CHAPTER II

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
It has been stated in one of the views that the criminals have physical or mental traits that make them different from normals. Since the 19th century, criminologists have suggested that biological and psychological traits may influence delinquent behaviour. They believed that some personal trait must separate the deviant members of society from the non-deviant. These personal differences explain why, when faced with the same life situations, one person commits crime, whereas another obeys the law. All people may be aware of and even fear the sanctioning power of the law, but some are unable to control their urges and passions. This view of delinquent causation is the main focus of the present research.

Traits are related to psychological functioning and biological make up. In the present research an attempt is made to study psychological make up in terms of personality traits of juvenile delinquents in comparison with the normal school children.

In general, psychological and psychiatric theories include the personality of the offender within their explanations of criminal behaviour. They argue that criminal behaviour originates primarily in the personalities of offenders rather than in their biology or in situation.

"Personality can be defined as the reasonably stable patterns of behaviour, including thoughts and emotions that distinguish one person from another" (Michel, 1986).

One’s personality reflects a characteristic way of adapting to life’s demands and problems. Glueck and Glueck (1950) have identified a number of personality traits that they believe characterize delinquent youths like - extraversion, narcissism, hostility, destructiveness, assertiveness etc. Several other research efforts have
attempted to identify criminal personality traits such as introversion/extraversion, stability/instability (Eysenck, 1977). Yet in case of many of the personality traits the findings are inconclusive or controversial. Hence, the main objective of present research is to draw the personality profile, of the juvenile delinquents in comparison with normal children, on their personality traits: self-concept, emotional competence, frustration and aggression.

2.1.1 JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

‘Delinquency’ is a legal term referring to a juvenile (usually under 18 years of age) who is brought to the attention of the justice system by virtue of committing a criminal act or displaying a variety of other behaviours not specified under criminal law (Ex:- truancy, curfew violations). Within the framework of DSM-III, delinquency represents a subset of the broader spectrum of behavioural problems classified as conduct disorders (American Psychiatric Association, 1980). Herbert (1978) has noted that the concept of conduct disorder generally refers to three major problem areas: aggression, serious antisocial behaviour and over activity. Here, one might note the similarity between conduct disorder and the category of externalizing disorders (Achenbach, 1980).

Delinquency can be defined either in legalistic or in a behavioral terms. A child can be adjudicated delinquent if he violates a criminal statute by committing an act which would have been defined as a crime if it was committed by an adult. But a child can be also adjudicated delinquent for committing acts for which adults would not be legally accountable. To a layman, delinquency consists of legal transgressions.

Thus juvenile delinquency is partly social and partly legal concept. “Juvenile delinquency may be defined as a social offense committed a number of times by a
person below the age of 18 years, who, if he had been an adult, would have been considered guilty of a crime and punished for it". This is the legal concept.

From the psychiatric or mental hygiene point of view "delinquency is a manifestation of an emotionally maladjusted individual". In other words it is symptomatic of emotional difficulties expressing themselves in his social behaviour.

It is not, however, stop here since it is also intimately linked to the functions of the juvenile court whose purpose is to take the child offender out of the criminal courts and protect him from the impact of the ordinary criminal processes. In the result, juvenile delinquency has come to mean not merely juvenile and adolescent transgression of law, but also other acts and conditions which create a tendency to criminality. These include vagrancy, destitution, truancy, begging, smoking in public places, recalcitrant behaviour, disobedience of parents, association with undesirable persons and living in immoral and unhygienic surroundings etc. But it has to be recognized that not all are products of the child's errant nature.

According to Coleman (1971) "delinquency refers to behaviour of youths under 18 years of age which is not acceptable to society and if generally regarded as calling for some kind of admonishment, punishment or corrective actions". Thus it is a socially undesirable activity or behaviour, as cheating, use of illegal drugs, stealing, gambling, rape, looting, dacoit etc., committed by children or adolescents below 18 years age which actually requires some kind of punishment or corrective measures.

"Delinquency", as observed by Chandra (1967), "may be defined as that branch of social sciences which studies the antisocial behaviour of children".

Sociologically, juvenile delinquency is that type of behaviour pattern of children which is injurious to society and therefore prohibited. Delinquency is such a type of abnormality in which behaviour pattern deviates from the normal.
Although the term juvenile delinquency may be confined to problems of serious misbehaviour, in many countries children having problems of misconduct, truancy, vagrancy, destitution etc are dealt by the state. Youths who are involved in ‘status offenses’ such as truancy, vagrancy, immorality and ungovernability also fall within the definition of juvenile delinquency. According to Reckless et al., (1956), the term ‘juvenile delinquency’ applies to the “violation of criminal code and pursuit of certain patterns of behaviour disapproved of for children and young adolescents”. Thus, both age and behavioral infractions prohibited in the statutes are important in the concept of juvenile delinquency.

The difference between a delinquent child and an adult criminal is important from the case-work approach. The difference between the two is made by the conduct involved, the methods employed by the court, the philosophy and methods applied in treatment, and the individuals’ status, reputation and civil rights in the community after adjudication.

The terms used in dealing with juveniles are used with some difference in comparison with the terms used in reference to other offenders. Thus a juvenile is not ‘arrested’ but ‘taken into custody’, he is not ‘sentenced’ but ‘committed’ and his record is supposed to be the part of ‘civilian files’ not of ‘criminal files’. It is otherwise that the public may view the juveniles in the same way as other criminals. It all aims to have a healing effect on the sentiments of juveniles so that he may be reformed as much as possible and his tender faculties of mind may get proper guidance.
2.1.2 THE CLASSIFICATION OF DELINQUENCY

1) Socialized-sub cultural Delinquents

Delinquents who score high on this dimension are defined by such traits as having strong allegiance to selected peers, being accepted by delinquent subgroup, having bad companions, staying out late at night and having low ratings on shyness and seclusiveness.

2) Unsocialized-psychopathic Delinquents

They are described as solitary rather than group-oriented delinquents who rated high on such traits as inability to profit from praise or punishment, defiance of authority, quarrelsomeness, irritability, verbal aggression, impudence and assaultiveness.

3) Disturbed-neurotic Delinquents

These are described as unhappy, shy, timid and withdrawn, and prone to anxiety, worry and guilt over their behaviour. Quay (1972) has further described this subtype as less aggressive, more amenable to change, and less likely to repeat delinquent behaviour than the first two subtypes.

