CHAPTER I

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

“The tendency of aggression is an innate, independent, instinctual disposition in man.... It constitutes the most powerful obstacle to culture”

Sigmund Freud

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The Era of 21st century is the age of anxieties, struggle, frustration, hate, chaos and what not? This is the age of mental, social and personality disintegration. Man has progressed very speedily in physical ailments. He has reached the Moon and preparing for holidaying on Mars. But, we see that, behind all the inventions and all creative works, there is something queer and quaint in the mental world. Aggression has always been an important concern of mankind. However, aggression (violent conflict) has been found to be greatest in developing nations. The progress of a society depends upon the nature of the education being provided to the students in the schools. If we evaluate the present education being imparted to our students, we find that it is defective in evaluating the values of life and in the absence of the permanent values of life the student generally behave in an undisciplined way. The indiscipline among students especially in the schools is due to aggression. Aggression is defined as behaviour intended to cause harm or pain. The key to this definition is the word intended. If an athlete fractures another athlete’s nose by accident, the fracture is not the result of aggression, but if the athlete intended to fracture the nose, he or she was being aggressive in the negative sense of the words (Aronson, 1977).
These days Aggressive behaviour has become a topic of vital importance and a major concern in most societies. The whole world seems to be under the strain of aggressive acts of various forms. Violence is disturbingly common in most parts of the world and it is undoubtedly creating chaos and disturbing the world peace and harmony. Aggression has been defined by various thinkers differently. Most would agree that aggression is a motive which we should know more. We attack, hurt and sometimes kill each other; we aggress verbally by means of insults or attempts to damage another's reputation and wars always seem to be happening someplace, approximately 14,600 wars in 5,600 years of recorded history (Montagu, 1976). More specifically, aggression is defined as, “a sequence of behaviour, the goal response of which is the injury to the person toward whom it is directed” (Dollard et al., 1939). Although the term aggression refers to a wide spectrum of behaviours, in the psychological literature, it is defined as any behaviour intended to harm another individual who is motivated to avoid being harmed (Baron and Richardson, 1994; Coie and Dodge, 1998). The study of adolescent aggressive behaviour during the last decade has increasingly focused upon the fact that aggression is not only physical by its nature, but it can be of various forms. The rapid development of the peer-estimation paradigm (many forms of interpersonal aggression simply go unnoticed if only self-reports or behavioural observations are used) has made this new focus possible.

Bjorkqvist & Colleagues (Bjorkqvist, Lagerspetz and Kaukiainen, 1992; Bjorkqvist, Osterman and Kaukiainen, 1992) suggested a developmental theory with regard to styles of aggressive behaviour: physical, direct verbal and indirect aggression is not only three different strategies, but they also constitute three developmental phases, partly following, partly overlapping each other during childhood and adolescence. Small children, who have not yet developed verbal and social skills to any considerable degree, will
resort to physical aggression. In this respect, they are like members of subhuman species who do not possess a language. When verbal and social skills develop these facilitate expression of aggression without having to resort to physical force. When social intelligence develops sufficiently, the individual is fully capable of indirect aggressive behaviour: (S)he is able to induce psychological, sometimes even physical, harm to a target person by mere social manipulation, without putting him/herself at direct risk of retaliation. Aggression does not necessarily mean a physical attack or violet action; it can be a verbal attack without threatening or inflicting physical harm or injury. The most suitable definition of aggression can be the intention to harm the other person either directly or indirectly. But giving a definition on the basis of a particular culture cannot be a universal one because what is considered to be aggressive behaviour in one culture may not be perceived as aggressive within another. A raised eyebrow or a stare can be perceived as more aggressive in some cultures than a violent hit in others. This is the reason why till today researchers have not been able to give a satisfactory universal definition of aggression. Moreover aggression is not always bad or we can say negative. The truth is that practically everything we do is a mixture of positive and negative forms of aggression.

The main issue in the field of aggression is whether it is acquired or inborn? Some say that it is inborn or instinctual while others say that it is a learned behaviour and is influenced by environmental factors. Aggressiveness can be considered as partly inherent and partly environmental as its intensity largely depends on learning and culture including various other sub-factors. The instinct theorist view aggression as a part of the basic nature of humans. Freud and many other psychopathologists have considered aggression as a global, instinctive, steam boiler like force. This is popularly known as death instinct (held by Freud), which he says is urgent and basically inevitable for self-preservation and reproduction. Family and
school environment plays a very vital role in the development of aggressive behaviour. There are various determinants of family climate like family composition, parental occupation, child rearing attitudes and practices, abusive family’s structure, demographic and personal factors etc. Earlier studies have also shown that disruption of child’s dependency relations with his parents is a cause of development of aggressive behaviour (Bandura and Walters, 1959). Similarly, the children whose parents are punitive towards them have been found to be more aggressive (McCord et al., 1961). The effect of family environment seems to be some pronounced in every case where the child learns various acts of aggression in terms of verbal, indirect and direct physical aggression (Bjorkqvist and Osterman, 1992). Additionally, the use of harsh punishments or inconsistent discipline has been shown to be related to aggressive behaviour in children (Pepler and Slaby, 1994). The nature of the child’s family plays a significant role in the potential development of early aggressive behaviour because they imitate the style of family members in handling anger, aggression and frustration. These days families are largely the nuclear kinds wherein the unmarried children live with their parents. Therefore, while talking about family influences, the role of parents in bringing up the child/adolescent seems to gain in significance. There appears to be a clear association between divorce and children with aggressive behaviours. Children may feel hostile against parents, observe how their parents treat one another and have angry and hateful feelings.

Besides this, the media, especially television, films and violet video games have similar and possibly larger effects on aggression. Poverty, joblessness, discrimination and social acceptance of aggression all increase the risk of aggressive behaviour (Coie and Dodge, 1998). Antisocial behaviour or aggression among children and adolescents is a significant clinical and social problem. The significance derived from findings that antisocial behaviour
(particularly aggressive acts) are relatively prevalent among community samples, serve as the basis for one-third to one-half of clinical referrals among children, are relatively stable over the course of development, often portend major dysfunction in adulthood (e.g. criminal behaviour, alcoholism, antisocial personality) and are likely to be transmitted to one’s offspring (Robins, 1981). Therefore, besides knowing the etiological factors or the risk factors that foster aggression, it is also important to know and understand the protective factors that are associated with less aggression.

1.1 AGGRESSION

Aggression is a familiar term and a key concept in the study of human behaviour. We may use the word “aggression/aggressive” for a wide variety of acts that involve attack, hostility a person assaulting another, a carnivorous animal seeking prey, or even maternal aggression etc. Generally, aggression is usually defined as behaviour intended to injure other (either physically or verbally). Psychologists distinguish it between Hostile aggression and Instrumental aggression. The hostile aggression’s sole aim is to inflict injury whereas; instrumental aggression intended to obtain rewards other than suffering.

According to Dollard et al. (1939), aggression is defined as “any sequence of behaviour, the goal response to which is the injury of the person toward whom it is directed”. The definition of aggression which Kaufmann (1970) prefers is one that includes behaviour which is directed against another individual (or individuals) and expresses the intention or desire to inflict injury. Huesmann (1994) define aggression as the intentional inflectional of harm on others. According to Baron and Byrne (1997), “aggression is behaviour directed toward the goal of harming another living being. Aggression is used as a general term to represent verbal acts, such as insults or threat that were used intentionally to hurt the other and physical acts, such as
throwing or threatening to throw things at the other person, kicking objects out of frustration or pushing shoving, slapping, biting, etc.” (Olson and Golish, 2002).

Aggression is a human characteristic necessary for survival in struggle for existence. So aggression is often used as a defense against dangerous pleasures. Aggression is regarded as a primitive defense originating from ‘fight-flight’ response and is frequently deployed when more complex and mature defense fail. Aggression has been noted to have a capacity to bolster the self esteem by creating an illusion of dominance, strength and control. So, Freud (1953) has mentioned, quite early in psychoanalytic literature about use of aggression for defensive purposes. Aggression, on the other hand is one of the two basic instincts. The energy of the death instinct builds within organism until it is discharged, either outwardly through overt aggression or inwardly in form of self–destructive acts. The frustration–aggressive hypotheses assume that thwarting a person’s efforts to reach a goal induces on aggressive drive which, in turn, motivates behaviour designed to injure the person which causing frustration. Social learning theory supports the notion that aggression is also a learned response. This theory conceptualizing the motivational components of aggression. So, it emphasis on aversive experiences and incentive inducement for aggression.

1.1.1 TYPES OF AGGRESSION

Although much people usually think of aggression in terms of physical attacks only, but there are various forms of aggression which have been identified in the literature, including direct, physical, verbal, relational, indirect and social aggression. Psychologists classify aggression as instrumental and hostile. Instrumental aggression is aggressive behaviour intended to achieve a goal. It is not necessarily
intended to hurt another person e.g. a soccer player who knocks a teammate down as they both run to stop the ball from reaching the opposing team’s goalpost is not trying to hurt the teammate.

Hostile aggression, on the other hand, is aggressive behaviour whose only purpose is to hurt someone. It includes physical or verbal assault and other antisocial behaviours. Most studies of aggression are geared towards hostile aggression. There have been several attempts to distinguish between types of aggression based upon antecedent conditions i.e. conditions that precede or lead up to the aggressive behaviour.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Aggression</th>
<th>Examples</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Physical-active-direct</td>
<td>Stabbing, punching, or shooting another person</td>
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<tr>
<td>Physical-active-indirect</td>
<td>Setting a booby trap for another person; hiring an assassin to kill an enemy</td>
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<tr>
<td>Physical-passive-direct</td>
<td>Physically preventing another person from obtaining a desired goal or performing a desired act (as in a sit-in demonstration)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Physical-passive-</td>
<td>Refusing to perform necessary tasks (e.g. refusing to move during a sit-in)</td>
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<tr>
<td>indirect</td>
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<tr>
<td>Verbal-active-direct</td>
<td>Insulting or derogating another person</td>
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<tr>
<td>Verbal-active-indirect</td>
<td>Spreading malicious rumors or gossip about another person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal-passive-direct</td>
<td>Refusing to spread to another person, to answer questions, and so on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal-passive-indirect</td>
<td>Failing to make specific verbal comments (e.g., failing to speak up in another person’s defense when he or she is unfairly criticized</td>
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Source: Baron, 1977; Based on Buss, 1971.

Moyer (1976) identified eight distinct kinds of aggression that can be found in some form in virtually all species, including human behaviour. These are:

- **Predatory aggression:** It is directed to natural prey and is deeply rooted in our ancestors hunting behaviour.
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

- **Intermale aggression:** Physical violence or submissive behaviour displayed by males towards each other.

- **Fear-induced aggression:** Responses believed to be biologically programmed into us so that we act in an aggressive manner towards any form of forced confinement.

- **Territorial aggression:** Threat or attack behaviour displayed towards an invasion of one territory or the submissive-retreat behaviour displayed when confronted while intruding.

- **Maternal aggression:** Aggression behaviour put forward by females (and most likely males as well) when an intruder is a presence of one’s children.

- **Irritable aggression:** Aggression and rage directed towards an object when the aggressor is frustrated, hurt, deprived or stressed.

- **Sex related aggression:** Aggressive behaviour that is elicited by the same stimuli that elicits sexual behaviour. Any person who can evoke sexual desire can equally evoke aggression via jealousy etc.

- **Instrumental aggression:** Aggressive behaviour is displayed because it previously resulted in a reward. Much of human aggression seems to be related to this.

Aggressive styles are subject to developmental change during the life course. Among animals and young children lacking verbal skills, aggression is predominantly physical. When verbal skills develop, aggression is expressed through communication rather than physical force. With the development of social skills even more sophisticated strategies of aggression are facilitated i.e. the aggressor is able to harm a target person without even being identified. This may be referred to an indirect aggression (Lagerspetz et al., 1988). Although debated are ongoing regarding the labeling and conceptual
distinctions among the various forms (Archer, 2001; Bjorkqvist, 2001; Underwood et al., 2001). It is seen that most of the dimensions (direct physical, verbal, relational, indirect and social aggression etc.) overlap considerably but at least two higher-order forms can be meaningfully distinguished i.e. Relational and Overt aggression.

Relational aggression is generally defined as acts that are intended to significantly damage another child’s friendships or feeling of inclusion in the peer group (e.g. purposefully withdrawing friendship or group acceptance from a child, ostracism, spreading rumours, gossiping etc.)- a more indirect and relationship-based form of aggression (Cairns et al., 1989; Crick and Grotpeter, 1995; Feshbach, 1969). Overt aggression, on the other hand, is defined as verbal and physical behaviour that are directed at individuals with the intent to harm them (e.g., pushing, kicking, hitting, threatening, insulting, etc.)- a more direct and “in-your-face’ forms of aggression (Buss and Perry, 1992; Coie and Dodge, 1998; Parke and Slaby, 1983).

1.1.2 FACTORS AFFECTING AGGRESSION

The researches told many factors which are responsible for the production of aggression. These factors mainly classified in three categories.

» Social Factors
» Personal Factors
» Environmental Factors

(A) SOCIAL FACTORS

There are some conditions or situations in the social environment that accounts for the aggression. Some of the social factors are briefly discussed below:

i) Frustration: Frustration is major cause for the aggression. When one person may have done something that blocked or
thwarted the other from reaching his goals in other words, first person frustrated the other. According to Frustration-Aggression hypothesis, the chief cause of aggression is frustration but it not necessarily always frustration may cause aggression. This Frustration-Aggression hypothesis gives two points. (a) Frustration always turned into aggression and (b) Aggression always born from frustration. But we know that sometimes when frustration not causes aggression but cause different reactions like tension, despair etc. Sometimes, aggression causes due to will of getting reward but not by frustration. Professional boxers and wrestlers attack on their competitioner. An air force pilot which attack during the war not by frustration but by his will which is a part of his profession.

ii) Direct Provocation: It sometime provoke by physical or verbally a person by another. At the time we generally become aggressive, especially when we know that the second person try to harm him. But by various experiments it can be saw that aggression in this case depends upon the strength of stimuli. When the stimulus of direct provocation is of low intensity we react less aggressively but at the same time if the intensity of the stimulus is quite high-we react in highly aggressive way.

iii) Exposure to Violence in Media: The different source of media like television, cinema, movies etc. has been found to increase the aggression on the part of viewers. Apparently, by the research of Huesmann (1986) it can be said that when viewers witness scenes in which character assault one another, they can acquire new and often ingenious way of assaulting others. They may experience reductions in their own restraints against such behaviour. But the most worse effect of media violence is that it causes a type of desensitization in the individual to the harm produced by violence. Scenes in which
others are harmed no longer have an emotional impact on them. So such findings are frightening for any society in which large numbers of people are regularly exposed to scenes of violence in films and on television.

**iv) Increase in Excitement:** The excitement introduces within from different sources like playing different competitive games, different exercise and some types of music increase the aggressiveness. This can be interpret by EXCITEMENT TRANSFORMATION PRINCIPLE according to which our body has the ability to solely ended the excitement, but due to this reason when one person enters from one situation to other with some degree of excitement left within them, it transform in second situation in the form aggression when one got some unfair stimulus.

**(B) PERSONAL FACTORS**

Some type of people has aggression within their character and in some cases it is almost absent. But different characteristics of people which cause the aggressive behaviour are:

**i) People of Psychic Nature:** People with some qualities like (a) to much competitor (b) always in haste and are called people of psychic nature which often indulge themselves in aggressive acts. Some recent findings suggest that sex hormones, especially the male sex hormone testosterone, may play a great role in aggression. Due to this reason males are more aggressive than female because the level of testosterone is more in males than females. Researches also supported that the people in whom the level of testosterone is more are more aggressive.

