between the Five Cs and substance use illustrate its potential protective role in preventing or reducing youth cigarette and alcohol use, longitudinal intervention studies to further investigate these associations remain crucial.

Four of the Five Cs also significantly predicted prosocial Contribution, and these findings are comparable to the literature where studies examined singular positive dimensions (Carlo et al., 2003; Carlo et al., 2007; Metz & Youniss, 2005). Efforts to build the Five Cs in Asia can be expected to set in motion positive functioning, specifically youth prosocial engagement and outreach. Youths when engaged in prosocial contribution

are using time in a positive manner, and this minimizes time to engage in substance use activities. Future PYD studies can expand on current findings, such as by examining whether the Five Cs similarly predicts other desirable youth indicators such as thriving, academic achievement, positive leisure activities, leadership, or spirituality; as well as predict reduction in youth externalizing problems such as delinquency, and internalizing problems such as depression. To ensure future prevention and intervention programs are research-driven, comprehensive etiological studies are first needed to acquire a broad understanding of risk and protective factors for different youth problem behaviors.

Towards future PYD measures for use in Asia

In Chapter 3, adult youth professionals from secondary schools, colleges, and in the community confirmed the Five Cs was suitable for describing PYD, were able to conceptualize and provide examples of Caring, good Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections among Malaysian adolescents. Starting with informant's own words, content analysis procedures were utilized to identify broader themes. Findings put forward themes that can be used as positive indicators to further enhance PYD instruments for Malaysia, following systematic work on instrument development or adaptation. Some themes emphasized may be specific to this cultural context; for example half the themes in Character point to the importance of harmonious social relationships (e.g., being polite or courteous, peaceful, responsible in social roles), and of respecting social hierarchy. The importance of maintaining harmony in social relationships has Confucian influences; while respect ('hormat') is embedded within both Malay culture and the Islamic faith (Keats, 2000; Park & Kim, 2008).

Another important indicator for future PYD measures is spirituality, given that Malaysian youth professionals view this as a crucial PYD dimension (see Chapter 3). Specifically, *spiritual values and practice* refers to youth having a God-fearing attitude, knowledge about their religious teachings, and living their lives in a positive manner based on these spiritual or religious values. In this context, adolescents' spirituality would primarily relate to their religious faith. Key religions in Malaysia include Islam practiced primarily by individuals of Malay ethnicity, Buddhism and Taoism by Malaysian Chinese, Hinduism by Indians, and Christianity by Chinese, Indians, and some ethnic groups from East Malaysia. A scale that could reflect spirituality across these major religions in Malaysia could include items such as "I try to live out my religious beliefs in my daily life", "My spirituality helps me to understand my life's purpose", and "I am aware of God's presence in my life" (Mentoring Malaysia Technical Report, 2008). Research on youth spirituality and religiousity have recently gained prominence in the United States; these dimensions are seen as a life-shaping force, and shown to be related to numerous indicators of positive development (Roehlkepartain, Benson, King, & Wagener, 2005). Conversely, the absence of spirituality in Malaysian youth is related with more criminal behavior and substance use ("CPO: Students from national schools more prone to crime", 2009).

To conclude, youth across the globe experience different circumstances and realities as well as numerous positive sources of support, all contributing towards positive assets or risks which affect their development, and transition into adulthood. It is hoped that this dissertation on Positive Youth Development in Malaysia will increase our appreciation for indicators of healthy individual development within different cultural

contexts; providing an impetus for furthering the study and promotion of positive development and human flourishing.

Table 4-1.

Comparing PYD themes from Qualitative interviews in Chapter 3, with the PYD scales in the Five Cs Measurement model in Chapter 1

The Five Cs	Themes from Qualitative Interviews (Chapter 3)	The PYD Measurement model (Chapter 1)
CARING	▪ Empathy and emotional support ▪ Helping and caring behaviors to individuals ▪ Cares for Social institutions and the environment	√ Empathy √ Social concern
CHARACTER	▪ Courteous ▪ Positive values ▪ Caring ▪ Peaceful ▪ Responsible in social roles ▪ Self management ▪ Leadership Qualities ▪ Self-direction	√ Respect (Connections) √ Values of Integrity; V. of Honesty √ Values of Integrity
COMPETENCE	▪ Interpersonal & communication skills with peers & adults ▪ Academic and learning skills ▪ Leadership skills ▪ Positive leisure ▪ Language proficiency ▪ Self- directed learning	√ Social skills
CONFIDENCE	▪ Comfortable with oneself ▪ Conf. in Communication & Interpersonal situations ▪ Self- directedness ▪ Public speaking in a large group ▪ Stays calm & Copes in challenging situations	√ Global self-worth; Self esteem √ Positive identity √ Stress management (Competence)
CONNECTIONS	▪ Connections with Parents & Family ▪ Connections with Friends and peers ▪ Connections with Teachers ▪ Connections with Siblings	√ Positive parent connections √ Positive peer connections

REFERENCES

Acedo, C. & Uemura, M. (1999). *Education indicators for East Asia & Pacific.* World Bank, Washington, DC. Human Development Network. Report ED453131.

Ackard, D.M., Neumark-Sztainer, D., Story, M., & Perry, C. (2006). Parent-child connectedness and behavioral and emotional health among adolescents. *American Journal of Preventive Medicine, 30* (1), 59 - 66.

Acquadro, C., Conway, K., Hareendran, A., Aaronson, N., & European Regulatory Issues and Quality of Life Assessment (ERIQA) Group. (2008). Literature Review of Methods to Translate Health-Related Quality of Life Questionnaires for Use in Multinational Clinical Trials. *Value in Health, 11* (3), 509-521.

Afifi, M. (2007). Gender differences in mental health. *Singapore Medical Journal, 48*(5), 385-391.

Allen, N.J., & Rushton, J.P. (1983). Personality characteristics of community mental health volunteers: A review. *Journal of Voluntary Action Research, 12* (1), 36 - 49.

Aos, S., Lieb, R., Mayfield, J., Marna, M., & Pennucci, A. (2004, September). *Benefits and costs of prevention and early intervention programs for youth: Technical appendix.* Washington State Institute for Public Policy. Olympia, Washington. Retrieved February 20, 2008, from *http://www.wsipp.wa.gov/pub.asp?docid=04-07-3901*

Arbuckle, J.L. (2007). *AMOS 16.0 Users' Guide.* Chicago: AMOS Development Corporation

Assunta, M. (2001). Impact of alcohol consumption on Asia. *The Globe, Special Issue 4: GAPA Bangkok consultation: Alcohol in Asia*, 44-8. London: The Global Alcohol Policy Alliance.

Ayers, C.D., Williams, J.H., Hawkins, J.D., Peterson, P.L., Catalano, R.F., & Abbott, R.D. (1999). Assessing correlates of onset, escalation, de-escalation, and desistance of delinquent behavior. *Journal of Quantitative Criminology, 15* (2), 277- 306.

Ballie, R. (2001). Teen drinking more dangerous than previously thought. *Monitor on Psychology, 32 (5).* American Psychological Association. Retrieved October 27, 2007, from *http://www.apa.org/monitor/jun01/teendrink.html*

Bloomberg, L.D. & Volpe, M. (2008). *Completing your qualitative dissertation: A roadmap from beginning to end.* Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.

Barber, B.K. (2003). *Positive adolescent functioning: An assessment of measures across time and group.* Paper presented at the Child Trends Indicators of Positive Development Conference, Washington, DC, March 12-13, 2003. Retrieved September 21, 2006, from *http://www.childtrends.org/Files/BarberBrPaper.pdf*

Battistich, V. (2000a). Middle School Student Questionnaire Technical Report (1991- 1995, and 1997- 2000). Developmental Studies Center.

Battistich, V., Schapps, E., Watson, M., Solomon, D., & Lewis, C. (2000). Effects of the Child Development Project on students' drug use and other problem behaviors. *Journal of Primary Prevention, 21*, 75-99.

Battistich, V. (2005). *Character education, Prevention, and Positive Youth Development.* University of Missouri, St. Louis.

Belanger, D. (2002). Son preference in a rural village in North Vietnam. *Studies in Family Planning, 33* (4), 321-334.

Benson, P.L. (2006). *All kids are our kids: What communities must do to raise caring and responsible children and adolescents.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bentler, P.M. (1990). Comparative fit indexes in structural models. *Psychological Bulletin, 107* (2): 238-246.

Bentler, P.M. & Bonett, D.G. (1980). Significance tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. *Psychological Bulletin, 88* (3), 588-606.

Berkowitz, M. (2005). *Character Education.* In L. Sherrod, C. A. Flanagan, R. Kassimir, & A. K. Syvertsen (Eds.), Youth activism: An international encyclopedia (pp. 107-109). Westport, CT: Greenwood Publishing.

Berkowitz, M.W., & Bier, M.C. (2004). Research-based Character education. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. Special Issue: Positive Development: Realizing the Potential of Youth, 591,* 72-85.

Bers, M.U. (2006). The Role of New Technologies to Foster Positive Youth Development. *Applied Developmental Science, 10* (4), 200-219.

Bierman, K. & Welsh, J. A. (1997). *Social relationship deficits.* In E.J. Mash & L.G. Terdal (Eds.), Assessment of childhood disorders, 3rd Edition, pp. 328-365. New York: Guilford Press.

Boone, E.M., & Leadbeater, B.J. (2006). Game on: Diminishing risks for depressive symptoms in early adolescents through positive involvement in team sports. *Journal of Research on Adolescence, 16,* (1) 79-90.

Botvin, G.J., & Griffin, K.W. (2004). Life Skills Training: Empirical Findings and Future Directions. Journal of Primary Prevention, 25 (2), 211-232.

Bronfenbrenner, U., & Morris, P. A. (1998). The ecology of developmental processes. In W.

