

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter discusses the theoretical framework as the basic theory of the present study. This chapter is separated into four different subchapters consisting of theory of adolescence, rebelliousness, depression, school bullying to conduct the study.

2.1 Theory of Adolescents

One of the most significant stages of human development that influences a person's personality development is *adolescence*. In Abraham Francis's *Social Work in Mental Health* (2014: 78), it is said that Stanley Hall was the first psychologist to advance a psychology of adolescence in its own right and to use scientific methods to study them. He defined this period to begin at puberty at about 12 or 13 years, and end late, between 22 years to 25 years of age.

On the same case, Elliot & Feldman stated in Curtis (2015: 1) that adolescence is a distinct phase of the developmental life cycle in humans and other animal species. Among humans, adolescence is a complex, multi-system transitional process involving progression from the immaturity and social dependency of childhood into adult life with the goal and expectation of fulfilled developmental potential, personal agency, and social accountability.

Conceptualized by G. Stanley Hall—the founder of adolescent science, Alexa added (2015: 1) that adolescence, as a process of physical and psychosocial “rebirth”, is the synthesis of profound corporal development with the evolution of a matured existential essence and integration of the nascent self within family, community, and culture. Developmental transitions occurring during adolescence require reciprocal reorganization of the individual and the context influencing cognition, emotion, behaviour and relationships. This interdependent, individual and contextual evolution presents multi-system challenges constituting the basis of risk, resiliency, and opportunity in adolescence. Risk taking in adolescence is an important way that adolescents shape their identities, try out their new decision-

making skills, and develop realistic assessments of themselves, other people, and the world.

In adolescence development, American Psychological Association (2002: 29) revealed that several theories have been proposed as to way adolescents engage in risky behaviours. One theory stresses the need for excitement, fun, and novel, intense sensations that override the potential dangers involved in a particular. Another theory stresses that many of these risk behaviours occur in a group context and involve peer acceptance and status in the group. A third theory emphasizes that adolescent risk taking is a form of modelling and romanticizing adult behaviour. In other words, adolescents engage in some behaviours, such as cigarette smoking and sex, to identify with their parents and other adults. In considering these theories, it should be kept in mind that teenagers are not all alike and that they may have different reasons for engaging in the same risk behaviour.

Related to the risk behaviour of the most adolescents, it means adolescents demand to chase and obtain the achievements that have been their goals. Margalit (2010: 49) wrote that successful self-regulation is defined as the willingness to exert effort toward one's most important goals, while taking setbacks and accepting failures as opportunities to learn, identify weaknesses and address them, and develop new strategies toward achieving those goals. Shortly, most adolescents' willingness to get something are correlated by the risk taking they choose.

2.2 Theory of Teenage Rebelliousness

According to McDermott and Barik (2014: 22), adolescence is a time of developmental transition that for one in five young people is characterised by feelings of oppositionality, rebellion, and negativism. While, rebelliousness in adolescence does not appears without any following reason. Mark R. McDermott and Barik (2014: 22-23) also revealed that the psychological causes of rebelliousness can be approached from a variety of psychological perspectives: socio-situationally, as an outcome of social influence processes; developmentally, as a product of childhood ontology; as a facet of personality or of individual differences in response disposition; psychodynamically, as an emergent property of group and family systems; biopsychosocially, as a product of the complex

interaction of nature and nurture; and phenomenologically, as a psychological construct that is experiential rather than objectively verifiable.

McDermott (2001: 171) has empirically identified reactive and proactive rebelliousness as two distinct. Reactive rebelliousness arises in response to a requirement that is experienced as unfair or unreasonable and "... is often a reaction to an interpersonal frustration, a ront, indignity, disappointment, or rebu and is characterized by feeling vengeful, retaliatory, or vindictive". This form of rebelliousness is a response to not being sympathized with, to not being implicitly or explicitly respected, liked or loved. Proactive rebelliousness, on the other hand, is that form of the negativistic state in which an individual wants to oppose a perceived requirement in order to obtain fun and excitement. It involves the proactive pursuit of hedonistic goals the heightening of pleasurable arousal through often gratuitous and provocative oppositional behaviour". Both forms of rebelliousness may serve the function of exerting counter-control and attaining a sense of freedom from constraint.

Carl (2007: 55) divides adolescent growth into 4 stages: early adolescence and the change for the worse (ages 9–13), Mid-adolescence and the fight for more freedom (ages 13–15), late adolescence and the desire to act more grown up (ages 15–18), trial independence and the challenge of living on one's own (ages 18–23). However, most parents become frightened about teen rebellion and they prefer to avoid that problem by paying less attention. Parents tend to be worried while facing a rebellious teen because they do not want to put their relationship in danger.

According to Carl (2009:1) –a psychologist in Austin, Texas–, there are two general types of rebelliousness. Those two common types of rebellion are against socially fitting in (rebellion of non-conformity) and against adult authority (rebellion of non-compliance.) In both types, rebellion attracts adult attention by offending it. The young person proudly asserts individuality from what parents like or independence of what parents want and in each case succeeds in provoking their disapproval. This is why rebellion, which is simply behaviour that deliberately opposes the ruling norms or powers that be, has been given a good name by adolescents and a bad one by adults.

