

A PSYCHOSOCIAL ENQUIRY OF ROMANTIC JEALOUSY IN YOUNG ADULTS

A Dissertation Submitted

To

Sikkim University



In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for the
Degree of Master of Philosophy

By

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Sciences

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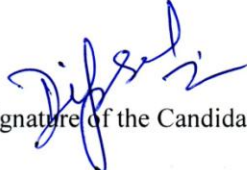
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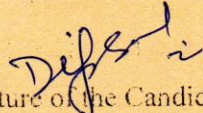
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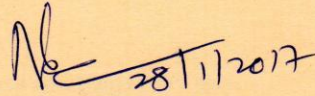
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Abstract

Romantic jealousy being one of the important aspects of human relationship is an interesting topic of research in social psychology. However, such kind of study has not been well researched in India. Such study is integral in Sikkim because love marriages are predominant in Sikkim. The main focus of the study was to see whether the three components of romantic jealousy (i.e., cognitive, emotional and behavioral) would have a significant positive correlation with stress and aggression (physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger and hostility) and this is moderated by self-esteem, optimism and personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience and neuroticism). One hundred and sixty participants who have been in a romantic relationship for last six months or more (males = 80 and females = 80) responded to standardised measures of romantic jealousy (Pfeiffer & Wong, 1989), Perceived Stress Scale (Cohen et. al., 1988), Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992), Life Orientation Test (Scheier et al., 1985), Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965), Emotion Regulation Scale (Gross & John, 2003), Big Five Inventory (John & Srivastava, 1999). The results showed that behavioural jealousy had a significant positive correlation with stress and aggression (physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger and hostility), whereas emotional and cognitive jealousy had no any significant correlation with aggression and stress. Additional analysis showed that males were significantly higher than females in terms of cognitive jealousy. No significant differences were seen between males and females in terms of emotional and behavioural jealousy.

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Chapter I

Introduction

1.1 Jealousy

1.1.1 Introduction

Jealousy is an emotion, and it refers to the thoughts and feelings of fear, concern, insecurity and anxiety over an unsurprising loss or importance of something which is of enormous personal value, which is particularly in reference to a human connection. Mostly it consists of a combination of emotion such as anger, dislike, inadequacy, helplessness and disgust. Jealousy is what one possesses or has possessed and a fear to lose, and also in jealousy the rival is always there (which is believed or imagined), but the focus of concern is the valued object. Mainly in jealousy there is always insecurity, fear of loss, and specifically fear of separation resulting from hostility. “Jealousy is notoriously a dangerous passion and constitutes a well-recognised motive for crimes of violence, particularly of a gynocidal nature” (Shepherd, 1961).

1.1.2 Definition

In the year 1922, Freud defined jealousy as follows:

“It is compounded of grief, the pain which is caused because of the thought which we have in us of losing the loved object, and of the self-important wound, in so far as this wound is distinguishable from the other, it is also a feelings of enmity against the successful rival, and of greater or lesser amount of self-criticism which tries the subject to hold his own ego accountable for his loss.”

Jealousy is mostly described as an emotion or blend of emotions. Freud's (1922) definition includes feelings of grief and enmity. Other theorists have included "hatred, anger, rage, aggression, envy, apprehension, suspicion, revenge, self-pity, anxiety, fear, mistrust, panic, distress, love, expectancy, depression, guilt and sexual arousal" (White and Mullen, 1989). Jealousy is also considered as one of the unnecessary evils we burden ourselves with. None of the people around also honestly say that we have not been jealous ever of more fortunate ones. Jealousy is also generally found only among equals or near equals like, friends of equal social status, our own relatives and also among our own colleagues in the office. And we are not jealous of someone who is either too highly placed or too distantly connected with us, we are mostly jealous with those who are mostly around us and near to us. Jealousy also keeps us under a sense of disappointment and discouraging frustration. It also makes us feel gloomy too. Jealousy is also considered as such depressive feelings that we cannot share about it even to our own best friends nor can we obtain it within ourselves. Therefore, jealousy can leave us with an inconvenience of a peculiar misery and if that jealousy is allowed to grow unchecked beyond a limit, it will start working like a slow poison to our healthy nature.

1.2 Romantic Jealousy

1.2.1 Definition

Romantic jealousy is defined by White & Mullen, in the year 1989 as, "a complex of emotions, actions and thoughts that leads to loss of or threat to self-esteem and existence or quality of the romantic relationship." It can be raised from an individual's perception that one's romantic partner is involved with a rival. Romantic jealousy has also been defined as, "the reaction to a threat which has been perceived

to the exclusive romantic nature of the relationship” (Bringle & Boebinger, 1990). The romantic jealousy which is experienced and the way it influence on relationship outcomes are unclear. Romantic jealousy is repeatedly associated with damaging effects, and on the other hand, jealousy is also linked to positive relationship outcomes such as increased commitment. Also, romantic jealousy has a powerful impact on the relationship because a jealous partner may engage in dynamics and tactics which involve appeasement, inducement and reward to the partner so that their partner avoids ‘seeing’ the rival. It has also been found that romantic jealousy is the primary motive behind partner homicide and violence (Daly & Wilson, 1998). At times it also involves violence or threats of violence and self harm too. Jealousy mostly arises due to some kind of insecurity, uncertainty and also due to a threat which can either be self or external threats. The feelings of insecurity also develops mainly due to perceived lack of attention and threat of rejection by one’s own partner and also may be of possessiveness. To reduce the negative effects of jealousy researchers have suggested a rationale response from the partner.

Freud in the year 1905 also suggested that the success of our adult romances also depends on how well our childhood complexes have been resolved. On the other hand psychology also tends to see love as a result of dissatisfaction, the unfulfilled needs and deficiencies of an individual and it is also seen as an experiencing positive emotion, negative emotions result from growing dependency on the other. Johnson in the year 2010 also have identified some intense negative feelings involved in love such as jealousy and greed, possessiveness, sadism, rage and masochism, competition, rivalry and extremes of denigration and idealization. Jealousy has also been found to be associated with relational dissatisfaction (Guerrero & Eloy, 1991; Anderson et al., 1995). Researches have also shown that jealousy is not always destructive. It has also

been found that expression of negative emotions have also been found to result in relational dissatisfaction when it is accompanied by distributive communication (for e.g. shouting) or even by distancing/avoidance and also if emotions are expressed through integrative communication, such as questioning without accusing, disclosing jealous feelings and discussing the future of the relationships the relation satisfaction was found to be high (Eloy, Guerrero, Spitzberg & Anderson, 1995).

Romantic jealousy is also viewed as an adaptive mechanism by an evolutionary psychologist wherein it motivates actions to retain the partner exclusively for one's own sexual access (Buss, 1995). Thus jealousy also serves to avoid infidelity among mating partner. Scientific literature on romantic jealousy has also revealed that gender difference is seen as one of the striking aspects in understanding jealousy. It is also understood from such studies that men react to more sexual infidelity and women react more on emotional infidelity. Gender differences were also found on the ways in which partners handle and cope with jealousy. It was seen that women tend to use more constructive ways to cope with jealousy than men (Carson & Cupach, 2000, Brehm, 1992). Relationship researchers have also proposed that women tend to preserve the relationship in the context of jealousy whereas; men on the other hand they seek destructive methods of coping in order to preserve their self-esteem (Rusbult, 1987; Bryson, 1991).

Daly, Wilson and Weghorst in the year 1982 and White in the year 1981 said that, romantic jealousy is a complex of interrelated cognitive, emotional and behavioral responses to the threatened loss of a partner to a real or imagined rival and it is also recognized as one of the primary causes for relationship failure, marital discord, and even one can murder his/her partner. As told by Buss in the year 2000, romantic jealousy has been mostly conceptualized in negative terms within

monogamous relationships and also an evolutionary perspective have emphasizes its utility as a basic adaptive mechanism which is designed to protect the pair-bond and promote reproductive success.

Jealousy itself has a complex nature with its cognitive, emotional and behavioural components. The results of many studies have also indicated that jealousy is also associated with relational conflict, relational dissatisfaction, divorce, violence and depression. Also partner's responses to jealousy would be one of the best indicators about the future of the relationship. There are also some constructive coping styles that could maintain the stability of the relationship by increasing the bond between the partners and also however there would be some destructive coping styles that could create some damage or even it would lead to end the relationship. But the coping style one prefers with jealousy has an important effect both on the relational and the individual level. Whereas some people shows different coping responses when they are faced with jealousy. Also there are several researchers who have proposed different models for explaining coping with jealousy. Jealousy can be seen as an interpersonal process, it is thus the way where one partner responds to jealousy can be associated with how relationally satisfied the other partner is. Jealousy has both a bright and a dark side. If we talk of a dark side than jealousy can sometimes lead to negative relational outcomes, such as dissatisfaction, uncertainty, possessiveness and conflict. Likewise if we look on a bright side of jealousy then it may help an individual to reinforce commitment, it may also renew one's sense of appreciation towards their partner, there may be some increase attraction and it may also help people to think that they need to pay more attention to their partner and their relationship. Bevan in the year 2013 noted that, "The idea that jealousy can carry both

negative and positive implications is encapsulated by the enigmatic relationship between jealousy and relationship satisfaction.”

Demirtas and Donmez in the year 2006 said that jealousy is associated with many words, images and meanings. Also, Pines in the year 1998 defined jealousy as a “complicated reaction in response to a perceived threat, which would/could destroy or end a relationship which is considered important.” So, according to Buunk and Bringle in the year 1987 they stated that jealousy is an “unpleasant emotional reaction which is based on the relationship between an individual current or previous partner and a third person involved.” Desteno and Salovey in the year 1996 also suggested that jealousy can be viewed as a “deviant state of mood that is elevated when a relationship which is considered important in one’s life is actually destroyed or is at risk and also which is characterized by feelings of fear, unhappiness and anger. As it should be understood from these definitions that jealousy is not just a simple concept, but it is a combinations of reactions and emotions. Therefore, jealousy must/should be evaluated as a multi-dimensional experience.

As told by Aune and Comstock in the year 1991 jealousy is regarded as one of the most prevalent, intense and wearisome feelings in intimate relationship. Jealousy is also considered as the problems that are mainly emphasized in marriage and therapies. Literature, philosophy, anthropology, sociology, especially clinical and social psychological literature, provides rich examples related to jealousy. If we have a look on the first theoretical analysis of jealousy by Kurt Lewin in the year 1948 it was observed that jealousy was not much emphasized until 1980’s. But in recent years studies began to examine the relationship between jealousy and self-esteem, attachment and some other similar variables both in Turkey and in other countries too.

Mostly, romantic jealousy is experienced after a situation is interpreted as, threatening to one's intimate relationship and can involve elements of other emotions such as sadness, fear and anger. Individual those experiencing jealousy may engage in a number of behaviours and thought processes aimed at reducing jealousy or keeping the relationship unbroken.

Mostly literature on sex differences in jealousy has focused on sexual and emotional forms of jealousy, where, sexual jealousy refers, to an individual's upset over a partner's sexual unfaithfulness, and emotional jealousy refers to an individual's upset over their partner's emotional infidelity (example- Falling in love with somebody else). But, this literature is mostly controversial (Harris, 2003; Sagarin, 2005). While sexual versus emotional jealousy mostly has been the topic of much research and jealousy has also been investigated as a multidimensional construct consisting of emotional, behavioural and cognitive sub-types (Pfeiffer & Wong, 1989). Here in this respect emotional and cognitive jealousy represent jealousy as an experience whereas behavioural jealousy represents jealousy as an expression (Afifi & Reichert, 1996). Russell & Harton in the year 2005 suggested that if we investigate jealousy as a multidimensional construct it would be more beneficial in determining the relationship between jealousy and other constructs, as well as for conveying a more accurate representation of an individual' jealousy.

Jealousy is constant among people of all ages and cultures (Desteno, Valdesolo & Bartlett, 2006). And due to its everywhere present and unexplained nature, it has been widely studied by scholars. Whereas jealousy is also viewed differently by some cultures than others, where it can damage relationships, it can influence the quality of one's social life and also it can decrease relational satisfaction (Bevan, 2008; Lavalley & Parker, 2009; Parker, Low, Walker & Gamm, 2005).