Damon (Ed.) *Handbook of child psychology Volume 1: Theoretical models of human development* (5th ed., pp. 993-1028). New York: Wiley.

Brown, B.B. (2005). Moving forward with research on adolescence: Some reflections on the state of JRA and the state of the field. *Journal of Research on Adolescence, 15* (4), 657-673.

Bryant, A.L, Schulenberg, J., Bachman, J.G., O'Malley, P.M., & Johnston, L.D. (2000). Understanding the links among school misbehavior, academic achievement, and cigarette use: A national panel study of adolescents. *Prevention Science, 1* (2), 71- 87.

Bryne, B.M. (2001). Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming. New Jersey: Lawrence Elbraum Associates.

Byrne, D.G. & Mazanov, J. (1999). Sources of adolescent stress, smoking, and the use of other drugs. *Stress Medicine, 15* (4), 215- 227.

Buckley, M., Storino, M., & Saarni, C. (2003). Promoting emotional competence in children and adolescents: Implications for school psychologists. *School Psychology Quarterly, 18* (2), 177-191.

Caplan, M., Weissberg, R.P., Grober, J.S., Sivio, P.J., Grady, K., & Jacoby, C. (1992). Social competence promotion with inner-city and suburban young adolescents: Effects in social adjustment and alcohol use. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 60* (1)*,* 56-63.

Carlo, G., Crockett, L.J., Randall, B.A., & Roesch, S.C. (2007). A latent growth curve analysis of prosocial behavior among rural adolescents. *Journal of Research on Adolescence, 17* (2), 301-324.

Carlo, G., Hausmann, A., Christiansen, S., & Randall, B.A. (2003). Socio-cognitive and behavioral correlates of a measure of prosocial tendencies for adolescents. *Journal of Early Adolescence, 23* (1), 107-134.

Carlo, G., & Randall, B.A. (2002). The development of a measure of prosocial behaviors for late adolescents. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 31* (1), 31-44.

Catalano, R.F., Berglund, M.L., Ryan, J.A.M., Lonczak, H.S., & Hawkins, J.D. (2004). Positive Youth Development in the United States: Research Findings on Evaluations of PYD Programs. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 591* (1), 98-124.

Catalano, R.F., & Hawkins, J.D. (1996). *The Social Development Model: A theory of antisocial behavior.* In J.D. Hawkins & R.F. Catalano (Eds.), Delinquency and crime: Current Theories (pp. 149-197). Cambridge Criminology Series. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Catalano, R. F., Kosterman, R., Hawkins, J. D., Newcomb, M. D., & Abbott, R. D. (1996). Modeling the etiology of adolescent substance use: A test of the social development model. *Journal of Drug Issues, 26* (2), 429-455.

Character Education Partnership. (2006). Defining and Understanding Character Education. Retrieved May 28, 2006 from *http://www.character.org/site/c.gwKUJhNYJrF/b.1049053/k.66DF/Defining_and_Understanding_Character_Education.htm*

Charmaz, K. (2004). Grounded Theory. In S.N. Hesse-Biber, & P. Leavy (Eds.) *Approaches to qualitative research: A reader on theory and practice*, pp 496-521. New York: Oxford University Press.

Chase-Lansdale, P.L., Wakschlag, L.S., & Brooks-Gunn, J. (1995). A psychological perspective on the development of caring in children and youth: The role of the family. *Journal of Adolescence, 18* (5), 515-556.

Children, Youth, & Family Background. (1999, November). *Youth Smoking: Risks & Influences. Report #27.* University of Pittsburg, Office of Child Development.

Chung, W. & Das Gupta, M. (2007, October) Why is son preference declining in South Korea? The role of development and public policy, and the implications for China and India. Policy Research Working Paper, Report No. WPS 4373. The World Bank, Development Research Group. Retrieved November 20, 2008, from *http://econ.worldbank.org*

Claassen, N.C.W. (1998). Cross-cultural measurement in the human sciences. In J. Mouton, J. Muller, P. Franks & T. Sono (Eds.), *Theory and Method in South African Human Sciences Research: Advances and Innovations.* Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council. Retrieved June 26, 2008, from *http://www.hsrcpress.ac.za/product.php?productid=2058&freedownload=1*

Clary, E.G., & Snyder, M. (1999). The motivations to volunteer: Theoretical and practical considerations. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 8* (5), 156-159.

Collaboration for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) and the Mid-Atlantic Regional Educational Laboratory. (March 2003). *Safe and Sound: An Educational Leader's Guide to Evidence- Based Social and Emotional Learning (SEL) Programs*. Chicago, IL. Retrieved May 31, 2005, from *http://www.casel.org/projects_products/safeandsound.php*

Collins, W.A. & Laursen, B. (2004). Parent-adolescent relationships and influences. In R. Lerner, & L. Steinberg (Eds.), *Handbook of Adolescent Psychology* (2nd Ed., pp. 331-362). New York: Wiley.

Cowen (2000). Psychological wellness: Some hopes for the future. In D. Cicchetti, J. Rappaport, I.N. Sandler, & R. P. Weissberg (Eds.), *The Promotion of Wellness in Children and Adolescents* (pp. 477-503). Washington, DC: Child Welfare League of America Press.

CPO: Students from national school more prone to crime. (2009, February 16). *The Star Newspaper.* Retrieved February 24, 2009, from *http://thestar.com.my*

Crinis, V. (2004). Pink-collared workers and the Family in Modernizing Malaysia: A case study of the Garment industry. In L.L Thang & W.H. Yu (Eds.), *Old Challenges, New Strategies: Women, Work and Family in Contemporary Asia. Social Sciences in Asia Series.* Brill Academic Publishers.

Crockett, L.J., Brown, J., Russell, S.T., & Shen, Y.L. (2007). The meaning of good parent-child relationships for Mexican American adolescents. *Journal of Research on Adolescence, 17* (4), 639-668.

Crockett, L.J. & Randall, B.A. (2006). Linking adolescent family and peer relationships to the quality of young adult romantic relationships: The mediating role of conflict tactics. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 23* (5), 761-780.

Crouter, A.C. & Head, M. (2002). Parental Monitoring and Knowledge of Children. In M.H. Bornstein (Ed.), *Handbook of parenting: Vol. 3: Being and becoming a parent* (2nd ed., pp. 461-483).

Cruez, A.F. (2008a, March 28). Tobacco firms exploiting loopholes. (This article references the WHO 2008 Global Tobacco Epidemic report.) *The New Straits Times*. Retrieved May 1, 2008 from *http://www.nst.com.my/Current_News/NST/Friday/National/2198024/Article*

Cruez, A.F. (2008b, April 6). Graphic images to shock smokers. (This article describes marketing strategies of the tobacco industry in Malaysia and Asia.) *The New Straits Times*. Retrieved May 1, 2008 from *http://www.nst.com.my/Current_News/NST/Sunday/National/2205506/Article*

Damon, W. (2004). What is Positive Youth Development? *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 591* (1) Issue on Positive Development: Realizing the potential of youth, 13- 24

Damon, W., Menon, J., & Bronk, K.C. (2003). The development of purpose during adolescence. *Applied Developmental Science, 7* (3), 119-128.

Das Gupta, M., Zhenghua, J., Bohua, L., Zehnming, X., Chung, W., & Hwa-Ok, B. (2002). Why is son preference so persistent in East and South Asia? A cross-country study of China, India, and the Republic of Korea. Policy Research Working Paper, Report No.

WPS 2942. The World Bank, Development Research Group. Retrieved November 20, 2008, from *http://econ.worldbank.org*

Davis, M.H. (1983). Measuring individual differences in empathy: Evidence for a multi-dimensional approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 44* (1) 113-126.

Davis-Kean, P.E. (2005). The influence of parent education and family income on child achievement: The indirect role of parental expectations and the home environment. *Journal of Family Psychology, 19* (2), 294- 304.

Department of Statistics Malaysia. (2000). Retrieved from *http://www.statistics.gov.my/eng/*

Dewan Bahasa & Pustaka (2002). *Kamus Inggeris-Melayu Dewan: An English-Malay Dictionary, 3rd Edition.* Kuala Lumpur: Dewan Bahasa dan Pustaka. Online dictionary portal at *http://www.karyanet.com.my/knet/index.php?tpf=KIMD*

DuBois, D.L. & Hirsch, B.J. (2000). Self-esteem in early adolescence: From stock character to marquee attraction. *Journal of Early Adolescence* [Special Issue: Self-esteem in early adolescence, Part 1], *20* (1), 5-11.

DuBois, D.L., & Silverthorn, N. (2004). Do deviant peer associations mediate the contributions of self-esteem to problem behavior during early adolescence? A 2-year longitudinal study. *Journal of Clinical Child and Adolescent Psychology, 33* (2), 382-388.

Eccles, J. & Gottman, J.A. (2002). Community programs to promote youth development. Washington DC: National Academy Press.

Eccles, J.S., Lord, S.E., Roeser, R.W., Barber, B.L., & Jozefowicz, D.M.H. (1997). The association of school transitions in early adolescence with developmental trajectories through high school. In J. Schulenberg, J.L. Maggs, & K. Hurrelmann (Eds.) *Human risks and developmental transitions during adolescence*, pp 283-320. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Economic Planning Unit Malaysia. (2006). *Ninth Malaysia Plan: 2006-2010.* Putrajaya: Prime Minister's Department. Retrieved August 16, 2007, from *http://www.epu.jpm.my/rm9/html/english.htm*

Eisenberg, N. (2003). Prosocial behavior, empathy, and sympathy. In M.H. Bornstein, L. Davidson, C.L.M. Keyes, & K.A. Moore (Eds.), *Well-being: Positive development Across the Life Course.* Publisher.

Eisenberg, N. & Fabes, R.A. (1990). Empathy: Conceptualization, measurement and relation to prosocial behavior. *Motivation and Emotion, 14,* 131-149.