4) Inadequate-immature Delinquents

The final group of delinquents was described as not usually accepted by delinquent peers, passive and preoccupied, picked on by others, and easily frustrated. Quay (1979) has further characterized these youngsters as being relatively inadequate in their functioning and often unable to cope with environmental demands because of a poorly developed behavioural repertoire.

These four dimensions of delinquents have been replicated in a number of studies of delinquent behaviour.
2.1.3 THE JUVENILE JUSTICE SYSTEM IN INDIA

The most significant period in the history of India's justice system started with the passage of 'The Madras Children Act, 1920', modeled after the 'English Children Act, 1908'. The act included an age limit for children of certain ages, and provisions to place them in certified schools or remand homes, depending upon their ages and offenses.

On the legislative front, the Government of India, followed the recommendations set forth by the 'Beijing Rules, 1985' for a uniform juvenile justice law. More notably, as Kethineni (2006) puts Sheela Barse a crusading journalist filed public interest litigation for the release of juveniles illegally detained in the jails by challenging the conditions of their detention. Her efforts resulted in not only the removal of all children from jails, but also other developments in the field. One such development was the passage of the 'Juvenile Justice Act (JJA)', which replaced the patch work of prior juvenile legislation throughout India. The act provided for uniform definitions and judicial procedures for delinquent and neglected children. In addition, the act created separate institutions for the treatment and rehabilitation of those juveniles. In reality, however, there was a wide disparity between what as intended and what was allowed to remain in place. For example, many states failed to set up any infrastructure of juvenile welfare boards, juvenile homes, special homes etc. Thus several national meetings held from 1999 to 2000 to address these concerns resulted in the enactment of the 'Juvenile Justice (Care & Protection) Act, 2000'.

Major changes were implemented from provisions of 'Juvenile Justice Act, 1986', to the 'Juvenile Justice (Care & Protection) Act 2000'. The purpose of the 'Juvenile Justice Act, 1986' is multifaceted and includes: care, protection, treatment,
development and rehabilitation of neglected or delinquent children, as well as adjudication of delinquent children. Girls under age 18 and boys under age 16 came under the purview of the JJA. While juvenile courts were in charge of delinquent cases, it was primarily juvenile welfare boards that dealt with neglected children. The JJA also provided three sets of homes: observation homes to house those awaiting proceedings; juvenile homes to house neglected children; and special homes for delinquent children.

Whereas the ‘Juvenile Justice (Care & Protection) Act 2000’ eliminated the gender disparity and included juveniles below 18 years under its purview, thereby giving equal priority to both genders.

2.1.4 THE JUVENILE JUSTICE (CARE AND PROTECTION OF CHILDREN) ACT, 2000

It is “an act to consolidate and amend the law relating to juveniles in conflict with law and children in need of care and protection, by providing for proper care, protection and treatment by catering to their development needs, and by adopting a child-friendly approach in the adjudication and disposition of matters in the best interest of children and for their ultimate rehabilitation through various institutions established under this enactment”.

This extends to the whole India except the state of Jammu and Kashmir. It shall come into force on such date as the Central Government may, by notification in the Official Gazette, appoint.
2.1.5 DEFINITIONS

In this Act, unless the context otherwise requires-

1. ‘Advisory board’ means a central or a state advisory board or a district and city level advisory board.

2. ‘Board’ means a Juvenile Justice Board. The state government, by notification in the official gazette, constitutes for a district or a group of districts specified in the notification, one of more Juvenile Justice Boards for exercising the power and discharging the duties conferred or imposed on such boards in relation to juveniles in conflict with law under this act. A board shall consist of a Metropolitan Magistrate or a Juvenile Magistrate of the first class, as the case may be, and two social workers of whom at least one shall be a woman, forming a bench and every such bench shall have the powers conferred by the code of criminal procedure 1973.

3. ‘Juvenile’ or ‘child’ means a person, who has not completed eighteenth year of age.

4. ‘Juvenile in conflict with law’ means a juvenile or child, who is alleged to have committed an offense.

5. ‘Offense’ means an offense punishable under any law for the time being in force.

6. ‘Observation home’ means a home established by a state government or by a voluntary organization and certified by that state government as an observation home for the juvenile in conflict with law.
Every juvenile who is not placed under the charge of parent or guardian and is sent to an observation home shall be initially kept in a reception unit of the observation home for preliminary inquiries, care and classification for juveniles according to his age group, such as seven to twelve years, twelve to sixteen years and sixteen to eighteen years, giving due considerations to physical and mental status and degree of the offense committed, for further induction into observation home.

Any state government may establish and maintain either by itself or under an agreement with voluntary organizations, observation homes in every district or a group of districts, as may be required for the temporary reception of any juvenile in conflict with law during the pendency of any inquiry regarding them under this Act. The State Government may, by rules made under this Act, provide for the management of observation homes, including the standards and various types of services to be provided by them for rehabilitation and social integration of a juvenile, and the circumstances under which, and the manner in which the certification of an observation home may be granted or withdrawn.

2.1.6 JUVENILE ACTIVITIES

The following types of activities may be considered as delinquent behaviour: "lying, stealing, burglary, begging, swindling, forging, gambling, truancy from home and school, cruelty to animals and smaller children, destructiveness, malicious or mischievous damage to property, incorrigibility, sexual offenses, and attempt to commit suicide or murder".

2.1.7 APPREHENSION OF JUVENILE IN CONFLICT WITH LAW

As soon as a juvenile in conflict with law is apprehended by police, he shall be placed under the charge of the special juvenile police unit or the designated police officer
who shall immediately report the matter to a member of the board. The State Government may make rule consistent with this Act to provide for persons through whom any juvenile in conflict with law may be produced before the Board. To provide the manner in which such juvenile may be sent to an observation home.

2.1.8 BAIL OF JUVENILE DELINQUENTS

When a juvenile is arrested or brought before a Board, such person shall be released on bail with or without surety but he shall not be so released if there appear reasonable grounds for believing that the release is likely to bring him into association with any known criminal or expose him to moral, physical or psychological danger or that his release would defeat the ends of justice.

2.1.9 ORDER THAT MAY BE PASSED AGAINST JUVENILE

Where a Board is satisfied on inquiry that a juvenile has committed an offense, and then it thinks so fit-

1. Allow the juvenile to go home after advice or admonition following appropriate inquiry against and counseling to the parent or the guardian and the juvenile.