Jealousy can also lead to alteration of aggression, self-perception and violence (Gage & Hutchinson, 2006; Telesco, 2003). Jealousies can also result when individuals feel that a partner's relationship with someone else threatens their own, existing relationship with the partner. Individuals those who are jealous may feel that they are in danger of being replaced in the relationship by the interloper, thereby losing the relationship entirely. However, even when one understands that their own relationship with the partner can continue, jealous individuals may be distressed at the expected reduction of the quality of the relationship, which they also perceive as arising from the need to share the relationship rewards or privileged access to the partner with others (Adams, Mathes & Davies, 1985). Adults those who experience jealousy typically report strong, but blended emotions, mostly involving sadness, anger, embarrassment and some anxiety (Pfeiffer & Wong, 1989; Salovey & Rodin, 1989; Bringle & Buunk, 1985; Sharpsteen, 1993). Jealous individuals are also in a state of high uncertainty regarding their partner's relational commitment, and their cognitive assessments of others may be distorted and they may report preoccupying and ruminative thought. Also, theoretical arguments have supported the assertion that jealous individuals who find particularly distressing are not only the interloper's violation on the relationship but it also implied unfavourable social comparison of themselves with the interloper and the inferred rejection by the partner. Guerrero et al. in the year 1995 have noted that, mostly jealous individuals believe that their partners have compared them to the rival and that they have somehow failed to meet the standards. Also, these jealous circumstances are especially threatening to self-esteem, and also individuals those who are low in self-esteem are especially vulnerable to jealousy (Salovey & Rodin, 1989). The experience and expression of jealousy also depends to some extent on situational factors, strong individual differences in the

vulnerability to jealousy also exist among adults. Also, individual differences in exposure to jealousy have proven relatively stable with time and across specific contexts (Renner, Terry, Bringle & Davis, 1983) and it bears a relation to individuals' behavior in unnatural, analog settings involving relationship threat. Jealousy is also a major contributor in relationship dissatisfaction and in some instances, it also leads to relationship conflict and violence too. Individuals those who are highly jealous are found to be unhappy, self-deprecating, externally controlled, anxious and dogmatic (Bringle, 1981) and they are also suspicious, insecure and fearful (Guerrero & Anderson, 1998; Carson & Cupach, 2000; Sharpsteen & Kirkpatrick, 1997). Jealousy can also occur at any age and in the context of any valued relationship which is characterized by a degree of commitment, intimacy and dependence, including parent-child relationships and friendships too.

1.2.2 Types and its definition

Pfeiffer and Wong in the year, 1989 conceptualized three dimensions of jealousy and they are as follows:

1. Cognitive Jealousy
2. Emotional Jealousy and
3. Behavioural Jealousy

Cognitive jealousy

Cognitive jealousy involves a person's doubts, worries, and suspicious thoughts over a partner's potential infidelity or external relationships (Theiss & Solomon, 2006). It includes paranoid worries and doubts about rivals to a valued romantic relationship. Numerous studies have examined the role of cognition in

jealousy, which mainly involves the appraisal of threat to a relationship (Fitness & Fletcher, 1993; Harris, 2003; Nannini & Meyers, 2000). Cognitive jealousy involves the construction of complicated cognitive scenarios that result in biases toward perceiving relational threats and misunderstanding of the partner's behaviour (Rydell & Bringle, 2007). Examples of cognitive jealousy include like, to imagine a romantic partner as unfaithful, interpreting certain behaviours as flirting, or comparing oneself with a perceived romantic rival.

Emotional Jealousy

Much of the literature has focused on the component of emotional jealousy. Emotional jealousy, it consists of an affective reaction which can be real or an imagined threat to a valued relationship (Theiss & Solomon, 2006). Emotional arousal includes any number of negative feelings such as anger, anxiety, fear, discomfort, insecurity, and upset. Depending on the state of affairs, emotional jealousy may also include feelings of guilt, sexual arousal, envy and sadness (Guerrero, Trost, & Yoshimura, 2005; White & Mullen, 1989).

Behavioural Jealousy

Pfeiffer and Wong (1989) conceptualized behavioural jealousy as the “detective/protective measures a person may take when relationship rivals which can be real or imaginary are perceived.” The expression of jealous behaviours are visible in many ways, but what they have in common is the intention to whether protect the relationship or detect potential threats to the relationship, and have the goal to make sure that intimacy between the partner and rival does not occur anymore. When we take examples of behavioural jealousy it includes: questioning, checking up on one's partner, searching his or her belongings, to make derogatory statements about the

rival, or attempting to interrupt oneself between the partner and rival when they are engaged in conversation. So, based on this definition, stalking or observation of one's partner would constitute a more severe form of behavioural jealousy. White (1981) viewed such behaviours as strategies to deal with emotions, particularly as jealousy would occur more for individuals who are in committed relationships than for individuals who are single (Pines & Aronson, 1983; White & Mullen, 1989).

1.3 Emotion Regulation

1.3.1 Introduction

According to Gross (1998) defined Emotion Regulation, "it is the process by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions." Therefore, here individuals have the ability to control their emotions and also react only on the way they think to be appropriate in a specific social setting whether it would be on a conscious or unconscious level. Also from this definition we can logically assume that an individual will only be using emotion regulation to increase positive emotions. However, this is always not the case as there are some situations in which it is also, more beneficial or important to experience negative emotions like sadness or anger. Like for example while preparing for an argument with another person it doesn't help us to feel happy prior to that interaction. Instead of that a person should be engage in behaviour or thinking that would make them feel angry which would help him/her for that particular interaction. Aside from positive and negative emotions, research has also shown that a person should prefer to feel some neutral emotion in the presence or in front of a stranger. "A neutral emotional state is also required sometimes so as to

protect oneself from judgments that can be coinciding with acting overly emotional from the stranger.” (Baumeister, 2008)

As we all know that an emotion seems to come and go as they please. Also, however we actually hold considerably sway over our emotions too. We influence which emotions we have and how we experience and express those emotions. The process model of emotion regulation also suggests that how we regulate our emotions also matters. The regulatory strategies that act early in the emotion-generative process should have quite different outcomes than strategies that act later. As we know that there are two widely used strategies for down regulating emotion. The first one is the reappraisal which comes early in the emotion-generative process which consists of changing how we think about a situation in order to decrease its emotional impact. The second one is suppression which comes later in the emotion-generative process and it involves inhibiting the outward signs of emotion. Theory and research have also suggested that reappraisal is more effective than suppression. As, reappraisal decrease the experience and behavioural expression of emotion, and has no impact on memory. Whereas, suppression decrease behavioural expression but it fails to decrease the experience of emotion and it also actually impairs memory. Suppression also increases physiological responding in both the suppressors and their social partners too.

Emotion regulation has started receiving a great deal of attention by developmental and clinical scholars. Also acquiring emotional control and managing one's emotions in social situations is considered a central developmental task of early childhood (Thompson, 1994; Kopp, 1989; Sroufe, 1996). Thompson, in the year 1994 has noted that the concept of emotion regulation is still in search of definition and

various definitions of emotion regulation can also be found. Thomson himself in the year 1994 has defined emotion regulation in the following way:

“Emotion Regulation consists of the intrinsic and extrinsic processes responsible for modifying, monitoring and evaluating emotional reactions, especially for one’s goals.”

1.3.2 Definitions

According to Campos et al. (1994), they defined emotion regulation as, “no treatment of an emotion regulation from a functionalist perspective can avoid discussion of the social context that can elicit the need for regulation in the first place and that can be specified as the rules of proper conduct.”

Emotion regulation in everyday life mostly involves the down-regulation of negative emotions, also most individuals attempt to regulate their positive emotions too (Richards, John & Gross, 2006). Those positive emotions can be (a) down-regulated (for e.g., when we are trying to decrease love for a colleague who got married), (b) maintained (for e.g., when we are engaged in social sharing in order to prolong the effects of a positive events), and (c) up-regulated, for e.g., when we are trying to enjoy a long planned vacation despite disappointing food, housing and weather (Mikolajczak, 2009). Positive emotions also broaden the scopes of cognition and attention, thus facilitating the building of personal resources and it initiates upward spirals toward increasing emotional well-being (Branigan and Fredrickson, 2005; Fredrickson, 2001). Many studies also have showed that positive affect cause success across multiple life domains, including friendship, marriage, work performance, health and income (King, Lyubomirsky & Diener, 2005). Individual having ability to adequately regulate one’s emotions that is up-regulate positive ones

and down-regulate negatives ones, is of great importance. Efficient emotion regulation is in fact crucial for mental health, physical health, social relationships and work performances. Individuals also highly differ in their ability to regulate their emotions. Those people who cannot manage their emotions are at risk for mental disorders (like for e.g., depression, generalised anxiety disorder), physical illnesses (for e.g., psychosomatic diseases such as (cardiovascular diseases or migraines), or they may suffer from social relationships problems too.

1.4 Optimism

1.4.1 History and Definitions

Optimism had been defined by Marshal and Lang in the year, 1990 as, “the belief that the future holds desirable outcomes irrespective of one's personal ability to control those outcomes.” Seligman in the year, 1991 said that an optimist is a person those who always believes that defeat is a temporary an unfortunate happening which is not his or her own fault. The literature also supports the idea that optimism affects people in a positive manner. For example, they have found that optimists are healthier and they often become less depressed than pessimists (Seligman, 1991). Also, they said that optimists have excellent social relations with the people around and they can laugh at themselves and feel satisfied with themselves. It has also been said that an optimist continuously gain satisfaction during their attempts to achieve their goals, as well as after the success has been met (Snyder, 1994). Optimists always attempt to resolve conflict rather than giving up without a fight. Optimists are confident that whatever the obstacles comes in between can be overcome, whether that is actually possible or not. Lopez and Snyder in the year 2003 said that optimism can also be seen as a behavioural strategy that can allow people to be happier, more successful

and also healthier in their lives. Optimism can also be defined as a stable personality trait which can be related to positive expectations regarding future events.

The term optimism was originally derived from the Latin optimum, meaning “best”. Being an optimistic, in the typical sense of the word, is defined as expecting the best possible outcome from any given situation. This is mostly referred in psychology as dispositional optimism. It also thus reflects a belief that future conditions will open up as best. Also, Wortman, Marshal, Hervig, Vickers and Kusulas in the year 1992 said that optimism is the “inclination to expect favourable outcomes.” In other words we can say that optimism is the extent to which an individual’s perceive events or situations in their lives in a positive way. Basically, what we should understand is that, optimism won’t change the events or situations that are challenging or difficult throughout our life, instead, it changes the way how an individual views those particular situations or events.

Scheier & Carver, in the year 1985 had defined optimism as the cognitive disposition to expect favourable outcomes. Some research has also linked optimism to effective coping and to positive mental and physical health outcomes (Carver, Scheier & Bridges, 2001; Kemeny, Reed, Taylor, Gruenewald & Bower, 2000). Some studies have also shown that optimism leads to better social functioning. Like for example, optimism is associated with lower social alienation (Scheier & Carver, 1985) and with longer lasting friendships (Reilley, Geers & Dember, 1998). In romantic relationships, two prior studies have been done which suggested that optimism about a particular relationship predicts greater satisfaction in that relationship and reduced likelihood of relationship dissolution (Holmes & Murray, 1997; Helgeson, 1994;), although the mechanisms which explains such a relation were not directly tested.

1.5 Self Esteem

1.5.1 Definitions

Rosenberg, in the year, 1965 defined self-esteem as, “A favourable or unfavourable attitude towards the self.” He also defined self-esteem as, “Totality of the individual’s thought and feelings with reference to himself as an object.”

Smith and Mackie in the year, 2007 defined self-esteem it by saying that; “it is the positive or negative evaluations of the self, as in how we feel about it.” In simple words we can also say that self-esteem as a judgement of oneself as well as an attitude towards the self.

Two components of self-esteem are present in the definition of self-esteem: one is “worthiness” and another is “competence”. James in the year, 1890 have describe, self-esteem as, “a feeling that is dependent on the effectiveness of one’s actions,” as this description focuses on competence. Robert White (1963) draws attention to the developmental importance of the infant’s feeling of “efficacy”, which results from repeated success or failure of attempts to get what it needs, and eventually develops into a sense of competence and identity. Worthiness, in Rosenberg’s (1965) definition of self-esteem, is an attitude an individual possesses towards the self. An individual simply feels that he is a person of worth, he respects himself for what he is, but he do not stand in awe of himself neither does he expect others to stand in awe of him. Coopersmith in the year, 1967 had also focused on thought and worthiness that self-esteem was expressed through verbal attitudes and behaviour.

Self-esteem refers to how we feel about our self. Self-esteem varies; it can and does continually change. When we feel good about our self, we are less likely to respond to or interpret an event as stressful. On the other hand, if we place little or no value on our self and believe we have inadequate coping skills, we become susceptible to stress and strain. Particularly taking it as concern, research on high school and college students had found that stressful life events and low self-esteem significantly predict suicidal ideation, a desire/wish to die and thoughts occurring about suicide. Taking concern on a more positive note, research has also come up with some new findings indicating that it is possible for an individual to increase their ability to cope with stress by increasing their self-esteem. Also, Orth and Robins in the year 2014, have defined self-esteem as “an individual’s subjective evaluation of his or her worth as a person.”