The reason why parents usually dislike adolescent rebellion is not only that it creates more resistance to their job of providing structure, guidance, and

supervision, but because rebellion can lead to serious kinds of harm. Rebellion can cause young people to rebel against their own self-interests – rejecting childhood interests, activities, and relationships that often support self-esteem.

2.3 Theory of Depression

Every person occasionally feels blue or sad about something, but depression is usually fleeting. It passes within a couple of days. When a person has a depressive disorder, it interferes with daily life, normal functioning, and causes pain for both the person with the disorder and those who care about him or her. Depression is a common but serious illness, and most who experience it need treatment to get better. Based on Seligman in McLeod (2017: 1) referred to depression as the ‘common cold’ of psychiatry because of its frequency of diagnosis. It is usually quite easy to see when someone is depressed.

Depression always causes impacts. People who suffer from depression have many different way and frequency depending on how great the depression they have. Teasdale (1978: 67) wrote that the time course of depression varies impressively from individual to individual. Some depressions last for hours and others last for years. "Normal" mourning lasts for days or weeks; many severe depressions last for months or years.

There are several forms of depressive disorders declared by National Institute of Mental Health (2007: 2-3). Among them, the most common are major depressive disorder and dysthymic disorder. Major depressive disorder, also called major depression, is characterized by a combination of symptoms that interfere with a person’s ability to work, sleep, study, eat, and enjoy once-pleasurable activities. Major depression is disabling and prevents a person from functioning normally. An episode of major depression may occur only once in a person’s lifetime, but more often, it recurs throughout a person’s life. Dysthymic disorder, also called dysthymia, is characterized by long-term (two years or longer) but less severe symptoms that may not disable a person but can prevent one from functioning normally or feeling well. People with dysthymia may also experience one or more episodes of major depression during their lifetimes. Bipolar disorder, also called manic-depressive illness, is not as common as major depression or dysthymia. Bipolar disorder is characterized by cycling mood changes—from extreme highs (e.g., mania) to extreme lows (e.g., depression).

According to Marlene (1996: 28), two of the reasons children suffer from depression are loss and death. Death is often expressed as the loss of life. Someone who has died has been “lost” to his or her survivors. The end of relationship or certain times in life are often talked about through death imagery: divorce may be experienced as the death of a marriage, memories of the past may be thought of as old, faded or dead. Marlene said that grief reactions are normal when anything has been lost. However, when someone or something is gone forever, grief may seem overpowering. The concept of death for children may be more difficult to understand when there is no tangible or physical evidence or finality. It is also difficult for children to comprehend or accept the permanence of death.

2.4 Theory of School Bullying

School bullying is a social phenomenon of living in a community with others. It has been a matter of concern in a long time. School bullying tells us something about how a society lives in its youth. Schott and Søndergaard (2014: 27) describe school bullying into three examined definition. One of the definitions say that school bullying means a form of individual aggression.

The first definition of bullying as a form of individual aggression was formulated by Olweus, and then it becomes a dominant position in the field. Olweus summarises his definition in Schott and Søndergaard’s *School Bullying* (2014: 27) as follows: “A student is being bullied or victimized when he or she is exposed, repeatedly and over time, to negative actions on the part of one or more other students”. Olweus adds that these negative actions are intentional forms of ‘harm-doing’ and that bullying is a subset of aggressive behaviour.

An aggressive behaviour is often illustrated in violence. Violence, which is defined as using part of someone’s body or an object to harm another one belong to a reflection of an aggressive behaviour. Tough, many of bullying actions are not always involving physical means, the use of offensive gestures or social exclusion is often found. In short, an aggressive behaviour does not always involving a violence, but there is another reflection of aggressive behaviour like a gesture that shows an offensive act.

Bullied pupils, on the other hand, in many ways have the opposite characteristics: not feeling confident in peer interactions in general, having poor

self-assertive skills, poor handling of the aggressive reactions in particular, and being much more likely to show anxiety in social interactions (Smith and Sharp, 2003:5).

According to Smith and Sharp (2003:6), school bullying can take a variety of forms; some are direct and physical— hitting, tripping up, taking belongings; some are direct and verbal— namecalling and taunting, perhaps about race or disability; and some are indirect—passing nasty stories or rumours about someone behind their back, or excluding someone from social groups. Both of them then agreed that there are typical gender differences in types of bullying, as in aggression generally. Often, these differences have been thought of as physical versus verbal. Physical bullying acts are the type of bullying that is more often done by boys. In the other hand, verbal bullying acts are the type of bullying that is more often done by girls.

As the impact of school bullying acts toward the bullied pupils, Smith and Sharp (2003: 7) agreed that there is considerable evidence now that continue or severe bullying can contribute onto long-term problems and also immediate unhappiness. Children who are bullied at school risk continuing misery and loss of self-esteem, with possible long-term effects; while those who bully others are learning that they can get their own way by abusing power in their relationships with other people.