CHAPTER III
REVIEW OF LITERATURE
3.1.0 SELF-CONCEPT

In the present chapter an attempt has been made to quote the studies and researches related to the variables – self-concept, emotional competence, frustration and aggression in relation to delinquency. The chapter has been divided into four sections and the studies and researches related to each of the variable have been organized separately.

Theories in both sociology and psychology have depicted ‘Self’ as a key intervening event which conditions the likelihood that an individual’s social situation will lend to some kind of deviant activity. Self-concept is a topic that bridges a variety of disciplines and has been the subject of thousands of studies (Ostrow, 1982). Characteristically, these studies adopt one of two approaches; they focus on the self-concept either as a social product (a consequence of social influences) or as a social force (a cause of social behaviour) (Rosenberg, 1981; Kaplan, 1986).

Much theory and research on juvenile delinquency is focused on self-concept or self esteem. Reckless and his associates (1956) have been major contributors to this line of research and appear to have demonstrated that the quality of self-concept may be an excellent predictor of delinquency. Their research indicates that poor self-concept of individuals lead to vulnerable for delinquency.

The predominant and most explicitly developed causal schema of the relationship between delinquency and self-concept is the “self-esteem enhancement” model (Kaplan, 1975a; Wells, 1978). Positive feelings about ‘self’ during development have been argued to promote psychological well-being and stability (Harter, 1993a), behavioural adaptation (Kaplan, 1980).

A more widespread and theoretically motivated inclusion of the self-concept in analyses of deviance actually began to emerge in 1950’s when interactionist social
psychology became a major thought in sociological thought. Works by Cohen (1955), Reckless et al., (1956), and Lemert (1951a) stand as prominent works on the use of self concept in the study of deviance. There works are categorized as: (1) structural interactionism, (2) socialization-control, and (3) Labeling perspectives.

3.1.1 STRUCTURAL INTERACTIONISM

The focus in structural interactionist analyses generally has been on deviance as a "sub-cultural" phenomenon – referring to the emergence of divergent. The work of Cohen in "Delinquent Boys" (1955) provided the initial exemplar of this theoretical approach. This has the focus on motivational, interpersonal and situational considerations to explain the emergence of gang delinquency.

Cohen (1955) in particular, focused on deviance as a form of systematic response to "status frustration", which results from the intersection of social disjunction and the fundamental motivation of people to enhance or validate their self-identities through social interaction.

In self-role theory, social identity theory, or simply role theory, the concern was to reflect the mutual influence between individual and group processes. Greater attention was addressed to empirical investigations attempting to directly test the link between deviance, self-perceptions and social connections. Structural interactional analyses continued to focus on deviance largely in "sub cultural" terms, as in the study of gang delinquency (Short & Strodbeck, 1965).

3.1.2 SOCIALIZATION-CONTROL ANALYSES

A second theoretical focus on the relationship between self-conception and deviance was socialization-control approach. The principal focus here was on the personal development of an "ego-strength" variable which insulates against pressures toward
deviance. The initial base of this theory was containment theory, as suggested and developed by Reckless and associates (Reckless et al., 1956; Reckless, 1967). Containment theory emerged as a modification of social control theory, adding the self-factor as a key mechanism of "inner containment" of deviance.

3.1.3 LABELING ANALYSES

A third theoretical viewpoint includes the analyses identified with a labeling perspective on deviance. The main theorist was Lemert (1951), he focused on the relationship between deviating activities and the social responses which identify label and control such deviations. Labeling theory viewed deviance as a quality conferred on a behaviour of person by social response which applies a "deviant" label. Labeling hypothesis directly implicates the continuing process of self-conception. Self-concept is appeared to be both a cause and an effect of deviation.

The major findings of comparative study conducted by Dinitz et al., (1958) indicate that potentially insulated boys consistently defined themselves as accepting legal and social norms in their home and school life and in their friendship patterns and they conceived of themselves as "good" boys. The potentially delinquent nominees, on the other hand, were more negative in their appraisals of self and in the perceptions of their relationships. Many explained being involved in violation behavior and associated with friends who had a record of previous misconduct. They also less favorably evaluated their relationships at home and school.

Two theoretical principles predict that the self-esteem of labeled deviants should be lowered. First, the so-called "looking glasses self" principle holds that self-evaluations are formed from the reflected appraisals of others (Cooley, 1902; Rosenberg, 1979). According to this principle, persons labeled as deviant should
show low self-esteem because of negative societal reactions toward them. Second, self-evaluations are thought to be influenced by social comparison with others (Rosenberg, 1979).

Despite these theoretical predictions, comparisons of the self-esteem of labeled deviants to normal controls have often found no differences or even differences favouring the deviant group (see Kaplan, 1975). This has been true for studies of delinquent adolescents (Kaplan, 1975; Hall, 1966). One reason for these inconsistent findings may be the assumption that labeling will lead to lowered self-esteem under all conditions.

The study conducted by Chassin and Stager (1984) tested Rosenberg’s (1979) hypothetical determinants of self-esteem among incarcerated delinquents. It was found that self-esteem was lower for delinquents who accepted the personal relevance of the delinquent role/identity, for those who were aware of negative societal views of delinquents, and for those who agreed with these negative views and among those who placed greater importance on adult opinion. Consistent with prediction, self-esteem was lowered among delinquents.

The findings suggested that deviant social labeling alone does not necessarily lower self-esteem. Rather, deviant self-labeling may be necessary before self-esteem is lowered. Both adult and peer opinions may be important to self-esteem, but in different ways (Kandel et al., 1978; Harter, 1983).

Social labeling triggers a process of self-fulfilling prophecy (Darley & Fazio, 1980) ultimately; labeled individuals come to accept a view of themselves as deviant and to incorporate a deviant label into their self-concepts (Becker, 1963; Lemert, 1951b; Lofland, 1969; Scheff, 1975).
3.1.4 SELF-CONCEPT AND DELINQUENCY

The self-concept across of 222 delinquent boys was analyzed by using a cross-sectional design. It was found that there was not a significant decrease in self-concept for total sample; the decrease was significant and linear for those boys not previously incarcerated (Culbertson, 1973).

Evans, Brody and Noam (1995) compared the self-perception of 78 adolescents with conduct disorder, 130 adolescents comorbid with mood and conduct disorder and 208 normal controls, all aged 12-18 years. Results indicated that the 3 groups differed on several domains of self-perception, with each group reporting perceived strengths and weaknesses. Regression analyses indicated that self-perceptions share variance with a mixture of internalizing and externalizing symptoms.

Herrmann et al., (1997) assessed 5th, 6th and 8th graders from an area with considerable gang activity to determine the way in which self-concept is related to gang involvement. Product moment correlations revealed a significant negative association between gang involvement and the self-concept dimensions of competence, affect, academic, family and global. Discriminant analysis revealed a significant predictive relationship between self-concept and classification into high and low gang-involved groups.

It was hypothesized that higher self-concept would be related to lower delinquency (Levy, 1997a). Specifically, it was hypothesized that self-concept scores would be highest for non-delinquents, followed by non-institutionalized delinquents, and then institutionalized delinquents. The subjects were categorized as non-delinquents, non-institutionalized delinquents and institutionalized delinquents.
Differences were evident in the total and sub-scale scores of non-delinquents as compared with their delinquent counterparts. The relative self-concept scores of the groups indicated that the more serious the delinquent behaviour, more negative was the self-concept.

Weist et al., (1998) found in their study of adolescents, with self reporting high delinquent behaviour with normal adolescents, that subjects reporting high levels of delinquent behaviour had high life stress, lower self-concept and less cohesive families than did other normal adolescents.

The study conducted by Oyserman and Markus (1990) studied the relationship between the ages of 13-16 who varied in the degree of their delinquency (N=238 youths). Although many similarities were found among their hoped for selves, the groups of youth differed markedly in the nature of their expected and feared selves. It was found that the officially non-delinquent youths were more likely to display balance between their expectations and fears unlike the most delinquent youth. They further argue that the self-concept may indeed emerge as a crucial factor in delinquency, but only if the self-concept is considered to include not just one’s global feelings of self-worth but also one’s specific thoughts and feelings about the self and what is possible for self and what is possible for self in particular domains.

Based on Mead’s (1934) “reflective” notion of the self, Rosenberg (1979) defined self-esteem as a person’s evaluation of his or her objectified self, and global self-esteem as a person’s respect for oneself as a whole, including self-acceptance, self-respect, and feelings of self-worth.

Researchers have shown that global self-esteem is correlated with juvenile delinquency and even academic performance. In summarizing the research on the
relationship between self-esteem and delinquency, Wells and Rankin (1983) concluded that these studies “demonstrate a consistent association between evaluative social experiences, self-evaluation, and a variety of delinquent behaviours”. Although these data clearly show that self-esteem is significantly related to delinquency, they are not clear whether it is primarily the cause or the effect. There is in fact theoretical support for both views.

Self-esteem theory suggests that low self-esteem causes delinquency. Kaplan (1980) contends that youngsters with low self-esteem have frequently undergone unsatisfactory experiences in the conventional society-experiences that have created painful feelings of doubt about their self-worth. Seeking to alleviate these feelings, many turn to the delinquent reference group to enhance their self-esteem. Kaplan’s data are consistent with this view. In his large-scale study of junior high school pupils, he found that non-delinquents in the 7th grade with low self-esteem were significantly more likely than those with high self-esteem to become delinquent by the 8th grade. The behaviours ranged from minor acts like taking part in a social protest to many with more serious consequences such as engaging in fights, theft or robbery.

Although self-enhancement theory suggests that self-esteem and delinquency affect one another, it also suggests that these influences may be countervailing. Self-esteem is expected to have a negative effect on delinquency, but delinquency is expected to have a positive effect on self-esteem. Many sociological theories consider low self-esteem to be a strong factor in poor school performance, anxiety and delinquent behaviour (Rosenberg, Schooler & Schoenbach, 1989).

Some early studies provide evidence consistent with ‘self-enhancement’ hypothesis (Kaplan, 1978, Rosenberg & Rosenberg, 1978), they are limited by their
lack of statistical controls, use of cross-sectional data and statistical methods. Later studies correcting some of these limitations conclude that the effect of self-esteem on delinquency is negligible and that the effect of delinquency on self-esteem is variable, either not significant (Wells & Rankin, 1983), or self-enhancing (Bynner, O'Malley & Buchman, 1981), other studies report only limited evidence supporting the self-enhancement hypothesis (Owens, 1994; Rosenberg et al., 1989).