In psychology and sociology, self-esteem also reflects a person's overall subjective emotional evaluation of his/ her own worth. It is also a judgment of oneself as well as an attitude toward the self. Self-esteem also encompasses beliefs (for example, "I am competent", "I am worthy") and emotions such as shame, despair, pride and triumph. Self-esteem is seen as an attractive as a social psychological construct because researchers have always conceptualized it as an influential predictor of certain outcomes, such as happiness, academic achievement, satisfaction in marriage and relationships and criminal behaviour. Self-esteem can apply specifically to a particular dimension (for example, "I believe I am a good writer and feel happy about that") or a global extent (for example, "I believe I am a bad person, and feel bad about myself in general"). Self –Esteem refers to the set of evaluative attitudes that a person has about himself or his accomplishments. Level of self-esteem has been found to be related to a variety of interpersonal behaviours. In particular, persons with

low self-esteem have been found to prefer a greater amount of personal space (i.e., to maintain greater interpersonal distance) than those with high self-esteem.

1.6 Personality

1.6.1 Definition

Generally, we can say that personality is the combination of characteristics or qualities that form an individual's distinctive character.

There are many definitions of personality and they are as follows:

According to Gordon Allport, 1995, "Personality is everything that makes us an individual. It is also the interaction and integration of our experience, our genetic inheritance and our ways of relating the two."

According to Gerrig and Zimbardo, 2006, personality is defined as "the complex set of psychological qualities that influence an individual's characteristics pattern of behaviour across different situations and over time."

1.6.2 Types and its definitions

There are five dimensions of personality and they are as follows:

- 1) Extraversion
- 2) Agreeableness
- 3) Conscientiousness
- 4) Openness to experience and
- 5) Neuroticism

Extraversion: It is mostly characterized by surgency from external situations/activity, breadth of activities and energy creation from external means.

Extraverts enjoy interacting with people and are often perceived as full of energy. They tend to be enthusiastic and action oriented individuals. They possess high group visibility, like to talk and assert themselves.

Agreeableness: It is a tendency to be compassionate and cooperative instead of being suspicious and antagonistic towards others. It is also a measure of one's trusting and helpful nature, and whether a person is generally well tempered or not. The agreeableness trait reflects individual differences in general concern for social harmony. Agreeable individual's values getting along with others. They are generally kind, considerate, trusting, generous, helpful, trustworthy and willing to compromise their interests with others.

Conscientiousness: It is a tendency to show self-discipline, act dutifully and aim for achievement against measures or outside expectations. It is also related to the way in which people, control, regulate and direct their impulses.

Openness to Experience: It reflects the degree of intellectual curiosity, creativity and preference for novelty. It is also described as the extent to which a person is imaginative or independent, and depicts a personal preference for a variety of activities over a strict routine. Openness is a general appreciation for art, emotion, adventure, imagination, unusual ideas, curiosity and a variety of experience. People who are open to experience are open to emotion, intellectually curious, willing to try new things and sensitive to beauty. They also tend to be more creative and more aware of their feelings.

Neuroticism: It is the tendency to experience unpleasant or negative emotions easily, such as anger, depression, vulnerability and anxiety. Neuroticism also refers to the degree of emotional stability and impulse control and is sometimes referred to as

“emotional instability”. They also mostly interpret ordinary situations as threatening, and minor frustrations as hopelessly difficult. Their negative emotional reactions tend to persist for unusually long periods of time, which means they are often in a bad mood.

1.7 Stress

1.7.1 Definitions

Stress is a general term applied to various psychologic (mental) and physiologic (bodily) pressures experienced or felt by people throughout their lives.

Stress is defined as “a state of psychological and physiological imbalance resulting from the disparity between situational demand and the individual's ability and motivation to meet those needs.”

Dr. Hans Selye, one of the leading authorities on the concept of stress, described stress as “the rate of all wear and tear caused by life.”

Stress can be positive or negative:

- Stress is good when the situation offers an opportunity to a person to gain something. It acts as a motivator for peak performance.
- Stress is negative when a person faces social, physical, organizational and emotional problems.

As we all know stress is a natural human response to pressure when we are faced with challenging or sometimes dangerous situations. And this pressure is not only about what is happening around us, but often it is also about demands we place on ourselves. Also, experiencing stress is part of being alive and some stress helps

increase our alertness and energy to meet challenging situations. Stress is helpful when it increases our ability to be alert, energised, and switched on and it is resourceful in facing challenges we enjoy or we have to deal with. But stress becomes unhelpful when it leaves us feeling fatigued, tense, anxious, burnt out or overwhelmed.

Nevid and Rathus (2003), defined stress as, “the physiological demand placed on the body when one must adapt, cope or adjust.”

According to American Medical Association, stress can be defined as, “any interference that disturbs a person mental or physical well-being.”

Generally, we can define stress as a response to a demand that is placed upon us. Also, managed stress can become useful and healthy when we view an event as a challenge and whereas unmanaged stress can become distressful and unhealthy when we view an event as a threat. Stress is fairly a universal experience for all the people living around. Regardless of how our personalities vary in terms of intensity at one time or another anyhow we will be confronted once with a situation that we find stressful. Different people may experience stress in different way like for example a student may find stressful situation in his academic works like regarding his study, their exams and all, also a person working in a private company may find a stressful situation regarding his work loads, his busy schedule sometimes not able to take out his time for his friend or his family because of his work and all. So like this different people are confronted with stressful situation differently.

1.8 Aggression

1.8.1 Introduction and definitions

It is a form of physical or verbal behaviour leading to self-assertion. It is often anger and destructive it is intended to be injurious, which can be physically or emotionally and it also aimed at domination of one person by another. Aggression may also arise from innate drives and/or can be a response to frustration and may be manifested by overt attacking and destructive behaviour, by overt attitudes of hostility and obstructionism, or by a healthy self-expressive drive to mastery.

Bernstein, Penner, Clarke-Stewart & Roy (2006) defined aggression as, “an act that is intended to cause harm to another person”. In the year, 2003, Colman defined aggression as, “a behaviour whose primary or sole purpose or function is to injure physically or psychologically”. Myers (2005) in his own submission defined aggression as “physical or verbal behaviour intended to hurt someone”. Also Brehm, Kassin & Fein (2005) saw aggression as behaviour that is intended to harm another individual. So, based on the above definitions, aggression refers to any act that hurts, harms or destroys which must be intended or deliberate.

Likewise Anderson and Bushman, (2002) and Bushman and Huesmann, (2010), defined aggression as, “any behaviour enacted with the intention to harm another person who is motivated to avoid that harm.”

Aggression is the delivery of an aversive stimulus from one person to another, with intent to harm and with an expectation of causing such harm, when the other person is motivated to escape or avoid the stimulus. It is admitted that this definition may not cover all examples and that it can be attacked on several points. Nor does it

even begin to deal with many of the variables involved in aggression. For instance, it does not mention the role played by emotions in many aggressive actions. It does not account for the complex cognitive judgements that often precede aggression. It does not take into account the fact that aggression is often reciprocal, or that it may sometimes serve as a valuable 'safety valve' for a person experiencing extreme levels of anger.

Aggression is action that is attacking someone or a group. It is intended to harm someone. It can be a verbal attack which in result includes like insults, threats, sarcasm, or attributing nasty motives to them or it can be a physical punishment or restriction. Sometimes there is one level when our aggression becomes so extreme that we lose self-control, it is said that we are in a rage. Also, mostly people are little bit confused with aggression and assertiveness so, aggression must be distinguished from assertiveness which is tactfully and rationally standing up for one's own rights, indeed assertiveness is designed not to hurt others.

In social psychology, the term aggression is generally defined as "any behavior that is intended to harm another person who does not want to be harmed." (Baron & Richardson, 1994). Aggression which is an external behaviour that can be seen like for example we can see a person shoot, stab, hit, slap or curse someone. Also, aggression is not an emotion that occurs inside a person, such as an angry feeling.

1.8.2 Different forms of aggression

Different forms of aggression and they are as follows:

1. Physical Aggression,
2. Verbal Aggression,
3. Anger and
4. Hostility

Physical Aggression

Physical aggression is behaviour causing or threatening physical harm towards others. For example it includes behaviour like hitting, kicking, biting, using weapons and breaking toys or other possessions. Physical aggression is hostile form of aggression. Its aim is to cause bodily damage. It includes kicking, molesting, harassing, biting, pushing, torturing, fighting, bullying, vandalism, destruction and gangsterism, shoving, hair pulling, stabbing, shooting (Sameer & Jamia 2007; National Youth Violence Prevention Research Centre 2002). Physical aggression also has been defined in many ways as it varies, but many of the investigators have commonly considered the term to mean, “the use or threat of physical force or restraint carried out with the intent of causing pain or injury to another” (Hotaling & Sugarman, 1989). Physical aggression has also been considered to be distinct from psychological or verbal aggression (e.g., Arias, Kimerling & Ronfeldt, 1998; Hotaling & Sugarman, 1989). It can also be broken down into “perpetration” (the use of aggression) and the other one is “victimization” (being the target of aggression).

Verbal Aggression

Infant and Wigley, (1986) defined verbal aggression as, “a personality trait that predisposes persons to attack the self-concepts of other people instead of, or in addition to, their positions on topics of communication.” It is also thought to be mainly a destructive form of communication, but it can also produce positive outcomes. Verbal aggression also consists of offset constructive types which can produce satisfaction in relationships and destructive types which can also have a negative impact on relationships.

Verbal aggression includes acts such as insulting with bad language, displaying anger, threatening, swearing and being sarcastic all in order to cause emotional and psychological pain (Sameer & Jamia 2007), while National Youth Violence Prevention Research Centre (2002) state that verbal aggression includes such behaviours as threatening, intimidating others and engaging in malicious teasing and name-calling.

Anger is a feeling where we get mad in response to frustration or injury. As in this case we don't like what has happened and we would like to get revenge on that thing. Anger, it is an emotional-physiological- cognitive internal state, and also it is separate from the behaviour it might prompt. In some instances, angry emotions are also beneficial, like in some cases if we are taken advantage of, and then at that case anger motivates us to take actions not necessarily aggressive but just to correct the situation. Anger is considered as an intense emotional response. It is also an emotion which involves a strong uncomfortable emotional response towards a perceived frustrated situation, threat or hurt. Anger can also be occurred when a person starts feeling that their personal boundaries have started being violated or going to be

violated. William DeFoore, who is an anger management writer, had described anger as a pressure cooker where an individual can apply pressure against anger for a certain amount of time until it explodes.

Anger can also be distinguished from hostility which is a chronic state of anger. Anger is a temporary response which we all have to a particular frustrating situation whereas hostility is a permanent personality characteristic which certain people have.

Anger is an emotion and it is characterized by antagonism toward someone or something we feel has deliberately done us wrong. Anger can also be a good thing. It can give us a way to express negative feelings, for example in anger we may say something to someone which may hurt his/her sentiments or we may do something which may hurt others. Or it may also give us a way to express positive feelings like we motivate our self to find solutions to problems. Excessive anger can also cause problems. It may also lead to increased blood pressure and other physical changes associated with anger and it may be difficult to think straight and harm our physical and mental health.

Hostile aggression takes place when the aggressor's primary intention is to harm the victim as a result of anger (Onukwufor 2012).

Hostility is a form of angry internal rejection or denial in psychology. It is a part of personal construct psychology which was developed by George Kelly. Also in everyday speech it is more commonly used as a synonym for anger and aggression. And in psychological terms, Kelly defined hostility as, "the wilful refusal to accept evidence that one's perception of the world is wrong."

1.9 Summary

In the first chapter, the different variables used for the present study along with its components have been discussed. The variables which have been discussed are jealousy, romantic jealousy, stress, self-esteem, optimism, emotion regulation along with its two components (reappraisal and suppression), aggression along with its four components (physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger and hostility) and personality along with its five components (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness to experience).

Chapter II

Literature Review

2.1 Romantic Jealousy

Bevan and Lannutti (2002) found that gay males were significantly more likely to use violent communication threats than were heterosexual males. Also it was found that lesbians reported using manipulation attempts to a significantly lesser degree than did heterosexual participants and gay males. They also found that levels of cognitive and emotional jealousy experience did not significantly differ by sexual orientation or sex. Bevan and Stetzenbach (2007) found that avoidance/denial was the most frequently reported form of jealousy expression by adult siblings. They also found that in avoidance/denial, distributive communication and violence were negatively related to communication satisfaction whereas integrative communication was positively related to communication satisfaction.

Sahana and Ganth (2016) found that there was a gender difference only in terms of cognitive jealousy with men showing higher levels of the same. However no differences were found when it came to emotional and behavioural jealousy or relationship closeness. Also people with a romantic partner were found to be high in relationship closeness compared to those without a partner (those who just show romantic attraction for someone). Correlations between these variables showed that immature defenses showed a positive association with cognitive and behavioural jealousy. Mature and neurotic defenses showed no correlation with jealousy. Relationship closeness showed a negative correlation with cognitive jealousy and a positive correlation with emotional jealousy. Also, through regression analysis it was seen that relationship closeness emerged as the best predictor of cognitive jealousy

and immature defense style was found to be the best predictor of behavioural jealousy. However the regression model was not significant for emotional jealousy.