**ii) Sex:** Sex may also affect the aggression. But in this case it is too difficult to say. But generally we say that males are more aggressive than females. But there are some gender differences
which include in aggressiveness. These gender differences are of two types. The first gender difference which present in aggression is that aggression is present even when there is no such stimulus present in the situation. In this case males are more aggressive than females. But in the situations when stimulus is there women become as aggressive like men. The second gender difference in aggression is its size and direction. According to various researches males are direct aggressive than females like physical attacks, to hit someone etc. but females involve in indirect aggression.

(C) ENVIRONMENTAL FACTORS

Conditions in physical environment that cause individuals to experience discomfort like uncomfortably high temperatures, disagreeable crowding, unpleasant or irritating noise etc. The negative feelings produced by such conditions can increase aggression. Firstly, they may trigger aggression directly. When we feel bad whatever the cause, we tend to lash out against others. Alternatively, such unpleasant feeling may trigger negative thoughts and memories or may lead us to attribute others’ actions to hostile intentions even when this is not the case. Whatever the precise mechanism involves, research findings do offer strong support for the view that environmental conditions that we find uncomfortable can sometimes increase our tendencies to aggress—something to keep firmly in mind the next time you are caught in traffic on a sweltering day and feel your temper beginning to tray around the edges.

i) High Temperature and Aggression: There is the commonness between temperature and aggression by different researches as Baron, 1977 & Baron and Richardson, 1994 suggested that temperature increase the aggression but to a certain limit. Research on this by James et al. (2005) interpreted that temperature increase aggression but at the
certain limit when temperature raises the aggression level decreases.

ii) Alcohol and Aggression: Like temperature there was also found very strange relation between alcohol consuming and aggression. Researches by Caprara et al. (1983) interpreted that alcohol consumption increase aggression in the sense that, the people who are generally less aggressive become more aggressive after consumption of alcohol and inversely people who are more aggressive become less aggressive after high consumption of alcohol.

1.1.3 THEORIES OF AGGRESSION

Aggression has been viewed from different perspectives. Some view it as “Hostile”, a destructive force resulting in violence and others as “Instrumental”, a constructive energy which helps in achieving new heights. This raises the big question- Is aggression a positive trait or a negative trait? How can we utilize this abundant energy as a motivating force in our lives? To get an answer to all these and more we need to understand basic concepts and theories behind aggression to get an understanding of how human mind sees aggression, how it develops, and what triggers aggression and maintains it. Major theories given under this domain are:

1. **Psychoanalytical theory:** This school assumes that aggressive energy is constantly generated by our bodily responses. Freud believed that man is born with two basic instincts “EROS” the life instincts and “THANTOS” the death instincts. Neo Freidians (Storr, 1968 and Lorenz, 1966) deny the reality of death instincts and urge for existence of distinct aggressive drive. According to them the aggressive people are healthy and they are adapted to realities of environment of human beings.
2. **Instinct theory of Aggression by Lorenz (1966)** According to Lorenz, aggression springs from instincts that man shares with non human species. This was developed during evolution as instincts serving territoriality, food etc. This explains the presence of drive force in humans to achieve something and this motive can be directed constructively with the help of education.

3. **Frustration-Aggression Theory:** Dollard et al. (1939) suggested that Frustration lead to aggression (Relative-Deprivation Model). Berkowitz (1993) considered that anger refers to an emotional state presumably resulting from frustration, which congruent with suitable cue instigates aggressive responses. He showed that anger does not always lead to aggression, but requires the presence of appropriate cues (Berkowitz, 1989) whereas, Buss (1971) and Scott (1958) demonstrated aggression in absence of anger. The revised frustration aggression hypothesis sets frustration as an externally elicited drive. Frustration creates readiness to respond in an aggressive manner. This theory suggests that certain cues in our environment have become strongly associated with aggression and aggressive behavior i.e. they have aggressive cue value. Wisconsin studies reveal that witnessing and aggressive oriented movie lower’s once inhibition against behaving aggressively. Thus certain stimuli have greater cueing value in triggering frustration (Primary accessibility).

4. **General Arousal and Excitation Transfer Theory by Zilmann:** This emphasizes the role of arousal generated by events contributing to aggression. Research also establishes link between sexual and aggressive drive (Montagu, 1976). Researches show that being exposed to sexually arousing pictures can make people more aggressive or can actually reduce aggressive tendencies (Moyer, 1976).
5. **Social Learning Theory:** Bandura (1971) suggested that aggression is acquired through watching others. Learner acquires new form of behavior (observational learning effect) through modelling. Modelling can inhibit or encourage behavior. Bandura (1973) concluded that certain parents by behaving aggressively provide models for children. Baron (1977) has suggested that exposing children to violent movies leads to aggression. The social learning theory emphasizes the importance of observing and modeling the behaviors, attitudes, and emotional reactions of others. Thus it focuses on learning by observation and modeling. The theory originally evolved from behaviorism but now includes many of the ideas that cognitivists also hold; as a result it is sometimes called social cognitive learning. Social learning theory talks about how both environmental and cognitive factors interact to influence human learning and behavior. It focuses on the learning that occurs within a social context. It considers that people learn from one another, including such concepts as observational learning, imitation, and modeling.

6. **Script Theory:** Huesman (1998) proposed that when children observe violence in mass media, they learn aggressive scripts. Once the script has been learned it may be retrieved at some later time; thus these are sets of particularly well rehearsed highly associated concepts in memory (Singer and Singer, 1981). These script rehearsals can change an individual’s social behavior and attitudes (Anderson and Bushman, 2001).

7. **Social Interaction Theory:** This theory interprets aggressive behavior as social influence behavior. This social interaction theory thus provides an explanation of aggressive acts motivated by higher level goals and provides an excellent way to understand recent findings that aggression is often result of threats to self-esteem. It also forms basis to instrumental
aggression i.e. goal oriented aggression (Bandura and Walters, 1963)

8. **Cognitive Theories:** Huesmann (1998) gave a Cognitive Script Model for Aggression. He interpreted ambiguous event as an act of aggression. Dill & Anderson (1995) gave a “Hostile Attribution Model” for Aggression and later on developed classification of reactive and proactive aggression - reactive similar to hostile and proactive similar to instrumental aggression.

9. **Cognitive Neo-Associationist Theory:** Berkowitz (1989, and 1993) proposed that aversive events such as frustration, provocation etc. can produce negative effects. This theory also includes high order cognitive processes such as appraisal and attribution; thus it only subsumes earlier frustration-aggression hypothesis but also provides a causal mechanism for explaining why aversive events increase aggressive inclinations.

10. **General Aggression Model:** The General Aggression Model (GAM) provides an integrative framework for the study of aggression. It incorporates social-cognitive and developmental theories and has an overall view of aggression that includes situational, individual and biological variables (Anderson & Bushman, 2001). The GAM proposes that when certain proximate causes or inputs are experienced (individual traits, values and beliefs; biological factors; environmental/ situational cues), outcome (action/behavior) is affected by the way of interactive routes (current affective state, cognitions, appraisal, and evaluation/judgment). The final outcome is then recycled as a part of the social interaction and becomes a part of one’s life experience and, therefore, the input relative to the next encounter.
Thus after getting acquainted with various theories and risk factors for aggressive tendencies we can say that there is not always a single factor responsible for aggression and therefore, we should be open to various possibilities. On the basis of various theories on aggression, we can put all of them under the two main categories i.e. instinctual (inherited) and environmental. Instinctual can include genetic inheritance, biophysiological constitution, chemioneurological state etc. and personality. Environmental category includes culture, home, peer, school, socioeconomic status, television, violent videogames, media etc.

1.1.4 WHERE DOES AGGRESSION COME FROM?

Do human just have fighting instinct? Is aggression the outcome of frustration? Most recent studies have demonstrated that the etiological factors in aggression come from a variety of domains including biology, individual behaviour, school, peers, the family, neighbourhood as well as the culture. There are several viewpoints about the nature and causes of aggression. In general we can identify some important approaches in understanding the causes of aggression, which could be listed as under:

1.1.4 (a) Aggression-As-Instinct

One influential idea about human aggression is that it is part of “the nature of the beast” (Freud, 1953; Lorenz, 1966). A prominent psychologist associated with the aggression-as-instinct school is Sigmund Freud. He considered aggression to be a consequence of a more primary instinct he called...... Thanatos, an innate drive toward disintegration that Freud believed was directed against the self. He speculated that human aggression springs from our redirecting toward others the energy of a primitive death urge. After experiencing the horrors of World War I, Freud found that beside Eros, there also exist within man an opposite, destructive drive, which he labeled Thanatos after the Greek God of Death. According to him, humans
have indeed an innate drive towards destruction and therefore, warfare cannot be avoided.

Lorenz (1966) defines aggression as “the fighting instinct in beast and man which is directed against members of the same species”. He also suggested the existence of an innate, aggressive drive in his book ‘On Aggression’ (1966). It is obvious from Lorenz’s presentation that he thought this drive to function in accordance with the reservoir model. Action specific energy accumulates in a reservoir until released by the appropriate external stimulus, represented by weights on a scale pan, or until the pressure on the valve causes an action pattern to occur spontaneously (vacuum activity). The consummatory response or fixed action pattern(s) released vary depending upon how much action specific energy is released from the valve. It means aggression is inevitable. Montagu (1976) describes it as a “hydraulic model”. Perhaps the strength of Lorenz model is that it highlighted the importance of internal state and external stimuli in aggression. Proponents of the instinct theory believe that aggression or the threat of aggression is instinctually used by almost all species as a means of determining the dominant member of a group and protecting one group’s territory against other same-species group. However, while there is some indication that aggression may be an instinct, opponent have developed arguments against the instinct theory.

Also arguing against an instinct theory is the fact that aggressive behaviour can be modified by environmental forces. The use of aggression by people varies so widely that the instinct theory does not explain the broad range. Some people aggress with weapons, and others use words. A strict instinct theory of aggression that does not make room for the role of learning cannot explain or predict these wide variations in aggressive behaviour (Worchel et al., 1988). It is too vague to explain the variances in means by which man aggresses and situations under which he will aggress. In order to obtain a greater
understanding of aggressive behaviour we must look elsewhere-to theories that can make more specific predictions about aggression but the views of Freud, Lorenz and Montagu cannot be ignored too simplistically.

1.1.4 (b) Biological Influences on Aggression

All behaviour has a biological basis; aggressive behaviour is no exception. For aggression at the human level, there is much that is known about the implication of genes and hormones, like androgen or testosterone. Biological factors, including (but not only) genetic one’s, surely predispose individuals to react in certain ways to particular experiences they might have in their lifetimes. Research with humans has shown that aggressiveness may also have a gene-related base. The normal sex genetic determinant for a male contains an X and Y chromosomes. Some males- “Super males,” as they have been labeled-have XYY (an extra Y component) sex chromosomes. These super males tend to be physically taller and more prone to violence than the average male. Infact, Court-Brown (1967) found that such individuals are likely to be found in prisons serving time for aggressive and antisocial crimes. Several studies show that individuals arrested for violent crimes are considerably more likely than those not arrested for such crimes to have suffered mild neurological damage during the prenatal period (Baker and Mednick, 1984).

Serotonin is a neuro chemical that also plays an important role in aggression. Low levels of serotonin have been found to be associated with impulsive behaviour and emotional aggression. Needless to say, there is a great deal of evidence that shows serotonin is related to aggression, which can be further associated with antisocial or criminal behaviour. Dopamine is a neurotransmitter in the brain that is associated with pleasure and is also one of the neuro transmitters that is chiefly associated with aggression. Exposure to elevated androgen concentrations in the womb has been linked to increased aggressiveness in adulthood in both lab mice (Ryan and
Aggressiveness is also influenced by the male sex hormone, testosterone. Testosterone is an androgen. One kind of biological explanation in aggression is that the hormone androgen (testosterone) may be implicated in producing more aggression. Although aggression and violence have been increasingly viewed as a major public health problem with a biological and health basis, it has been under researched in the nursing and health context. A paper by Liu and Wuerker (2005) reviews early biological risk factors for violence. These factors include pregnancy/birth complications, fetal exposure to nicotine, alcohol and drugs, low cholesterol, malnutrition, lead and manganese exposure, head injuries and brain dysfunction, low serotonin, low cortisol and high testosterone. The study of genetics is important to show its effects on behavioural differences and to estimate the extent of variance due to it. A specific trait as a response to an individual questionnaire item may have a genetic component, but it would be tough to construct a separate biological justification for each item. It seems to be very difficult to obtain the exact measurement of biological contribution in relation to aggression or any other behavioural disposition. Moreover, genetic factors not only play a significant part in creating individual differences, but the normal variation in the environmental stimuli appears to play an equal or may be a more important role in it i.e. two individuals with the same high genetic liability have a higher chance of endorsing symptoms of any personality trait, but it is the environment that determine whether they express the symptoms of that personality trait or not. Therefore, the above findings, plus other evidences point to the conclusion that biological factors may indeed play a role in aggressive behaviour, but it is definitely not the destiny.
1.1.4 (c) **Frustration - Aggression Hypothesis**

The second cause about the origin of aggression is present in the work, ‘frustration and aggression’ by Dollard et al. (1939). The central supposition is that aggression is a predictable reaction to defined stimuli, the defined stimuli being frustration. In their classic treatise on the subject, Dollard and his colleagues make the bold two-part assertion at the outset, that, “the occurrence of aggressive behaviour always presupposes the existence of frustration and that the existence of frustration always leads to some form of aggression” (Dollard et al., 1939). Frustration can be situationally relevant or a previous one (e.g. stemming from the childhood). In the latter case, one could speak of bottled-up frustrations, leading to an aggressive personality, a tendency to behave aggressively in a variety of situations. Knowing that the original theory overstated the frustration-aggression connection, Leonard Berkowitz revised it. He proposes that “every frustration increases the instigation to aggression, but this instigation is here termed anger” (Berkowitz, 1989) and that anger will only lead to aggression when there are appropriate cues or releasers.

In an article by Bjorkqvist et al. (1992) a second, rather diluted, revision of the frustration-aggression hypothesis was presented which included multiple causes of aggression, and multiple effects of frustration. In sum, though it appears that frustration can be one of the potential causes of aggression, it is definitely not the only factor leading to such behaviour and all the same its importance cannot be undermined.