Self-reported data were collected to determine whether self-esteem was a mediating event between social experiences and delinquency. No substantial effect of self-esteem on subsequent delinquency was found. Additionally, no evidence of a self-enhancement effect, which is positive effect of delinquency on subsequent self-concept was discovered (Wells & Rankin, 1983).

Most research and theory about the self and delinquency has focused on global self-esteem. Rosenberg (1979) argues that the formation of global self-esteem consists three mechanisms: reflected appraisals, social comparison, and self-attribution. Through the process of reflected appraisals, individuals form self-conceptions on the basis of their perceptions of others' attitude toward them. Through the process of social comparisons, people make judgements about themselves in part by comparing themselves with others (Festinger, 1954). And through the process of self-attribution, individuals draw conclusions about their dispositions, motives and self-esteem on the basis of their observations of their own overt behaviour (Bem, 1972). These mechanisms imply that a strong motive for delinquent behaviour is the acquisition and maintenance of high self-esteem. Hence, adolescents may turn to delinquency to enhance their self-esteem (Kaplan, 1978) or to overcome feelings of self-rejection (Kaplan, 1980). Thus, positive self-esteem may insulate the person from delinquency (Reckless, Dinitz & Murray, 1956).
Several sets of analysis of the youth in transition data set (Bachman, O'Malley & Johnston, 1978) revealed conflicting results. Some have found support for self-enhancement principle – self-esteem affects delinquency (Rosenberg & Rosenberg, 1978), while others have not (Bynner, O'Malley & Bachman, 1981); and some have found support for the reflected appraisals principle, delinquency affects self-esteem (Wells & Rankin, 1983; McCarthy & Hoge, 1984), while others have not (Rosenberg & Rosenberg, 1978). Further, Kaplan et al., (1987) have found consistent support for the self-enhancement principle.

3.1.5 SELF-CONCEPT AND EMOTION

The relationship between a person's perceived self or self-state representations and emotional problems has long been of interest to psychologists (Freud, 1961; Horney, 1946, James, 1948; Rogers, 1961, Markus & Wurf, 1987).

The literature has traditionally focused on two self-related sources of negative emotions, and in both cases, the self-concept has played a major role (Higgins, 1987). The first source of emotional problems is related to negative self-assessment and has typically been referred to as low self-esteem (Wylie, 1979). The second source is related to inconsistencies between a self-concept and external feedback relevant to the self-concept (Aronson, 1969; Swann, 1983). In both cases, emotional problems are associated with self-concept attributes. Negative emotions have been related directly to global self-concept negatively.

Tori and Emavardhana (1998) studied the self-concept and emotional functioning of delinquent and non delinquent adolescents. The sample consisted of 400 incarcerated youths (300 boys and 100 girls) and 400 non-adjudicated controls of equivalent age, gender, SES and religion. The results revealed that the self-
perceptions of delinquents were rigid distinguished by feelings of impulsiveness. Denial, repression and regressive emotionality characterized the coping of the criminality involved youths.

Lewin (1935) and Rogers (1961) have all described how conflicts or inconsistencies among aspects of the self or between the self and situational factors can lead to emotional difficulties.

Self-discrepancy theory is a model of vulnerability to negative motivational states and emotional distress. In an initial test of the model, Higgins et al., (1986) found support for the two hypotheses that (a) greater magnitude of self-discrepancy is associated with greater magnitude of emotional distress and (b) that different types of discrepancy are associated with different kinds of chronic negative emotions and symptoms.

The study conducted by Fisher et al., (1991) compared a group of 140 child molesters with a group of 81 non-offenders. Results indicated that child molesters were significantly lower in self-esteem, higher on emotional loneliness and deficits in victim empathy.

3.1.6 SELF-CONCEPT AND AGGRESSION

Official statistics revealed that Blacks are over represented for offending in each category of aggressive crime such as homicide, rape, robbery and aggravated assault (Pallone & Hennessy, 1999; Sommers & Bashkin, 1992; Walker, Spohn & DeLone, 2003). In particular, Pallone and Hennessy (1999) noted that Black males in adolescence are at a much higher risk for homicide offending than other groups.

Several analyses involving violence or aggression and race have used adolescent samples. Fabrega et al., (1993) discovered a weak, but significant trend
among Black adolescents' exhibit higher levels of social aggression than white subjects. Harris (1992) found relatively few racial differences in aggression; however, she noted that Blacks were more likely to display physical aggression than Whites.

Coping mechanisms are generally believed to maintain and enhance self-esteem among prison inmates (Greve & Enzmann, 2003; Gullone et al., 2000). Treatment programs also seem to increase inmate self-esteem (Vicary & Good, 1983). The conventional way of thinking about the relationship between self-esteem, aggression and violence viewed aggression and violence as outcomes of low self-esteem.

Level of self-esteem may also be an important dimension associated with the tendencies to experience anger and hostility. Interestingly, investigations of the relationship between self-esteem and aggression have yielded conflicting results. Some results indicate that high self-esteem is related to greater aggressiveness (Licht, 1966; Worchel, 1958), whereas others indicate that low self-esteem is related to greater aggression (Rosenbaum & Decharms, 1960; Toch, 1969). Low self-esteem is associated with greater anger and hostility (Averill, 1982). Individuals with unstable high self-esteem would report especially high tendencies to experience anger and hostility, and the individuals with stable high self-esteem would report particularly low tendencies (Kernis, Grannemann & Barclay, 1989).

3.1.7 SELF-ESTEEM AND FRUSTRATION

The frustration-self esteem model has been used for years in the study of juvenile delinquency; it identifies school failure as the starting point in a cycle that may culminate in the student's rejecting, or being rejected by the school.
An impaired self-view is seen as resulting from frustration or embarrassment. Self-view is operationalized either as general self-esteem, self-concept, and academic self-concept. Bernstein and Rulo (1976) used this line of reasoning to explain possible consequences of learning problems that as the child becomes embarrassed and frustrated by school failure, he or she may exhibit increasingly disruptive behaviour. Ford and Nichols (1987) provided one framework for explaining how unattainable goals may lead to frustration and withdrawal. For example if a student experiences continual frustration in school subjects this can lead to a “perception of self as ineffective and powerless”.

According to frustration-esteem model, the youngsters’ self-view is a central mediator of problem behaviour. Consistent patterns of scholastic failure may threaten one’s self-view, resulting in a search for alternate activities that may be less sanctioned by society, but through which the youngster can experience success.

According to the traditional frustration esteem model, as a result of lowered self-esteem, the youngster exhibits problem behaviour that “constitutes a way of coping with social stigma and loss of self-esteem associated with failure (Elliott & Voss, 1974).

3.1.8 SUBGROUP DIFFERENCES

1) Gender

Harris (1976), Kaplan (1978) and Rosenberg and Rosenberg (1978) argue that the self-enhancing effects of delinquency are likely to be stronger for boys than for girls because of greater social tolerance for male delinquency than for female delinquency and the greater effects of social labeling for female versus male delinquency (Keane, Gillis & Hagan, 1989).
On the other hand, because the girls are more concerned about relational goals than are boys, they are more likely to be influenced by peers (Morris, 1964). Thus delinquent associations may have a larger impact on self-esteem for girls than for boys.

Matsueda (1992) supported for the symbolic interactionist theory by conducting a research on youths of age between 11-17 years. The results showed that reflected appraisals of self are substantially affected by parental appraisals and prior delinquency; future delinquency is substantially affected by reflected appraisals of self as a rule violator.

Research based on symbolic interactionist model of delinquency by assessing whether an interactionist model can account for the gender gap in delinquent behaviour. Parental appraisals significantly affect youths reflected appraisals, which in turn predict delinquency. Nevertheless, they found some gender interactions: for males, parental labeling and reflected appraisals have a larger effect on delinquency, and males are more likely to be falsely accused by parents. This model explains a substantial portion of the gender gap in delinquency (Matsueda, 1992; Bartusch & Matsueda, 1992).

The boys' antisocial behaviour is associated with striving for a masculine self-image, but girls' antisocial behaviours are associated with greater social marginalization. This conclusion is drawn by Hay (2000) by conducting a study on both the sexes, whose persistent behaviour problems led to suspension from school (N=128, adolescent boys and girls). Both boys and girls had average general self and general school self-concepts at lower level and only girls were low on emotional stability.
2) Race/ethnicity

While few studies have examined racial/ethnic differences in the association between self-esteem and delinquency, Wells and Rankin (1983) found a stronger self-degrating effect of delinquency on self-esteem among African American males than on their White counterparts. Owens (1994) finds that delinquent behaviour may be more likely to have a negative effect on self-esteem for African American than for non-African American adolescents.

Like previous researchers (McCarthy & Hoge, 1984; Owens, 1994; Wells & Rankin, 1983), Jang and Thornberry (1998) found that low self-esteem does not increase either associations with delinquent peers or delinquent behaviour. However, delinquent associations do have significant self-enhancing effects on later self-esteem, but delinquent behaviour does not. These findings are similar across gender and across racial/ethnic groups.

Covington's (1986) research focused on the effects of race and gender on self-esteem and deviance. Her sample consisted of 372 subjects. Covington found that the mean score on the Bachman Self-Esteem Index did not vary between Black and White males. Self-esteem for White males was positively associated with employment opportunities, but this relationship did not hold true for Black males. As such, she looked at the effect of self-esteem on involvement with deviant subcultures. Involvement in the deviant drug subculture increased self-esteem among white male addicts, but decreased self-esteem for Black males.

According to Jacques and Chason (1977), the relationship between race and self-esteem changed as a result of the civil rights movement, cultural changes in America. Ellison (1993) also suggested that high self-esteem among Black Americans
might be due to their religious involvement. Self-esteem among Black began to outpace self-esteem among whites in the 1980's, and non Blacks score higher on self-esteem measures than Whites. Emms et al., (1986) reported that Black delinquents scored higher on self-acceptance scale than Whites.

The data reported by Schwartz and Stryker (1970) and Jensen (1973) suggested the possibility of an interaction in the relationship between self-concept and delinquency which is dependent upon Black-White differences, or upon family structures.

3.1.9 FAMILY INFLUENCE ON SELF-CONCEPT AND DELINQUENCY

The positive mother-adolescent relationship quality and greater autonomy were associated with higher self-esteem and less delinquent behaviour (Bynum & Kotchick, 2006). In addition, adolescents who were younger or female reported fewer delinquent behaviours. Being male was associated with higher self-esteem.