Attridge (2013) found that emotional jealousy was positively associated with good person factors of the agape and eros love styles, having more romantic beliefs about the partner, the good relationship factors of experiencing positive emotions more frequently in the relationship, feeling love for the partner, being in love with the partner, having an exclusively committed relationship, stronger barriers to break up and higher satisfaction with the relationship. Whereas, emotional jealousy was negatively correlated with the ludus love style. Emotional jealousy was not correlated with life satisfaction, loneliness, either of the romantic attachment styles, the pragma and storge love styles, relationship duration, level of alternatives to the current partner, and longitudinal relationship stability. Cognitive jealousy was positively correlated with insecure or anxious romantic attachment style, loneliness and the ludus game-playing and mania obsessive love styles. It was also negatively correlated with life satisfaction. Cognitive jealousy was also positively correlated with the “bad” relationship factors of experiencing negative emotions frequently in the relationship and perceiving better alternatives to the partner. However, cognitive jealousy was uncorrelated with certain measures, including all the four good love styles, relationship exclusivity, relationship duration, romantic beliefs, relationship stability and barriers to relationship breakup. Whereas, behavioral jealousy was positively associated with the two bad love styles of ludus and mania, with the frequency of experiencing negative emotions recently in the relationship and with having more alternatives to the relationship.

Croucher (2008) suggested that religion was found to be a significant predictor of jealousy. Hindus were higher on cognitive and emotional jealousy, while Christians

were higher on cognitive jealousy than Muslims. They also found that biology and social context influence jealousy. Elphinston et al., (2013) found that cognitive jealousy and surveillance behaviours were associated with relationship dissatisfaction via rumination and cognitive jealousy was also directly associated with relationship dissatisfaction. Also, it was found that surveillance behaviours were directly associated with relationship satisfaction. Lastly, they suggested that rumination is highlighted as a factor in explaining the link between romantic jealousy and romantic dissatisfaction.

Guerrero (1998) in his study on attachment-style difference in the experience and expression of romantic jealousy, four findings were reported. First, those with negative self-model reported experiencing more cognitive jealousy than did those with positive self-models. Second, jealous individuals with negative other-models reported feeling fear less intensely, using less relationship-maintaining behavior, and engaging in more avoidance/denial than did those with positive other-models. Third, those who used preoccupied attachment style reported displaying more negative affect and engaging in more surveillance behavior than did those with other attachment styles. Finally, those who used dismissive attachment style reported feeling less fear than those who used secure and preoccupied and also less sadness than preoccupied, when experiencing jealousy. Also, it was seen that attachment-style dimensions, such as lack of confidence and preoccupation with relationships, were also associated with jealousy experience and expression.

Southard and Abel (2010) found that women reported significantly higher levels of emotional, as well as slightly higher behavioural jealousy than did men. No differences between men and women were found with regard to cognitive jealousy. Furthermore, both men and women currently in a romantic relationship reported

significantly higher emotional jealousy than those who were not currently in a relationship with no differences in cognitive or behavioural jealousy.

Moi (2015) found that women seem to be more frequently jealous than men. The experience of jealousy is not the same in the two sexes. Masculine jealousy is predominantly oedipal, and shows a greater frequency of aggressive and paranoid reactions. Feminine jealousy tends to be depressive rather than aggressive.

Acevedo and Aron (2009) in their study on romantic love with intensity, engagement and sexual interest can exist in long-term relationships found that in long and short term relationships, romantic love (without obsession) was strongly associated with relationship satisfaction and also it was seen that obsession was negatively correlated with it in long term relationships and positively in short term relationships.

Dainton and Aylor (2001) in their study on a relational uncertainty analysis of jealousy, trust and maintenance in long distance versus geographically close relationships it was found that relationships with relational uncertainty was positively related to cognitive and emotional jealousy, also relationships with relational uncertainty was negatively related to five maintenance behaviours, and also negatively related to trust. It was also seen that individuals in geographically close relationships did not experience less relational uncertainty than individuals in long distance relationships with some face-to-face contact, but those who were in LDRs with some face-to-face contact were significantly more certain of their relationships than those who were in LDRs without face-to-face contact. Also, individuals in long-distance relationships with no face-to-face interaction were significantly less likely to use the maintenance behaviours of assurances or sharing tasks, and expressed

significantly less trust than individuals in long-distance relationships with some face-to-face interaction.

Anderson et., al. (1995) in their study on romantic jealousy and relational satisfaction on a sample of 346 individuals currently involved in dating or marital relationships found that cognitive jealousy was a more potent predictor of relational satisfaction than emotional jealousy. Also it was reported that individuals who use integrative communication and/or expression of negative affect to communicate jealousy, while refraining from using distributive communication and/or active distancing were most likely to be satisfied with their relationships and it was also found that jealousy expression was significantly more variance in relational satisfaction than jealousy experience alone.

Guerrero (2014) in his study on jealousy and relational satisfaction among dating couples had reported that for constructive communicative responses, there was a direct effect between communication and relational satisfaction, such that women's reported use of constructive communication was positively associated with both their own and their partner's relational satisfaction. Also for rival focused responses, there were direct effects between jealousy experience and surveillance, rival contacts and rival derogation. It was also seen that jealousy experience was also positively associated with signs of possession, but only for women. When men reported using signs of possession they also tended to report more relational satisfaction. Also it was reported that associations among jealousy experience, jealous communication and satisfaction also differ depending on the type of communicative response.

Bevan (2006) in his study on testing and refining a consequence model of jealousy across relational contexts and jealousy expression messages reported that

path modelling techniques had reveal that one of two consequence models of jealous fit for the data for partner jealousy expression where the jealous target first experienced general partner uncertainty which leads to relational uncertainty, which also leads to rumination and it also leads to negative-related emotion.

Fussell and Stollery (2012) in their study from the result of sixteen semi-structured interviews that were conducted with heterosexual men and women with the purpose of exploring the emotions, cognitions and behaviours that formed their subjective lived experience in response to relationship threat it was reported through interpretative phenomenological analysis that revealed four super-ordinate themes (“threat appraisal”, “emotional episodes”, “sex-specific threat” and “forgive and forget”) and unequivocal sex differences in romantic jealousy was consistent with the evolutionary account. Also, Self-esteem, particularly when conceptualized as an index of mate value, emerged as an important proximal mediator for both sexes. Also, it was found that specific outcomes were dependent upon domains central to the individual’s self concept that were primarily sex-specific.

Tagler (2010) in his study on sex differences in jealousy: comparing the influence of previous infidelity among college students and adults it was found that male college students were more likely to be distressed by hypothetical partner sexual infidelity, whereas female college students were more distressed by emotional infidelity. Whereas among adults, it was seen that adult women reported more on sexual and emotional distress than adult men. Sex differences were found only among adults who had not previously experienced real partner infidelity.

Nannini and Meyers (2000) found that women indicated more emotional distress over all of the conditions of infidelity and for women and men alike, conditions of infidelity involving a sexual component, whether alone or together with emotional infidelity proved to be more upsetting than those involving only an emotional component. It was also found that sexual infidelity was recognized as being an event beyond the individual's control more than emotional infidelity whereas the combination of sexual and emotional infidelity however did not differ in situational control from either of two types of infidelity by themselves.

Kuhle, et al., (2009) in their study on sex differences in the motivation and mitigation of jealousy-induced interrogations they have found that men were more than women to inquire about the sexual nature of the extra-pair relationship and women were more than men to inquire about the emotional nature of the extra-pair relationship. It was also reported that men were more than women to deny any emotional involvement with the extra-pair relationship and women were more than men to deny any sexual involvement with the extra-pair partner.

Buunk (1984) in his study on jealousy as related to attributions for the partner's behaviour it was reported that a need for sexual variety was more often attributed to males than to females. The attribution of marital deprivation and aggression were significantly related to jealousy. Also, among males the attribution of a need of variety for variety was linked to jealousy whereas in females, perceived measure of the extramarital partner appeared to be an important factor. It was also suggested that jealousy has a somewhat different meaning for females and males and that this difference is also typical for sex roles in general.

Kanwar et al., (2015) in their study on level of jealousy and marital adjustment amongst rural and marital adjustment amongst rural and urban working and non-working couples it was reported that men were well adjusted with their marital life but were more jealous than to women. Also, non-working men enjoyed their life, and were well adjusted but more jealousy was reported by them as compared to non-working women. It was also seen that urban people were better adjusted with their marital life but more jealousy were reported by them as compared to rural area people. Further, it was suggested that for promoting better marital life one should be able to reduce their jealousy level and one should be able to promote faith, self-esteem and mindfulness.

Rotenberg, et al., (2001) in their study on loneliness, sex, romantic jealousy and powerless they found that the relation between jealousy and both loneliness and powerlessness varied as a function of the type of contact between romantic partner and rival. Also, loneliness and powerlessness were: a) positively associated with jealousy for unilateral contact (e.g., a partner admiring an opposite-sex person), (b) not associated with jealousy for bilateral contact (e.g., a partner having an opposite-sex person as a friend), and (c) negatively associated with jealousy for mutual contact (e.g., a partner kissing an opposite-sex person). Regression analyses also indicated that powerlessness mediated, in part, the relation between loneliness and jealousy. Some sex differences were also found in jealousy, but those differences did not conform to the pattern expected on the basis of sex differences in powerlessness. It was also proposed that lonely individuals tended to display situationally inappropriate jealousy because of their powerlessness and that tendency posed a problem for their romantic relationships.

Parker et al., (2005) in their study on friendship jealousy in young adolescents had conducted two studies, in study 1 it involved 94 adolescents who indicated that the jealousy measure had sound psychometric properties and produced individual differences that were robust over time and were free from socially desirable responding. Also, girls and adolescents with low self-worth reported the greatest friendship jealousy. Whereas in study 2 it involved 399 young adolescents and it was found that self and peer reported jealousy were only modestly associated and had somewhat distinct correlates. Structural modelling also revealed that young adolescent's reputation for friendship jealousy was linked to behaving aggressively and to broader peer adjustment difficulties. Both self and peer-reported jealousy also contributed to loneliness.

Barelds and Dijkstra (2007) in their study on relations between different types of jealousy and self and partner perceptions of relationship quality among a heterosexual 961 couples it was found that both partners level of reactive jealousy was related positively to relationship quality. Also, both partners level of anxious jealousy were negatively related to relationship quality. Newberry (2010) reported that jealousy has a negative impact on relationship quality. It was also found that anxious jealousy had a moderate, negative association with relationship quality. Also commitment level increases during relationships and reactions of jealousy increases in order to protect investment in the relationship.

2.2 Aggression

Capaldi and Crosby (1997) found that physical aggression was generally higher in young women than the young men. Male and female reported themselves to be higher in psychological aggression than their partner. Observed aggression was

significantly associated with reported aggression and whereas physical aggression was significantly correlated with psychological aggression for both males and females. It was also found that there was a positive correlation between psychological aggressions and length of relationship. Also the young man's aggression towards his partner was predicted particularly by his anti-social behaviour, whereas that of the young woman was predicted by depressive symptoms and low self-esteem. Males who were higher in anti-social behaviour had a female partner who was also higher in anti-social behaviour. Lastly, it was found that relationship satisfaction was associated with the occurrence of psychological aggression for both males and females but not of physical aggression.

Onukwufor (2013) found that 20.8% of the secondary school students were physically aggressive while the prevalence of verbal aggression among the students was 48.3%. It was also found that prevalence of physical aggression and verbal aggressions were higher among males than females. Also, prevalence of physical aggression was higher among Junior Secondary Schools (JSS) students (28.3%) than among the SSS students (13.3%), while prevalence of verbal aggression was higher among Senior Secondary School (SSS) students (56.7%), than among JSS students (40%). There was significant difference found between male and female students physical aggression. There was also significant difference seen between JSS and SSS student's physical aggression. It was recommended that Anti-Aggression Club should be established in schools, to monitor, discourage and report aggressive behaviours to school authorities.

Davis et al., (2003) in their study on stalking perpetrators and psychological maltreatment of partners; anger-jealousy, attachment, insecurity, need for control and break up context it was reported that stalking was significantly related to

psychological maltreatment of the partner (PMP) prior to the break-up and being the recipient of the breakup was associated with feelings of anger, jealousy and obsessiveness and with higher levels of courtship persistence, and stalking. Also a replicated path model showed that anxious attachment and need for control were related to PMP and that need for control had a direct contribution to stalking. For anxious attachment, its connection to stalking was indirect, mediated by the degree of anger-jealousy over the break-up.

Belus et al., (2014) in their study among undergraduate 431 students from a large Midwestern U. S. University on do anger and jealousy mediate the relationship between adult attachment styles and intimate violence perpetration it was reported through mediational analyses that anger mediated the associations between each of the four attachment styles (i.e., dismissive, fearful, preoccupied, secure) and violence perpetration for women. However, neither anger nor jealousy mediated the association between attachment and violence perpetration for men. Also, it was seen that young women's intimate partner violence (IPV) perpetration appears more closely related to their emotional responses, in particular anger, but violence perpetration in young men does not necessarily seem to follow this pattern. Lastly, the findings suggested that some specific strategies may be useful for preventive efforts of violence perpetration in young adult women, such as anger-related emotion regulation skills training.