Eisenberg, N., Fabes, R.A., & Spinrad, T.L. (2006). Prosocial development. In N. Eisenberg

(Vol. Ed.), W. Damon, & R.M. Lerner (Eds.-in-Chief), *Handbook of Child Psychology, Vol. 3: Social, emotional, and personality development* (6th ed., pp. 646- 718). New Jersey: Wiley.

Eisenberg, N. & Lennon, R. (1983). Sex differences in empathy and related capacities. *Psychological Bulletin, 94* (1), 100-131.

Eisenberg, N. & Morris, A.S. (2004). Moral cognitions and prosocial responding in adolescence. In R.M. Lerner & L. Steinberg (Eds.), *Handbook of Adolescent Psychology* (2nd ed., pp. 155-188). New Jersey: Wiley

Elena, M., Giovanna, R., & Boccacin, L. (1999). Youth, solidarity, and civic commitment in Italy: An analysis of the personal and social characteristics of volunteers and their organizations. In M. Yates & J. Youniss (Eds.) *Roots of civic identity: International perspectives on community service and activism in youth* (pp. 73-96). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Fabes, R.A., Carlo, G., Kupanoff, K., Laible, D. (1999). Early adolescence and prosocial/ moral behavior: The role of individual processes. *Journal of Early Adolescence, Special Issue: Prosocial and Moral Development in Early Adolescence (Part I), 19* (1), 5- 16.

Fassinger, R.E. (2005). Paradigms, Praxis, Problems, and Promise: Grounded Theory in Counseling Psychology Research. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 52* (2), 156–166.

Fearnow-Kenny, M., Hansen, W.B. & McNeal, R.B. (2002). Comparison of psychosocial influences on substance use in adolescents: Implications for prevention programming. *Journal of Child and Adolescent Substance Abuse, 11* (4) 1- 24.

Fine, G.A. & Elsbach, K.D. (2000). Ethnography and experiment in Social Psychological theory building: Tactics for integrating qualitative field data with quantitative lab data. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 36* (1), 51-76.

Flay, B. (2004, July). *Positive Action Evaluation Instruments.* Retrieved January 24, 2005 from *http://www.positiveaction.net*

Flay, B. & Allred, C. (2003). Long-term effects of the Positive Action Program. *American Journal of Health Behavior, 27* (Supplement 1), S6- S21.

Galambos, N. & Leadbeater, B.J. (2000). Trends in adolescent research for the new millennium. *International Journal of Behavioral Development, 24* (3), 289- 294.

Geisinger, K.F. (1994). Cross-cultural normative assessment translation and adaptation issues influencing the normative interpretation of assessment instruments. *Psychological Assessment, 6* (4), 304-312

Gibbons, J.L. (2000). Adolescence in international and cross-cultural perspective: An introduction. *International Journal of Group Tensions, 29* (1/2), 3-16.

Gilchrist, L.D. (1991). Defining the intervention and the target population. In C.G. Leukefeld & W.J. Bukoski (Eds.), NIDA Research Monograph 107. *Drug abuse prevention intervention research: Methodological issues* (pp.110-122). DHHS publication number (ADM) 91-1761. Washington DC: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

Glendinning, A. & Inglis, D. (1999). Smoking behavior in youth: The problem of low self-esteem? *Journal of Adolescence, 22,* 673-682.

Gomez, B.J. & Ang, P.M. (2007). Promoting Positive Youth Development in Schools. *Theory Into Practice, 46* (2), 97-104.

Greenlees, D. (2005, March 15). Asia maker of tobacco gets Philip Morris bid. *International Herald Tribune.* Retrieved May 7, 2008 from *http://www.iht.com/articles/2005/03/14/business/tobacco.php*

Griffin, K.W., Epstein, J.A., Botvin, G.J., & Spoth, R.L. (2001). Social competence and substance use among rural youth: Mediating role of social benefit expectancies of use. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 30* (4), 485-498.

Grossman, J.B. & Bulle, M.J. (2006). Review of what youth programs do to increase the connectedness of youth with adults. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 29,* 788-799.

Grusec, J.E. (2006). The development of moral behavior and conscience from a socialization perspective. In M. Killen & J.G. Smetana (Eds.), *Handbook of Moral Development* (pp. 243-266). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Hansen, W.B. (1992). School-based substance abuse prevention: A review of the state of the art in curriculum, 1980-1990. *Health Education Research, 7* (3), 403-430.

Hanson, M. & Chen, E. (2007a). Socioeconomic Status and Health Behaviors in Adolescence: A Review of the Literature. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine, 30* (3), 263-285.

Hanson, M. & Chen, E. (2007-b). Socio-economic status and substance use behaviors in adolescents: The role of family resources versus family social status. *Journal of Health Psychology, 12* (1), 32-35.

Hanson, T.L. & Kim, J. (2007, September). *Measuring resilience and youth development: the psychometric properties of the Healthy Kids Survey.* (Issues & Answers Report, REL 2007, No. 034). Describes scales and items in the California Healthy Kids Survey, 2006/ 07.Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Educational Sciences, National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Regional Educational

Laboratory West. Retrieved November 14, 2007, from *http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/edlabs/projects/project.asp?id=84*

Hart, D. & S. Fegley (1997). Children's self-awareness and self- understanding in cultural context. In U. Neisser & D.A. Jopling (Eds.), *The Conceptual Self in Context* (pp. 129-151). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Harter, S. (1982). The Perceived Competence Scale for Children. *Child Development, 53,* 87-97.

Harter, S. (1985). *Manual for the Social Support Scale for children and adolescents.* University of Denver.

Harter, S., Waters, P., & Whitesell, N.R. (1998). Relational self-worth: Differences in perceived worth as a person across interpersonal contexts among adolescents. *Child Development, 69* (3), 756-766.

Hawkins, J. D., Catalano, R. F., & Miller, J.Y. (1992). Risk and protective factors for alcohol and other drug problems in adolescence and early adulthood: Implications for substance abuse prevention. *Psychological Bulletin*, *112* (1), 64-105.

Hay, D.F., Payne, A., & Chadwick, A. (2004). Peer relations in childhood. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry 45* (1), 84–108.

Haynes, S.N., Richard, D.C.S., & Kubany, E.S. (1995). Content Validity in Psychological Assessment: A Functional Approach to Concepts and Methods. *Psychological Assessment, 7*(3), 238-247.

Heppner, P.P. (2006). The benefits and challenges to becoming cross-culturally competent counseling psychologist: Presidential Address at the Society for Counseling Psychology, Division 17 of the American Psychological Association. *The Counseling Psychologist, 34* (1), 147-172.

Hesse-Biber, S.N. & Leavy, P. (2006). *The practice of qualitative research.* Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.

Hii, C. (2007, November 11). Need to resolve mismatch in the job market. *The Star.* Retrieved November 11, 2007, from *http://thestar.com.my/news/story.asp?file=/2007/11/11/nation/19444550&sec=nation*

Hofer, S.M. (1999). Assessing personality structure using factorial invariance procedures. In I. Mervielde, I. J. Deary, F. De Fruyt, & F. Ostendorf (Eds.), *Personality Psychology in Europe* (pp. 35- 49). Tilburg University Press.

Hoffman, B.R., Sussman, S., Unger, J.B., & Valente, T.W. (2006). Peer Influences on Adolescent Cigarette Smoking: A Theoretical Review of the Literature. *Substance Use &*

Misuse, 41 (1), 103- 155.

Hoffman, L.W. (2003). Methodological issues in studies of SES, parenting, and child development. In M.H. Bornstein & R. H. Bradley (Eds.), *Socioeconomic status, parenting, and child development. Monographs in parenting series* (pp. 125-143). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Hofstede, G. (1983). The cultural relativity of organizational practices and theories. *Journal of International Business Studies, 14 (2),* 75-89.

Hoo, S.K., & Navaratnam, V. (1988). *Health knowledge and attitudes toward drug use among secondary school students.* (Original title in Malay: Kajian tentang ilmu pengetahuan kesihatan dan sikap terhadap penggunaan dadah pelajar sekolah menengah, Pusat Penyelidikan Dadah dan Ubat-Ubatan). National Poison Center, Universiti Sains Malaysia.

Hsueh, K.H., Phillips, L.R., Cheng W.Y., & Picot, S.J.F. (2005). Assessing Cross-Cultural Equivalence Through Confirmatory Factor Analysis. *Western Journal of Nursing Research, 27* (6), 755-771.

Jacobs, J.E., Vernon, M.K., & Eccles, J.S. (2004). Relations between social self-perceptions, time use, and prosocial or problem behaviors during adolescence. *Journal of Adolescent Research, 19* (1), 45- 62.

Jamaliah J. (2003). Emerging trends of urbanization in Malaysia. Retrieved 27 April, 2009, from *http://www.statistics.gov.my/eng/images/stories/files/journalDOSM/V104_ Article_Jamaliah.pdf*

Jelicic, H., Bobek, D.L., Phelps, E., Lerner, R.M., Lerner, J.V. (2007). Using Positive Youth Development to predict contribution and risk behaviors in early adolescence: Findings from the first two waves of the 4-H Study of Positive Youth Development. *International Journal of Behavioral Development, 31* (3), 263-273.

Jessor, R., Bos, V. D., Vanderryn, J., Costa, F. M., & Turbin, M. S. (1995). Protective factors in adolescent problem behavior: Moderator effects and developmental change. *Developmental Psychology, 31*, 923-933.

Johnson, A.M. & Notah, D.J. (1999). Service learning: History, literature review, and a pilot study of 8th graders. *Elementary School Journal. Special Non-subject-matter outcomes of schooling, 99* (5), 453-467.

Johnson, M.K., Beebe, T., Mortimer, J.T., & Snyder, M. (1998). Volunteerism in Adolescence: A Process Perspective. *Journal of Research on Adolescence, 8* (3), 309-332.