1.1.4 (d) **Social Learning System**

The third main cause of the origin of aggressive behaviour presumes that it is learned through social reward system (Bandura, 1973; Baron, 1977). Learning theorists totally debunk the aggression-as-instinct school and largely undermine the frustration-aggressions hypothesis. Reviewing the work of Margaret Mead and several other
anthropologists, Fromm (1973) concludes that only six of thirty primitive societies were “destructive”, i.e., “characterized by much interpersonal violence, destructiveness, aggression and cruelty.” He categorizes the majority as “life-affirmative (societies in which “there is a minimum of hostility, violence or cruelty among people, no harsh treatment, hardly any crime, and the institution of war is absent or plays an exceedingly small role”) or “non-destructive aggressive societies” (Fromm, 1973). If aggression is instinctual, it must be universal, and if it is universal, every society would have aggressive indicators which were not found in many of these societies. Furthermore, it is hard to conceive that frustrating events would be absent from entire societies as to result in such low levels of aggression. There must be another explanation. The main proponent of social learning theory has been Albert Bandura. This theory focuses mainly on the issue of how aggression is learned, and especially on observational learning. The learning of aggression occurs by conditioning. The conditioning may be direct or vicarious; it is direct when the individual learns that aggression pays, by a kind of trial-and-error strategy, or through instrumental conditioning. Instrumental conditioning of aggression occurs when people are reinforced for their aggressive behaviour. Thus, if aggression is reinforced, it may become a habitual response in many situations. Conditioning is vicarious when learning occurs by watching models attaining their goals through aggressive means. For learning of aggression from models at a minimum, the following four factors are important (Bjorkqvist and Osterman, 1992).

a) The degree of similarity between the model situation and the actual situation.

b) The degree of identification between actor and model.

c) The success or failure of model (vicarious conditioning ), and

d) The amount of exposure to the model situation.
According to this system, social influences like role models, reinforcement and situational factors, contribute to learning and expressing aggressive behaviour. Albert Bandura was of the view that aggression is learned by personally experiencing and observing it, for example, children learn aggressive behaviour from their parents, peers, movies, television, book etc. Studies have shown that watching violence in the movies and on television can cause aggression in children and adolescents. Modeling of violence/aggression increases when children see that this type of behaviour is rewarded. If they see that aggressive behaviour is punished, they are not likely to imitate it. Therefore, this school of thought insists that aggression is socially learned behaviour rather than an automatic response to aggression or any other stimulus. And aggressive behaviour can be learned through various sources like family, school, peers, neighbours, culture, through television or violent videogames etc., but on the other hand, the biological truth remains which is main cause of predisposition and the degree and extent as well.

1.1.4 (e) Exposure to Media Violence and Violent Video Games

There is now solid evidence to suggest a relationship between aggressive behaviour and exposure to violent television and movies. It is found after watching T.V.; children try to imitate many of the aggressive behaviours that are characteristics of the programme. “There is absolutely no doubt that higher levels of viewing violence on television are corrected with increased acceptance of aggressive attitudes and increased aggressive behaviours” (American Psychological Association Commission on Violence and Youth, 1993).

Does aggressive media content really stimulate viewer’s aggression? Researchers have conducted four types of studies to answer this question (Smith and Mackie, 1995).

(i) Non-experimental Studies measure both television-viewing habits and aggression in a single group of people. After asking 141 parents how much television their Kindergarten-age children watched,
researchers visited the classrooms to observe the children’s aggressive behaviour at play (Singer and Singer, 1981). It was found that children who viewed the most TV violence also behaved most aggressively.

(ii) **Experiments** randomly assign subjects to watch different amounts or kinds of television. A classic field experiment randomly assigned incarcerated delinquent boys at three sites in the United States and Belgium for a week (Parke et al., 1977). The young men’s aggressive behaviour was observed both before and after the “film week”. In all three locations, boys who saw aggressive films committed more physical attacks than those who viewed neutral films.

(iii) **Longitudinal Studies** assess people’s television viewing and aggressiveness over a long period of time to attempt to determine which variables causes the other. One ambitious study, which followed a group of subjects for twenty-two years, found that the more TV violence they had watched at age 8, the more likely they were to have been convicted for violent crimes by age 30 (Huesmann, 1986). These findings were confirmed in a three-year multination study in the United States, Finland, Israel, and Poland (Huesmann and Eron, 1986).

(iv) **Archival Data** analysis has been used to support and confirm the consistent conclusions of the other three types of studies. The findings of Phillip (1983) were striking: in the days following the broadcast of eighteen different heavyweight boxing matches that were nationally televised in the United States, homicide death rose, with a peak occurring on the third day after the fight. It was also found that murders of white males increased in the days after a white heavy weight fighter was defeated and vice versa. Besides these, there are some latest studies which confirm the conclusion that media content increases viewer’s aggressive behaviour. Zillman & Weaver (1999) reported that prolonged exposure to gratuitously violent films is capable of escalating hostile behaviour in provoked men and women.
and perhaps more importantly, of instigating such behaviour in unprovoked men and women. This study was conducted on 4 consecutive day’s; respondents were exposed to gratuitously violent or non-violent intact feature films. They rated the entertained value of these films. One day after exposure to the last film of the series, respondents participated in ostensibly unrelated research on emotion recognition. As they performed, attest they were neutrally or abusively treated by a research assistant. Thereafter, they were put in a position to harm this assistant. Both provocation and exposure to violent films were found to foster markedly increased hostile behaviour.

A meta-analytic review of the video game research literature reveals that violent video games increase aggressive behaviour in children and young adults. Experimental and non-experimental studies with males and females in laboratory and field settings support this conclusion. Analysis also reveals that exposure to violent video games increases physiological arousal and aggression-related thoughts and feelings. Playing violent video games also decreases prosocial behaviour (Anderson and Bushmann, 2001). Besides Television, violent video games have similar and possibly larger effect on aggression. Violent video games provide a forum for learning and practicing aggressive solutions to conflict situations. Longer-term effects are likely to longer lasting as well, as the player learns and practices new aggression-related scripts that become more and more accessible for use when real life conflict situation arise.

On the basis of the above studies it can be concluded that exposure to media violence is one of the important cause contributing to higher levels of violence and aggression.

1.1.4 (f) Neighbourhood, School and Peers in Relation to Aggression

Environmental factors such as school, peers and neighbourhood disorganization seems to be important in the etiology of adolescent
problem behaviour like aggression, if a young person perceives that aggression and other problem behaviours are normative and adaptive in terms of survival in their neighbourhood, this may provide an incentive to increase risk-taking, anger, expression, and other externalizing behaviours in order to gain acceptance by others in the community that values these behaviours (Kenneth et al., 1999). Higher rates of delinquency occur in neighbourhoods characterized by economic deprivation, residential mobility, and a general lack of social control mechanisms. Neighbourhood conditions have been found to be more salient to the behaviours of adolescent males than females (Ensminger et al., 1996). Youth living in neighbourhoods perceived as socially cohesive, safe, and in good physical condition report fewer problem behaviours than do other youth (Aneshensal and Sucoff, 1996; Mason et al., 1994; Seidman et al., 1998). Children and adolescent surrounded by high risk behaviours, including substance abuse, domestic violence and criminal activity, may learn risk-taking and aggression through the modeling of these behaviours and the lack of models that use nonviolent conflict resolution strategies. The start of school is a milestone in children’s continuing social and intellectual development. Other children become more important in their lives, though still not as important as family members. They begin to empathize with others and sharpen their sense of right and wrong. As they progress through elementary school, children gain valuable reasoning and problem-solving skills as well as social skills.

The school environment and peer associations are generally identified as the most important factors to consider in the development and prevention of adolescent aggressive behaviour. The school climate and the teacher’s ability to promote full development through positive social reinforcement play a significant role in delimiting a youth’s commitment to school and prosocial behaviour within the school environment (Fraser, 1996). The school environment also influences the nature of the relationships an individual will
establish with his/her peers. The school environment also constitutes a significant target as early school-based intervention strategies could promote prosocial peer association, and better school achievement and involvement. The peer group is another important social influence factor that is related to delinquent behaviour in adolescents (Paetsch and Bertsand, 1997; Snyder et al., 1986). Through social learning processes, association with a deviant peer group is likely to foster altitudes and beliefs that promote aggressive behaviours, as well as provide opportunities to learn and practice these new behaviours (Akers et al., 1979).

Studies have shown that high levels of involvement with delinquent peers can lead aggressive boys to higher levels of serious delinquency during adolescence (O'Donnell et al., 1995), especially for those boys who were only moderately aggressive to begin with (Vitaro et al., 1997). In some cases, adolescents may increase levels of aggressive behaviours in order to gain approval and acceptance among peers (e.g. starting fights over what appear to be trivial issues). Thus, adolescents within delinquent peer groups may observe more impulsive behaviour and angry outburst, perceive that these behaviour are highly valued, and develop altitudes favourable towards anger expression, risk taking and aggression. Previous research has found that it is youth’s positive opinion about delinquent peers (rather than their behaviour) that is associated with aggressiveness (DiLalla et al., 1988).

As children anger, they tend to take their lead from peers. Peers, however, can reinforce an aggressor’s actions. If peers also show aggression or do not correct aggressive acts, the aggressive behaviour is encouraged. Many aggressive children have a network of aggressive friends. Initially young children do not socialize extensively with other children and are not strongly influenced by peers. Peers become more important as children progress through elementary school, although school-age children still look primarily to parents for cues on how to
behave. Nonetheless, weak social ties to conventional peers and associating with antisocial peers both exert some effects in childhood. Children with weak social ties are those who attend few social activities and have low popularity with conventional peers. School-age children often reject physically aggressive children because of their inappropriate behaviour (Reiss and Roth, 1993). The combination of rejection and aggressiveness exacerbates behaviour problems, making it more difficult for aggressive children to form positive relationship with other children. Indeed recent research indicates that children who are both aggressive and rejected show poorer adjustment in elementary school than children who are aggressive, rejected, or neither (Hann and Borek, 2002). Being drawn to antisocial peers may introduce or reinforce antisocial attitudes and behaviour in children, indeed, aggressive children tends to seek each other out. Thus, we can say that neighbourhood, school and peer group also plays a vital role in the development of aggression as they are the chief agents of socialization and therapy, their importance cannot be ignored.

1.1.4 (g) Culture and Aggression

Culture is a level for all the many different features that vary from society to society and that comprise the independent variables (Segall, 1984) that psychologists most use in their research on human behaviour. Therefore, the discipline of psychology must be cross-cultural. Anthropologists have learned that human behaviour-including aggression and altruism-varies tremendously from culture to culture. Some people are warlike and other is peaceable. Some are cooperative and others individualistic (Fiske, 1991). However, in many Asian cultures, like those of Japan or China, people prefer to withdraw or conform to the other’s wishes in order to avoid conflict (Triandis et al., 1988). Of course, all norms do not foster aggression. Most societies try to maintain and teach some norms that limit and inhibit violence. Japanese social norms also dictate that it is often better to yield than fight, as reflected in the expression Makeru ga
Kachi- “to lose is to win” (Alcock et al., 2005). Norms that promote aggression sometimes infect entire societies. Several prevalent norms in mainstream U.S. culture promote aggression (Smith and Mackie, 1995). Many cross-cultural studies have emphasized on cultural differences in aggression. Aggression is seated within a culture: it is learned in the same way a language is learned. Aggressive behaviour is also a product of cultural influences, acting largely through culturally-mediated childhood experiences while biology is surely implicated; it is dangerously incorrect to conclude that aggression is simply instinctive.

From the above studies, it seems that cultural differences play an influential role in aggression. It appears that “ground rules” for aggression are set up by a particular culture early in life and once established, these rules strongly influence such behaviour throughout the rest of adult life. Studies described above make it clear that we cannot understand human aggression without viewing it from a cross cultural perspective. But relying solely on the cultural factors will be an injustice with a study on human behaviour and a study of human behaviour that ignore factors other than the culture does so at a great risk.

1.1.5 OTHER IMPORTANT ASPECTS RELATED WITH AGGRESSION

In psychology, as well as other social and behavioral sciences, aggression refers to behavior between members of the same species that is intended to cause pain or harm. Predatory or defensive behavior between members of different species is not normally considered "aggression." Aggression takes a variety of forms among humans and can be physical, mental, or verbal. Aggression should not be confused with assertiveness, although the terms are often used interchangeably among laypeople, e.g. an aggressive salesperson.
1.1.5 (a) VARIETIES

There are two broad categories of aggression. These include hostile, affective or retaliatory aggression and instrumental, predatory or goal-oriented aggression. Empirical research indicates that there is a critical difference between the two, both psychologically and physiologically. Some research indicates that people with tendencies toward "affective" aggression, defined as being "impulsive, unplanned, overt, or uncontrolled" and have lower IQs than those with tendencies toward "predatory" aggression, defined here as being "goal-oriented, planned, hidden, or controlled". In moral theories, such as argumentation ethics and the non-aggression principle, physical aggression is distinguished from violence. Aggression is considered the initiation of violence. Often, retaliatory violence and defensive violence is not considered aggression, because it is a responsive action.

1.1.5 (b) EVOLUTION

Like most behaviours, aggression can be examined in terms of its ability to help an animal to reproduce and survive. Animals may use aggression to gain and secure territories, as well as other resources including food, water, and mating opportunities. Researchers have theorized that aggression and the capacity for murder are products of our evolutionary past.

(a) Aggression against outsiders: The most apparent type of aggression is that seen in the interaction between a predator and its prey. An animal defending itself against a predator becomes aggressive in order to survive and to ensure the survival of its offspring. Because aggression against a much larger enemy or group of enemies would lead to the death of an animal, animals have developed a good sense of when they are outnumbered. This ability to gauge the strength of other animals gives animals a "fight or flight" response to predators; depending on how strong they gauge the predator to be, animals will either become aggressive or flee. The need
to survive and the viability of cooperative behavior as a survival strategy leads to a phenomenon known as altruism. An example of an altruistic act is the alarm call that is given when a predator is approaching. While this call will inform the community of a predator’s presence, it will also inform the predator of the whereabouts of the animal that gave the alarm call. While this would appear to give the alarm caller an evolutionary disadvantage, it would facilitate the continuation of this animal’s genes because its relatives and progeny would be more able to avoid predators. According to many researchers, predation is not aggression. Cats do not hiss or arch their backs when in pursuit of a rat, and the active areas in their hypothalamuses are more similar to those that reflect hunger than those that reflect aggression.

(b) Aggression within a species: Aggression against conspecifics serves a number of purposes having to do with breeding. One of the most common of these purposes is the establishment of a dominance hierarchy. When certain types of animals are first placed in a common environment, the first thing they do is fight to assert their role in the dominance hierarchy. In general, the more dominant animals will be more aggressive than their subordinates. The majority of conspecific aggression ceases about 24 hours after the introduction of the animals being tested. There are many different theories that try to explain how males and females developed these different aggressive tendencies. One theory states that in species where one sex makes a higher parental investment than the other, the higher investing sex is a resource for which the other sex competes. In the majority of species, females are the higher investing sex. It also holds that reproductive success is cardinal to the perpetuation of an organism’s lineage and hereditary characteristics. For males, it is of crucial importance to establish dominance and resource holding to obtain reproductive opportunities in order to pass on their genetics. Unlike females, whose reproductive success is constrained by long gestation
and lactation periods, male reproductive success is constrained by the number of partners they can mate with. As a result, males employ physical aggression more often than females; they take more risks in order to compete with other males and gain an elevation of status. Males even go as far as killing one another, although this is rare. Males demonstrate less concern for their physical welfare in such competitions. In contrast, females compete with one another for resources, which can be converted to offspring. The establishment of dominance is more costly for females than for males and females have less to gain from achieving status. The female presence is more critical to the offspring's survival and hence her reproductive success than is the father's. It is only logical then that the health and wellbeing of females would cause them to use less aggressive, low-risk and indirect strategies to acquire resources. As a result, in the majority of female–female conflicts, females rarely inflict serious damage to one another over resources. When translated to human, these facts suggest that women should be expected to show less evidence of dominance hierarchies than men do. In society, aggression in boys becomes increasingly motivated by issues of social status and self-esteem, which are usually decided by varying degrees of aggressive reactivity to personal challenge. Aggression in girls, focusing mainly on resource acquisition and not status, is more likely to take less physically dangerous and more covert forms of indirect aggression. There are, however, extensive critiques of the use of animal behavior to explain human behavior and the application of evolutionary explanations of contemporary human behavior.