Parenting has long been recognized as making an important contribution to the development of competencies and problem behaviours among children and adolescents. Recently, studies have found that parent-adolescent relationship quality is associated with better adjustment in the form of fewer internalizing and externalizing problems (Dorsey & Forehand, 2003). A recent study found that adolescents who reported greater relational support from a friend and siblings as compared to parents showed poorer adjustment outcomes in the form of lower self-esteem and loneliness (Scholte et al., 2001).

Vasuki and Vani (1997) studied the self-esteem of single children. The sample consisted of 40 school students, of which 20 were boys and 20 were girls. The age of the subjects ranged from 9 to 15 years. The self-esteeem inventory was administered
to them. The results revealed that most of the single children had high self-esteem. The single girls of 9-12 years of age had higher self-esteem than the single boys. There was no significant difference in the self-esteem of boys and girls of 12-15 years old. The older boys (12-15 years) had higher self-esteem than the boys of 9-12 years of age. There was no difference in the self-esteem of the girls between 9-12 years and 12-15 years of age.

It was found that homeless adolescents demonstrated significant deficits in areas of self-concept and a specific pattern of deficits was related to hopelessness (Miner, 199). Children with natural parents were found to have higher social self-concept, temperamental self-concept and intellectual self-concept than orphan children (Barooch & Phukan, 1999).

Barooch and Phukan (1999) compared the self-concept of orphan children and children with natural parents. 45 orphan children and 45 children with natural parents were randomly selected for the study. No difference was found in the physical self-concept, educational self-concept and moral self-concept of the two groups. Children with natural parents were found to have higher social self-concept, temperamental self-concept and intellectual self-concept than orphan children.

A study was designed by Kalyani and Anitha (2002) to find out the self-concept of adolescents in single parent and intact families and also to examine the grade and sex differences on self-concept of adolescents. The study revealed that (1) adolescents of intact families had greater self-concept than the single parent families, (2) grade differences were not found, (3) girls were found to have significantly higher self-concept than boys, (4) it was found that adolescents of intact families had high self-concept in the dimension such as physical, family, social, personal, identity and behaviour self and the single parent adolescents had high self-concept in moral and ethical self areas.
3.1.10 DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES, SELF-CONCEPT AND DELINQUENCY

The effect of birth order on self-concept was examined in a sample of adolescent boys and girls. Based upon self theory, which suggests that the two main processes of self-concept formation – reflected appraisals and social comparisons are affected by the power and role relationships associated with ordinal position in the family. It was found that the self-evaluations of only and oldest children were not positive, the middle-borns had the lowest self-evaluations, these relationships were not affected by the sex and spacing of nearest siblings. (Gecas & Pasley, 1983).

Self-concept and ordinal position were significantly related. The difference in self-concept between first and middle, middle and last position were significant, but the difference between first and last position was not significant. These findings were explored by Vasantha (1972) on 603 students, belonging both rural and urban colleges.

Socio-economic status is significantly positively associated with internality and self-concept (Maqsud & Rouhani, 1991). Norma (1972) explored the relationship between self-concept and socio-economic status (SES) of 8-14 years olds. Results revealed subjects of low SES scored higher than subjects of middle SES at all ages, in both sexes, among blacks as well as whites, and in rural and urban areas. The authors measured 4 sub areas of self-concept: (a) general self, (b) social-self, (c) school-academic, (d) home-parents. Low SES youngsters scored higher on all subscales except on home parents.

Socioeconomic status (SES) has a small but significant relationship with self-esteem in a meta-analysis of 446 samples (total participants N=3,12,940). Higher SES individuals reported higher self-esteem. The effect size is very small in young
children, increased substantially during young adulthood, continued higher until middle adulthood, continued higher until middle age, and was then smaller for adults over the age of 60 (Twenge & Campbell, 2002).

Tiwari and others (1979) suggested that caste is positively and directly related to self-esteem. Dubey (1986) studied the personality characteristics of scheduled castes (SC) and non-scheduled castes (non-SC) subjects and found significant differences on personality factors between SC and non-SC young adult subjects. Where as Rao (1986) examined self-concept of SC and non-SC adolescents and noted significant differences in their self-concept. The non-SC subjects were found to have higher self-concept than SC adolescents. The findings of study conducted by Bharsakle et al., (1994) revealed that SC and non-SC subjects belonging to different sociometric status differed in their self-image as compared to SC subjects. And also girls had better self-image as compared to boys. The findings of Kakkar (1967), Sharma (1976) and Tiwari and Morabatta (1980) revealed that girls had higher self-concept as compared to boys, but opposite result was found in Blackbourn and Blackbourn’s (1987) study.

3.2.0 EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE

Emotional competence is a closely associated factor of juvenile delinquency, which plays a major role in determining delinquency and recidivism. In North American and many other Western cultures, adolescence is sometimes considered a developmental stage of “Storm & Stress” that is highly associated with social, behavioural and emotional problems such as juvenile delinquency, identity crisis, mental disorders and suicide attempts (Irwin, 1987, Powers, Hauser & Kiner, 1989).
Aggressive, disruptive, and delinquent behaviours are common forms of externalizing problems in adolescents across cultures (Weisz et al., 1993). Emotional problems and conduct disorders are the most commonly observed psychopathological disturbances in children, which are intensely studies across the world (Compass et al., 1989).

The review of literature suggests that earlier temperamental characteristics as well as varying life events and environmental conditions contribute to the development of emotional and behavioural problems during adolescence (Susman et al., 1993; Conger et al., 1994; Ge et al., 1994).

3.2.1 FAMILY RELATIONSHIP AND EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE

The child’s ability to regulate emotion is a necessary precursor to socially competent and non-aggressive functioning (Conduct Problems Prevention Research Group, 1992; Lochman & Lenhart, 1993). Children whose families express more positive affect have peer interactions characterized by pro-social behaviour (Denham and Grout, 1993), whereas children whose families express more negative affect and less positive affect have peer interactions characterized by aggression (Boyum & Parke, 1995; Denham et al., 1994; Greenberg, Lengua, Coie, Pinderhughes & The conduct Problems Prevention Research Group, 1999).

Ramsden and Hubbard (2002) explored the relations between positive and negative family expressiveness, parental emotion coaching, child emotion regulation, and child aggression. Mothers gave information regarding awareness, acceptance of and instruction in managing their child’s anger and sadness. Teachers rated each child’s aggression and completed the Emotion Regulation Checklist for each child. The three dimensions of parental emotion coaching and positive and negative family
expressiveness were not related directly to child aggression. However, both negative family expressiveness and the mother's acceptance of the child's negative emotions were indirectly related to child aggression through the child's emotion regulation.

The one family emotion variable is emotion coaching for the children. Researchers have examined parents' responsiveness to children's emotion as a means of encouraging or discouraging the expression and understanding of emotion. Denham and Colleagues (1997) found that higher levels of parental responsiveness to both positive and negative child emotions were associated with more socially competent behaviour. Whereas, more clear findings were found by Roberts and Strayer (1987) that there was an inverted U function in the relation between children's aggression and parental responsiveness to negative affect, with an increase in children's aggression at high levels of responsiveness to negative affect.

Gottman et al., (1996) proposed that it is the parent's instruction regarding expression and experience important in parental emotion coaching. More specifically, parental emotion coaching includes a focus on parents' awareness of their child's emotions, parents' acceptance of the child's emotions, and the degree to which parents provide instruction to the child on managing his/her emotions. Parents who are higher on emotion coaching are more aware of their child's emotions, talk about them and assist their children in experiencing and regulating them. On the other hand, parents lower on emotion coaching may be more likely to ignore, deny and distract children from their emotions.

Hooven et al., (1995) have identified link between parental emotion coaching and child outcomes related to aggression. Parents who were high on emotion coaching when children were 5 years old had children who displayed less negative play with their peers currently and fewer behaviour problems when they were 8 years old.
Gottman et al., (1996) and Hooven et al., (1995) found a link between parental emotion coaching and children’s physiological ability to regulate emotion. Lower levels of emotion regulation in children would be associated with higher levels of aggression.

The families of more socially competent participants tended to be verbally and emotionally expressive. Consequently, families of more antisocial adolescents had more conflict and enmeshment (Carson, 1998).

Observational and self report techniques were used by Denham et al., (1997) to measure emotional socialization, emotional competence, and social competence of preschoolers. The results suggested that parental modeling of expressive styles and emotional responsiveness to child emotions were important predictors of preschoolers’ emotional competence and their overall social competence. Children whose parents were more effectively positive tended to display more positive emotion with peers, whereas children whose parents were more negative appeared less socially competent in the preschool. Parents who were better coaches of their children’s emotions had children who understood emotions better.

The same line of research was conducted by Denham et al., (2003) on preschoolers’ patterns of emotional expressiveness, emotion regulation, and emotion knowledge. Emotional competence assessed at 3 to 4 years of age contributed to both concurrent and kindergarten social competence. Even early in the preschool period, contributions of emotional competence to social competence have long term implications.

A wide range of children’s developmental outcomes are compromised by exposure to domestic violence, including social, emotional and behavioural
functioning. Forty of the studies indicated that children’s exposure to domestic violence was related to emotional and behavioural problems. Co-occurrence of child abuse increased the level of emotional and behavioural problems above and beyond exposure alone (David et al., 2003).

Domestic violence creates a negative impact on children’s emotional and behavioural adjustment over and above other co-existing factors. (Edleson, 1999; Fantuzzo & Lindquist, 1989; Fantuzzo & Mohr, 1999; Margolina & Gordis, 2000; Wolak & Finkelhor, 1998).

The study conducted by Kapi et al., (2007) aimed to assess the social factors associated with self reported emotional and behavioural problems among Greek adolescents. The results confirmed that social factors, including negative family functions, lack of academic motivation and not having close friends were associated with emotional and behavioural problems among adolescents and imply the need to develop a supportive social network for adolescents.

Some family structures, single parent families, have been associated with risk taking behaviours among youths (Oman et al., 2005). In addition, positive relationships with parents have also been associated with a lower likelihood of young people to engage in risk behaviour and have been associated with positive health outcomes (Garnefski & Diekstra, 1997; Griesbach et al., 2003).

In the mean time, peer relationships become very influential during adolescence, as youngsters redirect their emotional experience (Ary et al., 1999; Tarrant et al., 2001). The school environment, as a workplace and social climate, is of great importance to their physical, social and emotional development. Positive peer interactions increases their sense of success and leads to a better well being (Rovens-Sieberer et al., 2004).
O' Conner et al., (2001) examined the sources of variation in children's behavioural and emotional problems across diverse family settings. The results revealed that behavioural and emotional problems were elevated in children in step-mother/complex step-families and single-parent families, but not in simple step-father families, relative to 'biological' families.