Johnston, L.D., O'Malley, P.M., Bachman, J.G., Schulenberg, J.E. (2006). *Monitoring the*

Future National results on adolescent drug use: Overview of key findings, 2006. National Institute on Drug Abuse. U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. National Institutes of Health.

Josephson Institute. (2002). *Making ethical decisions: The six pillars of character.* Retrieved February 21, 2008, from *http://www.josephsoninstitute.org/MED/MED-2sixpillars.html*

Josephson Institute. (2006). *The Ethics of America Youth Survey.* Retrieved February 21, 2008, from *http://charactercounts.org/pdf/survey_sample_2006_ReportCard.pdf*

Kandel, D.B. (2002). *Stages and Pathways of Drug Involvement: Examining the Gateway Hypothesis.* Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press

Karniol, R., Grosz, E., & Schorr, I. (2003). Caring, gender role orientation, and volunteering. *Sex Roles, 49* (1-2), 11-19.

Keating, D.P. (2004). Cognitive and brain development. In R.M. Lerner & L. Steinberg (Eds.), *Handbook of Adolescent Psychology* (2nd Ed.), 45-84. New Jersey: Wiley.

Kim, B.K., Li, L.C. & Ng, G.F. (2005). The Asian American Values Scale – Multidimensional: Development, Reliability, and Validity. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 11* (3), 187-201.

King, P.E., Dowling, E.M., Mueller, R.A., White, K., Schultz, W., Osborn, P., Dickerson, E., Bobek, D.L., Lerner, R.M., Benson, P.L., & Scales, P.C. (2005). Thriving in adolescence: The voices of youth-serving practitioners, parents, and early and late adolescents. *Journal of Early Adolescence, 25* (1), 94-112.

King, P.E. & Furrow, J.L. (2004). Religion as a resource for Positive Youth Development: Religion, Social capital, and Moral outcomes. *Developmental Psychology, 40* (5), 703-713.

Klein, J.D., Sabaratnam, P., Auerbach, M., Smith, S.M., Kodjo, C., Lewis, K., Ryan, S., & Dandino, C. (2006). Development and factor structure of a brief instrument to assess the impact of community programs on Positive Youth Development: The Rochester Evaluation of Asset Development for Youth (READY) Tool. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 39,* 252- 260.

Kling, K.C., Hyde, J.S., Showers, C.J., & Buswell, B.N. (1999). Gender differences in self-esteem: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, .125* (4), 470-500.

Koh, L.C. (2006, August 14). Aiming to rope in parents to help tackle indiscipline. *New Straits Times.* News article references statistics from the Malaysia Crime Prevention Foundation on increased criminal activity among juveniles. Retrieved September 17, 2006, from *http://www.nst.com.my*

Kosterman, R.,. Hawkins, J.D., Guo, J., Catalano, R.F., & Abbott, R.D. (2000). The dynamics of alcohol and marijuana initiation: Patterns and predictors of first use in adolescence. *American Journal of Public Health, 90* (3), 360-366.

Lansford, J.E., Criss, M.M., Pettit, G.S., Dodge, K.A., & Bates, J.E. (2003) Friendship Quality, Peer Group Affiliation, and Peer Antisocial Behavior as Moderators of the Link Between Negative Parenting and Adolescent Externalizing Behavior. *Journal of Research on Adolescence 13* (2), 161–184.

Larimer, M.E. & Cronce, J.M. (2002). Identification, prevention and treatment: A review of individual-focused strategies to reduce problematic alcohol consumption by college students. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol, Supplement No. 14,* 148- 163.

Larson, R.W. (2000). Toward a Psychology of Positive Youth Development. *American Psychologist, 55* (1), 170-183.

Larson, R.W., Wilson, S., & Mortimer, J.T. (2002). Conclusion: Adolescents' preparation for the future. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 12 (1) Special Journal Issue / SRA Study group on Adolescence in the 21st Century: An International Perspective, 159-166.

Larsson, B. & Frisk, M. (1999). Social competence and emotional/ behavioral problems in 6-16 year old Swedish school children. *European Child & Adolescent Psychiatry, 8* (1), 24-33.

Leary, J.D., Brennan, E. M., & Briggs, H. E. (2005). The African American Adolescent Respect Scale: A Measure of a Prosocial Attitude. *Research on Social Work Practice, 15* (6), 462-469.

Leffert, N., Benson, P.L., Scales, P.C., Sharma, A. R., Drake D.R., & Blyth, D.A. (1998). Developmental assets: Measurement and prediction of risk behaviors among adolescents. *Applied Developmental Science, 2* (4), 209- 230.

Lerner, R.M., Lerner, J.V., Almerigi, J.B., Theokas, C., Phelps, E., Gestsdottir, S., Naudeau, S., Jelicic, H., Alberts, A., Ma, L., Smith, L.M., Bobek, D.L., Richman-Raphael, D., Simpson, I., Christiansen, E.D., von Eye, A. (2005). Positive Youth Development, Participation in community Youth Development programs, and Community contributions of fifth-grade adolescents: Findings from the first wave of the 4-H Study of Positive Youth Development. *Journal of Early Adolescence, 25* (1), 17-71.

Levine, R.V., Norenzayan, A., & Philbrick, K. (2001). Cross-cultural differences in helping strangers. *Journal of Cross- Cultural Psychology, 32* (5), 543- 560.

Lewis, P.C., Harrell, J.S., Bradley, C., & Deng, S. (2001). Cigarette use in adolescents: The Cardiovascular Health in Children and Youth study. *Research in Nursing & Health, 24* (1), 27-37.

Lickona, T. (1991). *Educating for Character. How Our Schools Can Teach Respect and Responsibility.* New York: Bantam Books.

Lickona, T. (1996). Eleven Principles of Effective Character Education. *Journal of Moral Education, 25* (1) 93 – 100.

Lifrak, P.D., McKay, J.R., Rostain, A., Alterman, A.I., & O'Brien, C.P. (1997). Relationship of Perceived Competencies, Perceived Social Support, and Gender to Substance Use in Young Adolescents. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry. 36* (7), 933-940.

Lonczak, H. S., Huang, B., Catalano, R. F., Hawkins, J. D., Hill, K. G., Abbott, R. D., Ryan, J. A. M., & Kosterman, R. (2001). The social predictors of adolescent alcohol misuse: A test of the social development model. *Journal of Studies on Alcohol, 62* (2), 179-189.

Lopez, S.J., Edwards, L.M., Pedrotti, J.T., Ito, A., & Rasmussen, H.N. (2002). Culture counts: Examinations of recent applications of the Penn Resiliency Program, or Toward a rubric for examining cultural appropriateness of prevention programming. *Prevention and Treatment, 5,* Article 12.

Lopez, S.J., & Snyder, C.R. (2003). *Positive psychological assessment: A handbook of models and measures.* American Psychological Association: Washington DC.

Maggs, J.L., Patrick, M.E., & Feinstein, L. (2008). Childhood and adolescent predictors of alcohol use and problems in the National Child Development Study. *Addiction, 103* (Suppl. 1), 7-22.

Malaysian Child Adolescent Well-being (MCAW) Study. (2003). A cross-sectional study involving Secondary 1, 2, and 4 students in Klang Valley, Malaysia. Unpublished data.

Mallinckrodt, B., & Wang C. (2004). Quantitative methods for verifying semantic equivalence of translated research instruments: A Chinese version of the experiences in close relationships scale. *Journal of Counseling Psychology. 51* (3), 368-379.

Maria, M.S. (2002). Youth in Southeast Asia: Living within the continuity of tradition and the turbulence of change. In B. Bradford, R.W. Larson, & T.S. Saraswathi (Eds.), *The World's Youth: Adolescence in Eight Regions of the Globe.* Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

Markus, H.R. & Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and the self: Implications for cognition, emotion, and motivation. Psychological Review, 98 (2), 224-253.

Marshall, C. & Rossman, G.B. (1999). *Designing qualitative research, 3rd Edition.* Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.

Masten, A.S., & Coatsworth, J.D. (1998). The development of competence in favorable and unfavorable environments: Lessons from research on successful children. *American Psychologist, 53* (2), 205-220.

Mattis, J.S. (2002). Grappling with culture, class and context in cross-cultural research and intervention. *Prevention and Treatment, 5,* Article 11.

McGee, R. & Williams, S. (2000). Does low self-esteem predict health-compromising behaviours among adolescents. *Journal of Adolescence,* 23, 569-582

McLellan, J.A., & Youniss, J. (2003). Two Systems of Youth Service: Determinants of Voluntary and Required Youth Community Service. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 32 (1), 47-58.

McLoyd, V. (1998). Socioeconomic disadvantage and child development. *American Psychologist, 53* (2), 185-204.

McMorris, B.J., Hemphill, S.A. Toumbourou, J.W., Catalano, R.F., Patton, G.C., (2007). Prevalence of Substance use and delinquent behavior in adolescents from Victoria, Australia, and Washington State, United States. *Health Education & Behavior, 34* (4), 634-650.

McNeal, R.B. & Hansen, W.B. Jr, (1999). Developmental patterns associated with the onset of drug use: Changes in postulated mediators during adolescence. *Journal of Drug Issues, 29* (2), 381-400.

McNeal, R. B., Hansen, W. B., Harrington, N. G., & Giles, S. M. (2004). How All Stars Works: An Examination of Program Effects on Mediating Variables. *Health Education and Behavior, 31*, 165-178.

Mentoring Malaysia Technical Report (2008). Kuala Lumpur: Asian Research Center for Child and Adolescent Development.

Meredith, W. (1993). Measurement invariance, factor analysis, and factorial invariance. *Psychometrika,58* (4), 525-543.

Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary. (2005). Merriam-Webster Incorporated, Springfield, MA. Retrieved from *http://dictionary.refernce.com*

Metz, E.C., McLellan, J., & Youniss, J. (2003). Types of voluntary service and adolescents' civic development. *Journal of Adolescent Research, 18* (2), 188- 203.

Metz, E.C., & Youniss, J. (2005). Longitudinal gains in civic development through school-based required service. *Political Psychology, 26* (3), 413-437.

Miller, P.M. & Eisenberg, N. (1988). The relation of empathy to aggressive and

externalizing/ antisocial behavior. *Psychological Bulletin, 103* (3), 324- 344.

Ministry of Energy, Water and Telecommunications Malaysia / Kementerian Tenanga, Air, & Komunikasi (KTAK) Community Portal. (2006). *Prohibiting teen drinking difficult to implement* (Original title in Malay: Larang remaja minum arak sukar dilaksana). Retrieved January 11, 2008, from *http://www.idesa.net.my/modules/news/article.php?storyid=1310*

Moore, K.A. & Lippman, L.H. (Eds.) (2005). *What do children need to flourish? Conceptualizing and Measuring Indicators of Positive Development*. In The Search Institute series on Developmentally Attentive Community and Society, Vol. 3. US: Springer.

Moore, K.A., Lippman, L., & Brown, B. (2004). Indicators of child well-being: The promise for Positive youth development. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 591* (January), 125-145.

Mukamal, K.J. (2006). The effects of smoking and drinking on cardiovascular disease and risk factors. Alcohol Research & Health, 29 (3, Alcohol and Tobacco: An update), 199-202. National Institute on Alcohol Abuse & Alcoholism (NIAAA).

Naing, N.N., Zulkifli A., Razlan M., Farique R. A. H., Haslan G., Mohd Hilmi A. B. (2004). Factors Related to Smoking Habits of Male Adolescents. *Tobacco Induced Diseases, 2* (3), 133-140.

National Institute on Alcohol Abuse & Alcoholism (NIAAA). (2000, June). *Tenth Special report to the U.S. Congress on alcohol and health: Highlights from current research.* Bethesda, Maryland: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services. Retrieved December 7, 2007, from *http://www.niaaa.nih.gov/pub-lications/10report/intro.pdf*

National Institute on Alcohol Abuse & Alcoholism (NIAAA). (2004/ 2005). The effects of alcohol on physiological processes and biological development. *Adolescent Research & Health. 28* (3, Alcohol and Development in Youth: A Multidisciplinary Overview), 125-131.

National Institute on Alcohol Abuse & Alcoholism (NIAAA). (2004/ 2005). The scope of the problem. *Adolescent Research & Health. 28* (3, Alcohol and Development in Youth: A Multidisciplinary Overview), 111-120.

National Institute on Drug Abuse (NIDA). (2006, July). *Research Report Series: Tobacco addiction.* NIH Publication Number 06-4342. Washington DC: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services.

National Institute on Drug Abuse (NIDA). (2003, October). *Preventing Drug Use among Children and Adolescents: A Research-based guide for parents, educators, and community leaders,* Second Edition. NIH Publication Number 04-4212(A). Bethseda,

Maryland: U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, National Institutes of Health. Retrieved May 8, 2008, from *http://www.drugabuse.gov/pdf/prevention/RedBook.pdf*

Park, Y.S. & Kim, B.S.K. (2008). Asian and European American cultural values and communication styles (AsA & EA college students). *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 14* (1), 47-56.

Patton, D., Barnes, G.E., & Murray, R.P. (1993). Personality characteristics of smokers and ex-smokers. *Personality and Individual Differences, 15* (6), 653-664.

Patton, G.C., Hibbert, M., Rosier, M.J., Carlin, J.B., Caust, J., & Bowes, G. (1996). Is smoking associated with depression and anxiety in teenagers? *American Journal of Public Health, 86,* 225–230.

Pelucchi, C., Gallus, S., Garavello, W., Bosetti, C., & La Vecchia, C. (2006). Cancer risk associated with alcohol and tobacco use: Focus on upper aero-digestive tract and liver. Alcohol Research & Health, 29 (3, Alcohol and Tobacco: An update), 193-198. National Institute on Alcohol Abuse & Alcoholism (NIAAA).

Peña, E.D. (2007). Lost in Translation: Methodological Considerations in Cross-Cultural Research. *Child Development 78* (4), 1255–1264.

Peterson, C. (2000). The Future of Optimism. *American Psychologist, 55* (1), 44- 55.

Peterson, C. & Seligman, M.E.P. (2004). *Character strengths and virtues: A handbook and classification.* American Psychological Association. United States: Oxford University Press.

Petraitis, J., Flay, B.R., & Miller, T.Q. (1995). Reviewing theories of adolescent substance use: Organizing pieces of the puzzle. *Psychological Bulletin, 117,* 67-86.

Piliavin, J.A. (2003). Doing well by doing good: Benefits for the benefactor. In C.L.M. Keyes & J. Haidt (Eds.), *Flourishing: Positive Psychology and the Life Well-Lived*. (pp. 227-247). Washington DC: American Psychological Association Press.

Pittman, K., Irby, M., & Ferber, T. (2000). *Unfinished business: Further reflections on a decade of promoting youth development.* Takoma Park, Maryland: The Forum for Youth Investment.

Pittman, K.J., Irby, M., Tolman, J., Yohalem, N. & Ferber, T. (2003, March). *Preventing problems, Promoting development, Encouraging engagement. Competing priorities or inseparable goals?* Washington, DC: The Forum for Youth Investment.

Radke-Yarrow, M., Zahn-Waxler, C., Richardson, D.T., & Susman, A. (1994). Caring behavior in children of clinically depressed and well mothers. *Child Development, 65* (5), 1405-1414.

Reininger, B.M., Evans, A.E., Griffin, S.F., Sanderson, M., Vincent, M.L., Valois, R.F., Parra-Medina, D. (2005). Predicting adolescent risk behaviors based on an ecological framework and assets. *American Journal of Health Behavior, 29* (2), 150-161

Rhodes, J., Roffman, J., Reddy, R., Fredriksen, K., & Way, N. (2004). Changes in self-esteem during the middle school years: A latent growth curve study of individual and contextual influences. *Journal of School Psychology, 42* (3), 243-261.

Richards, M.H., Miller, B.V., O'Donnell, P.C., Wasserman, M.S., & Colder, C. (2004). Parental monitoring mediates the effects of age and sex on problem behaviors among African American urban young adolescents. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 33* (3), 221-233

Roehlkepartain, E.D., Benson, P.L., King, P.E., & Wagener, L.M. (2005). Spiritual development in childhood and adolescence: Moving to the scientific mainstream. In E.C. Roehlkepartain, P.E. King, and L. Wagener (Eds.), *Handbook of Spiritual Development in Childhood and Adolescence*, pp 1- 15. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.

Rohsenow, D.J., Smith, R.E., & Johnson, S. (1985). Stress management training as a prevention program for heavy social drinkers: Cognitions, affect, drinking, and individual differences. *Addictive Behaviors, 10* (1), 45-54.

Roosa, M.W., Dumka, L.E., Gonzales, N.A., & Knight, G.P. (2002). Cultural/ ethnic issues and the prevention scientist in the 21st century. *Prevention and Treatment, 5,* Article 5

Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the adolescent child.* Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Rosenberg, M., Schooler, C., Schoenbach, C., & Rosenberg, F. (1995). Global self-esteem and specific self-esteem: Different concepts, different outcomes. *American Sociological Review, 60* (1), 141-156.

Roth, J., & Brooks-Gunn, J. (2003). What exactly is a youth development program? Answers from Research and Practice. *Applied Developmental Science, 7* (2), 94-111.

Rubin, K.H., Coplan, R., Chen, X., Buskirk, A.A., & Wojslawowicz, J.C. (2005). Peer relationships in childhood. In M.H. Bornstein & M.E. Lamb (Eds.), *Developmental science: An advanced textbook* (5th ed., pp. 469-512). New Jersey, US: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Rushton, J.P., Chrisjohn, R.D., & Fekken, G.C. (1981). The altruistic personality and the self-report altruism scale. *Personality and Individual Differences, 2,* 1-11.

Rutter, M. (1993). Resilience: Some conceptual considerations. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 14,* 626- 631.

Ryan, G. W. & Bernard H.R. (2000). Data Management and Analysis Methods. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (Eds.) *Handbook of Qualitative Research, 2nd ed.*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, pp. 769-802.

Scales, P.C. & Benson, P.L. (2005). Prosocial orientation and community service. In K.A. Moore, & L.H. Lippman (Eds.), *What do children need to flourish: Conceptualizing and measuring indicators of positive development. The Search Institute series on developmentally attentive community and society,* pp. 339-356. New York: Springer Science & Business Media.

Scales, P.C., Benson, P.L., Leffert, N., & Blyth, D.A. (2000). Contribution of developmental assets to the prediction of thriving among adolescents. *Applied Developmental Science, 4* (1), 27-46.

Scales, P.C., & Leffert, N. (1999). *Developmental Assets: A synthesis of the scientific research on adolescent development.* Minneapolis, MN, US: Search Institute.

Scheier, L.M., Botvin, G.J., Griffin, K.W., & Diaz, T. (2000). Dynamic growth models of self-esteem and adolescent alcohol use. *Journal of Early Adolescence. Special Issue: Self-esteem in early adolescence: Part II, 20* (2), 178-209.

Schmitt, D.P. & Allik, J. (2005). Simultaneous administration of the Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale in 53 nations: Exploring the universal and culture-specific features of global self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 89* (4), 623-642.

Search Institute Developmental Assets Profile, Malaysian version. (2003). Items F1 and F3 used by permission. Minneapolis, MN.

Search Institute Profiles of Student Life: Attitudes and Behaviors. (1996). Items from the scales Connection to Family, Personal Values, Social Conscience, and Interpersonal values and skills used by permission. Minneapolis, MN.