2. Direct the juvenile to participate in group counseling and similar activities.

3. Direct the juvenile to be released on probation of good conduct and placed under the care of any parent, guardian or other fit person executing a bond, with or without surety, for the good behaviour and well being of the juvenile for any period not exceeding 3 years.

4. Direct the juvenile to be released on probation of good conduct and placed under the care of any fit institution for good behaviour and wellbeing of the juvenile for any period not exceeding 3 years.
2.1.10 ORDER THAT MAY NOT BE PASSED AGAINST JUVENILE

Not withstanding anything to the contrary contained in any other law for the time being in force, no juvenile in conflict with law shall be sentenced to death or life imprisonment or committed to prison in default of payment of fine or in default of furnishing security. Provided that where a juvenile who has attained the age of eighteen years has committed an offense and the Board is satisfied that the offense committed is of so serious in nature or that this conduct and behaviour have been such that it would not be in his interest of other juvenile to send him to special home that none of the other measures provided under this Act is suitable or sufficient, the Board may order the juvenile in conflict with law to be kept in such place of safety.

2.2.1 SELF-CONCEPT

The personality pattern is composed of a core or centre of gravity called the 'concept of self', and an integrated system of learned responses called 'traits'. These are interrelated, with the core influencing the traits, which are the individual's characteristics of adjustment to the life situations. To show the interrelationship, the pattern can be compared to a wheel in which the hub represents the traits. Just as the spokes of a wheel are held in position and thus influenced by the hub, so the traits are influenced by the concept of self.

2.2.2 DEFINITIONS

The concept of self is the most important in psychology of personality and in social psychology. The term 'self' has been used in many ways but the two chief meanings are: the 'self' as the subject or agent and the 'self' as the individual who is known to himself.
James (1890) called the core of the personality pattern which provides its unity, the 'self'. Later, Freud (1962) referred to as 'ego'.

Allport (1961) has described the self-concept as "the self is something of which we are immediately aware. We think of it as the warm, central, private region of our life".

Rogers (1951) defined self-concept as "an organized configuration of perceptions of the self which are admissible to awareness. It is composed of such elements as the perceptions of one's characteristics and abilities, the precepts and concepts of the self in relation to others and to the environment, the value quality which is perceived as associated with experiences, objects, goals and ideas which are perceived as having positive or negative balance".

Whereas, Mead (1934) puts- "self is essentially a social structure, and it arises in social experience........ It is impossible to compare of a self arising outside of social experience".

Self-concept may be defined simply as the total collection of attitudes, judgements and values which an individual holds with respect to his behaviour, his ability, his body, his worth as person. In short, how he perceives and evaluates himself.

All self-concepts include physical and psychological self-images. The physical image is related to the child's physical appearance-his attractiveness and his sex appropriateness or inappropriateness. The psychological self-images are based on thoughts, feelings and emotions; they consist of qualities and abilities that affect adjustment to life, qualities such as courage, honesty, independence and self-confidence and aspirations and abilities of various kinds.
The concept of self has 3 major components: the perceptual, the conceptual and the attitudinal.

The perceptual component is similar to physical self-concept that includes the image of one’s appearance, attractiveness and sex appropriateness of the body and the importance of the different parts of the body.

The conceptual component is similar to ‘psychological self-concept’ which relates to the origin of the individual, his/her abilities and disabilities, his/her social adjustment and traits of personality.

The attitudinal component refers to attitudes of a person about his/her present status and future prospects, his/her feelings about his/her beliefs, convictions, values etc. Each behaviour of an individual is significantly influenced by how he sees himself. This helps us to understand the individual’s unique adjustment and his success and failure.

2.2.3 KINDS OF SELF-CONCEPT

James (1890) was the first to suggest that a person has many ‘selves’. The following are the different types of self.

1) The Basic/Real/Actual Self-concept

The basic self-concept corresponds to James concept of the ‘real self’. It is the person’s concept of what he really is. It includes his perception of his appearance, his recognition of his abilities and disabilities and of his role and status in life, and values, beliefs and aspirations. The basic self-concept tends to be realistic. Sometimes these models of the actual self can be very accurate, at other times they may be false.
2) The Transitory Self-concept

It refers to a self-concept which he holds for a time and then relinquishes. Transitory self-concepts may be favourable or unfavourable depending largely on the situation in which the person finds himself momentarily. They are generally influenced by some passive mood or emotional state or by a recent experience.

3) The Social Self-concept

The social self-concept is based on the way the individual believes others perceive him, depending on their speech or actions. It is usually referred to as a ‘mirror image’. If a child is constantly told that he is ‘naughty’, he soon develops a concept of himself as naughty child. People build up different social self-concepts, depending on the kinds of social groups-home, peer or community with which they are most often associated.

4) The Ideal Self-concept

The ideal self-concept is made up of perceptions of what a person aspires to be. It may be realistic in the sense that it is within the reach of the person or may it be so unrealistic that he can never be achieved in real life. The sum total of a person’s view of what he wishes he were or thinks he ought to be, as distinguished from what he is, is generally called the ‘ideal self’.

5) Ought Self

The ought self is simply the self a person believes one ought to become. Whereas the ideal self represents one’s own goals and aspirations, this “ought” self represents the standards of being and behaviour expected by others around us.
6) Feared and Desired Selves

Markus and Nurius (1986) focused another group of possible selves-feared and desired selves. Our desired possible selves are the extreme positive selves we carry around in our minds and hope we will become. The feared possible self is an extreme negative self the individual might envision that includes negative characteristics in the same areas of general, physical and psychological qualities.

When Oyserman and Markus (1990) examined non-delinquents and delinquent youth, the non-delinquent youth residing in a group home had possible selves that included no job, poor housing and cannot pay bill. Moreover, 35 to 40% of the delinquents' feared selves involved criminal behaviour including 'criminal, murderer, and physical abuser of spouse or child'. These possible selves existed within the delinquent group despite quite high reported levels of self-esteem.

2.2.4 SELF-ESTEEM AND SELF-EFFICACY

Self-concept has been described in the literature as self-evaluation, self-esteem, self-awareness, self-efficacy, self-understanding, self-perception, self-worth and self-image. Researches have suggested that lower overall self-concept negatively affects social behaviour.