Kar and O'Leary (2013) in their study on patterns of psychological aggression, dominance, and jealousy within marriage among a sample of 453 married parents and it was reported that women had significantly higher dominance, jealousy, and psychological aggression scores. It was also seen that both male and female respondents in relationships where there was bi-directional severe psychological aggression which demonstrated higher mean levels of severe psychological

aggression, dominance, and jealousy than did their counterparts who were unilaterally severely aggressive. This was the first study which demonstrated that bilateral psychological aggression was associated with higher mean levels of psychological aggression, dominance, and jealousy scores for both male and female partners than unilateral aggression. Also, it was seen that there was no differential impact of severe psychological aggression by gender. Tougas et al., (2016) found that both men and women who were higher on avoidance predicted their perception of lower partner support. It was also found that perception of lower partner support was related to both partners more frequent use of psychological aggression. There was no significant association found between attachment insecurities and use of psychological aggression.

Chang et al., (2003) in their study on harsh parenting in relation to child emotion regulation and aggression among 325 Chinese children and their parents it was reported that mothers harsh parenting affected child emotion regulation more strongly than fathers, whereas it was seen that harsh parenting emanating from fathers had a stronger effect on child aggression. Also it was found that boys had scored significantly higher on school aggression and emotion dysregulation than girls. Father's harsh parenting also affected sons more than daughters; whereas there was no gender differential effect with mother's harsh parenting. Lastly, no differences were seen between fathers and mother's harsh parenting when sons and daughters were analyzed together.

Pickett et al., (2016) reported that perpetrators with high impulse control difficulties demonstrated higher levels of unprovoked aggression in the experimental condition than in the control condition. Result also showed that aggression for all Taylor Aggression Paradigm (TAP) responses did not vary across the experimental

and control conditions for any of the tested groups including nonperpetrators with low impulse control difficulties, perpetrators with low impulse control difficulties or perpetrators with high impulse control difficulties. The findings also suggested that within a social context, men who receive negative feedback (i.e., social rejection) were more likely to respond aggressively towards female if he has a history of sexual aggression perpetration and impulse control difficulties.

LaMotte et al., (2016) in their study among 83 heterosexual community couples it was found that for males, mistrust significantly mediated the relationship between trauma exposure and both physical and psychological intimate partner aggression (IPA) use. Whereas for females, it was found that mistrust did not mediate the significant relationship between trauma exposure and intimate partner aggression use. Using the actor-partner interdependence model in the analyses, both actor and partner mistrust had uniquely predicted physical and psychological IPA use. This finding also suggested the importance of examining core schemas that may underlie trauma reactions and use of intimate partner aggression.

Ozdemir et al., (2016) found that parental closeness, monitoring and peer approval were significantly and positively associated with self-esteem but negatively associated with aggression. Self-esteem was also found significantly and negatively related to physical, verbal and hostility sub-scales of aggression. Also through standardized structural path coefficients it was demonstrated that maternal closeness was positively associated with adolescent's self-esteem and negatively associated with aggression. Whereas, maternal monitoring was not significantly related to self-esteem but was significantly and negatively related to aggression and maternal peer approval was positively associated with adolescent's self-esteem but was unrelated to aggression. Further it was also found through mean values that girls tended to

perceive more closeness, monitoring and peer approval than boys from their mothers. Also girls perceived more closeness and monitoring than did boys from their fathers and boys were significantly higher than girls on physical and verbal aggression.

2.3 Stress

McKay, et al., (2014) in their study among the 610 adolescents from United Kingdom had found that girls had significantly higher mean scores on stress domains. It was also seen that females had scored significantly lower on self-esteem and social self-efficacy (SSE), but had scored higher on emotional self-efficacy. Regression analyses had showed differential relationships between self-efficacy domains and stress domains. Also, test of interaction effects had revealed that, neither gender nor self-esteem had moderated the relationship between adolescents stress and self-efficacy. Further it was also reported that moderating effects of self-efficacy domains on the relationship between stress domains and alcohol use were infrequent.

Timmons et al., (2016) found that both husbands and wives experiencing total daily stress were associated with greater same-day marital conflict and that conflict was greater on days when both spouses had experienced high level of stress. Also, evidence of cross-day spill over was only found among those couples with high concurrent marital aggression and also among those couples where wives had reported high family-of-origin aggression. Wilson et al., (2013) in their study among 696 couples they found that individual attachment styles were paired to form dyadic attachment categorization. They also found that relationship consisting of one insecurely attached partner had higher levels of aggression than secure or secure dyads, whereas insecure or insecure dyads had the highest levels of aggressive behaviour among all groups.

Persike and Krenke (2016) found that across countries adolescents' perceived parent-related stress to be considerably greater than peer-related stress. It was also seen that most of the participants coped less actively with parent-related stress than with peer-related stress. There was a significant difference seen with respect to geographic region and key demographic indicators. Also, adolescents from Eastern European and Western countries had generally quite low levels of stress. Whereas, adolescents from Southern Europe exhibited the highest stress levels and the greatest coping activity in dealing with stress in both domains, and adolescents from Southern Emerging and Asian countries reported high levels of parent-related stress and dealt much less actively with parent related stress than with peer-related stress. Adolescents mostly from all countries were remarkably competent in dealing with relationship stressors. Further it was also found that cultural and regional differences had a stronger effect on stress perception and coping style than gender.

2.4 Optimism

Srivastava et al., (2006) reported that optimists and their partners indicated greater relationship satisfaction, an effect that was mediated by optimist's greater perceived support. Also, when the couples engaged in a conflict conversation, optimists and their partners saw each other as engaging more constructively during the conflict, which in turn led both partners to feel that the conflict was better resolved one week later. It was also seen that in a one year follow-up, men's optimism predicted relationship status. Also, effects of optimism were mediated by the optimist's perceived support, which appears to promote a variety of beneficial processes in romantic relationships.

Aspinwall and Brunhart (1996) found that optimists actually did pay attention to enough risk information to prevent negative events. It was also found that optimists were less depressed before an operation than pessimists, and optimists felt greater relief and happiness afterwards (Carver and Scheier, 1992). It was found that people high on neuroticism were less optimistic about positive events and more pessimistic concerning negative events. Optimism contributes to relationship success, which is defined as a happy, lasting relationship (Darvill and Johnson, 1991).

Fowers (1996) indicated that people with positive views of their marriage have more satisfying marriages. People who are optimistic tend to have more positive views about most aspects of their lives, so optimism may be related to relationship satisfaction to an extent. Dicke (1997) found that people whose parents were still together scored higher on present optimism than people whose parents had divorced. Optimism and pessimism are correlated with several aspects of relationships, specifically satisfaction, level of commitment and effort, conflict and attachment styles, and date selection. It was found that optimism was good for relationship.

Pulford (2009) reported that people those who were highly optimistic showed significantly less ambiguity aversion than less optimistic people, when the information was given saying that the number of balls was randomly determined. It was also found that pessimism was uninfluential. Also, perceptions, of the situation especially the degree of trust in the experimenter, were significantly influenced by participant's optimism. People who did not had high optimism personalities tend to shy away from choosing ambiguous options. It was also seen that when ambiguity was clear and trust issues were removed, peoples optimistic outlook had influence their degree of ambiguity aversion and their decisions too.

Bastianello, et al., (2014) in their study reported that there was a positive correlation between self-esteem and optimism in life orientation and a negative correlation between optimism and neuroticism. And also it was found that there were no any gender differences on optimism.

2.5 Emotion Regulation

Richards, et., al. (2003) found that memory for conversation utterances was increased by reappraisal and decreased by suppression, and memory for emotional reactions was increased by suppression. Self monitoring mediated the effect of suppression on memory for emotional reactions but not for conversation utterance. It was also suggested that, if it is important to preserve the fidelity of cognitive functioning during emotionally trying social interactions than some forms of emotion regulation may have more to recommend them on others.

Yeung et al., (2011) in their study on emotion regulation mediates age differences in emotions among 654 younger and older adults it was found that age was significantly associated with positive emotions and cognitive reappraisal. There were no any difference found in negative emotions and suppression between younger and older adults. Also, cognitive reappraisal partially mediated the effect of age on positive emotions. Findings of this study also contributed to our understanding of the underlying mechanism of age variations in emotional experiences.

Szekely and Miu (2015) found that fear and disgust were more frequently reported when participants made deontological choices, whereas regret was more frequently reported when participants made utilitarian choices. Also, in addition, it was found that habitual reappraisal negatively predicted deontological choices, and this effect was significantly carried through emotional arousal. Individual differences

in the habitual use of other emotion regulation strategies (i.e., rumination, acceptance and catastrophising) did not influence moral choice. The results of the study also indicated that negative emotions were commonly experienced during harm to save moral dilemmas, and they were associated with a deontological bias. Also, by efficiently reducing emotional arousal, reappraisal would be able to attenuate the emotion-linked deontological bias in moral choice.

Vantieghem et al., (2016) reported that the dispositional use of suppression was a quite consistent predictor of poor subjective sleep quality for individuals those who scored high on confident, cooperative or introversive personality traits, but low on respectful personality traits. There was also a positive relationship seen between reappraisal and subjective sleep quality and there was only little evidence for a relationship between the assessed personality styles and the use of cognitive reappraisal.

Robertson et al., (2014) reported that offenders with a maladaptive emotion regulation style were more on extensive histories of aggression than those with an adaptive emotion regulation style. It was also seen that self-reported emotional awareness and access to effective emotion regulation strategies contributed to adaptive emotion regulation. The findings of the study indicated that the potential utility of including emotion-related modules in treatment programs for violent offending populations.

Kennedy and Kramer (2008) in their study on improving emotion regulation and sibling relationship quality it was reported that children participating in the program needed less parental direction to control negative emotions and refrain from directing negative actions toward others following the program. It was also seen that

higher levels of emotion regulation were linked with more positive sibling relationship quality (SRQ) at post test. The results also highlighted the value of strengthening children's emotion regulation processes as a mechanism for promoting pro-social sibling relationships.

2.6 Jealousy and Self-esteem

Demirtas and Donmez (2006) found that unmarried people reported higher levels of jealousy than married people. It was also seen that married women reported less jealousy than unmarried women and married women reported more jealousy than married men. Also, age, relational satisfaction level, expectation level about the duration of the relationship and physical attractiveness of the partner were unique predictors of the reported level of jealousy. It was also seen that women reported more physical, emotional and cognitive responses to jealousy compared to men. Women reported that they use more constructive and less destructive strategies than men. Unmarried people reported that they use more destructive strategies than married people. It was also found that age, self-esteem and the duration of the relationship were unique predictors of coping strategies.

Desteno, et al., (2006) in their study on jealousy and the threatened self have conducted two studies. In study 1 it was found that self-esteem were decreased in response to the partner's interest in the rival, which led jealousy intensity correspondingly increased. From study 2 it was found that participants were more aggressed towards the partner and the rival to a much greater degree in the jealousy condition than in control condition. Thus, study 1 demonstrated that threatened self-esteem functions as a principal mediator of jealousy and study 2 provided direct evidence for jealousy as a cause for aggression.

Adams (2012) found that jealousy was negatively correlated with self-esteem. That is, the lower an individual's self-esteem, the higher their level of jealousy. It was found that for women, there was a negative correlation between jealousy and self-esteem. That is, the lower a woman's self-esteem, the higher her level of jealousy was likely to be. However, there was no relationship found for men.

Bunk and colleagues (1984) found that individuals reporting high self-esteem threat were more likely to feel ashamed, fearful and powerless, and there was a correlation between anger and self-esteem threat for women. Cast and Burke (2002) suggested that self-esteem is an outcome of, and necessary ingredient in, the self-verification process that occurs within groups, maintaining both the individual and the group. Also verification of role identities increases an individual's worth-based and efficacy-based self-esteem. The self-esteem built up by self-verification buffers the negative emotions that occur when self-verification is problematic, thus allowing continued interaction and continuity in structural arrangements during periods of disruption and change. Lastly, a desire for self-esteem produced in part through self-verification stabilizes the group because it motivates individuals to form and maintain relationships that verify identities.

Mathes, et al., (1985) found that for loneliness, the loss due to a rival mean was significantly greater than no loss mean whereas, for loss of self-esteem, the loss due to a rival mean was significantly greater than no less mean. It was also seen that for loss of self-esteem the loss due to fate mean was significantly greater than the no loss mean and loss of partner due to partners destiny result both in loneliness and loss of self-esteem. Also the loss of romantic partner due to rejection also results both in loneliness and self-esteem. It was also found that high traits jealous subjects were more lonely and had lower self-esteem and female participants stated that they were

more lonely than the males whereas the males stated that the loss of self-esteem was greater than the females.

Bachman and colleagues (2011) in their study among 8th, 10th and 12th grades students in the United States found high self-esteem scores for all groups. African-American students scored highest, whites scored slightly higher than Hispanics, and Asian Americans scored lowest. Males had scored slightly higher than females. Also, multivariate controls for grades and college plans heightened race/ethnic/gender differences. A truncated scoring method designed to counter race/ethnic differences in extreme response style was reduced but did not eliminated the sub-group differences. It was also seen that age differences in self-esteem were modest with 12th grades reporting the highest scores.

