The Psychological Triggering Mechanism of Impulsive Hostile Crimes-to Build Theory Based on Emotion-Recognisation-Behavior Chain

Peigen Chen

University of Aberdeen, U.K.

Abstract: Impulsive hostile crime is a severe social issue, whose psychological triggering lacks mechanism still systematically theoretical explanation. This paper is based on the chain of emotion, cognition and behavior, and connect them with a line **Emotion-Cognition-Behavior** relation as chain, to build the modeling theory used for explaining the psychological process of this category of crimes. This modeling theory blends "the General Agrresion Model" and "Adjustable Interpretation of Emotions", pointing out that strong negative emotions can induce impulsive hostile behavior by influencing cognitive evaluation and behavioral decision-making in specific contexts. Research has found that the interaction between emotional stimuli (such as anger) and cognitive biases is an important cause of sudden impulsive aggressive behavior. **This** study deepens the understanding of the psychological mechanism of hostile crimes, providing prevention theoretical basis for intervention of sudden hostile crimes.

KeyWords: Sudden Hostile Crimes; Psychological Triggering Mechanism; Emotion-Cognition-Behavior Chain; General Agrresion Model; Adjustable Interpretation of Emotions

1. Introduction

The impulsive hostile crimes is a hostile act which is triggered by immediate situational cues(such as provocation, threat or pressure) and driven by strong emotions, without obvious premeditation or long-term planning[1][2][3]. Such an act is usually closely related to offernder's emotional regulation defect and insufficient cognitive control and may be influenced by neurobiological factors[4]. Sudden hostile crimes are on the rise globally and have become a serious public health issue. According

to a report by the World Health Organization[5], hostile behavior causes over one million deaths worldwide each year, a significant portion of which are sudden hostile crimes. This type of crime not only directly threatens individual life safety but also imposes a huge burden on the social healthcare system and economic resources. For instance, analysis research from Corso reported that, over billions of dollars are wasted by hostile crime damages in healthcare and social productivity[6]. From the perspective of society, hostile crime has the crucial power to the victims, perpetrators, which has spilled over to their families and the surrounding residents. This phenomenon has been researched as, victims probably would go through a long-term psychological trauma, causing them PTSD, depression and anxiety[7]. Furthermore, hostile criminals always have the relatively higher possibility to act crimes again, which arise risks in both social security and justice system[8]. Therefore, an in-depth investigation into the causes and mechanisms of impulsive hostile crimes, with the aim of preventing and reducing individual acts of impulsive aggressive behavior, can contribute to the development of targeted psychological interventions and rehabilitation programs, thereby mitigating the long-term harm such behaviors pose to both society and individuals.

2. The Psychological Mechanisms Underlying Impulsive Hostile Crime

2.1 Emotional Triggers: From Static to Dynamic Perspectives

Impulsive hostile behavior is often rooted in intense negative emotions such as anger, fear, or frustration. According to Gross's process model of emotion regulation, emotional regulation can be categorized into antecedent-focused and response-focused strategies[9]. The former includes situation selection, situation modification, attentional deployment, and

cognitive reappraisal, while the latter primarily involves expressive suppression [9]. Empirical studies have demonstrated that maladaptive strategies-such emotional regulation suppression and rumination-are strongly associated with anger and aggressive behaviors, whereas cognitive reappraisal significantly reduces aggressive impulses[10]. Individuals engaging in hostile acts often do so as a means of regulating negative affect, with this emotion-regulatory motive mediating the link between affect and aggression[1].

Early studies, such as that by Megargee, conceptualized impulsive hostile crime as a form of impulsive aggressive behavior enacted suddenly and without premeditation, driven by overwhelming emotional arousal[2]. While this conceptualization highlighted the immediacy and emotionality of such acts, it lacked a clear differentiation between impulsive impulsive aggressive behavior and other forms of impulsivity-related crimes. Building upon this, Toch emphasized the role of situational stressors, observing that impulsive hostile offenders typically undergo a brief but intense loss of emotional control. resulting in hostile behavior[11]. This view brought valuable insights into the contextual dependency of impulsive impulsive aggressive behavior.

Subsequent research offered more refined models. Bushman and Anderson, through the General Aggression Model (GAM), proposed that impulsive hostile crime often results from immediate situational cues (e.g., provocation or threat), characterized by low deliberation and the absence of long-term goals[1]. This theoretical model has received robust empirical support. For instance, Finkel et al. demonstrated through experimental studies that individuals prone to impulsive impulsive aggressive behavior display heightened emotional reactivity coupled with impaired cognitive control, reinforcing the centrality of emotional dysregulation in such behavior[3].