1.1.5 (c) IN HUMANS

Although humans share aspects of aggression with non-human animals, they differ from most of them in the complexity of their aggression because of factors such as culture, morals and social situations. A wide variety of studies have been done on these situations. Aggression in humans can be assessed by using
aggression scales such as the MOAS (Modified Overt Aggression Scale).

(a) Culture: Culture is a distinctly human factor that plays a role in aggression. Human behaviour including aggression and altruism varies tremendously from culture to culture. Changes in dominant behavior or in social status causes changes in testosterone levels. Reports of changes in testosterone of young men during athletic events, which involve face-to-face competition with a winner and a loser, reveal that testosterone rises shortly before their matches, as if in anticipation of the competition. Also, one to two hours after the competitive match, the testosterone levels of the winners are high relative to those levels of the losers. It is also important to take into account the type of conflict that is occurring when assessing aggression. Is the conflict between groups, within a group, within a family? The sex of those involved in the conflict is also critical. Male–male, male–female and female–female encounters should all be clearly distinguished from one another. Same sex encounters are more frequent than inter-sex encounters and this could affect the level of aggression present. A person's beliefs about the social acceptability of an aggressive act (termed "normative beliefs") are major predictors of their behavior. Today, some polls indicate that 63% of Jewish Israelis consider their country's Arab citizens a "security and demographic threat to the state." Roughly 18% said they felt hatred when they heard someone speaking Arabic, and 34% agreed with the statement that "Arab culture is inferior to Israeli culture." Various social scientists and political leaders suggest that increasing interpersonal aggression against Palestinians as well as Arabs in Israel is due to increasing tolerance for public racism against Arabs. Normative beliefs may partially explain cultural differences in aggression towards certain groups. As these beliefs are readily changeable through intervention, targeting normative beliefs may be a way to decrease aggression in certain individuals.
(b) **Media:** Behaviors like aggression can be learned by watching and imitating the behavior of others. A considerable amount of evidence suggests that watching violence on television increases the likelihood of short-term aggression in children (Anderson & Bushman, 2001). Individuals may differ in how they respond to violence. The greatest impact is on those who are already prone to violent behavior. Adults may be influenced by violence in media as well. A long-term study of over 700 families found "a significant association" between the amount of time spent watching violent television as a teenager and the likelihood of committing acts of aggression later in life. The results remained the same in spite of factors such as family income, parental education and neighborhood violence. Although exposure to violence in media is associated with likelihood of short-term increases in aggression, none of these studies provide evidence for a definitive causal mechanism. Instead, violence in media may be one of many factors, or it may play a maintenance role since violent media tend to be selected by people who are prone to violence.

(c) **Situational Factors:** Alcohol impairs judgment, making people much less cautious than they usually are. It also disrupts the way information is processed (Buss, 1966). A drunken person is much more likely to view an accidental event as a purposeful one, and therefore act more aggressively. Pain and discomfort also increase aggression. Even the simple act of placing one's hands in warm water can cause an aggressive response. Hot temperatures have been implicated as a factor in a number of studies. One study completed in the midst of the civil rights movement found that riots were more likely on hotter days than cooler ones. Students were found to be more aggressive and irritable after taking a test in a hot classroom.

Frustration is another major cause of aggression. The Frustration aggression theory states that aggression increases if a person feels that he or she is being blocked from achieving a goal (Dollard et al., 1939). One study found that the closeness to the goal
makes a difference. The study examined people waiting in line and concluded that the 2nd person was more aggressive than the 12th one when someone cut in line (Harris, 1992). Unexpected frustration may be another factor. In a separate study, a group of students were collecting donations over the phone. Some of them were told that the people they would call would be generous and the collection would be very successful. The other group was given no expectations. The group with high expectations was much more upset and became more aggressive when no one was pledging. A new proposal links military experience to anger and aggression, thus creating serial killers. Castle and Hensley state, "The military provides the social context where servicemen learn aggression, violence, and murder." Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) is also a serious issue in the military, also believed to lead to aggression in soldiers who are suffering from what they witnessed in battle. They come back to the civilian world and are still haunted by flashbacks and nightmares, causing severe stress. This can be contributed to serial killing, as well; however, these studies are still being further investigated.

(d) Gender: Gender is a factor that plays a role in both human and animal aggression. Males are historically believed to be generally more physically aggressive than females (Coie & Dodge, 1998), and men commit the vast majority of murders (Buss, 1966). This is one of the most robust and reliable behavioral sex differences, and it has been found across many different age groups and cultures. There is evidence that males are quicker to aggression and more likely than females to express their aggression physically (Bjorkqvist et al., 1992). When considering indirect forms of non-violent aggression, such as relational aggression and social rejection, some scientists argue that females can be quite aggressive although female aggression is rarely expressed physically (Archer, 1991; Card et al., 2008).

Although females are less likely to initiate physical violence, they can express aggression by using a variety of non-physical means.
Exactly which method women use to express aggression is something that varies from culture to culture. On Bellona Island, a culture based on male dominance and physical violence, women tend to get into conflicts with other women more frequently than with men. When in conflict with males, instead of using physical means, they make up songs mocking the man, which spread across the island and humiliate him. If a woman wanted to kill a man, she would either convince her male relatives to kill him or hire an assassin. Although these two methods involve physical violence, both are forms of indirect aggression, since the aggressor herself avoids getting directly involved or putting herself in immediate physical danger.

\textbf{(e) In Children:} The frequency of physical aggression in humans peaks at around 2–3 years of age. It then declines gradually on average. These observations suggest that physical aggression is mostly not a learned behaviour and that development provides opportunities for the learning of self-regulation. However, a small subset of children fails to acquire the necessary self-regulatory abilities and tends to show a typical level of physical aggression across development. These may be at risk for later violent behavior.

What is typically expected of children?

- Young children preparing to enter kindergarten need to develop the socially important skill of being assertive. Examples of assertiveness include asking others for information, initiating conversation or being able to respond to peer pressure.

- In contrast, some young children use aggressive behavior, such as hitting or biting, as a form of communication.

- Aggressive behavior can impede learning as a skill deficit, while assertive behavior can facilitate learning. However, with young children, aggressive behaviour is developmentally appropriate and can lead to opportunities of building conflict resolution and communication skills.
By school age, children should learn more socially appropriate forms of communicating such as expressing themselves through verbal or written language; if they have not, this behaviour may signify a disability or developmental delay.

What triggers aggressive behavior in children?

- Physical fear of others
- Family difficulties
- Learning, neurological, or conduct/behavior disorders
- Psychological trauma
- Corporal punishment such as spanking increases subsequent aggression in children.

(f) In Female Youth: In 1994, 4882 females aged 12–17 were charged with a violent crime, while this number rose to 5652 in 1998. Similarly in the U.S., arrests of female youth for simple assault, aggravated assault, and offences included in the Violent Crime Index (homicide, forcible rape, robbery, aggravated assault) all increased from 1980 to 2000. The U.S. National Survey on Drug Use and Health found that 18.6% of females aged 12–17 got into a serious fight at school or work, 14.1% participated in a group-against-group fight, and 5.7% attacked another with the intent to seriously harm. These statistics have increased research interest on this issue and on how best to prevent and intervene on girls’ use of aggression and violence.

Aggressive and violent behaviour not only harms the victim but is also associated with negative outcomes and other risky behaviours for the aggressive individual. Adolescent females who are not enrolled in or attending school are more likely to engage in violent behavior than those who are in school. Moreover, there is an increase in violent behavior as school grades decrease, and violent adolescent females are also more likely to engage in binge drinking and illicit substance use than non-violent females. There are some suggestions that the causes and correlates of aggression in female youth are different from those
in males. Ellis (1987) found that violent female high school students were more likely to report poorer mental health than violent males. Violent females report engaging in self-harm, and unpopularity and depression may be more likely to be reported by aggressive female children than aggressive male children. Based on teacher reports, overtly aggressive females are perceived to be more maladjusted than overtly aggressive males. There is also evidence for differential gender effects of gender-neutral school-based violence prevention programmes. A universal violence prevention programme for seventh-graders resulted in stronger support of nonviolence and less acceptance of the use of violence in males but not in females. Similarly a program aimed at improving social competency reduced physical fighting in boys but not in girls. Aggressive and violent female youth is a growing issue and warrants attention. Despite this there is very few school-based violence prevention or intervention programmes for females specifically. Although there are numerous school-based unisex programmes for a variety of ages, only one school-based female-targeted social aggression prevention programme has been developed, and one group-counseling relational aggression intervention for female youth living in a residential home. Thus, there is a need for school-based female-specific violence prevention programmes aimed at improving self-confidence, self-efficacy and social skills. An effective programme should also incorporate gender-specific content such as discussions about what it means to be a girl, societal expectations of being a girl and the roles of girls are expected to play and how girls communicate and interact with each other.

1.1.5 (d) BIOLOGY

Aggression is directed to and often originates from outside stimuli, but has a very distinct internal character. Using various techniques and experiments, scientists have been able to explore the relationships between various parts of the body and aggression.
(a) In the Brain: Many researchers focus on the brain to explain aggression. The areas involved in aggression in mammals include the amygdala, hypothalamus, prefrontal cortex, cingulate cortex, hippocampus, septal nuclei and periaqueductal grey of the midbrain. Because of the difficulties in determining the intentions of animals, aggression is defined in neuroscience research as behavior directed at an object or animal which results in damage or harm to that object or animal. In many animals, aggression is encoded by pheromones. In mice, major urinary proteins (Mups) have been demonstrated to promote innate aggressive behavior in males. Mups were demonstrated to activate olfactory sensory neurons in the vomeronasal organ (VNO), a subsystem of the nose known to detect pheromones via specific sensory receptors, of mice and rats. The hypothalamus and periaqueductal gray of the midbrain are the most critical areas controlling aggression in mammals, as shown in studies on cats, rats and monkeys. These brain areas control the expression of all the behavioral and autonomic components of aggression in these species, including vocalization. They have direct connections with both the brainstem nuclei controlling these functions and areas such as the amygdala and prefrontal cortex. Electrical stimulation of the hypothalamus causes aggressive behaviour the hypothalamus expresses receptors that help to determine aggression levels based on their interactions with the neurotransmitters serotonin and vasopressin.

The amygdala is also critically involved in aggression. Stimulation of the amygdala results in augmented aggressive behavior in hamsters, while lesions of an evolutionarily homologous area in the lizard greatly reduce competitive drive and aggression. Several experiments in attack-primed Syrian Golden Hamsters support the claim of the amygdala being involved in control of aggression. Using expression of c-fos as a neuroanatomically localized marker of activity, the neural circuitry involved in the state of "attack readiness" in
attack-primed hamsters was studied. The results showed that certain structures of the amygdala were involved in aggressiveness: the medial nucleus and the cortical nuclei showed distinct differences in involvement as compared to other structures such as the lateral and basolateral nuclei and central nucleus of the amygdala, which were not associated with any substantial changes in aggressiveness. In addition, c-fos expression was found most clearly in the most dorsal and caudal aspects of the corticomedial amygdala (CMA). In the same study, it was also shown that lesions of the CMA significantly reduced the number of aggressive behaviours. Eight of eleven subjects failed to attack. Also a correlation between lesion site and attack latency was determined: the more anterior the lesion, the longer mean elapsed time to the aggressive behavior.

The prefrontal cortex (PFC) has been implicated in aggressive psychopathology. Reduced activity of the prefrontal cortex, in particular its medial and orbitofrontal portions, has been associated with violent/antisocial aggression. Specifically, regulation of the levels of the neurotransmitter serotonin in the PFC has been connected with a particular type of pathological aggression, induced by subjecting genetically predisposed, aggressive, wild-type mice to repeated winning experience; the male mice selected from aggressive lines had lower serotonin tissue levels in the PFC than the low-aggressive lines.

**(b) Testosterone:** Various neurotransmitters and hormones have been shown to correlate with aggressive behavior. The most often mentioned of these is the hormone testosterone. Scientists have for a long time been interested in the relationship between testosterone and aggressive behaviour. In most species, males are more aggressive than females. Castration of males usually has a pacifying effect on aggressive behavior. In humans, males engage in crime and especially violent crime more than females. The involvement in crime usually rises in the early teens to mid teens which happen at the same time as testosterone levels rise. Research on the relationship between
testosterone and aggression is difficult since the only reliable measurement of brain testosterone is by a lumbar puncture which is not done for research purposes. Studies therefore have often instead used more unreliable measurements from blood or saliva.

The Handbook of Crime Correlates, a review of crime studies, states most studies support a link between adult criminality and testosterone although the relationship is modest if examined separately for each sex. However, nearly all studies of juvenile delinquency and testosterone are not significant. Most studies have also found testosterone to be associated with behaviours or personality traits linked with criminality such as antisocial behaviour and alcoholism. Many studies have also been done on the relationship between more general aggressive behavior/feelings and testosterone. About half of the studies have found a relationship and about half no relationship. In one source, it was noted that concentration of testosterone most clearly correlated with aggressive responses involving provocation. In adulthood, it is clear that testosterone is not related to any consistent methods of measuring aggression on personality scales, but several studies of the concentration of blood testosterone of convicted male criminals who committed violent crimes compared to males without a criminal record or who committed non-aggressive crimes revealed in most cases that men who were judged aggressive/dominant had higher blood concentrations of testosterone than controls. However, a correlation between testosterone levels and aggression does not prove a causal role for testosterone. Studies of testosterone levels of male athletes before and after a competition revealed that testosterone levels rise shortly before their matches, as if in anticipation of the competition, and are dependent on the outcome of the event: testosterone levels of winners are high relative to those of losers. Interestingly, testosterone levels in female criminals versus females without a criminal record mirror those of males: testosterone levels are higher in women who commit aggressive crimes or are
deemed aggressive by their peers than non-aggressive females. However, no specific response of testosterone levels to competition was observed in female athletes, although a mood difference was noted. Testosterone has been shown to correlate with aggressive behavior in mice and in some humans, but some experiments have failed to find a relationship between testosterone levels and aggression in humans. The possible correlation between testosterone and aggression could explain the "roid rage" that can result from anabolic steroid use, although an effect of abnormally high levels of steroids does not prove an effect at physiological levels.

Another line of research has focused more on the effects of circulating testosterone on the nervous system mediated by local metabolism within the brain. Testosterone can be metabolized to 17β-estradiol by the enzyme aromatase or to 5α-dihydrotestosterone by 5α-reductase. Aromatase is highly expressed in regions involved in the regulation of aggressive behaviour, such as the amygdala and hypothalamus. In studies using genetic knock-out techniques in inbred mice, male mice that lacked a functional aromatase enzyme displayed a marked reduction in aggression. Long-term treatment of these mice with estradiol partially restored aggressive behaviour, suggesting that the neural conversion of circulating testosterone to estradiol and its effect on estrogen receptors affects inter-male aggression. Also, two different estrogen receptors, ERα and ERβ, have been identified as having the ability to exert different effects on aggression. In studies using estrogen receptor knockout mice, individuals lacking a functional ERα displayed markedly reduced inter-male aggression while male mice that lacked a functional ERβ exhibited normal or slightly elevated levels of aggressive behaviour. These results imply that ERα facilitates male–male aggression, whereas ERβ may inhibit aggression. However, different strains of mice show the opposite pattern in that aromatase activity is negatively correlated with aggressive behaviour. Also, in a different strain of mice
the behavioural effect of estradiol is dependent on daylength: under long days (16 h of light) estradiol reduces aggression, and under short days (8 h of light) estradiol rapidly increases aggression.