Self-esteem refers to the overall positive or negative evaluation one makes of oneself. Self-esteem has been positively linked to a wide range of behaviours. Low self-esteem has been identified as risk factor for aggression, delinquency, spousal and child abuse and so forth. People who like and value themselves are said to have high self-esteem, and those who devalue and dislike themselves are said to have low self-esteem (Rosenberg, 1965; Coopersmith, 1975; Wylie, 1974). Low self-esteem may be defined as the shame that comes from appraising ourselves as lacking skills and...
abilities important to valued others. As a result, they feel a persistent sense of hopelessness.

In fact, psychologists have often noted the potential dark side of self-esteem as well as the positive. Some psychologists have even proposed that high self-esteem is related to evil behaviour, because some people with high self-esteem might feel more entitled to exploit others (Baumeister, 1997). Among the findings consistent with such a theory is the repeated finding that juvenile delinquents have self-esteem equal to or higher than college students and others. The exact value of high self-esteem has remained elusive (McCrae & Costa, 1990).

A second dimension of self-evaluation is that of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy refers to one’s self-judged ability to perform a certain task in life. Bandura and others have found that when a person feels able to handle a specific task, he or she is more likely to carry it out well (Bandura, 1977, 1999). The advantage of self-efficacy over the self-esteem is that it is defined more specifically than the more general idea of self-esteem.

2.2.5 SELF-COMPLEXITY

The self-complexity has long been recognized as a multidimensional construct (James, 1892). Self-complexity refers to the degree of differentiation among aspects of the self-concept (Social, cognitive, athletic competence etc., Evans, 1994). High self-complexity is characteristic of the self-concept that consists of a relatively large number of clearly distinct domains. Low self-complexity is characterized by the self-concept that is made up of fewer, less differentiated domains. Hence, the self-concept has been long recognized as a multidimensional construct. Older children are cognitively capable of distinguishing among various aspects of the self, such as
physical self, social self and cognitive self (Evans, 1994; Hauser et al., 1983). The greater complexity allows for the ability to ‘buffer’ negative experiences, as well as to differentiate positive self-concepts from negative ones (Linville, 1987).

Positive self-perception is typically associated with overall adjustment. Previous work has noted that adolescents functioning at higher level of ego development report more positive self-perceptions (Evans et al., 1998; Hauser et al., 1983).

Deficits in self-perception domains were observed for the immature defense group (Evans, 1994). Specifically, the immature defense group reported significantly lower self-perception in scholastic competence, physical appearance, close friendships and global self-worth than the mature defense group. This supports the idea that mature defense styles are associated with overall better mental health and more positive self-conceptions. Moreover, the immature defense group reported more externalizing and internalizing behaviours than the mature group.

It was predicted that the mature group would base their overall feelings of self-worth on a number of self-perception domains because of increase in the hierarchical organization of self-perception that takes place with development (Harter, 1982). Physical appearance was the best predictor of global self-worth. If a person does not see himself or herself as successful in a domain (Ex: - physical appearance) the overall self-worth is affected. One’s sense of global self-worth is determined by successes or failures in areas that are deemed important (James, 1892). Marsh’s (1989) work has noted that considering the importance of ratings of particular domains does not significantly contribute to our understanding of global self-concept.
2.2.6 SYMPTOMS OF SELF-REJECTION

Self-rejection includes chronic attitudes of self-disapproval and self-disparagement, self-distrust, feelings of being unworthy, not being deserving of satisfactions, reward or success. In one of its more cruel forms, self-rejection includes severe guilt, viewing oneself as among the damned. One sign of self-rejection is self-criticism, although self-criticism is not in itself an evidence of rejection. The severely self-rejecting adolescent is his own enemy.

2.2.7 UNFAVOURABLE SELF-CONCEPT AND JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Many children develop unfavourable self-concept. As a result, they have difficulty accepting themselves and making personal and social adjustments. Sociologists have found that there are important differences in self-concept between potential delinquents and non-delinquents. Within the potentially delinquent group there were important differences in self-concept found between boys who had previous legal involvement and those who had not had such conduct (Reckless, Dinitz & Kay, 1967).

Reckless (1967) in formulating his containment theory he advocates that due to favourable socialization in early life one develops a stronger inner self, the self-concept, which directs an individual towards law-abiding behavior. Unfavourable socialization results in poor self-concept resulting in weak inner direction that cannot help resist crime. He states “a favourable self-concept acts as an inner buffer or inner containment against anti-social conduct”.

Personal and social adjustments are greatly influenced by the degree of stability of the self-concept. A stable self-concept gives the person a feeling of personal security. Persons with good self-concept are less anxious, more honest and better adjusted. Those with stable self-concept largely positive in nature can be
counted on to behave in a socially approved manner in spite of environmental 
temptations to engage in delinquent behaviour. They are insulated against 
delinquency.

On the other hand, those whose relatively stable self-concept is characterized 
by negative toward self can be ‘spotted’ as potential delinquents even before their 
behaviour becomes anti-social. Unstable self-concept leads to poor personal and 
social adjustments. Maladjusted group made up of emotionally disturbed youngsters 
have lower self-concept than normal boys.

2.3.1 EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE

Like various other aspects of personality, emotion plays vital role in the manifestation 
of the individual’s behaviour. Recently, there has been much theorizing about the 
links between emotional competence and externalizing psychopathology, particularly 
aggressive behaviour (Cole, Michel & Teti, 1994; Cole & Zahn-Wazler, 1990; Dodge 
& Garber, 1991). Emotional competence is a complex phenomenon consisting of a 
number of distinct, yet interrelated component skills including emotion appraisal, 
emotion expression and emotion understanding (Saarni, 1990; 1999).

Emotional competence refers to a persons’ ability in expressing or releasing 
their inner feelings or emotions. Thus emotionally competent people will express 
emotion appropriate to the situation and their needs and they will not seek to suppress 
emotions in others.

Emotional competence can lead to improved health through avoiding stress 
that would otherwise result from suppressing emotions. It can also lead to improved 
relationships since inappropriate emotions are less likely to be expressed.