Neuroscientific research has corroborated the pivotal role of emotional regulation in impulsive aggressive behavior. Functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) studies have shown that exposure to anger-inducing stimuli significantly activates the amygdala; if unregulated, this can trigger hostile impulses. Conversely, effective cognitive reappraisal strategies activate the prefrontal cortex, which in turn downregulates amygdala activity and

reduces the likelihood of aggression[12].

Cross-cultural studies have also shed light on how cultural contexts modulate the relationship between emotional regulation and aggression. In East Asian cultures, for instance, moderate emotional suppression is often interpreted as a sign of emotional maturity and shows a weaker correlation with aggression[13].

More recently, both domestic and international scholarship has emphasized the "dynamic process" of emotional regulation, introducing constructs such as emotion dysregulation and emotional granularity[14][15]. Emotional granularity refers to an individual's capacity to distinguish and articulate discrete emotional states with precision. Initially proposed by Barrett in her work on emotion classification and affective experience, emotional granularity has become a central concept in affective science[16]. Individuals with high emotional granularity are able to differentiate and label emotional experiences with specificity (e.g., distinguishing anger from sadness, anxiety, or frustration), whereas those with low granularity tend to use vague descriptors such as "feeling bad." This distinction reflects not only differences in the sophistication of emotional experience but also in emotional regulatory competence.

Several empirical studies have validated these theoretical claims. For instance, emotional regulation difficulties have been found that they are significantly associated with hostile behaviors among adolescents, particularly in managing anger and anxiety[17].

Emotional granularity also appears to influence impulsive hostile crime by shaping cognitive appraisal processes. Individuals with high granularity are better equipped to accurately interpret emotional cues and assess situational triggers, thereby reducing hostile attribution biases. Van Kleef et al., for example, found that high-granularity individuals tend to offer neutral or non-hostile interpretations of ambiguous situations, which in turn reduces aggressive responses[18]. Conversely, those with low emotional granularity are more prone to interpreting neutral or ambiguous cues as hostile threats, thus increasing the likelihood of hostile outbursts. Eckhardt and Cohen similarly reported that low-granularity individuals are more susceptible to hostile attribution bias in ambiguous contexts, which heightens their risk of engaging in impulsive impulsive aggressive

behavior [19].

Furthermore, emotional granularity may be neurobiologically linked to impulsive impulsive aggressive behavior. Research indicates that granularity is closely associated with prefrontal cortical functioning-a brain region central to emotion regulation and impulse control. For instance, Barrett and Satpute found that individuals with high emotional granularity exhibited significantly greater activation in the prefrontal cortex when performing requiring emotional regulation [20]. neurobiological difference may help explain why high-granularity individuals are better able to inhibit impulsive behaviors, while those with low granularity are more susceptible to acting out hostilely when emotionally aroused.

In summary, the transition from a static to a dynamic understanding of emotional processes has significantly enriched the conceptualization of impulsive impulsive aggressive behavior. The multifaceted and nuanced mechanisms by which emotions are generated and regulated contribute to a more concrete and empirically grounded understanding of the emotional antecedents of hostile behavior.

2.2 The Role of Cognition: From Isolated Biases to Integrated Cognitive Networks

Individuals' cognitive mechanism is an essential factor that will lead to impulsive, hostile behavior. Specifically, cognitive biases. executive control capacities, and cognitive appraisal processes play critical roles in shaping the likelihood of such behaviors. According to the General Aggression Model (GAM) that developed by Bushman and Anderson, cognitive processes are central in understanding the emergence of impulsive hostile crime [1]. The model posits that aggressive behavior results from an interaction between situational cues. traits, individual and cognitive appraisal mechanisms. Such behaviors occur when individuals are confronted with situations where perceived provocation or threat could occur, and they interpret these cues through a cognitive appraisal process that informs whether an aggressive response will be enacted. This process involves perception, interpretation, and response selection. Deficits in cognitive bias regulation and cognitive control significantly increase the risk of impulsive, hostile reactions. A key factor in this process is executive function, particularly impulse inhibition, cognitive

flexibility, and planning-functions that determine whether an individual will act hostilely in emotionally charged situations [21]. Research indicates that deficits in executive functioning predict increased aggression in both adolescents primarily through adults, impulsivity [22]. Within this domain, working memory is especially vital. Strong working memory capacity supports empathy in conflict situations and reduces aggressive tendencies [23]. Cognitive training programs-such as self-control exercises and cognitive behavioral therapy-have demonstrated effectiveness in enhancing executive function and substantially reducing the frequency and intensity of aggressive behaviors