**c) Other Neurotransmitters and Hormones:** Glucocorticoids also play an important role in regulating aggressive behavior. In adult rats, acute injections of corticosterone promote aggressive behavior and acute reduction of corticosterone decreases aggression; however, a chronic reduction of corticosterone levels can produce abnormally aggressive behavior. In addition, glucocorticoids affect development of aggression and establishment of social hierarchies. Adult mice with low baseline levels of corticosterone are more likely to become dominant than are mice with high baseline corticosterone levels. Dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) is the most abundant circulating androgen and can be rapidly metabolized within target tissues into potent androgens and estrogens. Gonadal steroids generally regulate aggression during the breeding season, but non-gonadal steroids may regulate aggression during the non-breeding season. Castration of various species in the non-breeding season has no effect on territorial aggression. In several avian studies, circulating DHEA has been found to be elevated in birds during the non-breeding season. These data support the idea that non-breeding birds combine adrenal and/or gonadal DHEA synthesis with neural DHEA metabolism to maintain territorial behaviour when gonadal testosterone secretion is low. Similar results have been found in studies involving different strains of rats, mice, and hamsters. DHEA levels also have been studied in humans and may play a role in human aggression. Circulating DHEAS (its sulfated ester) levels rise during adrenarche (~7 years of age) while plasma testosterone levels are relatively low. This implies that aggression in pre-pubertal children with aggressive conduct disorder might be correlated with plasma DHEAS rather than plasma testosterone, suggesting an important link between DHEAS and human aggressive behavior.
Another chemical messenger with implications for aggression is the neurotransmitter serotonin. In various experiments, serotonin action was shown to be negatively correlated with aggression. This correlation with aggression helps to explain the aggression-reducing effects of selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors such as fluoxetine (Dilalla et al., 1988), aka prozac. While serotonin and testosterone have been the two most-researched chemical messengers with regards to aggression, other neurotransmitters and hormones have been shown to relate to aggressive behaviour as well. The neurotransmitter vasopressin causes an increase in aggressive behaviour when present in large amounts in the anterior hypothalamus (Dilalla et al., 1988). The effects of norepinephrine, cortisol, and other neurotransmitters are still being studied.

(d) Genetics: In a nonmammalian example, the fruitless gene in *Drosophila melanogaster* is a critical determinant for how fruit flies fight. Patterns of aggression can be switched, with males using female patterns of aggression or females using male patterns, by manipulating either the fruitless or transformer genes in the brain. Candidate genes for differentiating aggression between the sexes are the Sry (sex determining region Y) gene, located on the Y chromosome and the Sts (steroid sulfatase) gene. The Sts gene encodes the steroid sulfatase enzyme, which is pivotal in the regulation of neurosteroid biosynthesis. It is expressed in both sexes, is correlated with levels of aggression among male mice, and increases dramatically in females after parturition and during lactation, corresponding to the onset of maternal aggression.

(e) Alcohol: There has been some links between those prone to violence and their alcohol use. Those who are prone to violence and use alcohol are more likely to carry out violent acts. For example, Ted Bundy, an inherently violent individual, became more violent with his murders after much alcohol abuse.
1.2 CONCEPT OF EMOTIONS

Emotions play central role in human psyche by influencing their thoughts, processes and perceptions, therefore are essential motivating force behind all the psychological activities. They make life more meaningful, colorful and tasteful towards events and objects. Effective management of emotions is an important aspect of human behaviour. Emotions, being the most significant and influential component of personality, plays an extremely important role in ones well-being. These are emotions, which help us to make important decisions of our life. Emotions facilitate our attitude and behaviour towards the attainment of our goals. For instance, joy at gaining “A” grade in mathematics class and then later deciding to pursue a master’s degree in the same subject. Therefore, it can be said that healthy emotions give clarity in perceptions, thinking and analyzing everyday life situations. On the other hand, emotions can negatively impact one’s behaviour if they are not dealt properly or they remain unfulfilled. Unfulfilled emotions tend to adversely affect the creativity and success of pupils. Furthermore, unhealthy emotional state also leads to the development of different psychological problems, which significantly influences one’s personal, social and occupational life.

According to Pennebaker and Francis (1996), there are five components involved in the experience of emotions: evaluation of situation, physiological changes, motor expression, motivation for action and subjective feeling state. It reveals that an individual is an active agent of their own experience to monitor and evaluating their environment and action deemed appropriate for him and his situation (Specter & Goh, 2001). Whereas, in the view of Casey (1996), emotions are multi-component response tendencies that unfold over a relatively short time span. An emotional process begins with an individual’s assessment of the personal meaning of some antecedent event and called this the “person–environment relationship”, or “adaptational encounter”. This appraisal process triggers a flow of response
tendencies, which may be manifested across loosely coupled component systems, such as subjective experience, facial expressions and physiological changes. Over the year psychologists have devoted considerable efforts to classify the basic emotions. Earlier, Descartes in 1949 listed six primitive passions named as wonder, love, hatred, desire, joy and sadness (Dunlop, 2002). It was believed that all the emotions are found in ‘species’ such as fear, anger, disgust, curiosity, joy, sorrow repugnance-aversion, self display and self abasement, whereas, other theorists believed that basic emotions, which appear in the first few weeks of life are happiness, interest, surprise, fear, anger, sadness and disgust. The emotionally competent children become proficient in their use of simpler strategies and become capable of cognitively representing and understanding (Levy, 1984; Solomon, 1984) propose that the emotional process proceeds in two broad phases. The first phase involves awareness of an eliciting event that generates emotional arousal. The second phase involves a behavioural response to the emotional arousal. These two phases together, from awareness of the event to the behavioural response, are referred to as the emotional process.

Dealing effectively with these emotions reflects the personality of the people in general and the school going students in particular. Emotionally well-regulated children are able to modulate their emotional experience and expression to fit contextual demands and their own goals (Grolnick et al., 1996). They likely know variety of strategies to regulate emotional expression (Eisenberg et al., 1998). The girls are said to experience low self-esteem as compared to the boys (Carlson et al., 2000). It encompasses the expression, management, and understanding of emotions given the theoretical interrelatedness among components of emotional competence deficits in one domain likely undermines children’s overall emotional competence. For instance, children who frequently experience negative emotions likely have more difficulty regulating their emotions and may
miss opportunities to learn about the social consequences of expressing negative emotion socially (Fabes et al., 2001).

Similarly, children who cannot express their feelings verbally may become more frustrated, or more emotionally expressive, and experience more difficulty managing their emotions or eliciting appropriate assistance in managing their emotion. Emotions differ from moods. Emotions always have an object whereas moods are often free-floating or objectless. Emotions also differ from affective traits, such as hostility, neuroticism, or optimism. Enduring affective traits predispose individuals toward experiencing certain emotions (Rosenberg and Ekman, 1995). Emotions are reported to influence learning and a range of behaviours such as helping, negotiating, altruism, risk taking and compliance. Human emotions are found to be highly correlated with interest, effort, irrelevant thinking and also with academic achievements. Emotions are internal events that coordinate many psychological subsystems including physical responses, cognitions and conscious awareness. Emotions typically arise in response to a person’s changing relationships. Emotions and intellect are two halves of a whole. Intelligence Quotient (IQ) and Emotional Quotient (EQ) are synergistic resources; without one the other is incomplete and ineffective. The domain of EQ is personal and interpersonal relationships; it is responsible for one’s self-esteem, self-awareness, social sensitivity and social adaptability. Emotional awareness brings one’s inner world into focus. It enables one to strike a mutually healthy balance between one’s own needs and the needs of others.

1.2.1 EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE

The concept of emotional competence is rooted in the understanding of emotional competencies including self-control, resilience, social skills, conscientiousness, reliability, integrity, and
motivation. In general, emotional competence involves the ability to recognize and understand one’s own emotions and the emotions of others as well as the ability to regulate, express and use one’s emotions in a socially appropriate and adaptive ways. Therefore, the emotions deal with understanding, expression and regulation components those overlap with each other. Ellis (1987) defines “emotional competence as the ability to understand, manage and express the emotional aspect of one’s life in ways that enables the successful management of life tasks such as learning, forming relationships, solving everyday problems and adopting to the complex demands of growth and development”. The emotional expressiveness dealt with frequency, intensity latency and duration of expression of both negative and positive emotions (Denham, 2006). Its regulation includes changes in valence, intensity and timing of emotions that occur as a result of intra-individual or inter-individual processes. It also involves the ability to recognize emotions, its causes and consequences. In early childhood it deals with regulation of emotion with parental/societal expectations whereas in preschool period it deals with regulation of expression in a socially appropriate and adaptive ways. Emotionally well regulated children therefore, are able to modulate their emotional experience and expression to fit contextual demands and their own goals. Generally, the emotional competence is the ability to understand, manage and express the emotional aspect of one’s life in ways that enable the successful management of life tasks such as learning relationships, solving everyday problems and adopting to the complex demands of growth and development (Elis, 1987). Therefore, the emotional competency is an efficiency of the person to deal effectively with several dissociable but related processes. Major component of emotional intelligence are; knowing our own emotions, managing our own another aspect is learning to be assertive when feeling emotional assertiveness training
involves learning arrange of ways to handle any situation so that a person is able to choose a way which seems appropriate for them on each occasion with respect to emotions. Emotional competence can lead to improved health by avoiding stress; and improved relationship helps in expressing emotions appropriate to the classroom situation. It may play important role in regulating behaviour, thoughts and emotional processes of the students thereof is an influential component of personality and plays extremely important role in promoting well being of the school going students. It may give clarity in perception, thinking and feeling about the everyday situations of the students studying in school. It restricts negatively and unhealthy emotional state of the students and restore efficiency while dealing with adverse situation. It is widely believed that if appropriate emotions are expressed some sort of memory of them stores.

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 and appropriate behaviour is not avoided through fear of triggering some emotion. Emotionally competent pupil will express emotions appropriate to the situation in the classroom. According to Sharma, A. (1994), “Emotional competence refers to a person’s ability to express or release his/her inner feelings (emotions). It implies an ease around other and determine our ability to effectively and successful lead and express.”
Table 1.1
Framework for Emotional Competences (Source: Sharma, 1994)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recognition</th>
<th>Self Personal Competence</th>
<th>Other Social Competence</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Self-awareness</td>
<td>-Social Awareness</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Emotional self awareness</td>
<td>-Empathy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Accurate self-awareness</td>
<td>-Service Orientation</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>-Self confidence</td>
<td>-Organizational Awareness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regulation</td>
<td>-Self Management</td>
<td>-Relationship Management</td>
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<td></td>
<td>-Self Control</td>
<td>-Developing others</td>
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<td></td>
<td>-Trustworthiness</td>
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<td></td>
<td>-Conscientiousness</td>
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<td>-Adaptability</td>
<td>-Conflict management</td>
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<td>-Achievement drive</td>
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<td></td>
<td>-Initiative</td>
<td>-Change catalyst</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-Building bonds</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>-Teamwork &amp; collaboration</td>
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Emotional intelligence determines the potential for learning the practical skills based on five elements: Self awareness, motivation, self-regulation, empathy and depthness in relationships. So, emotional competence shows how much of that potential has been translated into the job capabilities. Emotional competence refers to person’s ability in expressing or releasing inner feelings (emotions). It implies an ease around others and determines the ability to effectively and successfully lead and express. Emotional competence is nothing but doing anything and doing it well; it is essentially a display of competency and whenever this aspect of personality is related to emotions, it shall be deemed as emotional competence, which happens to be efficiency that an individual acquires to deal with emotional situation effectively. Emotionally competent people expressed their emotions appropriate to the situation and their needs.
1.2.2 COMPONENTS OF EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE

Emotional competence is an efficiency to deal effectively with several dissociable but related processes is a blending of five competencies. The different emotional competencies may be understood as explained under:

1. Adequate Depth of Feeling

Feeling in its broadest sense is any kind of process or experience characterized by predominance of affect and accessible emotions which lead to some kind of involvement to great degree of the individual. A feeling of being confident or capable with all reality assumptions may be termed as adequate depth of feeling specifically associated with effective judgement and personality integration which ensures vigorous participation in living.

2. Adequate Expression and Control of Emotions

Generally, the appropriate reaction to a certain situation is expressed adequately in emotional reactions and a mature person accepts his emotions as a part of himself, neither allows them to rule over him nor rejects them as aligned to his nature and is not at all worried because he accepts them and has an adequate control over them. Emotional competence requires both adequate expression and their control which may be regarded as natural dynamic stability of an individual to express and control emotions spontaneously as demanded by the situation. An adequate expression and control of emotions refers to a tendency marked by adequate emotional expressiveness based on fulsome expression and control of emotions. Any form of inadequacy in either expression or control of emotions may lead to uncontrolled and disorganized emotionality.

3. Ability to Function with Emotions

It is sometimes not easy to carry out even routine work, when one finds himself face with a highly emotional situation. Emotional
competence require that the individual should develop a characteristics pattern of emotional reactivity which should not let him be influenced in his adequate mode of functioning and help him in performing action of routine properly.

4. Ability to Cope with Problem Emotions

Certain problem emotions play a destructive role and pose a potential damage to the life orientations of the individual’s course of life. Therefore, emotional competence requires an understanding of the role of sensitivity and the detrimental effects of such emotions in the beginning and also a development of the ability to resist their harmful effects thereafter.

5. Encouragement of Positive Emotions

The congenial growth of personality requires the predominance of positive emotions that shows a constructive influence in the dynamics of behaviour. The growing vitality and a feeling of wholeness with a continuous capacity for intellectual and spiritual growth are associated with an experience of positive emotions. The encouragement of positive emotions refers to the ability of the person to develop a predominance of positive emotions in the personality make-up of himself to ensure a meaningful and fairly well integrated life.

1.2.3 MODELS OF EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE

Early theorists paved in the field were of Thorndike and Gardner who conceptualizes emotional intelligence from one of two perspectives: ability or mixed model. Ability models regard emotional intelligence as a pure form of mental ability and thus as a pure intelligence. Mixed models of emotional intelligence combine mental ability with personality characteristics such as optimism and well being (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). In contrast, Daniel Goleman proposed a mixed model in terms of performance, integrating an individual's
abilities and personality and applying their corresponding effects on performance in the workplace (Goleman, 1998). John Mayer and Peter Salovey first coined the term “emotional intelligence” in 1997 (Mayer & Salovey, 1997) and have since continued to conduct research on the significance of the construct. Their pure theory of emotional intelligence integrates key ideas from the fields of intelligence and emotion. From intelligence theory comes the idea that intelligence involves the capacity to carry out abstract reasoning. From emotion research there comes the notion that emotions are signals that convey regular and discernable meanings about relationships and that at a number of basic emotions are universal. They propose that individuals vary in their ability to process information of an emotional nature and in their ability to relate emotional processing to a wider cognition. They then posit that this ability is seen to manifest itself in certain adaptive behaviour.