Conflict between a parent and an adolescent may be indicative of problems of family cohesion and may predict poorer self-esteem and problems of emotion and behaviour (Bagley et al., 2001).

Parental education level, living in one-parent family and parental unemployment are associated with a higher level of emotional problem behaviour (Sourander, 2001).

Attachment with parents thereby plays an important role in adolescents' social and emotional problem behaviour. Parental attachment and relational competence are significant predictors of adolescents' emotional adjustment in the children (Engels et al., 2001).

Garnefski & Diekstra, (1996) reported that extent which negative perceptions of support from family, school and peers differ with regard to their impact on emotional and behavioural problems and negative perceptions of multiple social support systems are related to the presence of multiple emotional and behavioural problems in adolescence.

The effects of parental style and parent's emotional health status on children's social and emotional functioning were examined by Haskett et al., (1995). Approaches to child rearing were expected to mediate the impact of parental emotion health on child adjustment. The impact of emotional health on child adjustment was
significantly reduced when the effects of parenting style were controlled. Results suggest that parental approaches to child rearing play a key role in shaping children's social and emotional functioning, with parents' emotional health status playing a more indirect role.

Children from extended families have lower behaviour problem scores and the prevalence of serious problem was lower in extended family children (Hwang & St. James Roberts, 1998). These differences were most marked in relation to externalizing behaviour problems and were stable over the studies and time. Grand parents in extended families may increase children's resiliency by providing sources of attachment, affect, knowledge and social support.

3.2.2 EMOTION REGULATION

The emerging field of emotion regulation studies revealed how individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them and how they experience and express them (Gross, 1998a). Emotion regulation is defined and distinguished from coping, mood regulation, defense and affects regulation. Hence the field of emotion regulation promises new insights into age old questions about how people manage their emotions.

Emotional and behavioural difficulties are defined in terms of “a disruption of emotional and social functions” (Moras, 1996). This disruption manifests in a variety of ways, including “aggression, fears, excessive tantrums or conduct disorders” (Schaffer, 1990), or alternatively exhibiting with antisocial or un-cooperative behaviour, frustration and violence (Department of Education, 1993).

Emotional reactivity and emotion regulation are conceptualized as distinct but interrelated constructs. Well-regulated children will look less reactive if they can
control their arousal. In other words, competent emotion regulation restricts the behavioral expression of emotional reactivity (Calkins & Johnson, 1998). Strong negative emotional reactions interfere with regulation efforts because over arousal diminishes children's capacities to select strategies to effectively reduce arousal. Intense negative reactions seem to interfere with children's efforts to regulate emotions (Carter et al., 1998; Grolnick et al., 2001).

Calkins et al., (1999) assessed emotional reactivity using two frustration tasks designed to elicit distress. Emotional regulation was assessed by examining the child's behaviours when confronted by the distress tasks. Peer play behaviours were coded for social participation and peer-directed conflict (aggressive) behaviour. The results indicated that both emotional reactivity and emotional regulation were important predictors of conflict and cooperation. Distress to frustration, when accompanied by high venting or high focal object focus was significantly related to conflict with peers but not when accompanied by distraction, mother orientation and self-focused behaviours. The study emphasized the importance of identifying the casual relations between child emotional regulation and early social competence.

Snyder et al., (1997) tested theoretical models specifying the contribution of two social-familial mechanisms negative reinforcement and affect dysregulation to the development of child antisocial behaviour. Results show that both negative reinforcement and affect dysregulation mechanisms play a role in the development of antisocial behaviour in children.

It was hypothesized by Sonnernmans and Frijda (1995) that emotional intensity is determined jointly by variables from the following four classes: concerns (strength and relevance), appraisal, regulation and individual propensities. It was found that all
four classes were correlated with emotional intensity, and the concerned variables showed the highest correlations. The important of the determinants was not always the same. The relation between regulation and emotional intensity is a complex and reciprocal one. Emotional intensity presumably determines how much regulation is needed, but successful regulation will decrease that intensity.

Longitudinal study conducted by Kokkinen and Pulkkinen (1999) examined the relationships between the adults' emotion regulation strategies (ERSS) of repair, maintenance and dampening and concurrent personality characteristics. Co-relational analysis, multivariate analysis of variance and path analysis showed, for men only, that low use of ERS relates to low self-control of emotions, whereas high use relates to high self-control. Subjects with low repair had characteristics indicating low self-control of emotions at both ages. Conversely, subjects with high repair showed high self-control of emotions at both ages.

Children exhibiting good inhibitory control may be protected against the negative behavioural outcomes associated with negative emotions (Eisenberg et al., 2003), their ability to engage in effortful self-regulation while experiencing negative emotions may be an important factor in predicting their risk for future deviant behaviour (Eisenberg et al., 2003; Kochanska et al., 2000).

3.2.3 EMOTION UNDERSTANDING AND EXPRESSION

Shipman & Zeman (1999) investigated emotional understanding, causes and consequences of emotion, of children. Maltreated children demonstrated lower levels of emotional understanding. Further, significant relations emerged between maternal behaviour i.e., discussion of emotion and children's emotional understanding skills. Findings are discussed from the functionalist approach to emotional development,
emphasizing the importance of social context in the development of children’s emotional understanding skills.

Using a process model of emotion, a distinction between antecedent-focused and response-focused emotion regulation is proposed by Gross, (1998b). Compared with the control condition both reappraisal and suppression were effective in reducing emotion expressive behavior. However, reappraisal decreased disgust experience, whereas suppression increased sympathetic activation. These results suggest that these two emotion regulatory process may have different adaptive consequences.

Children with higher levels of aggressive behaviour exhibited more intense and frequent expressions of anger, both as reported by mothers and as observed during the disappointment paradigm. Less sophisticated ability to identify the causes of emotion also characterized children with higher levels of aggressive behaviour (Bohnert et al., 2003).

Individual differences in the expression and regulation of emotion are important components of social skill. The social context strongly influences the expressive behaviours of subjects. The self-monitoring construct (Snyder, 1987) is helpful in explaining individual differences in expressive regulation, with high self-monitors are successful at hiding their emotions. Low self-monitors did not conceal their emotions (Friedman & Herringer, 1991).

Deficiencies in proper emotional expression can have detrimental effects on social interaction, unexpressive people may be seen by others as less likeable (Riggio & Friedman, 1986). On the other hand, inappropriate expressiveness can also be socially problematic (Goffman, 1959). Some studies have shown that certain emotional expression may be facilitated in social settings (Chapman, 1976). The
degree of inhibition of emotional expression depends on the social consequences of the expression.

Adults with ADHD performed worse in affect recognition than did adults without the disorder (Rapport et al., 2002). Moreover, intensity of experienced emotion moderated affect recognition. Among controls, experienced emotion facilitated affect recognition. Among adults with ADHD, who reported significantly greater intensity, experienced emotion was inversely related to affect recognition.

Garner, (2001) investigated linkages between aspects of emotional competence and preschoolers’ social skills with peers. Results revealed that the emotional competence variables were meaningfully related to the peer variables and that, for non-constructive anger reactions, maternal reports of anger explained unique variance.

3.2.4 COGNITIVE APPRAISAL AND EMOTIONS

Appraisal theorists (Ex: Arnold, 1960; Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1968; Roseman, 1979; Scherer, 1984; Weiner, 1985) claim that evaluations and interpretations of events, rather than events par se, determine whether an emotion will be felt and which emotion it will be. Two individuals will feel the same emotion to the extent that their appraisals of situation are the same. Two individuals with different appraisals, or the same individual with different appraisals at different times, will feel different emotions.

Roseman (1979) had predicted that when a negative outcome occurred, the appraisal that a positive outcome was deserved would elicit frustration, anger or regret, as apposed to other negative emotions.
When subjects are asked to label recalled emotional incidents, and also to rate these incidents on a set of appraisal scales, different emotions appear to correspond with different appraisal structures (Frijda, 1987; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985, 1987; Weiner, 1985).

Frijda (1986) states about action readiness elicited by events appraised as emotionally relevant; different states of action readiness are elicited by different appraisals. Events are appraised as emotionally relevant when they appear to favour or harm the individual’s concerns: his or her major goals, motives or sensitivities. There is a significant relation between particular modes of action readiness and particular appraisal patterns. The results of the study support for the view that emotions can be regarded as experiences of forms of appraisal and as states of action readiness.

Parrott (2001) demonstrated that the functionality of emotions depends critically on the appraisals that give rise to emotions, the choice and control of the behaviours motivated by emotions, and the socialization and training of emotions.

Roseman et al., (1995) conducted a cross cultural test of Roseman’s theory specifying the appraisals of a situation that determine what the emotion person experiences. Appraisals of powerlessness characterized incidents eliciting sadness and fear, whereas appraisals of relative power characterized incidents eliciting anger. However, Indian subjects unlike American subjects appraised events as less discrepant from their motives, this accounted for lower sadness and anger among Indian subjects. Overall, cultural differences in appraisal explained cultural differences in emotion. Data provide some cross-cultural evidence consistent with predictors of Roseman’s theory.
Cultural display rules govern how much emotion is appropriate to be shown to whom and under what circumstances. Social conventions about expressive behaviour differ from culture to culture but are thought to be learned in childhood (Ekman, 1972).

The specific display rules of even one culture are unknown (Ekman & Oster, 1979). Some researches have focused on the socialization of emotion in infants (Malatesta & Haviland, 1982) and on the acquisition of display rule knowledge in young children (Saarni, 1979, 1982, 1984; Cole, 1985). The ability and manner of expressive regulation is likely to vary considerably.

Exposure to community violence has emerged as a major risk factor for the development of emotional and behavioural problems in children and adolescents (Overstreet, 2000). Antisocial behaviour, including fighting, gang involvement, delinquency and the use of weapons, has been examined as a potential consequence of exposure to community violence (Durant et al., 1994; Farrell & Bruce, 1997; Gorman-Smith & Tolan, 1998). Researchers have suggested that repeated exposure to community violence may cause children to become desensitized to aggression, which could lead to increased aggression and acting out (Farrell & Bruce, 1997; Garbarino et al., 1992; Gorman-Smith & Tolan, 1998).

The expression of individual feelings and emotions, particularly of a negative nature, is often considered selfish and socially inappropriate in Chinese culture (Kleinman 1980; Kleinman & Good 1985).