Cognitive biases have been extensively investigated with a focus on the close link with impulsive hostile crime. One of the most well-documented is the Hostile Attribution Bias, in which individuals interpret ambiguous or neutral social cues as intentionally hostile. For instance, Dodge and Pettit argue that individuals who demonstrate a higher level of hostile attribution bias are more likely to catastrophize unintentional actions as threats and uncertainty, thus leading to the possibility of aggressive behavior[25]. This bias is an initial part of impulsive impulsive aggressive behavior, where individuals make first assessments of situations. Perverted perception of the context is the origin of the hostile confrontation. Similarly, Crick and Dodge demonstrated a strong association between hostile attribution bias and aggression in children and adolescents, with the bias serving as a mediating mechanism, particularly in contexts involving social exclusion [26,27].

Chinese scholarship has further advanced this line of inquiry by exploring how relative deprivation amplifies cognitive biases and their link to impulsive impulsive aggressive behavior. For example, Ning Xu et al. proposed that the dual-pathway model of relative deprivation needs being constructed, and suggested that the deprivation influences hostile tendencies both through emotional pathways (e.g., anger and frustration) and cognitive pathways (e.g., social comparison and attribution bias), thus intensifying the risk of hostile behavior [28].

Deficits in cognitive control-defined as the ability to regulate impulses, manage emotions, and make rational decisions-constitute another crucial cognitive mechanism underlying impulsive impulsive aggressive behavior.

Research shows that impulsive hostile offenders often exhibit impaired cognitive control, making them less capable of inhibiting aggressive behavior when emotionally aroused. Giancola et al., for example, found that alcohol consumption significantly impairs cognitive control, thereby increasing the likelihood of impulsive impulsive aggressive behavior [29]. Raine further identified functional abnormalities in the prefrontal cortex-an area of the brain integral to regulation impulse emotion and suppression-among individuals prone impulsive impulsive aggressive behavior, providing neurobiological support for the role of cognitive control in such behavior[30].

In addition, cognitive appraisal determines how individuals would react toward potential threats. Based on Folkman's theory of stress appraisal, individuals undergo a two-stage evaluation process: primary appraisal (assessing the threat level of a situation) and secondary appraisal (evaluating one's ability to cope) [31]. Impulsive, hostile offenders often overestimate the threat during primary appraisal while underestimating their coping abilities during secondary appraisal, emotional dysregulation leading to aggressive behavior. For example, Finkel et al. found that individuals display higher level of impulsive hostile behavior tend to distort the intent of others and are uncertain about their capability for peaceful conflict resolution, thus increasing the likelihood of hostile reactions [3]. These distorted appraisals contribute to the adoption of aggression as a coping strategy in stressful encounters.

In sum, the cognitive underpinnings of impulsive hostile crime can be understood through the interrelated processes of cognitive bias, cognitive control, and cognitive appraisal. Hostile attribution and appraisal biases precipitate the situation where individuals will perceive non-threatening situations ambiguous and uncertain. At the same time, the inability to control their cognitive impulses hinders their ability to inhibit aggressive impulses. Together, these two factors create a cognitive environment conducive to impulsive, hostile behaviour. Understanding these cognitive mechanisms not only enhances theoretical insight into hostile crime but also provides actionable targets for psychological intervention and prevention.

2.3 Impulsive Hostile Crime: From Emotional

Impulses to Cognitive Dysfunctions and the Evolution of Behavioral Patterns

Research on impulsive hostile crime benefits from an integrated framework that encompasses emotional, cognitive, and behavioral dimensions, thereby facilitating a more comprehensive understanding of its complex mechanisms. According Berkowitz's Cognitive-Neoassociation Model. negative emotional states-such as anger, fear, or frustration-activate associative networks related to aggression, thereby increasing the likelihood of hostile behavior[33]. This model emphasizes the central role of emotion in impulsive impulsive aggressive behavior, suggesting that emotion not only acts as a trigger but also indirectly facilitates aggressive behavior by impairing cognitive processes. Specifically, when individuals experience intense negative affect, their cognitive resources may become consumed by emotional arousal, diminishing their capacity for rational thought and self-control, which increases the propensity for impulsive aggression.