Emotional competence consists of three skills such as emotion appraisal, 
emotion expression and emotion understanding.
2.3.2 EMOTION APPRAISAL

Cognitive model of emotion suggests that appraisals of event, in contrast to the event itself, are more important in determining emotion (Lazarus, 1991). Social information processing and work examining appraisal strategies suggest that children with aggressive behaviour, more often make errors in interpreting intent in ambiguous social situations and attend selectively to hostile social cues than do their non-aggressive peers (Crick & Dodge, 1994). A recently modified version of the social information processing model (Lemerise & Arsenio, 2000) highlights both the role of emotion and the integration of affect and cognition to explain individual differences in children’s social development.

The functionalist approach to emotion suggests that emotions represent an attempt by an individual to establish, maintain, change or terminate the relation between the person and the environment on matters of significance to the person (Campos et al., 1994). Children are more likely to report anger when they have appraised both the presence of an aversive outcome and the possibility of goal reinstatement.

2.3.3 EMOTION EXPRESSION

The control, modification and management of emotional reactivity and expressivity are important components of emotional competence. The complex interplay between emotion and behaviour suggests that children might be less prone to aggressive outbursts if they are successful at managing their emotions and expressions than if they are unsuccessful at doing so (Eisenberg et al., 1996; Eisenberg et al., 1994). Younger children with aggressive symptoms exhibit more negative affect during a series of challenge episodes than do those at low risk for aggressive behaviour.
(Calkins & Dedmon, 2000). In one of the few studies on school-age children revealed that aggressive symptoms were associated with decreased ability to verbally express negative feelings, exhibit empathy towards others, and display a range of emotion (Shields & Cicchetti, 1998).

2.3.4 EMOTION UNDERSTANDING

One of the most basic aspects of emotional competence is the ability of an individual to recognize what he is feeling (Saarni, 1999). Emotion understanding consists of the ability to identify emotional states and the ability to identify causes and correlates of emotional states (Harris, 1983). A common premise with clinical settings is that children with higher levels of aggressive behaviour have more difficulty in identifying and understanding their emotions than do children with lower levels of aggressive behaviour. Correspondingly, preschoolers with higher levels of aggressive behaviour exhibited less ability to identify others’ emotions than did those with lower levels of aggressive behaviour (Arsenio et al., 2000).

Another important aspect of emotion understanding includes the particular emotions that children report to describe their feeling states. Kaczynski and Cummings (1980) found that aggressive boys were more likely to report feelings of anger than non-aggressive boys in response to being exposed to an angry adult interaction. However, verbalization of emotion is one way that children can successfully and appropriately regulate their emotions (Cole et al., 1994), and previous research suggests that children rated as exhibiting high levels of aggressive behaviour have difficulty in regulating their emotions (Shields & Cicchetti, 1998). Because of the fact that verbalizing about negative emotions may serve a regulatory function, it was predicted that children rated as having high levels of aggressive
behaviour would be less likely than their non-aggressive peers to verbalize feelings of anger.

Children who are rated as having more aggressive behaviour may also be less sensitive in recognizing the causes of a particular emotions and consequently less able to reflect upon and learn from their experiences.

2.3.5 EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

During the early school years, children focus primarily on observable component of emotion including the situation and overt behaviour reactions. By middle childhood, children are more likely to cite multiple cues, including their cognitions and mental states in providing explanations for emotion. School age children who exhibited higher levels of externalizing symptoms more often relied on single cues than on multiple cues to understand emotions, suggesting less developmentally sophisticated emotional understanding than did children who exhibited lower levels of symptoms.

The ability to recognize emotions in others typically begins quite early. By age three children are good at identifying emotion although this skill tends to be more advanced in those children who are also good at expressing their own emotions clearly (Magai & McFadden, 1995).

When they are about four or five years, many children are able to offer guesses as to why others might be experiencing emotions (Fabes et al., 1991). Children’s first explanations for their peers’ emotional experiences typically focus on external causes rather than on internal motivation (Fabes et al., 1991).

During middle childhood, children improve in their abilities to recognize that one situation can lead to different types of emotional responses (Gnepp & Klayman,
1992). Therefore, young children might experience difficulty in understanding why a peer might react one way at situation (i.e., by getting angry or upset) when they themselves are not experiencing the same emotion. Research also suggests that during middle childhood, children become better at recognizing that others can experience more than one emotion at the same time (Arsenio & Kramer, 1992).

2.3.6 BENEFITS OF ENCOURAGING POSITIVE EMOTIONS IN ONESELF

Modifying the negative emotions and strengthening the positive emotions are closely involved in emotional competence. The following are some of the benefits of positive emotions.

1) Positive Emotions Broaden our Thinking and Actions

One virtue of negative emotions is that they spark strong urges to act in specific ways: to fight when angry, to flee when afraid, or to spit when disgusted (Lazarus, 1991). In other words, negative emotions narrow our thinking and actions. On the contrary, positive emotions have a complementary effect; they broaden our thinking and actions. The virtue here is that positive emotions expand our typical ways of thinking, being in the world and more connected to others (Fredrickson, 1998; Isen, 2002).

Although emotions are short-lived, they can have lasting effects on us. By momentarily broadening our thinking and actions, positive emotions promote discovery of novel and creative ideas, actions, and social bonds. The broaden-and-build theory states that ways of thinking and acting, and in turn, build our lasting personal resources, making us more complex and resilient people than we would be otherwise (Fredrickson, 2000, 2002).
2) Emotion Regulation or Modification

Emotion regulation, or people's responses to their own emotions, can be considered a component in the emotion process. Sometimes people have the goal of maintaining or intensifying an emotion, whether positive or negative. For example, one may try to minimize his/her negative emotions, like sadness or anger. So emotions and people's efforts to regulate them go hand-in-hand.

Indeed, a considerable part of the socialization process is directed toward teaching children how and when to regulate their emotions. Parents teach their children when certain emotions are appropriate and when they are not. Evidence suggests that children's success in learning these lessons about emotion regulation predicts their social success more generally (Eisenberg, Cumberland & Spinrad, 1998). The negative emotions are negatively correlated with their risks for later disruptive behaviour problems (Cole, Zahn-Waxler & Smith, 1994).

People control and regulate their emotions in many different ways. One may engage from their anger through sheer mental effort, by trying to think of nothing, or by distracting oneself by doing something fun or demanding. One may reappraise the situation as better than they thought. Reappraisal seems a better strategy for regulating emotions than suppressing facial expressions.