Davies and Mckelvey (1998) compared levels of self-reported emotional and behavioural problems and competencies between immigrant and non-immigrant 12-16 year old children in Western Australia. Overall, immigrant adolescents reported fewer problems and lower levels of competence than native born adolescents.
3.2.6 EMOTIONAL DYSREGULATION AND DELINQUENCY

High emotionality predicts delinquent behaviour and aggressive behaviour. Emotionality is the strongest temperamental predictor of behaviour problems (Gjone & Stevenson, 1997). Moriarty et al., (2001) found in their study that on the whole sex offenders were higher on aggression and attention to feelings, less clear about their feelings, and less capable to repair unpleasant moods and prolong positive ones. The authors concluded that these findings could be the focus of treatment approaches of adolescent sex offenders.

Pliszka et al., (2000) determined the prevalence of major mental disorders of adolescents admitted to a juvenile detention centre. A high rate of affective disorder (42%) was found among these adolescents. They explored a strong association between affective disorder and conduct disorder.

Emotional tone and family structure are found to be the most predictive variables of offender status. This was tested on 76 male and 33 female juvenile offenders, aged 15-19 years comprising the sample group (Bush et al., 2000).

The study conducted by Howell et al., (1997) examined adolescent offenders’ importance ratings of immediate incidents to their offenses. Principal components analysis of responses to the 71 items of the HRSQ-YO resulted in three factors which were rotated to a varimax criterion; Negative Affectivity, Delinquency and Aggressivity. Delinquency factor scores were significantly higher for property offenses than for violent offenses, whereas aggressivity factor scores were significantly higher for violent offenses than for property offenses. Negative affectivity factor scores did not differ between property and violent offenses.
Hudson et al. (1993) conducted 2 studies to determine whether violent and sex offenders have greater difficulty in correctly identifying emotions. In study 1, 21 convicted sex offenders and 54 other male prisoners (aged 18.5-67 years) determined the emotional states displayed in 36 slides of adult faces. In study 2, 20 male child molesters and 20 male controls determined the emotional states depicted in the drawings of child and adult faces. Emotional states represented were surprise, fear, disgust, anger, happiness and sadness. Violent non-sex offenders were the most emotionally sensitive and the most accurate at identifying the emotional states of others, while sex offenders displayed the least sensitivity to emotional stimuli. Child molesters showed that they showed relative deficits in emotional recognition when compared with controls.

Rowe & Flanner (1994) collected from 418 birth-order-adjacent sibling pairs (a total of 836 SS, aged 10-16 years). 78% of samples had committed at least one delinquent act. Three factors—delinquency proneness, peer relations and negative emotionality were extracted from 15 explanatory variables. All 3 factors were statistically associated with delinquency, but delinquency proneness dominated in terms of variance explained.

A model was presented in which the relationship between emotions and later delinquency was fully mediated through a measure of Lax Supervision. Forgatch & Stoolmiller (1994) investigated that no direct relationship was found between emotional expression and delinquent peer association or delinquency. Lax supervision and delinquent peer association had large effects on delinquency, as hypothesized, with 38% of the variance of delinquency explained in the model.

Barnes & O’ Gorman (1995) described the social, physical, intellectual and psychological characteristics of 100 male juvenile delinquents. The results revealed
that most common psychiatric disorders were socialized conduct disorder and mixed
disorder of conduct and emotions.

Christianson et al., (1996) investigated the ability to remember details of an
emotional event with 25 psychopathic and 37 non-psychopathic criminal offenders.
Non-psychopaths recalled the central detail of the emotional slide far better than they
did the peripheral detail, showing the expected narrowing of attention with negative
emotion. Psychopaths failed to show this effect; their recall of the central and
peripheral details was the same for the emotional slide as for the neutral slide. Results
suggest that the psychopaths have difficulty in emotional information.

Zlotnick (1999) conducted a study to examine the role of affect dysregulation
and childhood abuse in antisocial personality disorder (APSD), using a sample of
incarcerated women. This study found that a greater degree of affect dysregulation in
particular, poor anger modulation was significantly related to ASPD.

Youths held in juvenile detention facilities are at increased risk for emotional
disturbances (Otto et al., 1992). Females have higher levels of distress and depression
than male detainees (Casper, Belanoff & Offer, 1996; Timmons Mitchell et al., 1997).

3.2.7 SELF-CONCEPT AND EMOTION COMPETENCE

Self-esteem has been linked to a diverse array of positive and negative affective
states. Self-esteem is more closely associated with self-relevant emotional states than
with emotional states that do not directly implicate the self. Although several
personality variables predicted subjects' emotional reactions to success and failure,
these effects were eliminated once self esteem was taken into account. Self-esteem
predicted subjects' self-relevant emotional reactions to failure but not their non self-
Self-esteem variability and emotional variability were measured by Oosterwegel et al., (2001) on 109 college students. It was found that self-esteem variability was partially independent of the conceptually similar trait of affect-intensity.

Smith and Petty (1995) reported three experiments on negative mood regulation in which whether mood congruency and mood incongruency effects of negative mood on cognition were observed was dependent on an individuals' self-esteem (SE). The results suggest a strong link between self-esteem and the regulation of negative emotional states.

Self-esteem is correlated more highly with positive than with negative affect (Tarlow & Haaga, 1996). With reference to delinquent behaviour, there are research findings on the linkage between self esteem and delinquency (Jang & Thornberry, 1998).

The impact of emotional distress and associated cognitive styles or social deficits on the self-concepts and self-schema is crucial to chronicity (Shustack & West, 1985). When social-contextual influences lead to an escalation in emotional and behavioural problem during childhood and adolescence, such problems may develop into relatively stable patterns of habitual behaviour (Ge & Conger, 1999). Those individuals whose delinquent behaviours increased during early adolescence were more likely to evidence negative emotionality and escalated delinquency during late adolescence or young adult period.

3.2.8 DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE

Although previous studies of emotional responding have found that women are more emotionally expressive than men, it remains unclear whether men and women differ
in other domains of emotional response. Kring and Allport (1998) assessed the expressive, experiential and physiological-emotional responses of men and women. Compared with men, women were more expressive, did not differ in reports of experienced emotion and demonstrated different patterns of skin conductance responding. Family expressiveness moderated the relationship between sex and expressivity.

The relationships between perceived economic stress (economic hardship and future economic worry) and emotional quality of life (self-esteem, life satisfaction, existential well being etc) as well as problem behaviour (substance abuse and delinquency) were examined in Chinese adolescents (Shek, 2005). Results showed that perceived economic stress was related to emotional quality of life as well as problem behaviour in adolescents. It was also found that the relationships were generally stronger in adolescents with economic disadvantage than in adolescent without economic disadvantages. Adolescents with higher levels of emotional quality of life displayed lower levels of adolescent problem behaviour.

According to Conger et al., (2000) model, the role of economic pressure in adolescent adjustment would involve the following mechanisms: 1. economic stress leads to parents' emotional distress, 2. parents' emotional distress leads to marital conflict or instability. 3. parents' emotional distress and marital conflict or instability leads to disrupted parenting, 4. disrupted parenting leads to adolescent maladjustment.

Lempers et al., (1989) showed that economic stress had indirect effect on delinquency and drug use in poor adolescents. Other researchers found that economic disadvantage exerted negative influences on family processes, which in turn affected the development of emotional distress (Ge et al., 1992), internalization and
externalization symptoms (Conger et al., 1994), and socio-emotional problems (Mc Loyd et al., 1994). They found that adolescent with higher perceived economic hardship reported lower self-esteem. Stern et al., (1999) showed that poverty was related to adolescent internalizing problems, such as lowered self-esteem.

In an earlier similar study Shek (2003) examined the association between perceived economic stress and emotional quality of life and problem behaviour. Results showed that higher levels of economic stress were generally related to adolescent adjustment.

Children and adolescents in Germany suffer from a variety of emotional and behaviour problems depending on their age and sex. Between 10% and 18% of the children and adolescents were considered to be requiring counseling, diagnostics and treatment (Barkmann et al., 2005).

3.3.0 FRUSTRATION

In day-to-day terminology, frustration simply means disappointment. But to Coleman (1971) it is a result of thwarting of the motive. To Brown and Farber (1951) and to Chauhan and Tiwari (1972) it is the end of need deprivation; and its expression takes various modes ranging from the increased efforts to hit the goal to neurotic or psychotic symptoms (Rosenzweig, 1944; Maier, 1949; Chadha & Ghose, 1985).

‘Frustration occurs’, according to Rosenzweig (1938), ‘whenever the organism meets a more or less insurmountable obstacle or obstruction in its route to the satisfaction of any vital need’. Amsel (1962) emphasized non-reward as an important variable contributing to frustration.
However, the most frequently identified and demonstrated reactions to frustration by the normal human beings are regression, fixation, resignation and aggression, also categorized as extra-punitive and intropunitive.

Frustration and its reactions generated voluminous, theoretical and empirical consideration in the field of Psychology in India. For instance, Gupta, Tiwari and Jai Prakash (1977) observed fixation as significantly related to family income. Malviya (1977) noted male adolescents with low socio-economic-status to be more aggressive than female adolescents with high socio-economic-status. Mellina (1979) found social class as the significant correlate of aggressiveness for frustration among pre-adolescents.

The study conducted by Helode and Ghosh (1995) aimed at investigating the role of socio-economic inequalities in influencing the expressed reactions to frustration. The two groups were tested on Chauhan and Tiwari’s Verbal Frustration Scale. The correlation analysis of the data revealed that the higher socio-economic status (SESH) group expressed significantly less regression, and significantly more aggression, but insignificantly less fixation, resignation and global frustration than lower socio-economic status (SESL) group. Further, analysis of the data showed that regression>aggression fixation>resignation has been the hierarchical pattern of the expressed reactions to frustration for the SESH group. While for the SESL group the hierarchical pattern was found to be regression>fixation>aggression resignation.

In one of their studies Misra (1981) and Udai Pareek (1964) explored the positive relationship between aggression and the reactions to frustration among delinquents.

Various studies have been conducted to study the reaction to frustration through Rosenzweig Picture Frustration Test (RPFT). Smock and Cruickshank
(1952), employing the RPFT studied that level of frustration tolerance was lower among handicapped children than among normal children. Sethi and Sen (1981) examined self-concept and frustration among orthopaedically handicapped children in comparison to normal children. Handicapped children were not found to differ significantly on frustration level except for two factors need-persistence and ego-defensive impunitiveness. An extra-punitive approach was common to both groups. The handicapped were more intropunitive and normal were more impunitive.

In another study it was found that handicapped children appear to be more extra-punitive than the normal children. The handicapped expressed more need-persistence and obstacle-dominance than the normal children. The normal children had little higher tendency than the handicapped in impunitive and intropunitive direction of aggression. They expressed more ego-defense reaction than the handicapped children. These results were found by Jain and Kureshi (1992) in their study on 20 normal and 20 orthopaedically handicapped children.