In fact, impulsive hostile crime can be conceptualized as a dynamic interaction between emotional and cognitive systems, forming an evolving "stress-emotion-cognition-behavior" chain [34]. Individuals initially undergo a strong emotional reaction, followed by a cognitive appraisal that determines whether the emotion escalates into aggressive intent [32]. Cognitive processes such as hostile attribution bias and selective attention reinforce negative emotional states and provide a perceived justification for hostile behavior [25].

Neuroscientific research has further elucidated the mechanisms by which the prefrontal cortex (PFC) and the amygdala co-regulate behavior. While the PFC is responsible for rational evaluation and impulse inhibition, the amvgdala governs emotional reactivity. Dysfunction in the connectivity between these two regions has been strongly associated with increased risk of hostile behavior[33]. Structural imaging studies have shown that individuals who engage in repeated acts of impulsive aggressive behavior often exhibit reduced gray matter volume in the prefrontal cortex and abnormalities in the amygdala. These structural deficits reinforce emotional-cognitive imbalances, further entrenching aggressive behavioral tendencies

Further empirical evidence supports this view.

Finkel et al. demonstrated through experimental research that individuals prone to impulsive impulsive aggressive behavior tend to exhibit heightened emotional reactivity and diminished emotion regulation capacity[3]. Specifically, these individuals are more likely to experience intense anger in response to provocation or stress, and less able to engage in effective regulatory strategies such as cognitive reappraisal or attentional shifting. This deficit in emotion regulation predisposes them to adopt impulsive aggressive behavior as a coping strategy. Similarly, Denson et al. found that impairments in emotion regulation are closely linked to PFC dysfunction. Their study showed that individuals with a history of impulsive impulsive aggressive behavior exhibit significantly lower activation in the PFC during tasks requiring emotional regulation, reinforcing the critical role of regulatory deficits in impulsive hostile behavior [35].

The influence of emotional arousal extends to its disruptive impact on cognitive functioning. According to the General Aggression Model, emotion alters cognitive appraisal processes, likelihood thereby increasing the aggression[36]. For example, when experiencing anger, individuals are more prone to interpret neutral or ambiguous cues as hostile, thereby escalating the risk of aggression. emotionally-driven cognitive bias is particularly prominent in impulsive hostile crime. Research by Eckhardt and Cohen revealed that individuals with high trait anger are more likely to exhibit hostile attribution bias when interpreting ambiguous situations, thus increasing the risk of hostile responses [19].

Emotional arousal also impairs attention and information processing, as described Easterbrook's Cue Utilization Theory [37]. Intense emotional states narrow an individual's directing attentional focus. it toward emotion-congruent stimuli while neglecting other relevant information. In the context of impulsive impulsive aggressive behavior, this attentional narrowing is particularly pronounced. For instance, Eckhardt and Cohen found that individuals high in anger are more likely to fixate on perceived threatening cues and ignore neutral or positive information, increasing the likelihood of misinterpreting situations and responding hostilely [19]. Beersma et al. similarly observed that emotional influence how individuals interpret situational

cues; anger, in particular, promotes hostile attributions and elevates the incidence of aggressive behavior [38].

The disruptive effects of emotion also extend to the cognitive appraisal process. According to Lazarus and Folkman's theory of stress appraisal, individuals engage in both primary appraisal (assessing the threat level of a situation) and secondary appraisal (evaluating their coping resources) [39]. Negative emotional states can distort this process by amplifying threat perceptions and diminishing perceived coping ability. For example, Finkel et al. found that individuals prone to impulsive impulsive aggressive behavior, when influenced by anger, tend to overestimate the hostile intent of provocateurs and underestimate their own ability resolve conflicts nonhostilely[3]. emotion-driven appraisal bias makes it more likely that individuals will choose aggression as a coping strategy in high-stress situations.

The ultimate impact of emotion on cognition is evident in its interference with behavioral decision-making. For instance, Denson et al. demonstrated that anger significantly impairs cognitive control functions, making it harder for individuals to inhibit impulsive behaviors, thereby increasing the risk of impulsive hostile crime [35].