2.4.1 FRUSTRATION

Freud (1943) developed the concept of frustration first time in human beings. According to Freud, “frustration occurs whenever pleasure seeking or pain-avoiding behaviour is blocked”. He established a causal relationship between frustration and aggression.
Encyclopedia of Psychology (1951) defines, "frustration is any interference with a goal response or with the instrumental acts leading to it".

According to Lexicon Universal Encyclopedia (1983), "frustration is the blocking of an organism's ongoing activity toward a goal".

Whereas, the Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (2000) defines, "Frustration is the feeling that makes somebody feels annoyed or impatient because they cannot do or achieve what they want".

"Frustration refers to the blocking of behaviour that is directed towards a goal" (Robinson, 1961; Murphy, 1964; Coleman, 1964; Kretch & Crutchfield, 1965). Frustration is ‘motivational or affective state resulting from being blocked, thwarted, disappointed or defeated’ (English & English, 1959), has a different mechanism of behaviour, lacking goal-orientation, having feeling of intensity, compulsiveness, appearing a product of need-deprivation (Chauhan & Tiwari, 1972).

Davitz (1942) defined frustration as the blocking of drive evoked behaviour, thwarting of a need or desire (Coleman, 1971). It exists when a goal response suffers interference (Dollard et al., 1939). When the individual seek to attain a goal and finds that his way to the goal is blocked by an obstacle or a barrier, tension is produced and it lasts as long as the barrier is present. Every individual tries removing these barriers or obstacles, but frustration occurs only when the organism is unable to remove the hindrances. So in frustration, motivated behaviour of the individual is blocked and he is unable to remove the insurmountable barrier, that’s why underlying tension resolves and results into frustration.

With the work of Freud, several theories of frustration have appeared during the late 1930’s and 1940’s. These theories propounded 4 modes of frustration such as regression, resignation, fixation and aggression.
2.4.2 FRUSTRATION-REGRESSION THEORIES

In Freudian term, regression means a return to earlier mode of adjustment. Operationally regression may be defined in terms of a behaviour characterized by bashfulness, being finicky about foods, lack of self-control, homesick when away from home, crying easily, defective speech, excessive day-dreaming, exorbitantly ambitious etc.

Due to the opposition and criticism to the ‘frustration-aggression’ hypothesis, Barker, Dembo and Lewin (1941) have propounded the theory of ‘frustration-regression’ hypothesis. Regression, in other words, is return to more primitive or infantile modes of response.

According to one interpretation, regression indicates that the individual attempts to return to past security from the present midst of insecurity. Regression is the end response of frustration (Barker; Dembo & Lewin, 1941). Regression may be defined as an ego-defense mechanism in which ‘the individual retreats to the use of less mature responses in attempting to cope with stress and maintain ego integrity’ (Coleman, 1971). Here an individual emphasizes on the superior joys of ‘the good old days’ so it has been called the ‘old oaken bucket’ delusion. Previous satisfaction provides a mode of proper adjustment in regression so the individual takes help of this defense mechanism.

Regression is closely and negatively related to development process which ultimately blocks the personality development. Child and Waterhouse (1952) called regression as a lowering ‘quality of performance’ and they argue that in this way conceptualized regression is more theoretically as well as empirically useful because it allows ‘one to take into account the possible progressive effects of frustration as well as the regressive effects’.
2.4.3 FRUSTRATION-RESIGNATION THEORY

Resignation is an emotionally tinged attitude shown by cessation of active response to a situation which we have previously been making efforts to alter (Chauhan & Tiwari, 1972). In resignated behaviour individual obtains extreme elimination of needs, no plans, no definite relations to the future, either no hope at all or hope which is not taken seriously.

The factors related to resignation type of behaviours are limitations of all needs, no plan, no definite relation to future, a withdrawal tendency from social contacts, frequent and serious consideration of committing suicide, longing for loneliness, no social type of hobby, retreatism, returning within one's self, daydreaming, lack of interest in his surroundings etc.

2.4.4 FRUSTRATION-FIXATION THEORY

Maier (1949) noted fixated behaviour tend to be repeated over and over again with out variations and shows a degree of resistance to change. Fixated behaviour as such remains compulsive. This compulsive and stereotyped pattern has been called an abnormal fixation. In this context Maier has put another theory of ‘frustration-fixation’ hypothesis, where behaviours become stereotyped and is persisted in despite consequences. The frustrated individual behaves more or less rigidly, compulsive in many activities and stereotyped. Fixative behaviour seriously blocks the acquisition of new forms of adjustment.

Fixated behaviour may be taken in terms of interests and emotional attitudes to designate the attachment generally interpreted to belong to an early stage of development. The fixated persons have a difficulty in forming new attachments developing new interest or adaptations (Chauhan & Tiwari, 1972).
In fixation, unreasonable or exaggerated attachment to some person or arresting of emotional development on a childhood or adolescent level take place (Coleman, 1971). Fixation may occur in one’s behaviour due to trauma or due to frustration of the normal expression of instinctual drives of it’s over gratification. It weakens ego of the person (Chauhan & Tiwari, 1972). Several studies have been conducted by psychologists concerning ‘frustration-fixation’ hypothesis. On the basis of these studies one can easily infer that frustration is the primary factor in the production of fixation.

2.4.5 FRUSTRATION-AGGRESSION THEORY

Freud emphasizes the study of aggression to understand human behaviour disorders. For Freud, aggression is one of the consequences of frustration. This suggestion of Freud widely accepted by Dollard et al., (1939), and formulated a theory and postulated that frustration results in aggression.

“Aggression has been defined as an act, whose goal response is injury to an organism or organism-surrogate” (Dollard et al., 1939). Aggression is defined as behavior intended to injure the person toward whom it is directed.

“Aggression may be defined operationally in terms of rude answering to elder, irritation, feeling of unfairness, carrying grudges, frequent quarrelling, broken engagement, impulse to take revenge, and reactionary attitudes to traditions or beliefs” (Chauhan & Tiwari, 1972).

Yale group theory of ‘frustration-aggression’ asserts, the occurrence of aggression always presupposes the existence of frustration and contrariwise, that the existence of frustration always leads to some forms of aggression. According to revised model of the frustration-aggression hypothesis (Berkowitz, 1989), frustrations
lead to aggression to the extent that frustrations produce anger or other types of negative emotions such as sadness, disappointment, threats to identity, physical pain etc., (Berkowitz, 1983, 1989). The frustration-aggression hypothesis has many implications for individual and social behaviour. It implies, for example, that adolescent aggression is caused by the increased frustrations of that stage of life. A large body of research on aggression indicates that frustration often produces aggression but this relationship is always not true. It is influenced by situations and by individual differences in personality factors.