A considerable body of evidence indicated that frustration is accompanied by physiological arousal (Baker & Shaie, 1969; Gambaro & Rabin, 1969; Hokanson & Burgess, 1962). While the role of frustration produced arousal as an energizer of aggressive responses has been given considerable attention (Berkowitz, 1969).

Frustration may increase the likelihood that aggressive behaviours will be displayed once such responses have been acquired through observation (Bandura, 1973). In a study Hanratty et al., (1972) selected 30 first-grade boys. Of them 10 were frustrated and allowed to attack their frustrater, 10 were frustrated and allowed to attack another person, and the remaining were not frustrated. Half of the subjects had previously been shown an aggressive modeling film. According to prediction, of the subjects who had seen the film, those who were frustrated displayed more imitative aggression.
There are sex differences in the modes of frustration (Anish Jahan, 1996). This was tested on 272 students of undergraduate courses. There was sex difference in regression and aggression modes of frustration. The female students were found to be more prone to regression than the male students and the male students were found to be more prone to aggression than the female students. There was no difference between the males and females in the area of fixation and resignation.

Deviant sexual behaviour has often been portrayed as the consequence of the frustration of legitimate sexual outlets. This study of date rapists revealed that these men are sexually very active, successful and aspiring. These exaggerated aspiration levels are seen as responsible for instituting a high degree of sexual frustration. This acute relative deprivation is significant process responsible for precipitating those rape episodes (Kanin, 1985).

Lampron and Lochman (1986) designed a study to assess specific social problem-solving, perceived competence and self-esteem characteristic of 20 aggressive and 18 non-aggressive boys. Significant behavioural differences existed between the groups. Results showed that aggressive children had poorer self-esteem, generated fewer verbal assertion solutions in peer conflicts and during hostile frustration and employed more direct action solutions with teachers and during hostile frustration.

A Spanish translation of the Children's form of the Rosenzweig Picture Frustration Study was used to measure quality and direction of aggressive response to frustration in male and female, middle and lower-class urban Guatemalan children. Results showed that aggression and insisting on the frustrating situation lead to peer rejection, particularly in lower-class males, while externalizing aggression is
associated with positive peer evaluation for lower-class males. Many factors have been suggested as mediating the relationship between frustration and aggression. Among the most prominent have been culture, social class and sex (Adinolfi et al., 1973).

Irfan et al., (2003) investigated in their study the significant difference between rural-urban students for their adjustment and frustration. It was found from the study that rural Muslim students were more mal-adjusted and frustrated than urban Muslim students.

Yenagi and Yadav (1996) conducted a study of behavior problems of adolescents to frustration. The sample consisted of 100 illiterate male and 100 male college students of five birth orders selected by proportional-stratified-random sampling technique. The subjects were administered Frustration Test to assess aggression, regression, resignation and fixation behaviours. The results revealed that male adolescents are highly potential for aggressive behaviour but in reaction to frustration the uneducated male adolescents react through resignation and fixation behaviour. The birth order increase developed progressive potentiality of aggression behaviour. The first and the fifth born are more inclined to fixation behaviour.

Heavy exposure to television violence in childhood is associated with violent crime as an adult, although others have emphasized that experiencing 'real violence' as a child has a much greater effect on aggressive predispositions. It created a frame of mind that observed violent acts as a socially acceptable response to stress and frustration (Pennell & Browne, 1999).

The researches conducted in India and especially in abroad have focused much on aggression variable which is one mode of frustration. The researchers have, in their
studies, followed the frustration-aggression hypothesis model and have treated aggression as only one mode of frustration. But in India most of the studies, conducted on juvenile delinquents focusing on frustration, have treated aggression as one of the modes of frustration and there are limited studies on other modes of frustration such as regression, fixation and resignation. Therefore, in the present research in spite of aggression variable the above mentioned modes of frustration have been subjected to investigation on the juvenile delinquents.

3.4.0 AGGRESSION

Recent studies on the nature of children’s aggressive behavior suggest that there are two subtypes: proactive and reactive aggression (Dodge & Coie, 1987). Reactive aggression is generally accompanied by anger and emotional outbursts and has been associated with impulsivity and attention deficits (Crick & Dodge, 1996; Dodge & Coie, 1987; Vitaro et al., 2002). Proactive aggression has been associated with disruptive classroom behaviour (Dodge & Coie, 1987), initiation of fights, and juvenile delinquency (Connor et al., 2003; Pulkkinen, 1996; Raine et al., 2006; Vitaro et al., 2002).

In terms of emotional correlates, reactive aggression has been associated with low frustration tolerance and poorly regulated responses to emotional stimuli (Vitaro et al., 2002), while proactive aggression has been associated with reduced levels of emotional reactivity i.e., skin conductance and heart rate acceleration (Hubbard et al., 2002).

These cognitive and emotional differences provide evidence supporting the distinction between reactive and proactive aggression. Crick and Dodge (1996) found that both boys and girls who were classified as reactively aggressive were more likely...
to exhibit a hostile attribution bias than children classified as proactively aggressive. Similarly, two more studies reported that reactively aggressive boys and girls exhibited more anger and anxiety than proactively aggressive children (Hubbard et al., 2002; Vitaro et al., 2002). Thus available results of research suggest that the correlates of reactive and proactive aggression are similar for boys and girls.

Several studies have shown that when girls behave aggressively, they are more likely to choose relational aggression, rather than physical or overt aggression, as a strategy for use within the peer group (Crick, 1996; Crick et al., 1997; Lagerspetz et al., 1988; Ostrav & Keating, 2004).

The study conducted by Marsee et al., (2007) examined the distinction between reactive and proactive aggression in a sample of detained girls (N=58) aged 12 to 18. This study employed a self-report measure of aggression that was designed explicitly to assess both the forms of aggression i.e., relational and overt, as well as the functions that aggression serves i.e., reactive and proactive.

The relationship between personality psychopathology and aggressive behaviour was examined by Berman et al., (1998) on 137 research volunteers. Aggressive behaviour was associated with criteria for 7 of the 2 personality disorders listed in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM). When all personality disorders were considered simultaneously, paranoid and passive aggressive criteria were significant predictors of aggressive behaviour.

Moeller et al., (1998) compared the effect of alcohol on aggressive responding between subjects with antisocial personality disorder (APSD) and subjects without ASPD. The result showed a significant difference in the effect of alcohol on aggressive responding. Subjects with APSD had a greater increase in aggressive responding after alcohol compared with non APSD subjects.
Decreased serum cholesterol has been associated with impulsive aggressive behaviours (New et al., 1999). Results suggest that there is a relationship between borderline personality disorder and low serum cholesterol.

3.4.1 GENDER AND AGGRESSION

Although some studies show that young girls are more likely than boys to use relational as well as indirect aggression (Bjorkavist, 1994; Crick, 1996; Crick & Grotpeter, 1995), others report no gender differences in relational or social aggression (Galen & Underwood, 1997; Prinstein et al., 2001), and some studies show that males are more relationally aggressive than females (Loudin et al., 2003; Tomada & Schneider, 1997). But it is important that more subtle forms of aggression can be just as hurtful to their victims as physical aggression (Underwood et al., 2001).

Males score significantly higher than females on both self-report reactive and proactive aggression (Baker et al., 2008). Heritable influences were found for both forms of aggression across informants, but boys self-report revealed genetic influences on proactive (50%) and reactive (38%) aggression. Shared and non-shared environmental influences almost entirely accounted for girls' self-report reactive and proactive aggression.

3.4.2 AGGRESSION AND DELINQUENCY

Childhood aggression is frequently associated with a host of negative outcomes such as learning problems, peer rejection, subsequent psychopathology, juvenile delinquency and criminality (Kupersmidt et al., 1990; Loeber, 1990; Stattin & Magnusson, 1989). In addition, early aggression tends to be fairly stable. Aggression that begins early in childhood is the single best predictor of later criminal behaviour (Loeber, 1990; Patterson et al., 1992).
Longitudinal investigations have demonstrated that aggression is one of the best known predictors of future social, psychological, behavioural and academic problems including peer rejection, delinquency, risky sexual behaviour, poor school achievement and peer victimization (Coie & Dodge, 1998).

Recent research provides evidence that relational aggression may play a detrimental role in children development. Similar to physically aggressive children, relationally aggressive children are at risk for serious adjustment difficulties. Relational aggression has been shown to be associated with significantly high levels of concurrent peer rejection, internalizing difficulties and externalizing problems (Crick, 1997; Grottpeter & Crick, 1996; Prinstein et al, 2001; Underwood et al., 2001).

In one of the studies the authors attempted to identify and assess groups of relationally aggressive, physically aggressive, relationally plus physically aggressive and non-aggressive children during their 3rd grade year in elementary school and then reassessing them a year later. Two aspects of social-psychological adjustment, aggressive behaviour & delinquency, were assessed during both assessment periods including internalizing difficulties. It was revealed that the strongest predictor of future social-psychological adjustment problems was the combination of relational and physical aggression. Relational aggression also contributed unique information, relative to physical aggression in the prediction of future maladjustment (Crick et al., 2006).

Vitaro et al., (1998) tested whether proactive and reactive aggressions were differently predictive of later externalizing problems such as delinquency and DSM related disruptive behaviours. A community sample of 742 low SES boys (aged 14-16 years) participated in the study. Results show that proactive but not reactive
aggressions were differently predictive of later externalizing problems such as
delinquency and DSM related disruptive behaviors. It is concluded that reactive and
proactive aggression are two distinct types of aggressive behaviors with different
predictive abilities.

In a cross sectional household sample of 9 through 17 years old youths from 4
U S communities, youths with earlier ages of onset of conduct problems engaged in
more conduct problems than youths with later ages of onset. Specifically, youths with
earlier ages of onset were more likely to engage in several types of physical
aggression, frequent lying, theft and vandalism. These results support the hypothesis
that key aspects of the heterogeneity of conduct problems among youths are related to
the age of onset of conduct problems (Lahey et al., 1999)

Among 11 through 18 years old boys who had engaged in any delinquent
behaviour, Tolan (1987) found that the half of the sample with younger ages of onset
(<12 years) reported higher levels of almost all types of delinquent behaviours during
adolescence than the half of the sample with later ages of onset. Tolan and Thomas
(1995) also in another study found youths who reported first engaging in delinquent
act before age 12 were more likely to engage in serious offenses and to continue to
engage in delinquent behaviour during the 3 years following the onset of delinquent
behaviours

Research on adult forensic samples suggests that antisocial individuals who
show psychopathic traits are more aggressive than other antisocial individuals,
exhibiting a higher rate of aggression both inside and outside of forensic institutions
and outside of forensic institutions and showing aggression that result in more severe
harm to their victims (Hart & Hare, 1997). Further antisocial individuals high on
psychopathic traits show more premeditated and instrumental violent acts, whereas antisocial individuals who are low on psychopath tend to show violence that is limited to situations involving high emotional arousal (Cornell et al., 1996).