Recent advances in neuroscience have provided evidence further for the emotional-cognitive-behavioral chain. International research has identified functional imbalances between the prefrontal cortex and the amygdala as critical neurological underpinnings hostile behavior[40]. Additionally, dysregulations in neuroendocrine systems-such as alterations in cortisol and testosterone levels-can influence emotion regulation and cognitive control, thereby indirectly contributing to aggression [41]. In the west, psychological service generally starts from the help of those in need, but in China, this process model may need to be modified. In view of people's negative help seeking psychology, helping activities mostly start from the active behavior of the helper. This does not mean that the provider of psychological services arbitrarily provides help without analysis, but that it inspires those in need to express their needs through inquiry, so as to understand such needs and provide help. The service mode of waiting for door-to-door help may delay many really necessary psychological services in China[42]. Whether people recognize

that they have psychological problems, and whether they need to go to the community for help after recognizing them, and under the premise that the element of community belonging is uncertain, the activities can only start from teenagers.

This evolving emotional—cognitive—behavioral chain-ranging from emotional impulsivity to cognitive dysfunction and ultimately to aggressive behavioral patterns-illustrates the dynamic interplay between affect, cognition, and action [43]. For example, emotional impulses such as anger or frustration may impair cognitive processes like attention and attribution, which in turn shape maladaptive behavioral responses such as aggression. Over time, repeated behavioral patterns can reinforce both emotional dysregulation and cognitive distortions, forming a self-reinforcing vicious cycle [44].

Importantly, recent research has drawn attention to the role of emotional granularity in disrupting this cycle. Kashdan et al. emphasize that the ability to distinguish nuanced emotional states can improve emotion regulation, cognitive appraisal, and behavioral control [45]. Barrett, Chester and DeWall, and Denson have all highlighted the importance of biological mechanisms underpinning emotional self-regulation [46,47][35]. Their findings suggest that individuals with high emotional granularity are better equipped to interpret emotional signals accurately, make more adaptive cognitive appraisals, and inhibit impulsive actions. These insights have inspired more targeted interventions aimed at disrupting the affect-cognition-behavior chain at multiple levels-emotional, cognitive, neurobiological-offering new avenues for preventing impulsive hostile crime.

3. Conclusion

This study employs qualitative research methods, integrating recent findings from both domestic and international scholarship, to systematically the psychological triggering mechanisms underlying impulsive hostile crime. Building upon this analysis, it aims to develop a grounded theoretical model in the chain." "Emotion-Cognition-Behavior This model is expected to offer a novel theoretical perspective for research in criminal psychology, while also providing a scientifically informed foundation for the development of effective strategies in crime prevention and psychological

intervention. However, there are something which are needed to be considered carefully, such as how to determine the relationship or the truth of conduction between the emotion and cognition, so that scholars are able to find out which factor is more influential in the system above. Furthermore, as researchers have already found numerous categories of behaviors, it is also quite crucial to logically infer from behavior to cognition and emotions, especially in situations where it's not just one-on-one. And then there is a last but important object to define, the chain above is not a single straight linear development chain, each role has varying degrees of impact on the other two while it occurs or encounter them. Therefore, the above chain is only the author's personal idea of the logical backbone of the entire development process.

References

- [1] Anderson, C. A., & Bushman, B. J. (2002). Human aggression. Annual Review of Psychology, 53(1), 27-51.
- [2] Megargee, E. I. (1966). Undercontrolled and overcontrolled personality types in extreme antisocial aggression. Psychological Monographs: General and Applied, 80(3), 1–29.
- [3] Finkel, E. J., DeWall, C. N., Slotter, E. B., Oaten, M., & Foshee, V. A. (2009). Self-regulatory failure and intimate partner impulsive aggressive behavior perpetration. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 102(3), 483–499.
- [4] Raine, A. (2013). The anatomy of impulsive aggressive behavior: The biological roots of crime. Vintage Books.
- [5]World Health Organization. (2014). Global status report on impulsive aggressive behavior prevention 2014. World Health Organization.
- [6] Corso, P. S., Mercy, J. A., Simon, T. R., Finkelstein, E. A., & Miller, T. R. (2007). Medical costs and productivity losses due to interpersonal and self-directed impulsive aggressive behavior in the United States. American Journal of Preventive Medicine, 32(6), 474–482.
- [7] Kessler, R. C., Aguilar-Gaxiola, S., Alonso, J., Benjet, C., Bromet, E. J., Cardoso, G., ... & Koenen, K. C. (2017). Trauma and PTSD in the WHO World Mental Health Surveys. European Journal of Psychotraumatology,