Seligman, M.E.P. (2003). Foreword: The past and future of positive psychology. In C.L.M. Keyes & J. Haidt (Eds.), *Flourishing: Positive Psychology and the Life Well-Lived*. Washington DC: American Psychological Association Press.

Seligman, M.E.P., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2000). Positive psychology: An introduction. *American Psychologist, 55* (1), 5-14.

Shalihin, S., Razak, L., Rahmat, A., Harris, A.W., Shahrul, A., & Hafilah S. (2006). *Knowledge, attitude and practice of smoking among students in two different type of school setting in Malaysia.* Retrieved February 20, 2008 from the National Poison Center Collection at the University Science Malaysia library *http://www.pustaka.usm.my/docushare/dsweb/Get/Document-16195/Abstract-Hong+Kong-Shalihin.pdf*

Shek, D.T.L. (2005). A longitudinal study of perceived family functioning and adolescent adjustment in Chinese adolescents with economic disadvantage. *Journal of Family Issues, 26* (4), 518-543.

Shek, D.T.L., Siu, A.M.H., & Lee, T.Y. (2007). The Chinese Positive Youth Development scale: A validation study. *Research on Social Work Practice, 17* (3), 380-391.

Simpson, A.R. (2001). *Raising Teens: A synthesis of research and a foundation of action.* Harvard School of Public Health, Boston, MA.

Simpson, A. R., & Roehlkepartain, J.L. (2003). Asset building in parenting practices and family life. In R.M. Lerner, & P.L. Benson (Eds.), *Developmental Assets and Asset-Building Communities – Implications for Research, Policy and Practice.* New York: Kluwer Academic/ Plenum Publishers.

Skaalvik, E. M., Skaalvik, S. (2002). Internal and external frames of reference for academic self-concept. *Educational Psychologist, 37* (4), 233-244.

Smetana, J.G., Campione-Barr, N., & Metzger, A. (2006). Adolescent Development in Interpersonal and Societal Contexts. *Annual Review of Psychology, 57,* 255-284.

Soontiens, W. (2007). Chinese ethnicity and values: A country cluster comparison. *Cross Cultural Management, 14* (4), 321-335.

Spoth, R., Guyll, M., Chao, W., & Molgaard, V. (2003). Exploratory study of a preventive intervention with general population African American families. *Journal of Early Adolescence, 23* (4), 435-468.

Steinberg, L. (2008). *Adolescence. Eighth Edition.* New York: McGraw Hill.

Steinberg, L. & Morris, A. S. (2001). Adolescent development. *Annual Review of Psychology, 52*, 83-110

Stemler, S. (2001). An overview of content analysis. *Practical Assessment, Research & Evaluation*, 7 (17). Retrieved June 25, 2008, from *http://PAREonline.net/getvn.asp?v=7&n=17*

Stewart, S.M., Bond, M.H., Deeds, O., & Chung, S.F. (1999). Intergenerational patterns of values and autonomy expectations in cultures of relatedness and separateness. *Journal of Cross-cultural Psychology, 30* (5), 575- 593.

Stewart, S.M., Bond, M.H., McBride-Chang, C., Fielding, R., Deeds, O., & Westrick, J. (1998). Parent and Adolescent Contributors to Teenage Misconduct in Western and Asian High School Students in Hong Kong. *International Journal of Behavioral Development, 22* (4), 847–869.

Tabachnick, B.G. & Fidell, L.S. (2000). *Using multivariate statistics. 4th Edition.* Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Teglasi, H. & Rothman, L. (2001). STORIES: A classroom-based program to reduce aggressive behavior. *Journal of School Psychology, 39* (1), 71-94.

Theokas, C., Almerigi, J.B., Lerner, R.M., Dowling, E.M., Benson, P.L., Scales, P.C., von Eye, A. (2005). Conceptualizing and modeling individual and ecological asset components of thriving in early adolescence. *Journal of Early Adolescence, 25* (1), 113-143.

Tobacco Control Country Profiles (2003, Second Edition). Shafey, O., Dolwick, S., & Guindon, G.E. (Eds.), 12th World Conference on Tobacco or Health. American Cancer Society, World Health Organization, and International Union Against Cancer. Retrieved April 26, 2009, from *http://www.wpro.who.int/NR/rdonlyres/437C3114-24FE-45CA-9A62-8E119BC66CC6/0/TCCP2.pdf*

Triandis, H.C. (1999). Cross-cultural psychology. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology, 2*, 127-143.

Triandis, H.C. (1989). The self and social behavior in differing cultural contexts. *Psychological Review, 96* (3), 506-520.

Trinidad, D.R., Unger, J.B., Chou, C.P., Azen, S.P., & Johnson, C.A. (2004). Emotional intelligence and smoking risk factors in adolescents: Interactions on smoking intentions. *Journal of Adolescent Health, 34* (1), 46-55.

Urberg, K., Goldstein, M.S., & Toro, P.A. (2005). Supportive relationships as a moderator of the effects of parent and peer drinking on adolescent drinking. *Journal of Research on Adolescence, 15* (1), 1-19.

Van de Vijver, F. J. R., & Hambleton, R.K. (1996). Translating tests: Some practical guidelines. *European Psychologist, 1* (2), 89-99.

van Widenfelt, B.M., Treffers, P.D.A., de Beurs, E., Siebelink, B.M., and Koudijs, E.. (2005). Translation and Cross-Cultural Adaptation of Assessment Instruments Used in Psychological Research With Children and Families. *Clinical Child & Family Psychology Review, 8* (2), 135-147.

Vinokurov, A., Geller, D., & Martin, T.L. (2007, June). Translation as an Ecological Tool for Instrument Development. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods 6* (2), 1-13.

Wallace, J.M. Jr., Bachman, J.G., O'Malley, P.M., Schulenberg, J.E., Cooper, S.M., &

Johnston, L.D. (2003). Gender and ethnic differences in smoking, drinking and illicit drug use among American 8th, 10th and 12th grade students, 1976-2000. *Addiction, 98* (2), 225–234.

Wang, W., Lee, H., & Fetzer, S.J. (2006). Challenges and strategies of instrument translation. *Western Journal of Nursing Research, 28* (3), 310-321.

Wasserman, J.D. & Bracken, B.A. (2003). Psychometric characteristics of assessment procedures. In J.R. Graham, A. Naglieri (Volume Eds.), & I.B. Weiner (Editor-in-Chief), *Handbook of Psychology, Volume 10,* (pp. 43- 66). Hoboken, New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Wentzel, K. R., McNamara-Barry, C. & Caldwell, K. A. (2004). Friendships in middle school: Influences on motivation and school adjustment. *Journal of Educational Psychology,* 96, 2, 195-203

Werner, E. E. (1995). Resilience in development. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 4* (3), 81-85.

West, P., & Sweeting, H. (1997). 'Lost souls' and 'rebels': A challenge to the assumption that low self-esteem and unhealthy lifestyles are related. *Health Education, 97* (5), 161—170.

White, H.R., Pandina, R.J., & Chen, P.H. (2002). Developmental trajectories of cigarette use from early adolescence into young adulthood. *Drug and Alcohol Dependence, 65* (2), 167-178

Wiles, N.J., Lingford-Hughes, A., Daniel, J., Hickman, M., Farrell, M., Macleod, J., Haynes, J.C., Skapinakis, P., Araya, R., & Lewis, G. (2007). Socio-economic status in childhood and later alcohol use: A systematic review. *Addiction, 102* (10), 1546- 1563.

Wills, T.A., Resko, J.A., Ainette, M.G., & Mendoza, D. (2004). Role of parent support and peer support in adolescent substance use: A test of mediated effects. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors, 18* (2), 122-134.

Wills, T.A., Sandy, J.M., & Shinar, O. (1999). Cloninger's constructs related to substance use level and problems in late adolescence: A mediational model based on self-control and coping motives. *Experimental and Clinical Psychopharmacology, 7* (2), 122- 134.

Wills, T.A., Sandy, J.M., & Yaeger, A.M. (2002). Stress and smoking in adolescence: A test of directional hypotheses. *Health Psychology, 21* (2), 122-130.

Wills, T.A., Walker, C., Mendoza, D., & Ainette, M.G. (2006). Behavioral and emotional self-control: Relations to substance use in samples of middle and high school students. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors, 20* (3), 265-278.

Witt, P., & Crompton, J. (1997). The protective factors framework: A key to programming for benefits and evaluating for results. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration, 15* (3), 1–18. Retrieved June 12, 2006, from *http://www.rpts.tamu.edu/Faculty/Witt/wittpub4.htm*

Wong, G. (2004). Resilience in the Asian context. In C. S. Clauss-Ehlers, & M. D. Weist (Eds.) *Community Planning to Foster Resilience in Children,* pp. 99-111. New York, USA: Kluwer Academic/ Plenum Publishers.

Wood, M.D., Read, J.P., Mitchell, R.E., & Brand, N.H. (2004). Do parents still matter? Parent and peer influences on alcohol involvement among recent high school graduates. *Psychology of Addictive Behaviors, 18* (1), 19-30.

World Health Organization. (2002). Office for the Western Pacific Region. Tobacco-Free Initiative (Referenced the Second National Health & Morbidity Survey, NHMS2, 1996, Zarihah, Z. Ministry of Health, Penang State Health Department). Retrieved February 26, 2005, from *http://tfi.wpro.who.int/prevalence.asp?nation_code=130&age_group_code=2*

World Health Organization. (2004). *W.H.O. Global Status Report on Alcohol 2004*. Western Pacific Region, Country Profiles: Malaysia. Geneva: World Health Organization, Department of Mental Health and Substance Abuse. Retrieved January 24, 2008, from *http://www.who.int/substance_abuse/publications/en/malaysia.pdf*

World Health Organization. (2006). *National report on violence and health Malaysia.* WHO Kobe Centre: Kobe, Japan. Report No. WHO/WKC/Tech.Ser./05.2

World Health Organization (2007). *Process of translation and adaptation of instruments.* Retrieved February 2, 2008 from *http://www.who.int/substance_abuse/research_tools/translation/en/print.html*

Zahn-Waxler, C., & Radke-Yarrow, M. (1990). The origins of empathic concern. *Motivation and Emotion, 14* (2), 107-103.