The presence of callous-unemotional (CU) traits may designate a particularly severe and aggressive pattern of conduct problems (Christian et al., 1997; Lynum, 1997) and it may enhance the prediction of later delinquency (Brandt et al., 1997; Forth et al., 1990; Toupin et al., 1995).

Several studies have documented the presence of CU traits predicting subsequent delinquency, aggression, number of violent offenses, and a shorter length of time to violent re-offending in antisocial youths (Brandt et al., 1997; Forth et al., 1990; Toupin et al., 1995). There is also evidence to suggest that children with conduct problems who are aggressive also tend to form a severe and chronic subgroup of antisocial youth (Frick & Ellis, 1999).

Pope and Bierman (1999) examined the relative roles of aggressive and other dysregulated behaviours in the prediction of adolescent peer problems and antisocial behaviour. The social adjustment of 145 boys studied first in grades 3-6 was assessed again 4 years later in grades 7-10. Aggression and withdrawal showed stability and were linked to peer difficulties in elementary school and in adolescence, but these behaviours indicated significant risk for adolescent rejection, victimization and antisocial activity primarily when accompanied by irritable inattentive behaviours.

Two developmental pathways of delinquent behaviour were proposed by Hinshaw et al., (1993); Loeber, (1988) and Moffitt, (1993). According to these developmental models, youths who engage in the most frequent, aggressive, and persistent delinquent behaviour begin doing so during childhood. In contrast, youths
who do not engage in delinquent behaviour until adolescence are less likely to be aggressive, engage in less delinquent behaviour, and tend to desist prior to adulthood.

Delinquent behaviour arises through the imitation of some of the non-aggressive antisocial behaviours of youths with childhood onsets. They do so during adolescence because it is a period of heightened peer influence and conflict regarding privileges (Moffitt, 1993).

Sukhodolsky and Ruchkin (2004) examined the association of anger experience and two types of normative beliefs with physical aggression and non-aggressive antisocial behaviour in 361 juvenile offenders and 206 high school students in Russia. All participates were male and ranged in age from 14 to 18 years. Higher frequency of aggressive acts was significantly associated with higher levels of anger and stronger beliefs that physical aggression is an appropriate course of action in conflicts. Juvenile offenders reported higher levels of anger experience and higher frequency of aggression and antisocial behaviour compared to high school students.

Childhood exposure to violence against females and male-modeled anti-social behaviour were examined as risk factors for sexual aggression and non-sexual aggression and delinquency, in a sample of 182 adolescent male sex offenders. Both risk factors produced direct and indirect effects on non-sexual aggression and delinquency (Hunter et al., 2004).

Hamalainen and Pulkkinen (1995) showed that a group of convicted men had been more aggressive and lower in prosocial behaviour than those not arrested. Juvenile delinquents (1st conviction at age 15-16 years) had been more aggressive than adolescent delinquents (1st conviction at age 17-20 years). Among those, recidivists were more aggressive and lower in prosocial behaviour, criminal women
were lower in prosocial behaviour and higher in bullying type of aggression than non-criminal women.

The study conducted by Booth and Zhang (1996) assessed the prevalence of severe aggressive behaviour and conduct disorder in 219 runaway and homeless adolescents and examined relationships between aggression, conduct disorder, other problem behaviours and background characteristics. Conduct disorders were present in 55% and severe aggression in 62% of the subjects. Subjects from a home where drug abuse was present were more likely to have a history of severe aggression. Severe aggression was associated with other problem behaviours including arrests and convictions.

Pulkkinen (1996) examined the relationship between proactive and reactive aggression and anti and prosocial behaviour with 321 subjects. Subjects were divided into three groups as reactively aggressive (REA), proactively aggressive (PROA), and non-aggressive. The groups were compared at ages 8, 14 and 27 years for emotional and behavioural regulation. The REA subjects were characterized by higher self-control, at each age and better adult adjustment than the PROA subjects. The PROA boys were prone to externalizing problems and criminality in adulthood, while PROA girls were prone to internalizing problems and neuroticism in adulthood. Both exhibited conduct problems in adolescence.

Aggressive behaviour in childhood is a stable behavioural trait that persists to a considerable degree into adulthood. Verhulst and van der Ende (1995) investigated the developmental course of problem behaviours across 2 to 8 years time intervals in Dutch children and reported high stability of aggressive behaviour. Higher level of involvement in meaningful activities would be associated with lower self-reported
delinquency and aggression (Tashman et al., 1998). Studies have found locus of control to be related to increased hostility, delinquency and self-concept problems (Burns, 1979; Downs & Rose, 1991; Hammond & Romney, 1996).

Deficits in social competency have been shown to be associated with an increased risk of interpersonal aggression in juveniles (Lochman & Dodge, 1994; Loeber et al., 1998). Adult sex offenders have been found to have deficits in social competency relative to normal controls, with child molesters showing even more pronounced deficits than rapists (Marshal et al., 1995).

Similarly, exposure of youths to male modeled antisocial behaviour and intra-sexual violence is thought to increase the risk of violent and delinquent behaviour (Fitz Patrick, 1997; Gorman-Smith & Tolan, 1998; Williams et al., 1998). Exposure to socially deviant peers, even in treatment environments, has been shown to produce lasting detrimental effects on young males including long term increases in aggressive and antisocial behaviour (Dishion et al., 1999).

3.4.3 EMOTION AND AGGRESSION

Over the past few decades, social-cognitive research and theory have identified both maladaptive patterns of social information-processing and emotion regulation that are associated with aggressive behaviour (Crick & Dodge, 1994; Dodge & Somberg, 1987). However, aggressive behaviour takes various forms, which are likely to involve different social-cognitive and affective correlates.

Behavioural, emotional, and cognitive impulsivity often are implicated in the emergence and maintenance of aggressive responding in childhood (Derryberry & Rothbart, 1997).
Children in the childhood-onset group seem to be characterized by poor emotional and behavioural regulation as compared to adolescence-onset group (Frick, 1998; Moffitt, 1993). However, the transactional developmental processes leading to this poor emotional and behavioural regulation may be different for subgroups of children within the childhood-onset subgroup. A marker for these different patterns of emotional dysregulation may be the presence or absence of callous and unemotional (CU) traits. CU traits refer to a specific affective (absence of guilt, constricted display of emotion) and interpersonal (failure to show empathy, use of others for one's own gain) style that is characteristic of a subgroup of children with severe conduct problems (Christian et al., 1997; Frick et al., 2000). Children with conduct problems who also show CU traits are less sensitive to cues of punishment (Fisher & Blair, 1998), and less reactive to threatening and emotionally distressing stimuli (Blair, 1999; Frick et al., 2003).

Children and adolescents who believe aggression is more acceptable are the ones who are more likely to act aggressively (Huesmann & Guerra, 1997). Reactive aggression is uniquely associated with poorly regulated emotion and anger to perceived provocation, whereas proactive aggression is uniquely associated with callous-unemotional (CU) traits and biased outcome expectations for aggression account. While overt aggression appears to largely account for these associations, relational aggression showed strong and unique associations with CU traits. This finding is also consistent with past research documenting the importance of CU traits for understanding serious delinquent and/or aggressive behaviour.

The link between relational aggression and CU traits is especially important due to the finding that the presence of CU traits seems to designate a distinct developmental pathway to serious conduct problems that is associated with a
temperamental style characterized by reduced emotional reactivity to the distress of others (Frick, 2006; Frick & Morris, 2004).

A related issue to consider when interpreting the divergent emotional/cognitive correlates found that there may be some asymmetry in the high degree of association between the two types of aggression. Specifically, past research suggests that a significant number of children exhibit only reactive forms of aggression, whereas most children who exhibit high levels of proactive aggression also show high rates of reactive aggression (Brown et al., 1996; Dodge & Coie, 1987; Frick et al., 2003; Pitts, 1997).

Further, research suggests that children who use both reactive and proactive forms of aggression, rather than showing characteristics associated with both, seem to show cognitive and emotional characteristics associated with proactive aggression (Hubbard et al., 2002; Pardini et al, 2003; Pitts, 1997).

Children with CU traits and conduct problems are also at risk for showing higher levels of aggression, especially proactive aggression, and self reported delinquency (Frick et al., 2003). This was tested on 98 self-reported delinquent children.

3.4.4 COGNITIVE APPRAISAL, INFORMATION PROCESSING AND AGGRESSION.

The social information-processing model of aggression (Dodge, 1980; Crick & Dodge, 1994) suggests that aggressive behaviour is mediated by a sequence of information processing steps and associated with underlying social-cognitive schemata. Information processing steps include encoding and appraisal of cues and which are followed by enactment of responses. Extensive research suggests that distortions or deficiencies in social information processing are related to aggressive
behaviour in children and adolescents (Dodge et al., 1997; Lochman & Dodge, 1994). Cognitive schemata such as normative beliefs, outcome expectations, and perceived competencies have also been implicated in aggressive and antisocial behaviour (Farrington, 1995; Huesmann, 1998; Lochman et al., 1991).

Normative beliefs are defined as cognitive representations of what one should or should not do (Huesmann et al., 1992). Slaby and Guerra (1988) reported that incarcerated violent adolescents have higher levels of beliefs legitimizing aggression that either aggressive or non aggressive school student. In contrast, Liau et al., (1998) reported that delinquent children are only different from their non delinquent peers in their beliefs about overt aggression, but not covert aggression.

Reactive aggression is found to be associated with faulty encoding and interpretation of social cues, whereas proactive aggression is associated with the response decision information-processing steps (Crick & Dodge, 1996; Schippell et al., 2003; Smithmyer et al., 2000).

Studies suggested that anger mediates the effects of cognitive appraisals (Graham et al., 1992), and normative beliefs (Bandura et al., 2001) on generalized aggression. Similar to other emotions, experiences of anger vary across individuals with respect to frequency, intensity and duration. Co-relational studies have demonstrated small to moderate size associations between self-reported anger experience and aggression in delinquent youths (Cornell et al., 1999; Granic & Butler, 1998), and between anger and externalizing problems in school children (Zeman et al., 2002).
3.4.5 FAMILY INFLUENCE AND AGGRESSION

Youth exposure to domestic violence has been linked to an array of mental health and behavioural problems in adolescents’ behaviour, anxiety and depression, and sexual aggression (Blumenthal et al., 1998; Fantuzzo & Mohr, 1999; Flannery et al., 1998; McGruder-Johnson et al., 2000). Symptom severity appears to be associated with both the extent of exposure and moderating influences, such as parental support (Grych et al., 2000).