Mayer and Salovey’s conception of emotional intelligence is based within the confines of the standard criteria for a new intelligence. It proposes that emotional intelligence is comprised of two areas: experiential (ability to perceive, respond, and manipulate emotional information without necessarily it) and strategic (ability to understand and manage emotions without necessarily perceiving feelings well or fully experiencing them). Each area is further divided into two branches that range from basic psychological processes to more complex processes integrating emotion and cognition. The first branch, emotional perception, is the ability to be self-aware of emotions and to express emotions and emotional needs accurately to others. Emotional perception also includes the ability to distinguish between honest and dishonest expressions of emotion. The second branch, emotional assimilation, is the ability to distinguish among the different emotions such as feeling and to identify those that are influencing their thought processes. The third branch, emotional understanding, is the ability to understand complex emotions (such
as feeling two emotions at once) and the ability to recognize transitions from one to the other. Lastly, the fourth branch, emotion management, is the ability to connect or disconnect from an emotion depending on its usefulness in a given situation (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

1.2.3 (a) Ability Model of Emotional Intelligence: It states that emotional intelligence is the ability to identify, assess, and control the emotions of oneself, of others, and of groups. Various models and definitions have been proposed of which the ability and trait EI models are the most widely accepted in the scientific literature. Ability EI is usually measured using maximum performance tests and has stronger relationships with traditional intelligence, whereas trait EI is usually measured using self-report questionnaires and has stronger relationships with personality. Criticisms have centered on whether the construct is a real intelligence and whether it has incremental validity over IQ and the big five personality dimensions. Salovey and Mayer’s conception of EI strives to define EI within the confines of the standard criteria for a new intelligence. Following their continuing research, their initial definition of EI was revised to “The ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotions and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth”. The ability-based model views emotions as useful sources of information that help one to make sense of and navigate the social environment. The model proposes that individuals vary in their ability to process information of an emotional nature and in their ability to relate emotional processing to a wider cognition. This ability is seen to manifest itself in certain adaptive behaviours. The model claims that EI includes four types of abilities:

1. Perceiving emotions – the ability to detect and decipher emotions in faces, pictures, voices, and cultural artifacts-including the ability to identify one’s own emotions. Perceiving emotions represents a basic
aspect of emotional intelligence, as it makes all other processing of emotional information possible.

2. Using emotions – the ability to harness emotions to facilitate various cognitive activities, such as thinking and problem solving. The emotionally intelligent person can capitalize fully his or her changing moods in order to best fit the task at hand.

3. Understanding emotions – the ability to comprehend emotion language and to appreciate complicated relationships among emotions. For example, understanding emotions encompasses the ability to be sensitive to slight variations between emotions, and the ability to recognize and describe how emotions evolve over time.

4. Managing emotions – the ability to regulate emotions in both ourselves and in others. Therefore, the emotionally intelligent person can harness emotions, even negative ones, and manage them to achieve intended goals.

1.2.3 (b) Trait Emotional Intelligence Model: It was given by Soviet-born British psychologist Konstantin Vasily Petrides who proposed a conceptual distinction between the ability based model and a trait based model of EI and has been developing the latter over many years in numerous scientific publications. Trait EI is a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality. In lay terms, trait EI refers to an individual’s self-perceptions of their emotional abilities. This definition of EI encompasses bahavioural dispositions and self perceived abilities and is measured by self-report, as opposed to the ability based model which refers to actual abilities, which have proven highly resistant to scientific measurement. Trait EI should be investigated within a personality framework. An alternative label for the same construct is trait emotional self-efficacy. The conceptualization of EI as a personality trait leads to a construct that lies outside the taxonomy of human cognitive ability. This is an important distinction in as much as it
bears directly on the operationalization of the construct and the theories and hypotheses that are formulated about it.

**1.2.3 (c) Emotional Capital Model:** Emotion is the energy, enthusiasm and commitment in the hearts of everyone connected with your business. It is a vital ingredient for success in business today. Extraordinary leaders, who we like to call emotional capitalists, recognize that success requires focusing on more than just the traditional assets of a business, such as physical capital (bricks and mortar) and intellectual capital (patents, trademarks, and business processes). They add a new ingredient to the mix... and achieve success by building emotional capital. Effective leadership in the workplace is the by-product of emotions (such as self-confidence, optimism, self-reliance, and enthusiasm). Emotions are valuable because they create strong relationships between organizations and their customers and employees. Emotions and their associated behaviours can be developed and used intelligently. Emotional Capital as per Roche Martin’s represents a break-through in understanding and applying emotional intelligence for leadership success. The sections below provide an overview of the emotional capital model of EQ.

The second area appeared every bit as basic as the first. This was the capacity of the emotions to enter into and guide the cognitive system and promote thinking. For example, cognitive scientists pointed out that emotions prioritize thinking. In other words: something we respond to emotionally, is something that grabs our attention. Having a good system of emotional input, therefore, should help direct thinking towards matters that are truly important. As a second example, a number of researchers have suggested that emotions are important for certain kinds of creativity to emerge. For example, both mood swings, and positive moods, have been implicated in the capacity to carry out creative thought. The emotions convey information: Happiness usually indicates a desire to join with other
people; anger indicates a desire to attack or harm others; fear indicates a desire to escape, and so forth. Each emotion conveys its own pattern of possible messages, and actions associated with those messages. A message of anger, for example, may mean that the individual feels treated unfairly. The anger, in turn, might be associated with specific sets of possible actions: peacemaking, attacking, retribution and revenge-seeking, or withdrawal to seek calmness. Understanding emotional messages and the actions associated with them is one important aspect of this area of skill. Once a person can identify such messages and potential actions, the capacity to reason with and about those emotional messages and actions becomes of importance as well. Fully understanding emotions, in other words, involves the comprehension of the meaning of emotions, coupled with the capacity to reason about those meanings. It is central to this group of emotionally intelligent skills. Finally, emotions often can be managed. A person needs to understand emotions convey information. To the extent that it is under voluntary control, a person may want to remain open to emotional signals so long as they are not too painful, and block out those that are overwhelming. In between, within the person’s emotional comfort zone, it becomes possible to regulate and manage one’s own and other’s emotions so as to promote one’s own and other’s personal and social goals. The means and methods for emotional self-regulation has become a topic of increasing research in this decade.

1.2.3 (d) Four Branch Model: The four branch model of emotional intelligence describes four areas of capacities or skills that collectively describes many of areas of emotional intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). More specifically, this model defines emotional intelligence as involving the abilities to: accurately perceive; emotions in oneself and others; use emotions to facilitate thinking; understand emotional meaning, and manage emotions. The detailed descriptions of four branches are as follows:- The initial, most basic, area has to do with
the nonverbal reception and expression of emotion. Evolutionary biologists and psychologists have pointed out that emotional expression evolved in animal species as a form of crucial social communication. Facial expressions such as happiness, sadness, anger, and fear, were universally recognizable in human beings. Emotions researchers, evolutionary biologists, specialists in nonverbal behaviour, and others, have made tremendous inroads into understanding how human beings recognize and express emotions. The capacity to accurately perceive emotions in the face or voice of others provides a crucial starting point for more advanced understanding of emotions.

1.2.3 (e) Bar-On Model of Emotional-Social Intelligence: Bar-On defines emotional intelligence as being concerned with effectively understanding oneself and others, relating well to people, and adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings to the more successful in dealing with environmental demands. Bar-On posits that EI develops over time and that it can be improved through training, programming, and therapy. Bar-On hypothesizes that those individuals with higher than average EQs are in general more successful in meeting environmental demands and pressures. He also notes that a deficiency in EI can mean a lack of success and the existence of emotional problems. Problems in coping with one's environment are thought, by Bar-On, to be especially common among those individuals lacking in the subscales of reality testing, problem solving, stress tolerance, and impulse control. In general, Bar-On considers emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence to contribute equally to a person’s general intelligence, which then offers an indication of one’s potential to succeed in life. However, doubts have been expressed about this model in the research literature (in particular about the validity of self-report as an index of emotional intelligence) and in scientific settings it is being replaced by the trait emotional intelligence (trait EI) model. Each phase is moderated by
cognition. In the first phase, the state of emotional arousal and its intensity are moderated by how one interprets the situation surrounding the eliciting event (Solomon, 1984). An example occurs when an individual receives unsolicited critical feedback. If the feedback is interpreted as an attempt to be helpful, the individual is more likely to feel appreciative. If it is interpreted as an attack, the individual will likely feel threatened and become defensive.

1.2.3 (f) Goleman’s Emotional Competence Model: Goleman’s model outlines four main constructs. Goleman includes a set of emotional competences within each construct of EI. Emotional competencies are not innate talents, but rather learned capabilities that must be worked on and can developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman posits that individuals are born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies

![Goleman's Emotional Competence Model](image)

**Fig.1.1 Goleman’s Emotional Competence Model**

1. Self-awareness: The ability to read one’s emotion and recognize their impact while using feelings to guide decisions.
2. Self management: It involves controlling one's emotion and impulse and adapting to changing circumstances.

3. Social awareness: The ability to sense understands and reacts to others emotions while comprehending social networks.

4. Relationship management: The ability to inspire influence and develop others while managing conflicts.

The model introduced by Daniel Goleman focuses on EI as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive leadership performance. Goleman’s model outlines five main EI constructs.

1. Self-awareness- the ability to know one’s emotions, strengths, weaknesses, drives values and goals and recognizes their impact on others while using gut feelings to guide decisions.

2. Self-regulation- involves controlling or redirecting one’s disruptive emotions and impulses and adapting to changing circumstances.

3. Social-skill- managing relationships to move people in the desired direction.

4. Empathy- considering other people’s feeling especially when making decisions and

5. Motivation- being driven to achieve for the sake of achievement.

1.2.3 (g) Pro-Social Classroom Model: Social and emotional competence (SEC) is a broad construct viewed as an outcome of social and emotional learning (SEL). The widely accepted definition of SEC, developed by the Collaborative for Academic Social and Emotional Learning (CAQSEL), involves five major competencies: self-awareness, social awareness, responsible decision making, self-management, and relationship management.
1.2.4 QUALITIES AND TRAITS OF EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE

The Goleman’s emotional intelligence model is comprised of the five components listed below, each followed by associated traits. The first three relate to self-management; the last two determine how effective we are in relationships.

**Self-awareness:** Accurate self-assessment, emotional awareness and self-confidence.

**Self-regulation:** Innovation, adaptability, consciousness, trustworthiness and self-control.

**Motivation:** Optimism, commitment, initiative and achievement drive.

**Empathy:** Developing others, service orientation, political awareness, diversity, active listening and understanding others.
**Social Skills:** Communication influence, conflict management, leadership, bond building, collaboration, cooperation and team capabilities.

Experts say that the ratio of importance between emotional and technical competence is approximately two to one. That is not to say that technical expertise is unimportant. However, the junior officers and enlisted personnel are often the technical experts. These specialists conduct boat operations, keep the infrastructure operational, and complete many of the day-to-day tasks that require specialized training. As one climbs the organizational ladder, he/she becomes more responsible for leading, motivating, internal and external collaboration, and team building. Consequently, emphasis is placed on interdependent rather than singular action.

### 1.2.5 RELATIONSHIP OF EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE WITH OTHER VARIABLES

Relationship of emotional competence with other variables viz. emotional intelligence, leadership and assertiveness is given below.

- **Relationship Between Emotional Competence And Emotional Intelligence:**

  A form of intelligence relating to the emotional side of life, such as the ability to recognize and manage one's own and other's emotions, to motivate oneself and restrain impulses and to handle interpersonal relationship effectively. Originated by Danial Goleman, Psychologist, denoting the cluster of traits and habits relating to the emotional side of life. Major component of emotional intelligence; knowing our own emotions, managing our own another aspect is learning to be assertive when feeling emotional assertiveness training involves learning a range of ways to handle any situation so that a person is able to choose a way which seems – appropriate for them on each occasion with respect to emotions. People are encouraged to
notice and accept what they feel. They then have choice from handling the situation calmly through doing so and saying how they feel to letting the emotion out all of which involves emotional competence. Emotions managing our own emotions, motivating ourselves, recognizing the emotions of others and handling relationship. “A learned capability based on emotional intelligence those results in outstanding performance at work. Our emotional intelligence determines our potential for learning the practical skills based on the five elements: self-awareness, motivation, self-regulation, empathy, and depthness in relationship. Our emotional competence how much of that potential we have translated into on the job capabilities” (Golemen, Working with emotional intelligence). The concept is distinct from emotional intelligence which, while recognizing the importance of emotions, gives emphasis to controlling or manipulating them.

- **Relationship between Emotional Competence and Leadership**

In the last decade, Shrinking suggests, technological, advance, globalization, and increased competition have forced revolutionary change in the way we lead. In order to stay competitive and be perceived as valuable by the American public and Congress we as individuals, should reevaluate the competencies we consider essential for effective leadership. In many organizations; IQ and technical competence are no longer the bench marks for successful leadership within the rakes of middle and upper management. Leadership experts have written volume about emotional competence. Since the early 1990’s emotional competence, also referred to as “Emotional Intelligence”, “Emotional Quotient” and “Successful Intelligence”; determines our ability to effectively and successfully lead our terms.
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

- **Relationship between Emotional Competence and Assertiveness**

  Humanistic approach to assertiveness, as for instance outlined by Anne Dickson, emphasizes the importance of working with emotions in particular. It recognizes the need to express manipulative or passive (the person does not say what they want) – Aggressive (They try to force other person to do what they want) behaviour, in which the manipulator exploits the feeling of the other to try to get what they want. Building up emotional competence is a way of learning to handle such behaviour.

**1.3 CONCEPT OF SELF-ESTEEM**

What is self-esteem? It is difficult to define. Self-concept, ideal self, and self-image etc. terms prevalent in the literature create great confusion with regard to the exact meaning of the term self-esteem. English and English (1958) identify over a thousand different combinations and uses of the terms in the area of self-concept. Therefore, it is necessary to understand the concept of self-esteem by clarifying the related terms. The term ‘self-concept’ may be defined as the sum total of individual’s mental and physical characteristics. It has three aspects; the cognitive (thinking), the affective (feeling) and the connative (action). Self-concept is the umbrella term under whom; self-image, ideal self and self-esteem develop. The self-concept is the individual’s awareness of his or her own self. It is an awareness of one’s own identity. The self-concept and its relation with other three terms referred to as above, have been depicted in the following figure.
Self-Image

Self-image is the individual’s awareness of his/her mental and physical characteristics. The earliest impressions of self-image are mainly concepts of body image. With cognitive development, more refined physical and mental skills become possible. It is a starting point for an understanding of self-esteem.

Ideal-Self

Side by side with the development of self-image the child is learning that, there are ideal characteristics he/she should possess—that these are ideal standards of behaviour and also particular skills, which are valued. The school child is most likely to be at the stages of accepting these ideal images from the significant people around him/her and of striving to a greater or lesser degree to attain them.

Self-Esteem

Self-esteem is the individual’s evaluation of the discrepancy between self-image and ideal self. It is an affective process and it is a measure of the extent to which the individual cares about this
discrepancy. The term self-esteem is derived from the Greek word that generally means reverence for self as well as the self belief and attitude we hold about ourselves. The “self” part of self-esteem pertains the values, beliefs and attitudes that we holds about ourselves. The “esteem” part of self-esteem describes the value and worth that one give to oneself. Simplistically self-esteem is acceptance of ourselves for whom and what we are at any given time in our lives. In the words of Gary Kathy Miller “self-esteem is as necessary for life as water.” We act in accordance with our self-esteem; our desires, our emotions and our behaviour depend entirely on our self-esteem. There is evidence that high esteem is associated with a variety of positive attributes. For example it has frequently been noted that acceptance of self is directly associated with acceptance of others. Rosenberg (1965) described it as a favourable or unfavourable attitude towards the self. Therefore, it deals with individual’s sense of his or her value or worth, or an extent to which a person values, approves, appreciates, and like him/herself (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1993). It embodied the belief that a person is accepted, connected, powerful and capable. This concept deals with the ability to evaluate and compare and represent feeling- not a skill thereof is reflected in person’s action and behaviour. Self-esteem and self-concept are two major concept of the attitude one holds towards his own self. The Rogerions view implies that, it may be that difference in self, evaluation of other; both actually arise from the difference in general standard for evaluating. There is practical as well as conceptual significance to the questions of whether difference in evaluation is specific to one’s own behaviour. According to Smith et al. (1997) the three kinds of selves are: The Ideal Self (what we would take to be); The Perceived Self (what we think we are); and the Real Self (what we actually think) that has been shown in the below mentioned figure.
The closer the resemblance between our ideal and perceived selves, more confident and satisfied the students will be. The self-esteem play very important role in a person’s adjustment to home, school and society. Cohen (1959) delineated between the “ideal self” and the “actual self” whereas Aryana (2010) regarded self-esteem as individual’s effective evaluation of this discrepancy. The affective judgements placed on the self-concept consisting of feelings of worth and acceptance which are developed and maintained as a consequence of awareness of competence sense of achievement, and feedback from the external world. It also involves the belief about how smart, capable, and attractive in one’s own perception (Baumeister et al., 1993). It is commonly known as the way one feels about themselves, begins to develop at a young age, and thereof deals with cognitive, behavioural and affective components.