Holden et al., (2015) in their study among 385 undergraduates they had found that self-esteem instability had moderated the associations that self-esteem level had with Eros (love style dominated by passion) and storge (love style characterized by companionship and trust) such that individuals with stable high self-esteem reported the highest level of these romantic love styles. It was also seen that men with stable low self-esteem reported higher levels of pragma (love style focused on practicality and suitability) than other men. Also, women with stable self-esteem reported relatively low levels of ludus (love style focused on game playing). Further, it was also suggested that individuals with stable high self-esteem were more likely to engage in romantic love styles that were conducive to establishing and deepening emotional connections with romantic partners, whereas individuals who were uncertain about their feelings of self-worth were more likely to employ romantic love styles concerned with self-protection.

Wallace and Hill (2012) in their study among undergraduate students they found that unstable self-esteem had moderated the association between self-esteem level and psychological adjustment. The findings had also suggested that individuals with unstable low self-esteem are especially likely to experience dejection, whereas those with unstable high self-esteem were likely to experience agitation.

2.7 Jealousy and Personality

Gehl and Watson (2003) found that there was a weak to moderate negative correlation between the jealousy factors and agreeableness and openness. Also it was reported that conscientiousness was not related to jealousy. Lastly, there was a moderate to strong positive correlation found between neuroticism and jealousy. Buunk (1982) reported a positive relation between neuroticism and the coping styles of avoidance and reappraisal among participants whose spouse had extramarital involvement.

Harris (2002) suggested that no gender differences were found when participants recalled personal experiences with a mate's actual infidelity. Men and women, regardless of sexual orientation, on average focused more on a mate's emotional infidelity than on a mate's sexual infidelity. Responses to hypothetical infidelity were uncorrelated with reactions to actual infidelity. Knobloch et. al. (2001) found that relational uncertainty was strongly tied to cognitive jealousy, and intimacy was closely linked to emotional jealousy. Also, attachment anxiety exerted a direct positive effect on emotional jealousy. The result also shed light on how the experience of jealousy is associated with both relationship and individual characteristics. They also found that men and women did not differ significantly in their perceived levels of emotional jealousy, intimacy, anxiety over relationships, or comfort with closeness.

However, men reported more cognitive jealousy, self uncertainty, partner uncertainty, and relationship uncertainty than did women.

Hansen (1985) suggested that gender-role orientation and low marital alternatives are related to total jealousy for both males and females and that negative self-esteem is related to it for females. Significantly, marital adjustment, rewardingness, and trust are not related to jealousy. Also, the variables examined explain only a modest proportion of the variance in jealousy, structural exchange theory shows promise as a general theoretical approach to the topic.

2.8 Significance of the study

Jealousy being one of the important aspects of human relationship is an interesting topic of research in social psychology. However, research on jealousy has not been undertaken in eastern himalayan region. Thus, such a study is necessary in this region where love marriages are highly predominant. Also addressing romantic jealousy is important as it may even sometimes lead to violent and criminal behaviours. The romantically jealous partner may cause harm to his/her partner. If one of the partner is romantically jealous the other one may be affected psychologically and emotionally. It may affect his/her well-being too. As per my knowledge no Correlational studies have been conducted on romantic jealousy using multi-dimensional jealousy scale with stress and aggression. So, this would be the first attempt to find the correlation among those variables.

2.9 Objective and Hypothesis

Objective of the study

- To see whether romantic jealousy is related to physical aggression, verbal aggression and hostility, and this is moderated by self esteem, optimism and personality traits.
- To see whether romantic jealousy is related to anger, stress, and emotional suppression and this is moderated by self esteem, optimism and personality traits.

Hypothesis

- H1: Romantic jealousy would be positively correlated with anger, stress, and emotional suppression and this relationship would be moderated by self esteem, optimism and personality traits (Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to experience, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness).
- H2: Romantic jealousy would be positively correlated with physical aggression, verbal aggression and hostility, and this relationship would be moderated by self esteem, optimism and personality traits (Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to experience, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness).

2.10 Summary

This chapter includes discussion about the variables that have been used for the study and the past research studies involving it. Review has been done for jealousy, self-esteem, aggression, stress, optimism, personality and emotion regulation and some studies related to the present study have been cited. Along with that, the objective of the current study and the hypothesis of the study have been discussed.

CHAPTER-III

Method

3.1 Overview

The current study is a Correlational study about romantic jealousy, stress, aggression and emotion regulation whereas self-esteem, optimism and personality traits as a mediating variable. The study is a quantitative method wherein the selective sample is assessed using the standardised questionnaires.

3.2 Participants

The data were collected among the students falling in the age range of 18 to 28 years from different colleges and universities of Sikkim. The total number of data collected was 300 but since few could not full fill the required criteria for the present study so those were excluded and the total number of sample that was selected were 160 participants wherein male were 80 and females were 80. The selected sample had full filled the required criteria for the present study that they had to be in a romantic relationship for the last six months or more.

3.3 Measures:

Aspect Study	Name of Questionnaires/Scales	Developed by
Romantic Jealousy	Multi-Dimensional Jealousy Scale	Pfeiffer and Wong (1989)
Optimism	Life Orientation Test	Scheier, Carver and Bridges (1985)
Self-Esteem	Rosenberg Self-Esteem scale	Rosenberg (1965)

Emotion Regulation	Emotion Regulation Scale	Gross and John (2003)
Personality	Big Five Inventory	John & Srivastava (1999)
Stress	Perceived Stress Scale	Cohen et. al., (1988)
Aggression	Buss –Perry Aggression Questionnaire	Buss & Perry (1992)

The detail of the scaled used are described below:

Jealousy scale was replaced by Part-I human relationship survey, Optimism scale was replaced by Part-II, Self-esteem scale was replaced by part-III, Emotion regulation questionnaire was replaced by Part-IV (emotion experience). Personality inventory was replaced by Part-V (self-awareness), Stress scale was replaced by Part-VI and Aggression scale was replaced by Part-VII. Name of the specific questionnaire were renamed as part I, II, III, IV, V, VI and VII to reduce demand characteristics.

Demographic Information:

Participants were asked to report their age, gender, education qualification, their place of living (rural or urban), community they belong to (e.g., Bhutia, Lepcha or Nepali), their present romantic relationship status, duration of their relationship, type of relationship (e.g., long distance or not) and whether first time being in relationship or not. Also, the name of the participants was kept optional.’

Multi-Dimensional Jealousy Scale

The scale was developed by Pfeiffer and Wong in the year 1989. The scale consists of 24 items and is divided into three sub components that describe cognitive, emotional and behavioural jealousy which consists of eight items each. All items are evaluated on a seven point scale.

For each part of the scale the score ranges from minimum of 8 to maximum 56. The cognitive component had an alpha of 0.92, the emotional component had an alpha of 0.85 and the behavioural component had an alpha of 0.89. The scoring for the cognitive component is done reversed (for example 1=7, 2=6, etc) whereas for the emotional and behavioural component the scoring is done continuously (for example 1=1, 2=2, etc.).

Life Orientation Test- Revised

The scale was developed by Scheier, Carver and Bridges (1994). The scale consist of 10 items to be answered in a 5 point scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The reliability of the scale is 0.95. The scoring of the item is done differently for different items like for item 3, 7 and 9 scoring is done reverse and for item 1, 4 and 10 scoring is done continuously. And the remaining items 2, 5, 6 and 8 are used as a filler items. They are not scored as part of the revised scale.'

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale

The scale is a ten item Likert scale with answered on a four point – from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The scale was developed by Rosenberg in the year 1965. The scoring for the scale is done differently for each five items like for item no. 1, 3, 4, 7 and 10 scoring is SA=3, A=2, D=1, SD=0 and for the remaining five items 2, 5, 6, 8 and 9 the scoring is done reverse like SA=0, A=1, D=2 and SD=3. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale presented high ratings in reliability areas with internal consistency 0.77. So here if the score is higher, then higher the self esteem.

Emotion Regulation Scale (Gross & John, 2003)

The Emotion Regulation Scale was designed to assess individual differences in the habitual use of two emotion regulation strategies: cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression. The scale consists of a ten item with item answered on a seven point scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The scoring of the scale is done continuously there is no reverse scoring. The scale is divided into two sub components that are reappraisal items- 1, 3, 5, 7, 8 and 10 and another is suppression items- 2, 4, 6 and 9. An adequate internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of the two subscales was 0 .81 for cognitive reappraisal and 0.73 for expressive suppression.

Big Five Inventory (John & Srivastava, 1999)

It is a 44-item inventory that measures an individual on the Big Five Factors (dimensions) of Personality. It is answered in a five point scale from disagree strongly to agree strongly. The scale is divided into five sub scales that is Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism with the internal consistency of .86, .89, .77, .90 and .74 respectively. The scoring for the items are done differently for different items, like some items scoring are done reversed (for example 1=5, 2=4, 3=3, 4=2 and 5=1) and others are done continuously (example 1=1, 2=2, 3=3, 4=4 and 5=5).

Perceived Stress Scale (Cohen et. al., 1988)

The Perceived Stress Scale (PSS) is the most widely used psychological instrument for measuring the perception of stress. It is a measure of the degree to which situations in one's life are appraised as stressful. Items were designed to assess how unpredictable, uncontrollable, and overloaded respondents find their lives to be. The scale also includes a number of direct queries about current levels of experienced stress. Moreover, the questions are of a general nature and hence are relatively free of content specific to any sub-population group. The questions in the PSS ask about feelings and thoughts during the last month. In each case, respondents are asked how often they felt a certain way. It is a ten item scale which is answered in a five point scale from never=0, almost never=1, sometimes=2, fairly often=3 to very often=4. The scoring of the scale is done differently for different items like for those positive items (4, 5, 7 and 8) the scoring is done in the reverse form (0=4, 1=3, 2=2, 3=1 and 4=0) and for the remaining items the scoring is done continuously. The internal consistency of the scale is 0.82. Higher scores here indicate more perceived stress.

Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992)

The Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (BPAQ) is a popular measure of aggression in adults. It is a 29 item scale which is further divided into four sub-dimensions that is physical aggression (9 items), verbal aggression (5 items), anger (7 items) and hostility (8 items). It is responded in a five point scale from extremely uncharacteristic of me to extremely characteristics of me. The scoring is done in a reverse form

for two items that is item no. 7 and item no. 18 (1 = 5, 2 = 4, 3 = 3, 4 = 2, 5 = 1) and for the remaining items the scoring is done continuously. The internal consistency coefficients were as follows: Physical Aggression, $\alpha = .85$; Verbal Aggression, $\alpha = .72$; Anger, $\alpha = .83$ and Hostility, $\alpha = .77$, with the internal consistency being $\alpha = .89$.

3.4 Procedure

The data for the present study was collected among the young adults falling in the age range of 19 to 28 years from different colleges and universities of Sikkim. Initially the permission letter was taken from the head of the department for collecting data. So, while visiting different colleges and universities the permission letter was shown to the head of the concerned department and permission was taken for collecting the data. So after that the students were chosen randomly in a group of 10 and they were assembled in a classroom for filling up the questionnaire. Before filling up the questionnaire the participants were briefed regarding the research study and were told that the study was conducted for academic research purpose and later instructions were given for filling up the questionnaires. They were also assured that their responses would be kept confidential and were told that the result would be analyzed in a group not individually. So after providing the information regarding the study the questionnaires were distributed to all the participants. After finishing filling up the questionnaires while returning each and every participant questionnaires were checked so that they have filled up all the items in the provided questionnaire. Later, each and every participant was thanked for their co-operation.

3.5 Statistical analysis

The data collected were analyzed using SPSS. Descriptive analyses of the data collected were done for each and every variable. For each scale and sub-scales a Cronbach's alpha reliability analysis was run to determine reliability within the current study. Carl Pearson correlation was used to see the correlation between different variables.

3.6 Summary

In this chapter it has been discussed about the method of data collection, the size of the sample, characteristics of the sample that were selected, the statistical technique used for the present study, and, the description of the measures that have been used for the present study.

Chapter IV

Result and Discussion

The following section aims to discuss the results that were obtained. The data collected were analyzed using SPSS (Statistical Package in Social Sciences).

4.1 Results

Information pertaining to Cronbach's alpha coefficients, correlation among the variables, mean and standard deviation is discussed below.