Scerbo and Kilko (1995) tested the prediction that the interaction of physical abuse and internalizing problems will heighten levels of aggressive behaviour in disruptive children. Results lend some support to a transactional model of the development of aggression, suggesting that problems arise out of interactions between child factors (such as internalizing problems) and adverse family experiences (such as physical abuse).

Muller and Diamond (1999) explored in their study of family relationships that physical abuse from fathers and from mothers emerged as significant and additive predictors of aggressive behaviour among boys as well as girls. The results point to the important role fathers appear to play in the adaptive and maladaptive functioning of their children.

Observing parental aggression and receiving aggression from parents is related to aggression (Chermack & Walton, 1999). Parenting, long has been implicated in the development of child physical and/or overt aggression. According to social learning theory, children who are aggressive are socialized by their parents to behave in such a manner (Patterson, 1982). Psychological control is one aspect of parenting that may be salient to adolescent social aggression.
Hart et al., (1998) examined the role of maternal and maternal rated psychological control in the overt and relational aggression of Russian pre-school children. Although maternal psychological control is correlated with child overt aggression, neither maternal nor paternal psychological control is correlated with relational aggression.

The study conducted by Loukas et al., (2005) examined that social evaluative anxiety is uniquely positively associated with boys' and girls' social aggression and negatively associated with boys' overt aggression. Maternal psychological control is positively associated with overt aggression for all boys, but with social aggression only for Latino boys. Although maternal psychological control also is associated with girls' use of overt aggression, this effect was stronger among older than among younger females.

Sibling influence on the learning and enactment of aggressive behaviour has been consistently demonstrated in studies of sibling relationships. Available evidence suggests that, compared with non-aggressive children's sibling interactions, the sibling interactions of aggressive children are marked by more frequent, intense, and prolonged aggressive behaviours. The results found by the study conducted by Aguilar et al., (2001) showed that aggressive children's sibling relationships are marked by higher levels of observed conflict and lower levels of self-reported positive features of sibling relationships.

Observational studies of dyadic sibling interactions have shown that physically aggressive behaviours of one sibling are highly correlated with the expression of physical aggression by the other sibling (Beardsall, 1986; Brody, Stoneman & Burke, 1987; Dunn & Munn, 1985). The sibling interactions of
aggressive children are marked by more frequent and intense aggressive behaviours (Patterson, 1986). He has suggested that sibling relationships provide a type of ‘training ground’ for the learning of aggressive behaviours.

Herrenkohl and Russo (2001) notes that childhood aggression is significant for children, their families and the society, because aggressive children often become violent adolescents. The result suggests a difference in the developmental stage at which different features of harsh child rearing exert their influence.

3.4.6 ETHNICITY/CULTURE AND AGGRESSION

There is also role of ethnicity in the relationship between psychological control and aggression since cultural values or beliefs may moderate parenting effects on child behaviours (McLoyd et al., 2000). In addition to parenting, social evaluative anxiety, a component of social anxiety, is characterized by elevated levels of fear of negative evaluation (Kashdan & Herbert, 2001), also may contribute to the use of social and overt aggression. Elevated levels of social evaluative anxiety have been shown to inhibit the development of positive interpersonal relationships (La Greca, 2001; La Greca & Lopez, 1998), and to be linked to increased negative affect and negative self-esteem (Inderbitzen-Nolan & Walters, 2000). An association between extreme levels of social evaluative anxiety and conduct disorder also has been observed (Davidson et al., 1993).

Mc Laughlin et al., (2007) examined the prevalence of internalizing and externalizing symptoms and disorders in a large sample of 6th, 7th and 8th graders in which the three major racial/ethnic groups in the US (White, Black and Hispanic) were well represented. Hispanic females reported experiencing higher of relational aggression than other groups. Black males reported the highest levels of overtly
aggressive behaviour and Hispanic females also exhibited higher levels of co-morbidity than other racial/ethnic groups.

The typical pattern of findings among studies comparing Black and White adolescents on overt or physical aggression is that Black adolescents have higher levels of aggression (Buka et al., 2001; Fabrega et al., 1993; Laird et al., 2005).

3.4.7 SELF-ESTEEM, AGGRESSION AND DELINQUENCY:

It has been suggested that a positive sense of self and a belief that others are supportive play a protective role against risk factors for subsequent aggression (Rutter, 1990). Recently, a growing body of research has begun to demonstrate that many aggressive children have inaccurately high appraisals of self-competence. Studies have shown that rejected aggressive children over-estimate their own competence and rate themselves very highly on measures of social competence (Patterson et al., 1990).

Gresham et al., (1998) found that internalizing plus externalizing problems showed average levels of academic self-concept and did not differ from controls on measures of social self-concept and academic self-concept and general self-esteem. These findings supported to establish link between aggressive behaviour and egotism.

An interdisciplinary review of evidence about aggression, crime and violence contradicted the view that low self-esteem is an important cause. Instead, violence appears to be most commonly a result of threatened egotism that is, highly favourable views of self that are disputed by some person or circumstance. Inflated, unstable or tentative beliefs in the self’s superiority may be most prone to encountering threats and hence to causing violence. The mediating process may involve directing anger outward as a way of avoiding a downward revision of self-concept (Baumeister et al., 1996)
Most aggressive children appear to have self-systems that are more polarized and rigid (either globally positive or negative), when compared to non-aggressive children. Those who overestimate their level of competence and the actual quality of their relationships with significant others appear to be a greater risk for increased behaviour problems than those aggressive children who were accurately perceive their competence deficits and relationship difficulties (Edens, 1999). Unlike their North American counterparts aggressive children often develop biased self-perceptions (Asher et al., 1990; Boivin et al., 1995), aggressive children typically perceive themselves outcomes associated with negatively (Chen et al., 1995).

Papps and O'Carroll (1999) examined the level of self-esteem and narcissism as personality variables involved in the disposition to experience and express anger. It was reasoned that individuals with both high self-esteem and narcissism would report especially high tendencies to experience and express anger and aggression and that those with high self-esteem and low narcissism would report the lowest. Results indicate that groups defined by their extreme scores on self-esteem and narcissism scales produced levels of aggression and anger expression in the predicted direction.

Raskin, Novacek and Hogan (1991) found positive inter-correlations among narcissism, dominance and hostility, suggesting that disproportionately favorable views of the self are associated with aggression. Bushman and Baumeister (1998) found in an undergraduate sample that high levels of aggression are associated with narcissism combined with an ego thereat. Taken together, there is strong support within the literature that aggressive individuals have a tendency to possess narcissistic or unrealistically positive self views.

Hughes, Cavell, and Grossman (1997) reported that compared to non-aggressive children, aggressive children over estimated and exaggerated their levels
of competence. Unrealistic and inflated self-perceptions increase the risk status for aggressive behaviour. Owens (1994) also added that multiple samples and methods here confirmed the conclusion that boys (bullies) "do not suffer from poor self-esteem". Unrealistically high or inflated self-concept found among aggressive - rejected children (Boivin & Bogin, 1989; Parkhurst & Asher, 1992).

However, the issue that remains currently unresolved is the self-esteem of the aggressive child or the juvenile delinquent. There is a complex relationship between self-esteem and aggressive-delinquent behaviour. Some researchers have found aggressive children and juvenile delinquents to have lower self-esteem (Cole, Chan, Litton, 1989; McCarthy & Hoge, 1984, Mc Kinney et al., 1978).

Other researchers have distinguished narcissism from high self-esteem by suggesting that high self-esteem is a self-evaluative construct and is manifested by a person simply thinking well of himself or herself (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). Narcissism, on the other hand, appears to be a motivational construct in addition to an evaluative construct that is manifested as a desire to think well of oneself as well as to have others show the same high regard for one's self worth (Barry et al., 2003; Bushman & Baumeister, 1998; Raskin et al., 1991).

Narcissism and self-esteem interacted to predict teacher-reported aggression and self-reported internalizing symptoms (Washburn et al., 2004). Having high self-esteem is defined simply as having a favourable view of oneself that is grounded in objective reality and it constitutes an accurate appreciation of one's good traits. Narcissism reflects a highly dubious sense of personal superiority that is inflated beyond what can be substantiated by objective reality.

Ang and Yusof (2005) compared aggressive and non-aggressive students on narcissism and self-esteem scores. They observed that aggressive students scored
significantly higher on narcissism compared to non-aggressive students. Also, as expected, aggressive and non-aggressive students are significantly similar with respect to self-esteem scores.

Morf and Rhodewalt's (2001) self-regulatory model of narcissism states that people with narcissism are constantly concerned and motivated to maintain their inflated self-esteem through a variety of intrapersonal and interpersonal mechanisms. When faced with an ego threat, an individual with narcissism may use aggression as a mechanism to re-establish their self-esteem (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998).

Few studies have examined narcissistic traits in adolescents. Research examining self-esteem and externalizing symptoms suggests children and adolescents who overestimate their self-perception and competencies are more likely to be aggressive (Boivin et al., 1989; David & Kistner, 2000; Hymel et al., 1990; Patterson et al., 1990).

3.4.8 PEER INFLUENCE ON AGGRESSION AND DELINQUENCY

A persistent finding in the peer contagion literature is that grouping aggressive and delinquent children together is associated with an increase in problem behaviours. Exposure to aggressive and delinquent peers is often associated with the generalization of aggressive and delinquent behaviour to other settings. Kellam et al., (1998) found that the exposure of initially aggressive children to aggressive peers in first grade classrooms is associated with increased aggressive behaviour in middle school.

The most common explanation for these findings is that aggressive and delinquent children form peer groups in which they positively reinforce each others' problem behaviours; this positive reinforcement, in turn, leads to generalization of the
problem behaviours outside of the settings (Reid, Patterson & Snyder, 2002). Such 
reinforcement is well documented in studies of the negative verbal and delinquent 
behaviours of adolescents (Dishion et al., 2001; Reid, Patterson & Snyder, 2002).

Miller-Johnson et al., (1999) examined the influence of peer rejection and 
aggression in 3rd grade on the severity and type of delinquency in 6th, 8th and 10th 
grades. Results revealed that for boys, the combination of peer rejection and 
aggression indicated serious delinquency, whereas for girls only aggression led to 
serious delinquency.