It is important to note that self-esteem does not say whether the person actually is smart or attractive and that’s why it is considered one’s own perception. Researchers have suggested that people are interested in maintaining their self-esteem because there is an intrinsic need to feel good about themselves. The people may differ in
their belief pattern in terms of feeling as a worthy and valuable person as resulted from the events (Crocker & Wolf, 2001). Generally, there are two types of self-esteem high and low. The persons with low self-esteem lack in self images as well as enmeshed with negative thinking, low confidence and doubtful internalized feelings (Baumeister et al., 1993). They envision failure scenario, criticism, rejection, and negative feedback from the events and doubts about their interpersonal relationship (Leary, 1995). Researches clearly show that the person with high levels of self-esteem does have high degree of self-efficacy belief (Bandura, 1977); less anxiety (Greenberg et al, 1992), more defensive response, more happiness and vitality (Leary, 1995). The positive feelings of self-esteem increase children’s confidence and success at school, promote academic success and reading ability (Markus & Nurius, 1986) and improve cognitive aptitudes, academic achievement, social and personal responsibility (Adams, 1996). Therefore, the self-esteem is the key ingredient that may affects the level of proficiency, school achievement, learning outcomes, interpersonal relationship, and general happiness among the students.

1.3.1 THE SELF-ESTEEM HIERARCHY

The question often poses is – Can we have low self-esteem in one situation and high self-esteem in another? According to Shavelson & Balus (1982), this is asked only by those who have not understood the hierarchical nature of self-esteem. Self-esteem is defined so far refers to “global self-esteem” and individual’s overall feeling of self-worth. This is relatively stable and consistent overtime. In addition to this overall, or global, self-esteem we can have feeling of worth or unworthiness in specific situations. Accordingly, we may feel inadequate (low self-esteem) with regard to mathematics or tennis playing. However, they do not affect our overall feeling of self-worth as we can escape their influences by avoiding those situations. If, of course, we cannot avoid them and regularly participate in these
activities, which make us feel inadequate, they may eventually affect our overall self-esteem. Also, if we continue to fall in areas, which are valued by the significant people in our lives, overall self-esteem is affected.

Shalvelson and Balus (1982) have given following hierarchy of self-esteem:

![Hierarchy of Self-Esteem Diagram]

### 1.3.2 THEORIES OF SELF-ESTEEM

#### 1.3.2 (a) Identity Theory of Self-Esteem: According to this theory the self is composed of multiple identities that reflect the various social positions that an individual occupies in the larger social structure (Cast & Burke, 2002). This also serves to account for self-verification, where a person’s ideal self (how they see themselves and would like others to see them), matches up with the real self (how others really perceive another individual to be). A person receives self verification when their ideal self and real self line up. This in turn can maintain or increase an individual’s self-esteem. However, when there are discrepancies between the ideal self and real self a person may face negative effects. People seek out situations that maintain or increase their self-esteem. Self-esteem is crucial and corner stone of
positive attitude towards living. In psychology, self-esteem reflects a person’s overall evaluation or appraisal of his or her own worth. Self-esteem encompasses belief (e.g. competent/incompetent) and emotions (e.g. triumph/despair, pride/shame) behaviour may reflect self-esteem (e.g. assertiveness/timorousness, confidence/caution).

1.3.2 (b) Cognitive Theory of Self-Esteem: It is also known as bottom up theory of self-esteem which holds that evaluative feedback (e.g., success or failure, interpersonal acceptance or rejection), influences self-evaluations, and that self-evaluations determine feelings of self-worth and global self-esteem. We refer to this as a bottom-up model because it assumes that global self-esteem is based on more elemental beliefs about one’s particular qualities. Most researchers in personality and social psychology assume that these constructs are related in a bottom-up fashion. Cognitive theory assumes that global self-esteem is based on more elemental beliefs about one’s particular qualities. If you think you are attractive, and if you think you are intelligent, and if you think you are popular, then you will have high self-esteem.

![Diagram of Cognitive (Bottom-Up) Model of Self-Esteem](image)

**Fig. 1.3 Cognitive (Bottom-Up) Model of Self-Esteem**

A variant on this approach assumes that not all self-evaluations influence self-esteem. Self-evaluations in domains of high personal importance exert a strong effect on self-esteem, but self-evaluation in domains of low personal importance does not. For example, it has
been suggested that some people (typically men) base their self-esteem on their perceived competence, whereas other people (usually women) base their self-esteem on their social skill (Markus & Nurius, 1986). To predict self-esteem, we first weigh each self-evaluation by its importance and then sum the weighted values.

The bottom-up model makes an additional assumption because, it assumes that self-evaluations underlie global self-esteem, the model assumes that global self-esteem effects are due to underlying self-evaluations. For example, if we find that high self-esteem people persist longer after failure than do low self-esteem people, it must be because high self-esteem have more confidence in their ability to succeed. Several important social psychological theories, including Tesser’s self-evaluation maintenance model and Steele’s self-affirmation theory adopt this assumption. Some have even gone so far as to suggest that global self-esteem is of little value and that researchers should concentrate instead on self-evaluations (Crocker & Wolfe, 2001).

More appropriately, the affective models offer an alternative way to think about the origins and function of self-esteem. According to this more top-down approach, self-esteem develops early in life in response to temperamental and relational factors and once formed, influences self-evaluations and feelings of self-worth. The lack of an arrow between global self-esteem and evaluative feedback signifies that evaluative feedback does not influence global self-esteem. Instead, global self-esteem and evaluative feedback combine to influence self-evaluations and feelings of self-worth. This interactive effect is particularly propounded when people confront negative feedback, such as failure in the achievement domain or interpersonal rejection. When low self-esteem people encounter negative feedback, their self-evaluations become more negative and their feelings of self-worth. When high self-esteem people encounter negative feedback,
they maintain their high self-evaluations and protect or quickly restore their feelings of self-worth.

1.3.2 (c) Neo-Psychodynamic theory of Self-Esteem:

The emphasis of this theory is on awareness and experience perception i.e. one first develops awareness of self and then a need for positive regard.

High self-esteem people evaluate themselves more positively and experience higher feelings of self-worth than do low self-esteem people. These associations have led researchers to consider how these constructs are related. Self-esteem did not influence how happy or sad participants felt following success or failure, but it did influence how they felt about themselves after they succeeded or failed. Low self-esteem participants felt proud of themselves when they succeeded, but humiliated and ashamed of themselves when they failed. In contrast, high self-esteem participant’s feelings of self-worth did not vary as a result of performance feedback. Cognitive models assume that self-evaluations explain these differences. From this perspective, low self-esteem people feel bad about themselves when they fail because they lack positive qualities. Self-evaluation did not influence participant’s emotional reactions to success and failure. Instead, low
self-esteem participant’s who thought they had many positive qualities felt just as bad about themselves after they failed as did those who thought they had few positive qualities (and high self-esteem participants who believed they lack many positive qualities felt no worse about themselves following failure than did high self-esteem participants who believe they have many positive qualities). Other analysis showed that people’s cognitive reactions to evaluative feedback (e.g. to what extent is your performance due to your ability?) did depend on self-evaluations not self-esteem. Thus, self-esteem and self-evaluation seem to govern different aspects of psychological life.

1.3.3 FACTORS AFFECTING SELF-ESTEEM

There are a multitude of factors which can affect self-esteem but arguably none is more significant than the family. This is not to imply that the family is the cause of an individual’s level of self-esteem but rather has a predisposing effect. Certain parental attitude has been found to affect self esteem.

- **Parental Involvement**

  The greater a parent’s involvement with and to their child the higher the level of self esteem.

- **Parental Warmth**

  Also defined as unconditional positive acceptance is the ability to accept a child’s strengths and weaknesses. This acceptance is ‘warm’ in that is balanced.

- **Clear Expectations**

  Boundaries that are clear and firm without being authoritarian help the child ascertain what behaviours are acceptable and what are not.
• **Respect**

  Respect for his students coupled with a democratic or authoritative parenting style has the most positive effect on self-esteem.

• **Parental Consistency**

  Being consistent in treatment of one’s children enhance self-esteem because it reinforce the values of the child to the parents.

• **Empowering Children**

  Confident, capable individuals who believe they can achieve, generally have positive-self-esteem. Parents can empower children by fostering responsibility for their feeling and action.

• **Modeling**

  Children initiate what they see parents who face life’s challenges honestly and directly expose their children to examples of problem solving strategies, which can enhance self-esteem.

• **Positive Thinking**

  A positive perspective helps as scathe good things in life rather than the bad, which helps foster a positive self-esteem.

### 1.3.4 TYPES OF SELF-ESTEEM

Self-esteem is person’s self image. It ties into what they think and believes about themselves. It is widely understood that self esteem plays a large role in relationship whether that relationship is good or bad. Work or home, friend or family, even complete strangers are impacted by your self-esteem that being the case. It is important to understand high self-esteem and low self-esteem.
1. Low Self-Esteem

This is the most dangerous of all types of self esteem. It generally starts when a person told negative things about themselves. Researcher has discovered that it takes 5 positive things to make up for one negative comment. If someone starts to believe that negative comments/opinion of others have of them it can lead to low self esteem problems. Low self-esteem generally refers to the downsizing that you implement on your thoughts about your achievement and values. A person having low self esteem may or may not value any of his positive-achievement not may always complain and exaggerate on the obstacle rather than to make the most of advantage that life have to offered him. Having low-self-esteem is very disadvantageous for a person as it disables the individual to properly use his skills and succeed in life. Instead a person focus more on negative side and waste his time and energy feeling sorry for him. Usually a person suffering from low self-esteem will separate themselves from others. The low-self-image, negative self talk and loneliness often times leads people down a dangerous road of depression.

2. High Self-Esteem

High self-esteem is ability to appreciate once potential and deal with every day perspective with confidence and dignity. A person having high self-esteem is confident of his talents as an individual and is sure about the positive feature of his personality and his capability to deal with people and make a proper representation of his image. There is a huge difference between having high self-esteem and over confidence. Over confidence means to have unfair believe in once potential and ability whereas high self-esteem refer to the truthful analysis of the positive aspect of the person. People with self-esteem are often considered conceited. They often have an over exaggerated image of themselves. Many times a person is over confident is trying to fix low self-esteem issues and over up the low self-esteem with a façade. It is more comfortable to hide behind something that is made
up of people who have high self-esteem and are often taken as negative by their peers.

1.3.5 IMPORTANCE OF SELF-ESTEEM

One of the most exciting discoveries in educational psychology in recent times has been the finding that people’s level of achievement is influenced by how they feel about themselves. A vast body of research evidence has accumulated showing a positive correlation between self-esteem and achievement and with regard to self-esteem and school achievement in particular. Perhaps even more exciting has been the practical implications of research on self-esteem for the classroom teacher. The teacher is in a powerful position to be able to influence a student’s self-esteem not only through the use of systematic activities but also through the establishment of particular caring relationships with students. The work of humanist school of psychology has focused on certain ingredients of personality which are instrumental in the latter. There is clear evidence that relationships between teacher and students can be either conducive to the enhancement of self-esteem or conducive towards reducing self-esteem. Whenever the teacher enters into a relationship with a student a process is set into motion which results either in the enhancement of self-esteem or in the reduction of self-esteem. Moreover, this process occurs whether the teacher is aware of it or not. While some teachers may intuitively enhance the self-esteem of their students; the evidence is that all teachers might well benefit from an awareness of the principle involved in self-esteem enhancement. The teaching becomes more effective when the teacher is able to combine an approach which focuses not only on the development of skills but also in the student’s effective state, and a self-esteem in particular. Successful teachers have always combined the behavioural with the affective approach.
1.3.6 REQUIREMENTS OF SELF-ESTEEM

The requirements of self-esteem become more clear and understandable with the help of the figure 1.5 as ahead:

- **Transcending Your Self**: Our self is an essential but often pesky companion. Learn to tame it. When you hear yourself talking, recognize it is only one voice among the crowd. Shape your self-symbol. Deliberately quiet yourself when it is not being helpful. Enjoy the resulting calm and contentment. Be skeptical of what your self is telling you. Focus on what is real. Seek out alternative viewpoints. Let go of your ego defense mechanisms, and control yourself.

- **Self-symbol**: The mind is organized with thousands of symbols for many objects and concepts including: cars, chairs, the
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

- Self-Aware: Humans have the remarkable and perhaps unique ability to think about our own thoughts. This strange loop allows us to become aware of our self, to plan for the future, reflect and ruminate about the past, think about ourselves as separate from others, imagine the thoughts of others, project our experiences into the minds of others and judge our own actions. Self-awareness provides us the unique ability to control ourselves intentionally by imagining ourselves in the future and talk to ourselves about options for our future. Self-awareness allows us to imagine the world from a variety of perspectives. Not only can we contemplate what we perceive now, but we can reflect on the past and imagine a variety of futures. We can also imagine what others are thinking now, or were thinking in the past, or will be thinking in the future. Self-awareness allows us to travel through time and read minds. But our awareness is less accurate than it may seem. Self-awareness, introspection and self-consciousness open us up to the emotions of pride, envy, jealousy, guilt, shame and hope. Our ability to imagine the world from another’s perspective allows us to feel empathy, compassion, pity, envy and jealousy. Self-awareness is often excessive. Ruminating, reliving and repeatedly blaming oneself for a simple mistake in the past does more harm than good when it becomes prolonged, frustrating, distracting and induces and prolongs shame. Meditations undertaken as either a spiritual or secular activity can be effective in quieting the self and breaking the cycle of rumination, allowing the person to

- furniture, your hopes, goodness, one’s dog, friends and even the person self. The mental symbol that represents oneself is his/her “self-symbol”. Words the person used as symbols for him/her self (and others) are often chosen from one’s list of trait nouns and trait adjectives. Some of these labels are accurate and some are not accurate representations of self.
relax and return his/her attention to the world present outside
his/her head. Our self-awareness disappears when we are
sufficiently absorbed in an engaging activity and we experience
the state of flow. Self awareness allows self-appraisal.

- **Self-Control:** Our self-awareness provides us the powerful
ability to control our self intentionally. This requires us to be
aware and monitor what we are doing, establish and pursue
goals for the future, control our impulses and delay gratification
to pursue our long-term goals, and act on the strength of our
own decisions.