Table 1 showing Cronbach's alpha for each of the scales:

Name of the questionnaire/scales	Number of items	Reliability
1. Multi Dimensional Jealousy Scale		
• Cognitive Jealousy	8	.921
• Emotional Jealousy	8	.810
• Behavioural Jealousy	8	.860
2. Self-Esteem	10	.738
3. Emotion Regulation		
• Reappraisal	6	.728
• Suppression	4	.660
4. Big Five Inventory		
• Extraversion	8	.626
• Agreeableness	9	.512
• Conscientiousness	9	.686
• Neuroticism	8	.711
• Openness	10	.515

5. Optimism	6	.021
6. Stress	10	.685
7. Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire		
• Physical Aggression	9	.560
• Verbal Aggression	5	.572
• Anger	7	.627
• Hostility	8	.656

From table 1 we can see that we have found a good reliability for sub-scales of multidimensional jealousy scale (Pfeiffer & Wong, 1989) that is cognitive jealousy=.921, emotional jealousy=.810 and behavioural jealousy= .860, which is similar to Pfeiffer and Wong, 1989 findings (cognitive=.92, emotional=.85 and behavioural=.089). Also, Rosenberg Self-esteem scale (Rosenberg, 1965) showed good reliability (cronbach alpha= .738), which is also close to Rosenberg's result (cronbach alpha=0.77). The sub-scales of emotion regulation questionnaire (ERQ, Gross & John, 2003) also showed good reliability that is reappraisal (cronbach alpha= .728) and suppression (cronbach alpha= .660). The Big Five Inventory (BFI, John & Srivastava, 1999) have found moderate to medium cronbach alpha for their sub scales which ranged from .51 to .71 which is a bit lesser than that of John and Srivastava findings which ranged from (.70 to .90). The revised life orientation test (Scheier, et al., 1994) showed reliability very low (cronbach alpha= .021). The Perceived Stress Scale (Cohen, et al., 1988) showed moderate reliability (cronbach alpha= .685) which is slightly lesser than that of Cohen's results (cronbach alpha= 0.82). Also, Buss and

Perry Aggression Questionnaire (BPAQ, 1992) showed moderate to medium reliability which ranged from .56 to .65.

Table 2 showing mean and standard deviation of the variables under study:

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
Cognitive Jealousy	27.42	13.34
Emotional Jealousy	35.01	9.57
Behavioural Jealousy	27.29	11.38
Optimism	14.61	2.52
Self-Esteem	18.88	3.96
Reappraisal	29.71	6.25
Suppression	17.04	5.31
Extraversion	25.44	4.74
Agreeableness	33.48	4.27
Conscientiousness	29.41	5.33
Neuroticism	23.62	5.38
Openness	34.79	4.59
Stress	20.09	5.12
Physical Aggression	29.23	5.37
Verbal Aggression	17.12	3.68
Anger	22.29	4.91
Hostility	26.47	5.26

Table 3 showing correlation among different variables under study:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. CJ																	
2. EJ	-.360**																
3. BJ	.068	-.107															
4. OPT	-.098	.092	-.004														
5. SE	-.141	.038	-.247**	.154													
6. RA	-.046	.028	-.075	.161*	.341**												
7. SUP	.122	-.077	.046	-.037	-.114	.323**											
8. EXT	-.032	-.004	-.024	.108	.330**	.152	-.168*										
9. AGG	-.018	-.002	-.158*	.058	.156*	.194*	.206**	.082									
10. CONS	-.017	-.045	-.146	.019	.457**	.104	.011	.255**	.346**								
11. NEU	-.079	.063	.042	.017	-.352**	-.050	-.137	-.244**	-.294**	-.394**							
12. OPEN	-.034	-.003	-.105	.246**	.486**	.300**	-.013	.276**	.225**	.297**	-.174*						
13. STRESS	.036	.052	.187*	.026	-.426**	-.080	-.037	-.129	-.180*	-.285**	.407**	-.071					
14. PA	.148	.100	.266**	.174*	-.125	.057	-.105	.102	-.316**	-.168*	.149	-.031	.188*				
15. VA	.014	.008	.170*	.257**	.102	.126	.049	.211**	-.038	-.084	.051	.132	.003	.405**			
16. ANGER	.070	.032	.364**	.217**	-.114	-.023	-.139	.109	-.234**	-.180*	.289**	.038	.287**	.606**	.418**		
17. HOS	.064	.094	.272**	.146	-.182*	.023	.012	.006	-.181*	-.246**	.246**	-.058	.215**	.457**	.420**	.458**	

N=160, * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed), ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

NOTE: CJ= Cognitive Jealousy, EJ= Emotional Jealousy, BJ=Behavioural Jealousy, OPT=Optimism, SE=Self-esteem, RA= Reappraisal, SUP=Suppression, EXT=Extraversion, AGG= agreeableness, CONS=Conscientiousness, NEU=Neuroticism, OPEN=Openness, PA=Physical aggression, VA=Verbal aggression and HOS=Hostility.

As we have hypothesized that romantic jealousy (cognitive, emotional and behavioural) would be positively correlated with stress, physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger and hostility and self-esteem, optimism and personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism and openness) would be used as a controlling variable. So, from table 3 it can be observed that a sub-dimension of romantic jealousy scale that is cognitive jealousy and emotional jealousy was not correlated with stress and the aggression sub-scales that are physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger and hostility, and neither with any of the other variables used. So, in case of cognitive and emotional jealousy, here the hypothesis has not been supported. Behavioural jealousy another sub-dimension of romantic jealousy is found to be negatively correlated with self-esteem and agreeableness. Also, behavioural jealousy is found to be positively correlated with stress, physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger and hostility. So, here in this case the hypothesis has been supported. Self-esteem and agreeableness was used as a controlling variable for seeing the relationship between behavioural jealousy with stress, physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger and hostility. So, after controlling for self-esteem and agreeableness it was seen that behavioural jealousy was not found to be significantly correlated with stress, but behavioural jealousy was still found to be significantly correlated with physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger and hostility.

Also, there were some findings seen in the study where, self-esteem was found to be positively correlated with reappraisal, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness and whereas it was negatively correlated with neuroticism, stress and hostility. Some personality dimension was found to be correlated with stress and aggression, where extraversion was found to be positively

correlated with verbal aggression. Agreeableness and conscientiousness was found to be negatively correlated with stress, physical aggression, anger and hostility and neuroticism was found to be positively correlated with stress, anger and hostility. Also there has been some correlation seen between stress and aggression where, stress has been positively correlated with physical aggression, anger and hostility. The aggression sub-dimensions have been positively correlated with each other like physical aggression has been positively correlated with verbal aggression, anger and hostility. Verbal aggression has been positively correlated with anger and hostility whereas anger has been positively correlated with hostility.

Table 4 showing gender differences for romantic jealousy:

	Gender	N	Means	Standard Deviation	F	df	Sig.
Cognitive	Males	80	29.56	12.67	2.047	158	.042
	Females	80	25.29	13.72			
Emotional	Males	80	35.00	9.87	-.016	158	.987
	Females	80	35.02	9.33			
Behavioural	Males	80	26.81	11.62	-.527	158	.599
	Females	80	27.76	11.19			

To understand the gender difference on romantic jealousy (see table 4), series of t tests were performed on the three dimensions of romantic jealousy (cognitive, emotional and behavioural). There was a significant difference seen between males and females in terms of cognitive jealousy where males were found to be higher as compared to females in cognitive jealousy or it can be said that men were more jealous in terms of cognitive jealousy as compared to females. There was no

significant difference seen between the two genders for emotional and behavioural jealousy. Although no significant differences were seen between males and females in terms of behavioural jealousy but if we see the mean value than females have scored slightly higher than males in terms of behavioural jealousy. But there was no mean differences seen between males in females in case of emotional jealousy.

Table 5 showing gender differences for stress and aggression:

Variables	Gender	N	Means	Standard Deviation	F	df	Sig.
Stress	Males	80	19.70	5.35	-.973	158	.332
	Females	80	20.49	4.88			
Physical Aggression	Males	80	29.66	5.19	.927	158	.355
	Females	80	28.87	5.54			
Verbal Aggression	Males	80	17.41	3.77	1.01	158	.314
	Females	80	16.82	3.59			
Anger	Males	80	22.32	5.02	.080	158	.936
	Females	80	22.26	4.82			
Hostility	Males	80	26.56	5.37	.210	158	.834
	Females	80	26.39	5.17			

To see the gender difference (see table 5) for stress and four dimensions of aggression (physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger and hostility), t-test series was performed. It was found that there were no any significant difference seen between males and females in terms of stress, physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger and hostility. But if we only consider the mean difference than in terms of stress females have scored slightly higher as compared to male. Whereas in case of

aggression if we consider the mean value than male have slightly scored higher in terms of physical and verbal aggression.

4.2 Discussion

4.2.1 Correlational analysis

The present study aimed to assess the relationship among romantic jealousy, stress and aggression among the young adults of Sikkim along with the role of self-esteem, optimism and personality.

As it was hypothesized that romantic jealousy would be positively correlated with stress, physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger and hostility, but romantic jealousy has been categorized into three sub dimensions as cognitive, emotional and behavioural jealousy. So from the result obtained it can be seen that behavioural jealousy have been positively related to stress, physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger and hostility which means that the hypothesis is supported here but in case of emotional and cognitive jealousy there is no any significant correlation found with stress, physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger and hostility which means that the hypothesis is not supported. So, here from the result obtained we can say that behavioural jealousy a sub-dimension of romantic jealousy when it is high in people than it may lead and individual to be high in stress, people may be highly aggressive physically, verbally and may lead an individual to be high on anger and hostility too. This may happen because behavioural jealousy as mentioned by Pfeiffer and Wong in 1989 which implies detective/protective measures a person may take when relationship rivals which can be real or imaginary are perceived. This means that behavioural jealousy involves positive or negative aspects of behaviour and also behavioural jealousy which primarily reflects distrust (Pfeiffer & Wong, 1989).

Which means that individuals those who are high on behavioural jealousy they may not trust their partner which leads an individual to mostly engaged in negative aspects of behaviours or we can say that they would be mostly engaged in detecting potential threats towards their relationships. So, because of this the behaviourally jealous partner may start feeling that their relationship would be in danger and they may be pressurized physiologically and psychologically which may lead an individual to suffer and induced to stress. Also, this may lead an individual to be highly aggressive towards their partner, like some may be physically aggressive towards their partner where they may attack their partner physically and may cause bodily damage to them. Some individual may also be verbally aggressive where they start passing bad comments towards their partner or they may start using abusive words or they may start threatening their partner too. Also when a person is high on behavioural jealousy that time they may be in a frustrating situation and they also feel that something wrong is going in their relationship which leads an individual to be high on anger and when an individual is behaviourally jealous they may always detect potential threats towards their relationship, which may lead an individual start hating their partner and which leads an individual to be high on hostility too.

In case of cognitive and emotional jealousy a sub-scales of romantic jealousy had no significant correlation with stress and sub-dimension of aggression (physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger and hostility). As told by, Theiss and Solomon in the year 2006 cognitive jealousy involves a person's doubts, worries, and suspicious thoughts over a partner's potential infidelity or external relationships. And also as mention by Pfeiffer and Wong on the year 1989, cognitive jealousy includes paranoid worries and doubts about rivals to a valued romantic relationship. As mention by Sahana and Ganth in the year 2016 that cognitive jealousy mostly arises

when a person spends less time with their partner, so lesser the time they spend, the more the insecurity and more the fear of the suspicion of infidelity would be there. So, taking this entire thing into account we can say that if an individual is always with their partner and they are spending their time together always or most of the time then the individual may not be high on cognitive jealousy or they might not be engaged on having those thoughts and because of this they may not have those doubts, worries or suspicion thought about their partner. So the possible reason can be that most of the data collected participants were those individuals who were mostly spending time with their partners and because of that they may not be engaged on having cognitive thoughts regarding their partner's infidelity. So if a person is not having any cognitive jealousy than he/she may not be stressed or neither they may be aggressive too. Also, in case of emotional jealousy there has been no significant correlation seen with stress and aggression. Theiss and Solomon in the year 2006 said that emotional jealousy consists of an affective reaction which can be real or an imagined threat to a valued relationship. Also, Sahana and Ganth in the year 2016 mentioned that emotional jealousy arises when a person considers their partner close to their self-concept and also to their future plans. So after taking into account the whole thing we can say that if a person who may be in a relationship may have not taken their relationship for granted which can result an individual not to be emotionally attached. Also, it can be said that an individual who is in a relationship may not have consider their partner close to their self-concept or to their future plans too. So if it happens than the person may not react emotionally which won't lead an individual to be highly aggressive neither one can be induced to stress if the person have not taken their relationship for granted.

Another possible reason for no significant correlation found between cognitive and emotional jealousy with stress, physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger and hostility may be social desirability. Also, romantic jealousy is a topic which people especially adults would not like to discuss. As we all know that people always wants to show the positive side of them rather than negative. So jealousy is a topic which tries to shows the negative side of a people, so from this we can say that the participants from whom the data was collected they may not have respond to the questionnaire honestly or we can say that they just want to reflect their positive side, due to which the study won't be able to get the expected result.