2.4.6 SOURCES OF FRUSTRATION

The sources of frustration are many and they can be generally classified into the following categories:

1) Man’s Physical Environment

Rosenzweig (1938) calls it ‘external-privation’. They frustrate us in drastic manner through heavy rainfall, earthquakes, floods and other calamities. These suddenly occurred environmental changes provide innumerable hindrances which ultimately create frustration situation.

2) Man’s Biological Environment

Rosenzweig (1938) calls it ‘internal-privation’. The biological environment of the individual himself – motor and mental incapacities is also a powerful agent of blocking the motives of the individual. Both physical and psychological barriers may be sources of personal frustration, which later on builds up feeling of insecurity and the feeling of lackingness in personal worth.
3) **Man’s Social Environment**

The social milieu is the significant source of frustration. For the individual’s satisfaction of the needs, social setup, social norms, social rules, taboos, prejudices, cultural-cum-religious norms etc., play an important role. Horney (1945) has described all possible variables of social environment as sources of frustration as ‘cues’.

4) **Man’s Psychological Environment**

Man has a number of simultaneous, over-lapping psychological situations which make him remarkably complex. Several needs and demands may arise at the same time. He cannot fulfill all needs or demands due to disruption of others. This creates a tense-full situation or conflict. Tensions and conflicts are most important and strongest sources of frustration.

2.4.7 **FRUSTRATION AND SELF RELATIONSHIP**

Frustration theory states that the instigation to aggression is function of the residual previous frustrations. Self theory suggests a personality construct that implies the cumulative efforts of past frustrations, namely, the discrepancy between the self and ideal concepts. High discrepancy may be assumed to reflect dissatisfaction with the self and a feeling of chronic frustration in attaining one’s ideals. Such individuals demonstrate tension, anxiety and frequent signs of maladjustment (Bills, 1953; Hillson & Worchel, 1957; Worchel, 1957).

Under unreasonable frustration, one would assume that the well-adjusted person would make some constructive attempt to alter the situation. The maladjusted person, however, would resort to more destructive, immature, disorganized and regressive modes of behaviour regardless of the nature of his frustration.
2.5.1 AGGRESSION

As has been suggested by Achenbach (1980), a range of childhood problems can be subsumed under the headings of Internalizing and Externalizing syndromes (Achenbach, 1966; Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1978). Under the heading of Internalizing syndromes are a variety of problems reflective of depression, withdrawal, anxiety, obsessions, and somatic complaints and so on.

Under Externalizing syndromes (also referred to as conduct disorders) are included several other types of behaviour problems. Among the most commonly listed under this heading is aggressiveness and delinquency. While it is clear that aggressive behaviour and delinquency are sometimes related and they often are not (Johnson & Fennell, 1983).

The high frequency of aggressive behaviour in childhood is suggested by Lapouse and Monk (1959), still, aggressive behaviour is more frequently seen in males than females (Eme, 1979). The potential implications of marked aggressiveness in childhood are suggested by the fact that aggressive behaviour has been found to be reasonably stable over time (Eron et al., 1974; Olweus, 1979) and by findings that early aggressiveness is related to later indices of delinquency (Eron et al., 1974). Thus aggressive behaviour seems to constitute both a common and sometimes serious problem of childhood that may have important implications for later adjustment.

Aggression involves hurting others on purpose. It has been defined as "any form of behaviour directed towards the goal of harming or injuring another person" (Baron & Richardson, 1993). Traditionally, psychologists have defined aggression as behaviour against another person with the intention of committing harm. This definition refers to socially unacceptable behaviour.
Working definition of aggression define aggression as the willingness to engage in physical and psychological acts of harm in order to control the actions of other people. It incorporates the idea that aggression involves psychological as well as physical harm.

According to widely accepted ‘intentional’ definition of aggression is that it is “an aggressive act in any form of behaviour designed to harm, or injure a living being who is motivated to avoid such treatment” (Baron & Byrne, 1994).

2.5.2 TYPES OF AGGRESSION

Aggression is generally defined as behaviors that are intended to harm or harm others (Berkowitz, 1993). It has become increasingly clear that there are several different types of aggressive behaviour that can be displayed by children and adolescents. One distinction frequently examined in research is between reactive and pro-active aggression (Dodge, 1991; Dodge & Coie, 1987).

There is also a distinction between proactive and reactive aggression. Proactive aggression is aggressive behaviour that is initiated by the individual to achieve some desired outcome. It is important to note that aggressive behaviour need not involve fighting or other forms of physical attack. The individual may show physical aggression in the form of hitting, shoving, biting, scratching, kicking or taking objects away from other or they may display nonphysical aggression by being verbally abusive toward adults or other children.

Reactive aggression is generally defined as aggression that occurs as an angry response to a perceived provocation of threat (Berkowitz, 1993), whereas proactive aggression is conceptualized as aggression that is unprovoked and is used for instrumental gain or dominance over others (Dodge, 1991; Dodge & Coie, 1987).
Consistent differences in the correlates of reactive and proactive aggression have been seen in both cognitive and emotional domains. Specifically, reactive but not proactive aggression has been consistently linked to a tendency to misinterpret ambiguous behaviours as hostile provocation (Crick & Dodge, 1996; Day et al., 1992; Dodge & Coie, 1987; Hubbard et al., 2001). In contrast, proactive but not reactive aggression has been associated with the tendency to view aggression as an effective means to reach goals that is unlikely to result in punishment (Crick & Dodge, 1996; Dodge et al., 1997; Schwartz et al., 1998).

Indirect aggressiveness is defined as harming other through covert behaviours such as gossiping or rumor spreading (Bjorkqvist et al., 1992). Relational aggression is characterized by harming others through purposeful manipulation and damage to interpersonal relationships. (Crick, 1996; Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). In addition to indirect behaviours, relational aggression includes direct behaviours, such as excluding peers from a group. Similarly, social aggression may be direct or indirect, includes relationship manipulation, and has been defined by Galen and Underwood (1997) as damaging another’s self-esteem, social status or both. Social aggression includes rumor spreading, social exclusion etc.