- **The Extent of Compassion:** The extent of compassion becomes
clearer as in the figure 1.6 as follows:

![Diagram of the Extent of Compassion]

**Fig.: 1.6 THE EXTENT OF COMPASSION**

One naturally feels closer to people who seem most like oneself.
The symbols the individual creates for the people who are most
like him/herself will be most similar to his/her own self-symbol.
In fact, they are unlike him/her. If s/he considers them so
distant and foreign that s/he allows him/herself to consider them as not quite human, hate can creep in. They are dislike him/her and s/he may choose to dislike them. This general scheme is illustrated here in a schematic diagram derived from the figure above. The people most like oneself are shown close to the self-symbol. Those least like him/her are farther away. The most compassionate people will have large regions of empathy and compassion with small or non-existent regions of indifference and hate. Less tolerant people will have smaller areas of empathy and compassion and allow the region of hate to close in around themselves as they become a prisoner of hate. Empathy is other-awareness, symmetrical with self-awareness.

**Self-Appraisals:** Many types of self-appraisals, both accurate and distorted, are important to understand. Self-esteem is an overall evaluation of oneself by one self. This assessment can be favourable, neutral or unfavourable. High self-esteem is a favourable self assessment. An unfavourable self assessment is low self-esteem. Appropriate high self-esteem is (authentic) “pride”, but excessive or unjustified high self-esteem is called: “egotism”, “arrogance”, “hubris”, “conceitedness”, narcissism” or a “sense of superiority”. Low self-esteem is “shame”. “Ego” is a synonym for self or self-image. Self-esteem includes two largely independent appraisals. One is a sense of confidence and competence, called self-efficacy. This includes confidence in our ability to think, understand, learn, choose and make decisions. The other is a sense of intrinsic worth, called self-respect. This is our right to appropriately assert our own thoughts, values, needs and wants. Narcissism is self-love combined with an artificially inflated ego (self-image). It includes “grandiosity” and dominance and is corrected with an often hostile disregard for other. A major cause of violence is high self-esteem combined
with an ego threat. Violence is most likely to occur when someone who thinks well of themselves receives feedback that contradicts their own favourable view of themselves and they then decide to “fight the feedback” (quite literally “kill the messenger”) rather than assimilate the new information and revise their self-appraisal. This is more likely to occur with someone who holds on unwarranted, exaggerated or unfounded positive self-image. This can be called “Fragile high self-esteem” or “Wounded pride”. People, who are highly sensitive to a loss of self-esteem e.g. ‘touchy’, may react to seemingly minor ego threats with considerable hostility. They are easily insulated and quick to anger. They may be boastful and arrogant and always trying to prove they are good enough. The terms—wounded, pride, disrespect, verbal abuse, insults, anger manipulations, and status inconsistency all describe ego threats. People with high but stable self-esteem tend not to be angry or hostile. A reliable indicator of low self-esteem is the need to see other groups as inferior. This is the essence of disrespect and a dangerous first step toward hate and violence. People with (secure) high self-esteem generously appreciate the achievements of others. Egotism can directly cause violence because the egotist allows their first-person viewpoint to prevail over other relevant, important, but differing points of view. This lack of consideration reduces the typical inhibitions to violence.

Conflicting Images: We imagine ourselves as similar to people in some groups and different from others. We invariably demonstrate favoritism towards people in the in-group. This affiliation with the in-group and dissociation from the out-group can triggered even when only trivial characteristics or differences define the groups. Abstract concepts select the symbols we attach to the “good guys” and the “bad guys”. There is almost always some way for the people in the in-group to
interpret themselves better than the people in the out-group. The bias of egotism allows us to interpret events in self-serving ways. We take more credit than we deserve, and accept less blame than is our due. We attribute kind motives to ourselves and evil motives to others. We feel we are unfairly recognized and rewarded for our efforts. We feel we suffer more pain than others understand or appreciate. Although we are egotists ourselves, we dislike others who we see as conceited, vain, arrogant, stuck-up, pompous, snobbish and boastful. When our ego is threatened, we feel insulted and suffer humiliation. For some, the greatest fear is to be seen as a wimp.

- **Introspection:** Our consciousness and attention is often split between what we are doing, sensing and perceiving in the world around us and the thoughts we may be having about the past or the future. We constantly live in two worlds, one outside our heads and visible to others and one inside our heads known only to us. Because we have only a limited capacity for attention, our self-talk distracts us from the outside world and the outside world distracts us from our self-talk. Self-consciousness can cause us to choose under pressure when we are called on to perform, as we meet others in conversations, presentations, sports contests or on stage, self-talk can prolong insomnia as we worry about not falling asleep.

- **Worry:** We worry about the future we imagine, we ruminate about the past we recall, and we worry about what others did, thought, or might do. Anxiety results directly from our self-awareness and self-talks. It really is all in our head. We monitor the world with a bias toward identifying actual and potential threats. Although worry is beneficial when it alerts us to problems and urges us to avoid them, it is not helpful when there is nothing further we can do to avoid danger or ensure
success. We also worry about threats to our own thoughts and ideas.

- **Bias:** Since it is our self that has our attention during self-talk, we are constantly listening to an inherently biased and one-sided point of view. This first-person viewpoint, described in more detail below, is responsible for many distortions in perception, assessment, attribution and reasoning. We are inherently biased. We invariably overestimate our positive qualities; nearly everyone considers themselves above average in characteristics important to their self-image. We claim more than our share of credit when things go well and we avoid blame when things go bad. We judge people we identify with more leniently and favourably than we judge people we don’t like. We offer advice to others more easily than we accept advice from others. We judge others based on behaviour and we judge ourselves based on intent. We each tend to believe that our point of view is the correct one. Perhaps this unrealistic view of the world helps us to compensate for the bias towards safety that triggers fear, the bias toward just action that triggers anger and the bias towards quickly identifying for that triggers hate. Thinking well of ourselves provides a respite from anxiety and other negative emotions. We can begin to counteract our inherent bias by developing a accurately assess the world when we learn to compensate for the bias we use to perceive it.

- **Knowing Oneself:** To understand oneself, begin by understanding human nature, what one can change and what one cannot, one’s own personality traits, learned behaviours and one’s values, beliefs, sense of justice, needs, goals and motives. Integrate these to form his/her personal model for human interaction. Understand what guides the person throughout his/her life. Discover his/her signature strengths and the basis of true stature. Examine one’s self-spiral, purge
the interjected regulations, integrate his/her values, beliefs, actions and work to become oneself authentic self. Any form of inadequacy in either expression or control of emotions may lead to uncontrolled and disorganized emotionality.

1.3.7 DEVELOPMENT OF SELF-ESTEEM

(i) Early Childhood:

Although self-esteem is forming, it is not measurable before the age of five or six because until this time the two function of self-esteem, competence and worthiness, operate independently of each other.

(ii) Middle childhood:

Between the age of five and eight self-esteem becomes increasingly defined children begin to make judgments about their self-worth and competence in five areas: physical appearance, social acceptance, scholastic ability, athletic and artistic skill and behavior. These areas make up the child’s global view of his/her self. Self-esteem emerges at this point in childhood because the child is able to initiate behavior with competence, evaluate his or her accomplishments in terms of their worthiness and experience a process or attitude between the two. As a child’s age increases so to do their social contacts, life experience and the expectations placed upon them. The child develops an increasing awareness of those things they are good at and those they are not good at. Inevitably self-esteem begins to effect behaviours as the individual attempts to maintain and protect their sense of self worth against the challenges, problems and experience of life. Self-esteem act as a filter though which we judge our performances. In this way it determines how we approach future tasks.
(iii) Adulthood:

By adulthood self-esteem has changed from a mostly reactive phenomenon to one that can be consciously acted upon to either increase or decrease feeling of self-worth. As adults we are confronted by many situations that affect our level of self-esteem. These are success-failure experience where individuals either deal successfully or unsuccessfully with a situation and acceptance-rejection situation which are interpersonal in nature. Romantic relationship, poor relationship and relationship with family members are typical context which can affect self-esteem.

1.4 DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

The factors relating to personal characteristics such as age, gender, experience, social class, level of education, occupation, stream of study, family type, type of institution in which one is studying and family status are known as demographic variables. In the present study demographic variables were selected on the basis of gender, family type, stream of study and type of institution of the secondary school students. The demographic variables taken for the study are:

1. Gender: It included both genders, viz. male and female.
2. Family: It referred to both types of families, viz. nuclear and joint family.
3. Stream: It indicated the stream of study of the students. For the present study two types of stream are used viz. Arts stream and Science stream.
4. Institution: It referred to the type of institution in which students are studying. Two types of institutions affiliated with H.P. Board of School Education are taken for the present study, viz. Government institute and Private institute.
1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Adolescence is a period of stress and strain which brought a big change in the behaviour of males and females suddenly. Many traits like truthfulness, courage, thinking power, sympathy etc. develop during this stage. At the same time, it creates problems of adjustment, understanding, shyness, isolation, delinquency, smoking, quarrelsome attitude or some antisocial behaviour. So, it is our duty to understand adolescents’ behaviour, their needs and factors which influence their behaviour because, it creates physical, mental, moral and social problems. The progress of a society depends upon the nature of the education being provided to the students in the schools. If we evaluate the present education being imparted to our students, we find that it is defective in evaluating the values of life and in the absence of the permanent values of life the student generally behave in an undisciplined way. That’s why educationist is worried to see the growing indiscipline in the society and in the schools. The indiscipline among students especially in the schools is due to aggression among the adolescents. The aggression among adolescents results due to inadequate knowledge, unhappy experiences and lack of understanding of their needs. Since at this span of life, aggression is also a major characteristic among adolescents. It also disturbs their behavioural set-up. In the process of education, balanced personality plays a significant role and is the first condition for the effective teaching-learning process. Aggression is harmful aspect of the personality of a child which is expressed through the behaviour of a child. The students learning and achievement in any worthwhile area depends on their ability to make adjustments in different life situations. Emotional competence needs to be learned so as to use it to image one’s own feelings and behaviour and deal well with others. Presently the unhealthy competition among the students is creating various problems in schools, home and in the society. The increasing cases of riots, suicides, violent attacks on teachers and students,
abusing, antisocial behaviour, rape cases, agitations and acid attacks on females etc. all show rising anger and frustration and hence the signs of increasing aggressive behaviour in our adolescents. There is urgent need to study such behaviour and devise ways and means to tackle to the situations of aggression in our school as well as in the society. The increasing aggression and its expression in such a frequent manner is not a good sign for the healthy and well functioning of any society.

Many researches have been conducted on aggression among students in the other countries of the world but hardly any significant study has been done in our country. This appears to be an unexplored territory in the field of educational research. The researcher consulted the surveys on education and hardly found any useful study in relation to aggression and other variables. Therefore the researcher thought to study the aggression in relation to other variables such as emotional competence and self-esteem. Further the research studies have also revealed that adolescents express more aggression in comparison to students of other ages. There can be many reasons of aggression among the adolescents but the period of adolescence is itself a major cause of aggression that is why it has been said that adolescents is the period of stress, strain and strife. An adolescent passes through great physical, mental, emotional and social stress during this period. The parents should understand his/her emotions whether the child is angry or happy. Therefore the researcher has thought to study the aggression on the one hand with emotional competence and self-esteem on the other. The present study will be helpful in ascertaining the relationship between aggressive behaviour with other variables under consideration that can further assist the practitioners in identifying ways and means to improve the emotional competence and level of self-esteem of secondary school students. The study will be beneficial to students, teachers, parents, psychologists, educationists, administrators and researchers and are expected to act
as a benchmark for further researches in their pursuit to explore the field further.

1.6 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The proposed study was stated as under:

“AGGRESSION AMONG SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS IN RELATION TO THEIR EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE, SELF-ESTEEM AND CERTAIN DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES”

1.7 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The following were the objectives of the study:

1. To study the emotional competence level of senior secondary school students.
2. To study the self-esteem level of senior secondary school students.
3. To study the gender-wise difference in aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students.
4. To study the aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students at different levels of their emotional competence.
5. To study the interaction between gender and level of emotional competence with regard to their combined influence on aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students.
6. To study the aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students at different levels of self-esteem.
7. To study the interaction between gender and level of self-esteem with regard to their combined influence on aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students.
8. To study the family-wise difference in aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students.
9. To study the interaction between family type and level of emotional competence with regard to their combined influence on aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students.
10. To study the interaction between family type and level of self-esteem with regard to their combined influence on aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students.

11. To study the stream-wise difference in aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students.

12. To study the interaction between stream and level of emotional competence with regard of their combined influence on aggressive behaviour senior secondary school students.

13. To study the interaction between stream and level of self-esteem with regard of their combined influence on aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students.

14. To study the institution-wise difference in aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students.

15. To study the interaction between institution type and level of emotional competence with regard of their combined influence on aggressive behaviour senior secondary school students.

16. To study the interaction between institution type and level of self-esteem with regard of their combined influence on aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students.

1.8 HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

The following were the hypotheses of the study:-

1. There will be significant gender-wise difference in aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students.

2. There will be significant difference in aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students at different levels of their emotional competence.

3. Gender and level of emotional competence will interact significantly with regard to their combined influence on aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students.
4. There will be significant difference in aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students at different levels of their self-esteem.

5. Gender and level of self-esteem will interact significantly with regard to their combined influence on aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students.

6. There will be significant family wise difference in the aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students.

7. Family and level of emotional competence will interact significantly with regard to their combined influence on aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students.

8. Family and level of self-esteem will interact significantly with regard to their combined influence on aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students.

9. There will be significant stream-wise difference in the aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students.

10. Stream and level of emotional competence will interact significantly with regard to their combined influence on aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students.

11. Stream and level of self-esteem will interact significantly with regard to their combined influence on aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students.

12. There will be significant institution-wise difference in the aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students.

13. Type of institution and level of emotional competence will interact significantly with regard to their combined influence on aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students.

14. Type of institution and level of self-esteem will interact significantly with regard to their combined influence on aggressive behaviour of senior secondary school students.
1.9 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The present study was delimited to the following aspects:-

1. The sample included only 10+2 class students who were studying in government and private senior secondary schools of Himachal Pradesh.

2. The study was delimited only to a sample of 2000 students.

3. The study was restricted to Kangra, Mandi and Solan Districts of Himachal Pradesh only.

4. The study was also delimited with reference to tools. Aggression Scale (by Dr. Guru Pyari Mathur and Dr. Raj Kumari Bhatnagar), Emotional Competence Scale (by Dr. Harish Sharma and Dr. Rajiv Lochan Bhardwaj and Self-Esteem Inventory (by M.S.Prasad and G.P.Gupta) were used for data collection.

5. The study was delimited in terms of statistical analysis technique also. Two-way-analysis of variance was used to analyze the obtained data.

1.10 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

The terms used in the present study having different connotations may be operationally defined as follows:

**Aggression:** Aggression is behaviour, intended to hurt or injure someone. Baron and others are of the view that aggression is a behaviour, which is designed to deliver negative outcomes.

**Emotional Competence:** Emotional competence is a set of interrelated skills which comprised the ability to perceive accurately, appraise and express emotions, the ability to access or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand
emotion and emotional knowledge and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

**Self-esteem:** Self-esteem is a concept that a person has regarding his own self which consists of any evaluation that makes of himself/herself. Infect what a person thinks about himself/herself comprises the attitude and feeling that has about himself. Self esteem is not self absorption, but it is self-respect that leads to behaving responsibly towards others.

**Secondary School Students:** In the present investigation secondary school students refers to those students who are studying in 10+2 class of government and private senior secondary schools of Himachal Pradesh.

**Demographic Variables:** In the present study demographic variables refers to students gender, stream of study, family type and type of institution in which they are studying.