In the present study self-esteem, personality traits and optimism have been used a control variable but cognitive and emotional jealousy has not been correlated with self-esteem, optimism and personality traits but behavioural jealousy has been correlated with self-esteem and agreeableness (one dimension of personality traits). So self-esteem and agreeableness has been used as a control variable between behavioural jealousy, stress and aggression sub-dimensions. After controlling for self-esteem and agreeableness it was found that behavioural jealousy correlation with stress was not statistically significant after controlling for self-esteem and agreeableness meaning that behaviour jealousy and stress is not independent from the effect of self-esteem and agreeableness. But behavioural jealousy correlation with physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger and hostility remained statistically significant even after controlling for self-esteem and agreeableness meaning that the relation between behaviour jealousy and afore mentioned variable are independent of self-esteem and agreeableness. Thus, behaviour jealousy and aggression occurs irrespective of the fact that there is self-esteem and agreeableness or not.

4.2.2 Group analysis

So, now looking in the trends for gender differences in terms of romantic jealousy, in the present study it has been found that males are significantly higher than females in terms of cognitive jealousy. Whereas, there has been no significant difference found between males and females in terms of emotional and behavioural jealousy. Also, studies on romantic jealousy have been very few and the results are also inconsistent across cultures and regions. In one study done by Southard and Abel (2010) it was found that women had significantly higher levels of emotional, as well as slightly higher behavioural jealousy than did men. Also, no differences between men and women were found with regard to cognitive jealousy. Whereas, Sahana and Ganth (2016) in their study they had found that males were significantly higher in cognitive jealousy than females. No differences were found in terms of emotional and behavioural jealousy. This was similar to the result found in the present study. Also, the items involving cognitive jealousy mostly involve suspiciousness and jealousy related to sexual infidelity and as found in the present study and also in accordance with many studies on jealousy, men tends to show more sexual jealousy than women (Shackelford et al., 2004, Koch and Schutwohl, 2004; Schutwohl, 2007; Scelza, 2013). One possible explanation for differential pattern among men and women comes from evolutionary theories of mate selection. Also, evolutionary psychologists who have based their theories on natural selection claim that our brain is circuited in such a way that men react mostly to sexual fidelity whereas women are instinctively predisposed to jealousy due to emotional infidelity (Harris, 2004; Buss, 1995).

Chapter V

Conclusion, Limitations and Suggestions for future research

The current study aimed to explore the relationship between romantic jealousy, stress and aggression. This is also a relationship that has never been researched and this would be a first attempt to explore the relationship among these variables. For the present study the data had been collected from young adults within an age range of 18 to 28 years from different colleges and universities. In the result it was seen that behavioural jealousy was significantly and positively related to stress and aggression dimension (i.e., physical, verbal, anger and hostility). But there was no correlation seen between cognitive and emotional jealousy with stress and aggression dimensions. In terms of gender differences in romantic jealousy males were significantly higher in terms of cognitive jealousy as compared to females. There were no gender differences seen between males and females in terms of emotional and behavioural jealousy. Also, in terms of stress females were slightly higher as compared to males, whereas males were higher as compared to females in terms of physical and verbal aggression. There were no gender differences seen in anger and hostility.

The limitation of the present study was that for the present study only one age group that is young adults 19 to 28 years were used as participants. So, in future research participants from different age groups could be used for further research.

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APPENDIX

Name:

Age:

Gender:

Educational qualification:

Place of Living: a) Rural b) Urban

Community:

Romantic Relationship Status: a) Yes b) No

Duration of relationship: a) 0-6 months b) 7 months or more

Type of relationship: long distance: a) yes b) No

First time relationship: a) yes b) No

Note:

This study is conducted for the study purpose academic research. The response here will be kept confidential. Also the result will be analyzed at the group level, not individually. Please be honest while giving the response as it will help the study to be more effective and appropriate.

I agree to participate.

Signature

Date:

Part-I**Multidimensional Jealousy Scale****Instructions:**

Please think of a person with whom you are having or have had a strong romantic/love relationship. This person is referred to as X in this questionnaire. Please rate your response to the following questions by circling the appropriate number beside each item.

Cognitive:

How often do you have the following thoughts about X?

Rating Scale

	All the time						Never
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I suspect that X is secretly seeing someone of the opposite sex.							
2. I am worried that some member of the opposite sex may be chasing after X.							
3. I suspect that X may be attracted to someone else.							
4. I suspect that X may be physically intimate with another member of the opposite sex behind my back.							
5. I think that some members of the opposite sex may be romantically interested in X.							
6. I am worried that someone of the opposite sex is trying to seduce X.							
7. I think that X is secretly developing an intimate relationship with someone of the opposite sex.							
8. I suspect that X is crazy about members of the opposite sex.							

Emotional:

How would you emotionally react to the following situations?

	Very Pleased						Very Upset
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. X comments to you on how great looking a particular member of the opposite sex is.							
2. X shows a great deal of interest or excitement in talking to someone of the opposite sex.							
3. X smiles in a very friendly manner to someone of the opposite sex.							
4. A member of the opposite sex is trying to get close to X all the time.							
5. X is flirting with someone of the opposite sex.							
6. Someone of the opposite sex is dating X.							
7. X hugs and kisses someone of the opposite sex.							
8. X works very closely with a member of the opposite sex (in school or office)							

Behavioural:

How often do you engage in the following behaviours?

	Never						All the time
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I look through X's drawers, handbag, or pockets.							
2. I call X unexpectedly, just to see if she/he is there.							
3. I question X about previous or present romantic relationship.							
4. I say something nasty about someone of the opposite sex if X shows an interest in that person.							
5. I question X about his/her telephone calls.							
6. I question X about his/her whereabouts.							
7. I join in whenever I see X talking to a member of the opposite sex.							
8. I pay X a surprise visit just to see who is with him/her.							

Part-II

Life-Orientation Test

Instructions:

Please answer the following questions about yourself by indicating the extent of your agreement using the following scale:

|0| = Strongly Disagree

|1| = Disagree

|2| = Neutral

|3| = Agree

|4| = Strongly Agree

Be as honest as you can throughout, and try not to let your responses to one question influence your response to other questions. There are no right or wrong answers.

- 1. In uncertain times, I usually expect the best.
- 2. Its easy for me to relax.
- 3. If something can go wrong for me, it will.
- 4. I'm always optimistic about my future.
- 5. I enjoy my friends a lot.
- 6. Its important for me to keep busy.
- 7. I hardly ever expect things to go my way.
- 8. I don't get upset too easily.
- 9. I rarely count on good things happening to me.
- 10. Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad.

Part-III

Self-esteem scale

Instructions: Below is a list of statements dealing with your general feelings about yourself. If you strongly agree, circle **SA**. If you agree with the statement, circle **A**. If you disagree, circle **D**. If you strongly disagree, circle **SD**.

- | | | | | |
|---|----|---|---|----|
| 1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 2. At times, I think I am no good at all. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 4. I am able to do things as well as most other people. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 6. I certainly feel useless at times. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 7. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 8. I wish I could have more respect for myself. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 9. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure. | SA | A | D | SD |
| 10. I take a positive attitude towards myself. | SA | A | D | SD |

Part-IV

Emotion Regulation Questionnaire

Instructions and Items

We would like to ask you some questions about your emotional life, in particular, how you control (that is, regulate and manage) your emotions. The questions below involve two distinct aspects of your emotional life. One is your emotional experience, or what you feel like inside. The other is your emotional expression, or how you show your emotions in the way you talk, gesture, or behave. Although some of the following questions may seem similar to one another, they differ in important ways. For each item, please answer using the following scale:

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 Strongly
Neutral Strongly Agree
Disagree

1. ____ When I want to feel more positive emotion (such as joy or amusement), I change what I'm thinking about.
2. ____ I keep my emotions to myself.
3. ____ When I want to feel less negative emotion (such as sadness or anger), I change what I'm thinking about.
4. ____ when I am feeling positive emotions, I am careful not to express them.
5. ____ when I'm faced with a stressful situation, I make myself think about it in a way that helps me stay calm.
6. ____ I control my emotions by not expressing them.
7. ____ when I want to feel more positive emotion, I change the way I'm thinking about the situation.
8. ____ I control my emotions by changing the way I think about the situation I'm in.
9. ____ when I am feeling negative emotions, I make sure not to express them.
10. ____ when I want to feel less negative emotion, I change the way I'm thinking about the situation.

Part-V

Big Five Inventory

Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who likes to spend time with others? Please write a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.

- Disagree strongly----- 1
- Disagree a little----- 2
- Neither agree nor disagree----- 3
- Agree a little----- 4
- Agree Strongly----- 5

I see myself as someone who...

- ___ 1. Is talkative
- ___ 2. Tends to find fault with others
- ___ 3. Does a thorough job
- ___ 4. Is depressed, blue
- ___ 5. Is original, comes up with new ideas
- ___ 6. Is reserved
- ___ 7. Is helpful and unselfish with others
- ___ 8. Can be somewhat careless
- ___ 9. Is relaxed, handles stress well
- ___ 10. Is curious about many different things
- ___ 11. Is full of energy
- ___ 12. Starts quarrels with others
- ___ 13. Is a reliable worker
- ___ 14. Can be tense

- ___15. Is ingenious, a deep thinker
- ___16. Generates a lot of enthusiasm
- ___17. Has a forgiving nature
- ___18. Tends to be disorganized
- ___19. Worries a lot
- ___20. Has an active imagination
- ___21. Tends to be quiet
- ___22. Is generally trusting
- ___23. Tends to be lazy
- ___24. Is emotionally stable, not easily upset
- ___25. Is inventive
- ___26. Has an assertive personality
- ___27. Can be cold and aloof
- ___28. Perseveres until the task is finished
- ___29. Can be moody
- ___30. Values artistic, aesthetic experiences
- ___31. Is sometimes shy, inhibited
- ___32. Is considerate and kind to almost everyone
- ___33. Does things efficiently
- ___34. Remains calm in tense situations
- ___35. Prefers work that is routine
- ___36. Is outgoing, sociable
- ___37. Is sometimes rude to others

___38. Makes plans and follows through with them

___39. Gets nervous easily

___40. Likes to reflect, play with ideas

___41. Has few artistic interests

___42. Likes to cooperate with others

___43. Is easily distracted

___44. Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature

Part-VI

Perceived Stress Scale

The questions in this scale ask you about your feelings and thoughts during the last month. In each case, you will be asked to indicate by circling *how often* you felt or thought a certain way.

0 = Never 1 = Almost Never 2 = Sometimes 3 = Fairly Often 4 = Very Often

1. In the past month, how often have you been upset because of something that happened unexpectedly?

0 1 2 3 4

2. In the past month, how often have you felt that you were unable to control the important things in your life?

0 1 2 3 4

3. In the past month, how often have you felt nervous and “stressed”?

0 1 2 3 4

4. In the past month, how often have you felt confident about your ability to handle your personal problems?

0 1 2 3 4

5. In the past month, how often have you felt that things were going your way?

0 1 2 3 4

6. In the past month, how often have you found that you could not cope with all the things that you had to do?

0 1 2 3 4

7. In the past month, how often have you been able to control irritations in your life?

0 1 2 3 4

8. In the past month, how often have you felt that you were on top of things?..

0 1 2 3 4

9. In the past month, how often have you been angered because of things that were outside of your control?

0 1 2 3 4

10. In the past month, how often have you felt difficulties were piling up so high that you could not overcome them?

0 1 2 3 4

Part-VII

Aggression Questionnaire

Please rate each of the following items in terms of how characteristic they are of you. Use the following scale for answering these items.

1 2 3 4 5

Extremely

Extremely

Uncharacteristic of me

Characteristic of me

- 1) Once in a while I can't control the urge to strike another person.
- 2) Given enough provocation, I may hit another person.
- 3) If somebody hits me, I hit back.
- 4) I get into fights a little more than the average person.
- 5) If I have to resort to violence to protect my rights, I will.
- 6) There are people who pushed me so far that we came to blows.
- 7) I can think of no good reason for ever hitting a person.
- 8) I have threatened people I know.

- 9) I have become so mad that I have broken things.
- 10) I tell my friends openly when I disagree with them.
- 11) I often find myself disagreeing with people.
- 12) When people annoy me, I may tell them what I think of them.
- 13) I can't help getting into arguments when people disagree with me.
- 14) My friends say that I'm somewhat argumentative.
- 15) I flare up quickly but get over it quickly.
- 16) When frustrated, I let my irritation show.
- 17) I sometimes feel like a powder keg ready to explode.
- 18) I am an even-tempered person.
- 19) Some of my friends think I'm a hothead.
- 20) Sometimes I fly off the handle for no good reason.
- 21) I have trouble controlling my temper.
- 22) I am sometimes eaten up with jealousy.
- 23) At times I feel I have gotten a raw deal out of life.
- 24) Other people always seem to get the breaks.
- 25) I wonder why sometimes I feel so bitter about things.
- 26) I know that "friends" talk about me behind my back.
- 27) I am suspicious of overly friendly strangers.
- 28) I sometimes feel that people are laughing at me behind me back.
- 29) When people are especially nice, I wonder what they want.