Overt and relational forms of aggression can be descriptively distinguished by their method of harm and the goals they serve (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995). Overt aggression (also referred to as “physical aggression” in some studies) harms others by damaging their physical well-being and includes physically and verbally aggressive behaviours such as hitting, pushing, kicking and threatening (Coie & Dodge, 1998; Parke & Slaby, 1983). In contrast, relational aggression harms others by damaging social relationships, friendships, or feelings of inclusion and acceptance in the peer group (Crick et al., 1999). Relational aggression consists of behaviors such as
gossiping about others, excluding target children from a group, spreading rumors or telling others not to be friends with a target child (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995; Lagerspetz et al., 1988).

Many studies have found that relational aggression predicts social-psychological mal-adjustment above and beyond overt aggression, especially for girls (Crick, 1996; Crick & Grotpeter, 1995; Prinstein et al., 2001).

2.5.3 THE CAUSES OF AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOUR

As Bandura (1973) has noted, contemporary psychoanalytically oriented writers (Gillespie, 1971) have to some extent rejected Freud's notion of the death instinct in aggressive behaviour, but have retained the view that aggressive behaviour results from an instinctual drive. A focus on the instinctual basis for aggression is also apparent in the writings of ethologist - Lorenz (1966). Here, aggression is seen as resulting from a self-perpetuating instinct toward aggressive behaviour.

A second major theoretical formulation is the frustration-aggression hypothesis. Originally proposed by Dollard et al., (1939), this proposition suggests that aggressive behaviour results from an aggressive drive that is elicited by frustration when the person's access to a goal is blocked. Thus thwarted goals lead to frustration, and frustration leads to aggressive behaviour. The strong version of this theory, which was originally proposed and argued that frustration invariably results in aggression.

The above view was subsequently modified to suggest that, while aggression is a usual response to frustration, the probability of aggression would be modified if the person had previously been punished for engaging in aggressive behaviour or had a learning history in which aggression had not been rewarded. Even the modified version of this proposition has not received widespread support.
As Bandura (1973) has indicated, "frustration or anger arousal is a facilitative but not a necessary condition for aggression". This view states that the performance of aggressive acts is the social learning position, which proposed that aggressive behaviours are largely learned behaviours. It is assumed that such learning results from observing models such as parents, peers or others in the environment, who engage in aggressive behaviour. The learning of aggressive behaviours might result also from direct experience whereby the child is reinforced for responding in an aggressive manner when frustrated or provoked.

In support of a social-learning formulation, a number of research studies have provided data that suggest that aggressive behaviour results largely from the individual's learning experiences. In their study, Bandura, Ross and Ross (1963) assigned nursery school children to one of three experimental conditions where they observed models behaving aggressively toward an inflatable Bobo doll. Models were presented live, on film, or by a filmed model dressed as a cartoon character. Control children either observed a non-aggressive model or were not exposed to modeling stimuli. It was found that subjects who observed aggressive models were found later to display significantly higher levels of aggressive behaviour than did children in the control conditions.

Several studies have also demonstrated a relationship between contingent reinforcement and continued aggressive responding. Geen (1976) has noted that increased aggressive behaviour is followed by verbal approval. Moreover, Patterson, Littman and Bricker (1967) observed that children whose aggressive behaviours were usually followed by reinforcement were found to display the highest levels of aggression.
2.5.4 AGGRESSION AND DELINQUENCY

Apparently, aggression is a reasonably stable attribute. Not only are aggressive toddlers likely to become aggressive 5-year-olds (Cummings, Iannotti & Zahn-Waxler, 1989), but the amount of physical and verbal aggression that a child displays at ages 6 to 10 is a fairly good predictor of his or her aggressive or other antisocial inclinations later in life (Cairns et al., 1989; Kagan & Moss, 1962). Huesmann et al., (1984) tracked one sample of 600 subjects for 22 years. They found that highly aggressive 8 year olds often became relatively hostile 30-year-olds who were likely to batter their spouses or children and to be convicted of criminal offenses.

Twin studies suggest that some individuals are genetically predisposed to have aggressive behaviour and other antisocial acts (Plomin, 1990; Rushton et al., 1986). And regardless of their genetic predispositions, some children remain highly aggressive because they have been raised in social environments that can be described as ‘training grounds’ for the establishment and maintenance of aggressive habits (Bandura, 1991; Dodge, 1993).

Cross-cultural studies consistently indicate that some societies and subcultures are more violent and aggressive than others. One aggressive society is the Gebusi of New Guinea, who teach their children to be combative and emotionally unresponsive to the needs of others and who show a murder rate that is more than 50 times higher than that of any industrialized nation (Scott, 1992). The United States is also an ‘aggressive’ society. On a percentage basis, the incidence of rape, homicide and assault is higher in the U S than in any other industrialized nation, and the U S ranks a close second to Spain in the incidence of armed robbery (Wolff, Rutter & Bayer, 1992).
Children and adolescents from the lower socio-economic strata (SES)-particularly males from larger urban areas-exhibit more aggressive behaviour and higher levels of delinquency (Atwater, 1992; Feshbach, 1970). One important contributor seems to be social-class differences in parenting (Dodge et al., 1994). Parents from lower socio-economic strata tend to often display less warmth and more hostility toward their children than middle-class parents do; they also tend to rely more on physical punishment to discipline aggression and non-compliance, thus modeling aggression even as they are trying to suppress it (Dodge et al., 1994; Patterson et al., 1989; Sears et al., 1957; Weiss et al., 1992). Low SES parents are often less inclined to manage or monitor their child's whereabouts, activities and choice of friends, and this lack of parental monitoring is consistently associated with such aggressive or delinquent adolescent behaviours as fighting with peers, destroying property, abusing drugs and generally breaking rules outside the home (Capaldi & Patterson, 1991; Patterson & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1984).

Patterson (1982) has observed patterns of interaction among children and their parents in families that have at least one highly aggressive child. Unlike most homes, the highly aggressive problem child usually lives in a setting in which family members are constantly struggling with one another. Patterson finds that mothers of problem children rarely use social approval as a means of behaviour control, choosing instead to largely ignore pro-social conduct. Patterson et al., (1989) think that living in a coercive home environment poses serious risks indeed, and lead to chronic antisocial or delinquent behaviour.