APPENDICES

Appendix A. IRB Approval for Dissertation

From	"Kahler, Tracie" <tkahler@psu.edu>
To	Patricia Ang <mua126@psu.edu>
Subject	Secondary Data Exempt Determination - IRB#27035: "Positive Youth Development in Malaysia"
Date	Wed, Nov 21, 2007 01:32 PM
CC	jdc15@psu.edu

Dear Mei-Mei (Patricia) Ang,

The Office for Research Protections (ORP) has reviewed the secondary data human participant research project IRB#27035: "Positive Youth Development in Malaysia" and determined it to be **exempt from IRB review**. This study qualifies under the following category:

Category 4: Research involving the collection or study of existing data, documents, records, pathological specimens, or diagnostic specimens, if these sources are publicly available or if the information is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that participants cannot be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the participants. [45 CFR 46.101(b)(4)]

The principal investigator is expected to maintain the research records for at least three (3) years after termination of the study. The principal investigator must determine and adhere to additional requirements established by any outside sponsors/funding sources.

….

Please do not hesitate to contact me if you have any questions or concerns.

Thank you,

Tracie
Tracie L. Kahler, MLS, CIM
tlk14@psu.edu

Research Compliance Coordinator – Human Participants
Office for Research Protections
The PennsylvaniaStateUniversity
201 Kern Graduate Building
University Park, PA16802
Phone: (814) 865-1775
Fax: (814) 863-8699
http://www.research.psu.edu/orp/

Appendix B. IRB Approval for Qualitative Study

Subject: IRB# 24017 - "Malaysian Teen Development Study (MTD): Phase I"
Date: Mon, 25 Sep 2006
From: "Mathieu, Jodi" <zjc2@psu.edu>
To: <mua126@psu.edu>
Cc: <jdc15@psu.edu>

Hi Patricia,

The Office for Research Protections (ORP) has reviewed the above-referenced study and determined it to be **exempt from IRB review**. You may begin your research. This study qualifies under the following category (ies):

Category 2: Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures, or observations of public behavior unless: (i) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human participants can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the participants; and (ii) any disclosure of the human participants' responses outside the research could reasonably place the participants at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the participants' financial standing, employability, or reputation. [45 CFR 46.101(b)(2)]

PLEASE NOTE THE FOLLOWING:

- Include your IRB number in any correspondence to the ORP.
- The principal investigator is responsible for determining and adhering to additional requirements established by any outside sponsors/funding sources.
- Record Keeping

o The principal investigator is expected to maintain the original signed informed consent forms, if applicable, along with the research records for at least three (3) years after termination of the study.
o This will be the only correspondence you will receive from our office regarding this modification determination.

§ MAINTAIN A COPY OF THIS EMAIL FOR YOUR RECORDS.

Please do not hesitate to contact me if you have any questions or concerns.

Thank you,

Jodi

Jodi L. Mathieu, BS, CIP
Research Compliance Coordinator
Office for Research Protections
Phone: (814) 865-1775. Fax: (814) 863-8699
http://www.research.psu.edu/orp/

Appendix C. Qualitative Interviews with Youth Professionals

Good morning/ afternoon. The purpose of this interview is to get a sense of youth professionals' opinions of desirable outcomes for Malaysian youth.

Consent Procedure
Before we begin, here is a consent form which describes your rights as a participant. [Key points will be mentioned: 1) Purpose of the Study, 2) Procedures – Interview; In order to facilitate a smooth dialogue, this interview will be recorded, 3) Duration, 4) Confidentiality – No identifying information will be linked to your responses, etc.; and any questions will be addressed.] You may keep this form for your records.

Thank you for agreeing to be interviewed. Our objective is to get a sense of Malaysian professionals' views of desirable youth outcomes. By *'youth'*, we mean adolescents between 13 to 19 years old. We want to understand what's viewed as positive and healthy youth development, and the factors that characterize *things going right* in adolescents' lives.

When you answer the following questions, remember to consider adolescents from different backgrounds and contexts within the Klang Valley. Youth can be in lower or higher socio-economic levels, and from different education levels (e.g. some have a primary school education, others have completed secondary, or tertiary education).

Part 1.

1) Some youth between 13 to 19 years of age develop positively, and some Malaysian adolescents don't develop as well. Picture in your mind a Malaysian youth who is doing well and developing in a positive and healthy manner. Think about ***all*** the characteristics, attitudes, and behaviors that characterize this youth, and then tell me which **three traits** best describe his/her positive development?

If individual asks 'What do you mean by developing positively?', respond with:
Well, different people have different impressions about positive development. We want to know what you think, and how *you* would describe positive development.

[1) Some youth between 13 to 19 years of age develop positively, and some Malaysian adolescents don't develop as well. Picture in your mind a Malaysian youth who is doing well and developing in a positive and healthy manner. Which 3 **characteristics, attitudes** or **behaviors** best describe his/her positive development?]

Follow-up prompts
- What do you think is the (second/ third) most important **characteristics, attitude or behavior** which reflects that a youth is developing positively?
- Picture for a moment **a young person you know**, whom you feel is just ***not doing well*** for his or her age. What kinds of positive traits do you feel he or she is seriously lacking?

Thank you for sharing your thoughts on positive development among Malaysian youth.

Appendix C (continued)

Part 2

One way that researchers, practitioners, and youth advocates have represented positive development in youth, is with the Five C's framework, representing Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections as key outcomes of importance. [If asked: This is a different set of Five C's and is unrelated to the Cash, Condominium, Car, Credit card, and Club membership list.]

I am going to list each of the Five C's, one at a time, and I want you to let me know **how you envision a youth** who demonstrates **high levels of each C.**

CARING

The first of the Five C's is ***Caring****.* What kinds of **cognitions, emotions**, and **behaviors** does a Malaysian youth who is 'Caring' and compassionate have?

- *As traits are provided, the interviewer asks for clarification when needed to better understand a trait that is described.*
- *The interviewer makes a note of any new traits (that are not in the list of 10 traits under Caring) on a separate sheet of paper. These traits will be referred to in Part 3 of this interview.*

Follow-up prompts: **How else would you describe a Caring youth**?

What other cognitions/ emotions/ or behaviors would a Caring youth have?

CHARACTER

Another of the C's is ***Character****.* What kinds of **attitudes, behaviors,** and **personal characteristics** does a Malaysian youth of good character have?

- *As traits are provided, the interviewer asks for clarification when needed to better understand a trait that is described.*
- *The interviewer makes a note of any new traits (that are not in the list of 10 traits under Character) on a separate sheet of paper. These traits will be referred to in Part 3 of this interview.*

Follow-up prompts: **How else would you describe a youth with Character?**

What other attitudes/ behaviors/ or personal characteristics would a youth of good character exhibit?

Appendix C (continued)

COMPETENCE

The next C is ***Competence***. Imagine youths between 13 to 19 years old, who are Competent. What sorts of **skills or abilities** would they possess?

- *As traits are provided, the interviewer asks for clarification when needed to better understand a trait that is described.*

- *The interviewer makes a note of any new traits (that are not in the list of 10 traits under Competence) on a separate sheet of paper. These traits will be referred to in Part 3 of this interview.*

Follow-up prompts: **How else would you describe a Competent youth?**

What other skills or abilities are important for **Competence in youth** between 13 – 19 years old?

CONFIDENCE

The fourth C is ***Confidence***. What comes to mind when you think of a youth who is 'Confident'? What should a youth be Confident about?

- *As traits are provided, the interviewer asks for clarification when needed to better understand a trait that is described.*

- *The interviewer makes a note of any new traits (that are not in the list of 10 traits under Confidence) on a separate sheet of paper. These traits will be referred to in Part 3 of this interview.*

Follow-up prompts: **How else would you describe a Confident youth?**

What else comes to mind when you picture a youth who is Confident?

CONNECTIONS

The fifth C is ***Connections***. Which **social relationships** are important in order for a youth to have strong 'Connections' with others?

As you think about these social relationships, what would be the **characteristics or qualities** of such relationships?

- *As traits are provided, the interviewer asks for clarification when needed to better understand a trait that is described.*
- *The interviewer makes a note of any new traits (that are not in the list of 10 traits under Connections) on a separate sheet of paper. These traits will be referred to in Part 3.*

Appendix C (continued)

Part 2 (ctd): Five C's in Malaysia

1. We have talked about the Five C's (Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections) as one framework describing teen development. **How suitable** do you think the Five C's are in describing positive development **in Malaysia**n teens?

2. Do you think there should be **fewer C's**, i.e. is there one or more C that seems less important as a broad dimension that describes PYD?

3. Do you think there is **another higher dimension** that should be added, in order to describe positive development in Malaysian teens?

   If respondent says yes: What is this dimension?

4. *(Potential fourth question)* In the first section you identified that –A--, --B--, and –C-- are three traits that best describe Positive Youth Development. Tell me how you see these 3 traits fitting with this Five C's perspective?

Appendix C (continued)

Part 3

Thank you for sharing your thoughts about the Five C's. We are now about half-way through the interview.

Various traits have been used to conceptualize each of the Five C's (Caring, Character, Competence, Confidence, and Connections). Each trait or characteristic is generally thought as representing *things going right* in kids. In this portion of the interview, I'd like to get a sense of which traits you consider ***most important*** for each of the Five C's.

a) ***Caring***
Here are the traits that some others have used to describe the positive dimension of Caring. Please look over the list and **rank these traits** from 1 to 10,

where **"1"** is what you consider **the *Most important* aspect** for Caring,
to **"10"** which is the ***Least important*** *or* ***unrelated*** to Caring in Malaysian youth.

