A study of adjustment and aggression among youth

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Abstract
The present study was an effort to conduct on adjustment and aggression among youth. The study used to tool Bel adjustment Inventory and M. k Sultania Aggression Inventoe (AI).

Keywords: Adjustment, Aggression & Youth.

Introduction
Adjustment, in psychology, the behavioural process by which humans and other animals maintain an equilibrium among their various needs or between their needs and the obstacles of their environments. A sequence of adjustment begins when a need is felt and ends when it is satisfied. Hungry people, for example, are stimulated by their physiological state to seek food. When they eat, they reduce the stimulating condition that impelled them to activity, and they are thereby adjusted to this particular need. (Britannica.com)

Different authors have defined adjustment in their own views. Some of them are given in the following paragraphs:

Smith; "A good adjustment is one which is both realistic and satisfying. At least in the long run, it reduces to the minimum the frustrations, the tensions, and anxieties which a person must endure. It provides an evenness of satisfaction of the whole person, rather than the satisfaction of the one intense drive at the expense of others" (P.A. Smith.: Personality and Adjustment New York: Mcgraw-nill Book Co., 1961), p.25.)
A change in attitude, behaviour, or both by an individual on the basis of some recognized need or desire to change, particularly to account for the current environment or changing, atypical, or unexpected conditions. It may be assessed via a type of survey called an adjustment inventory, which compares a person’s emotional and social adjustment with a representative sample of other individuals. A well-adjusted person is one who satisfies needs in a healthy, beneficial manner and demonstrates appropriate social and psychological responses to situations and demands. (dictionary.apa.org)

In general, the adjustment process involves four parts:
(1) A need or motive in the form of a strong persistent stimulus,
(2) The thwarting or non fulfilment of this need,
(3) Varied activity, or exploratory behaviour accompanied by problem solving, and
(4) Some response that removes or at least reduces the initiating stimulus and completes the adjustment.

People strive to be comfortable in their surroundings and to have their psychological needs (such as love or affirmation) met through the social networks they inhabit. When needs arise, especially in new or changed surroundings, they impel interpersonal activity meant to satisfy those needs. In this way, people increase their familiarity and comfort with their environments, and they come to expect that their needs will be met in the future through their social networks. Ongoing difficulties in social and cultural adjustment may be accompanied by anxiety or depression.

Aggression is a word that we use every day to characterize the behaviour of others and perhaps even of ourselves. We say that people are aggressive if they yell at or hit each other, if they cut off other cars in traffic, or even when they smash their fists on the table in frustration. But other harmful acts, such as the injuries that sports players receive during a
rough game or the killing of enemy soldiers in a war might not be viewed by everyone as aggression. Because aggression is so difficult to define, social psychologists (as well as many other people, including lawyers) judges and politicians, have spent a great deal of time trying to determine what should and should not be considered aggression. Doing so forces us to make use of the processes of causal attribution to help us determine the reasons for the behaviour of others.

Social psychologists define aggression as *behaviour that is intended to harm another individual who does not wish to be harmed* (Baron & Richardson, 1994). Because it involves the perception of intent, what looks like aggression from one point of view may not look that way from another, and the same harmful behaviour may or may not be aggressive depending on its intent.

The list that follows this paragraph (adapted from Archer & Coyne, 2005) presents some examples of the types of nonphysical aggression that have been observed in children and adults. One reason that people may use nonphysical rather than physical aggression is that it is more subtle. When we use these techniques we may be able to better get away with it—we can be aggressive without appearing to others to be aggressive.

(1) Bullying
(2) Spreading rumours
(3) Turning people against each other
(4) Criticizing other people behind their backs
(5) Leaving others out of a group or otherwise ostracizing them
(4) Dismissing the opinions of others
(5) Gossiping

In contrast to research on aggressive children, relatively few studies have examined the victims of aggression, particularly victims of relational aggression (Crick & Grototper, 1996). However, extant work on peer victimization indicates that like peer aggressors, victims of peer aggression also experience significant levels of psychological distress. For instance, studies on victims of overt aggression have revealed that this form of victimization concurrently and prospectively predicts depression, loneliness, and externalizing problems (Boivin, Hymel, & Bukowski, 1995; Hodges, Boivin, Vitaro, & Bukowski, 1999; Olweus, 1992; Vernberg, 1990). This is consistent with theory suggesting that victimized children either may interpret these negative peer experiences as critical appraisals of the self leading to internalized distress (e.g., depression, loneliness, low self-worth) or may develop pejorative attitudes toward their peers, subsequently leading to self-control problems, anger, and perhaps impulsive or oppositional behaviour to retaliate against peers (Crick & Bigbee, 1998; Crick, Grototper, & Rockhill, 1999). In the few studies that examined social–psychological correlates of relational victimization, findings suggested that this form of victimization also is associated with depression, loneliness, and self-restraint difficulties and appears to contribute uniquely to school-age children’s distress even after the effects of overt victimization (Crick & Grototper, 1996) and overt and relational aggression (Crick & Bigbee, 1998) are controlled. (Journal of Clinical Child Psychology C 2001, Vol. 30, No. 4, 479-491)

**References**