[Respondents will be given a list of definitions for each set of 10 traits, see pages 30 - 34]

☐	Altruism
☐	Compassionate
☐	Concern for others
☐	Empathy for others
☐	Instrumental assistance
☐	Kindness
☐	Loyalty
☐	Perspective taking
☐	Sympathy
☐	Self-control/ Self-restraint
☐	Trust in significant others

(Note: The final list of 10 traits for Caring will be determined after completion of Stage 1 interviews)

*[Any **new traits** the respondent had used to describe Caring (in Part 2), will be rated after s/he rates the given 10 traits.]*

Earlier you had mentioned that _____ (New Trait 1), _____ (New Trait 2), and _____ (NT-3) are important to represent Caring in Malaysian youth. If you were to slot the trait _____ (NT-1) into your rating, where would you place it? How about _____ (NT-2) / (NT-3)?

b) ***Character***
Here are traits some have used to describe the good Character. Please look over the list and rank these traits from 1 to 10, where "1" is what you consider the *Most important* aspect for good Character, to "10" which is the *Least important or unrelated* to Character in Malaysian youth.

- [ ] Hard-working & has Perseverance
- [ ] Honesty
- [ ] Integrity
- [ ] Is religious or spiritual
- [ ] Kindness
- [ ] Law-abiding
- [ ] Personal values
- [ ] Respect for others
- [ ] Self Development/ Personal growth
- [ ] Self-restraint
- [ ] Social conscience+ responsibility
- [ ] Values diversity

Earlier you had mentioned that _____ (New Trait 1), _____ (New Trait 2), and _____ (NT-3) are important to represent good Character in Malaysian youth. If you were to slot the trait _____ (NT-1) into your rating, where would you place it? How about _____ (NT-2) / (NT-3)?

c) ***Competence***

Competence has been described by others using this list of traits. How would you rank their choice, based on which you consider *Most important* for Competence (1) to *Least important* aspect for Competence (10)?

- [ ] Able to ask for help when needed (Communication)
- [ ] Assertiveness
- [ ] Competence (General)
- [ ] Decision-making
- [ ] Environmental mastery
- [ ] Gets good grades
- [ ] Has academic or school abilities
- [ ] Has social skills
- [ ] Problem solving
- [ ] Reads for pleasures
- [ ] Self-management
- [ ] School engagement

Earlier you had mentioned that _____ (New Trait 1), _____ (New Trait 2), and _____ (NT-3) are important to represent Competence in Malaysian youth. If you were to slot the trait _____ (NT-1) into your rating, where would you place it? How about _____ (NT-2) / (NT-3)?

d) ***Confidence***

Confidence has been described by others using this list of traits. How would you rank their choice, based on which you consider *Most important* for Confidence (1) to *Least important* aspect for Confidence (10)?

- [ ] Assertiveness

☐	Autonomy
☐	Choice/ Locus of control
☐	Hope for future/ Future orientation/ Belief in the future
☐	Optimism
☐	Positive identity/ Knowledge of self
☐	Self-acceptance
☐	Self-esteem/ Self-worth
☐	Sense of Efficacy

Earlier you had mentioned that _____ (New Trait 1), _____ (New Trait 2), and _____ (NT-3) are important to represent Confidence in Malaysian youth. If you were to slot the trait _____ (NT-1) into your rating, where would you place it? How about _____ (NT-2) / (NT-3)?

e) ***Connections***
In regards to Connections, others have provided this list of social relationships which are deemed important in order for a youth to have strong 'Connections' with others.

☐	Able to approach teachers in school for lessons and/ or advice
☐	Adult or young adult positive role model
☐	Close relationship with Family
☐	Close School relationships
☐	Extended family involvement/ support
☐	Grandparents stay at home
☐	Links with Community
☐	Peers/ Good friends to share concerns with
☐	Positive involvement with Friends/ peers positive influence
☐	Relatedness (General)

Can you rate from (1) to (10), according to which social relationships you feel are most important for youth Connections?

"1" being the ***Very most important*****.** to **"10"** being the **Least important** type of Connections for youth (that is, the social relationships which you feel are less important for youth Connections?)

Other Connections?
And are there any (Other) **social relationships** not currently in this list which you feel are **also important** for youth positive Connections with others?

Conclusion
That was my last question. Before we conclude, are there any final thoughts or questions you may have about the interview or the project in general?

Thank you very much for your time today, and your participation in this interview. Your responses will be invaluable in helping us understand what professionals envision as positive development among teens.

Appendix D. Most Valued Traits for Each of the Five Cs

The three most valued traits for each of the Five Cs (from Part 3 of the Qualitative Interview, not included as a Study Aim)

The Five Cs	Traits most valued for Malaysian youth	Ranking received
Caring	Concern for others	1
	Compassionate	2
	Empathy for others	3
Character	Integrity	1
	Honesty	2
	Personal values	3
Competence	Self-management	1
	Social skills/ competence	2
	Decision-making	3
Confidence	Positive identity knowledge	1
	Self-esteem/ self-worth	2
	Self-acceptance	3
Connections	Close family connections	1
	Peer positive relationships	2, 4
	Extended family	3

Appendix E. *Inter-coder Checking Summary*

Coder	Interview	Section	Number of Codes	Codes in Agreement	% Agreement	Codes with Full Agreement [2]	% Full Agreement
1	20706	PYD	14	14	100.0	13	92.9
	(63 codes)	Caring	8	8	100.0	6	75.0
		Character	14	14	100.0	13	92.9
		Competence	9	9	100.0	6	66.7
		Confidence	6	6	100.0	5	83.3
		Connections	12	12	100.0	7	58.3
		Total codes	63	63	100 %	50	79 %
2	20707	PYD	8	8	100.0	8	100.0
	(41 codes)	Caring	7	6	85.7	6	85.7
		Character	7	7	100.0	7	100.0
		Competence	4	4	100.0	4	100.0
		Confidence	4	4	100.0	4	100.0
		Connections	11	11	100.0	7	63.6
		Total codes	41	40	98 %	36	88 %
2	20723	Caring	13	13	100.0	11	84.6
	(48 codes)	Character	8	8	100.0	6	75.0
		Competence	7	7	100.0	7	100.0
		Confidence	8	8	100.0	8	100.0
		Connections	12	12	100.0	9	75.0
		Total codes	48	48	100 %	41	85 %
1	20728	PYD	10	9	90.0	6	60.0
	(39 codes)	Caring	4	3	75.0	3	75.0
		Character	5	5	100.0	5	100.0
		Competence	7	7	100.0	7	100.0
		Confidence	3	3	100.0	3	100.0
		Connections	10	10	100.0	9	90.0
		Total codes	39	37	94 %	33	85 %

[2] For each code documented by the author, second coders provided a rating of 2= Full Agreement, 1= Partial Agreement, or 0 = Disagree. Where Partial Agreement occurred, RAs suggested a change in the definition or the description of a code, or to further distinguish it from other codes (by separating or combining codes).

VITA

Patricia Mei-Mei Ang

EDUCATION

2009	Ph D	Human Development & Family Studies, The Pennsylvania State University.
2002	MA	Counseling, De La Salle University Philippines
2001		Graduate Diploma in Counseling Psychology, De La Salle University Philippines.
1999	B Sc	BioIndustry (Agri. Econs), Universiti Putra Malaysia

AWARDS

2005	Prevention Research Fellow, The Pennsylvania State University.
2003	First Year HDFS Graduate Students GRE Award
1998/ 1999	Dean's List (Nov 1998/ 99, and May 1998/ 99)
1996/ 1997	Dean's List (December 1996/ 97)

PUBLICATIONS

Mincemoyer, C., Perkins, D., Ang, P.M., Greenberg, M.T., Spoth, R.L., Redmond, C., Fienberg, M. (2008). Improving the reputation of Cooperative Extension as a source of prevention education for youth and families: The effects of the PROSPER model. *Journal of Extension, 46* (1). *http://www.joe.org/joe/2008february/a6.shtml*

Gomez, B.J. & Ang, P.M. (2007). Promoting Positive Youth Development in Schools. *Theory Into Practice, 46* (2), 97-104.

PRESENTATIONS

Ang, P. M. & Coatsworth, J. D. (2004, May). *Parenting Quality, Developmental Assets, and Adolescent Subjective Well-Being.* Poster presented at the 12th Annual Meeting of the Society for Prevention Research. Quebec City, Canada.

Gomez, B. J., Ang, P. M., Coatsworth, J. D., & Edelbrock, C. (2004, May). *The Malaysian Child and Adolescent Well-Being (MCAW) Study: Implications for Prevention Efforts in Schools.* Poster presented at the 12th Annual Meeting of the Society for Prevention Research. Quebec City, Canada.

Meyer, S., Ang, P. M., Greenberg, M., Feinberg, M. (2004, May). *Predicting Team Effectiveness in Community-Based Prevention Programming: The PROSPER Project.* Poster presented at the 12th Annual Meeting of the Society for Prevention Research. Quebec City, Canada.

Sharp, E. S., Coatsworth, J. D., Duncan, L. & Ang, P. M. (2004, March). *Exploring Activity Participation, Identity, and Parenting Across Three Countries.* Paper presented at the 10th Biennial Meeting of the Society for Research in Adolescence. Baltimore, Maryland.

INTERVENTION AND OTHER RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

The Mentoring Malaysia Manual: A Positive Youth Development Program for Adolescents (2008).

Asian Research Center for Child & Adolescent Development (ARCCADE) (2006-2008).

The Malaysian Child and Adolescent Well-being (MCAW) Study. (2003). Co-Investigator