- 8(sup5), 1353383.
- [8] Sampson, R. J., & Laub, J. H. (2005). A life-course view of the development of crime. The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 602(1), 12–45.
- [9] Gross, J. J. (2015). Emotion regulation: Current status and future prospects. Emotion Review, 7(1), 6–12. https://doi.org/10.1177/1754073914554785
- [10] Roberton, T., Daffern, M., & Bucks, R. (2012). Emotion regulation and aggression. Aggression and Violent Behavior, 17, 72-82. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2011.09.006
- [11] Toch, H. (1969). Violent men: An inquiry into the psychology of impulsive aggressive behavior. Aldine Publishing Company.
- [12] Etkin, A., Büchel, C., & Gross, J. J. (2015). The neural bases of emotion regulation. Nature Reviews Neuroscience, 16(11), 693–700. https://doi.org/10.1038/nrn4044
- [13] Matsumoto, D., Yoo, S. H., Nakagawa, S., & Multinational Study of Cultural Display Rules. (2008). Culture, emotion regulation, and adjustment. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 94(6), 925–937. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.94.6.925
- [14] Gratz, K. L., & Roemer, L. (2004). Multidimensional assessment of emotion regulation and dysregulation: Development, factor structure, and initial validation of the difficulties in emotion regulation scale. Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment, 26(1), 41-54.
- [15] Kashdan, T. B., Barrett, L. F., & McKnight, P. E. (2015). Unpacking emotion differentiation: Transforming unpleasant experience by perceiving distinctions in negativity. Current Directions in Psychological Science, 24(1), 10-16.
- [16] Barrett, L. F. (2004). Feelings or words? Understanding the content in self-report ratings of emotional experience. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 87(2), 266–281.
- [17] Kokkinos, C. M., Algiovanoglou, I., & Voulgaridou, I. (2019). Emotion regulation and relational aggression in adolescents: Parental attachment as moderator. Journal of child and family studies, 28(11), 3146-3160.
- [18] Van Kleef, G. A., De Dreu, C. K. W., & Manstead, A. S. R. (2004). The interpersonal effects of emotions in negotiations: A motivated information processing approach.

- Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 87(4), 510–528.
- [19] Eckhardt, C. I., & Cohen, D. J. (1997). Attention to anger-relevant and irrelevant stimuli following naturalistic insult. Personality and Individual Differences, 23(4), 619–629.
- [20] Barrett, L. F., & Satpute, A. B. (2013). Large-scale brain networks in affective and social neuroscience: Towards an integrative functional architecture of the brain. Current Opinion in Neurobiology, 23(3), 361–372.
- [21] Diamond, A. (2013). Executive functions. Annual Review of Psychology, 64, 135–168. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-1130 11-143750
- [22] Ogilvie, J. M., Stewart, A. L., Chan, R. C. K., & Shum, H. K. D. (2011). Neuropsychological measures of executive function and antisocial behavior: A meta-analysis. Criminology, 49(4), 1063-1107. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-9125.2011.00252.x
- [23] Hofmann, S. G., Asnaani, A., Vonk, I. J., Sawyer, A. T., & Fang, A. (2012). The Efficacy of Cognitive Behavioral Therapy: A Review of Meta-analyses. Cognitive therapy and research, 36(5), 427–440. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10608-012-9476-1
- [24] Denson, T. F., Pedersen, W. C., Friese, M., Hahm, A., & Roberts, L. (2011). Understanding impulsive aggression: Angry rumination and reduced self-control capacity are mechanisms underlying the provocation-aggression relationship. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 47(1), 235–240.
 - https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2010.10.011
- [25] Dodge, K. A., & Pettit, G. S. (2003). A biopsychosocial model of the development of chronic conduct problems in adolescence. Developmental Psychology, 39(2), 349–371.
- [26] Crick, N. R., & Dodge, K. A. (1994). A review and reformulation of social information-processing mechanisms in children's social adjustment. Psychological Bulletin, 115(1), 74–101.
- [27] Shutao Ma, Shaohua Chen, & Yankun Ma. (2020). The relationship between the degree of abuse experienced by juvenile offenders during childhood and their aggressive behavior: a moderated mediation model. Studies of Psychology and Behaviors, 18(2), 220.

- [28] Ning Xu, Ying Zhang, Hui Wang, Tingwei Feng, Rihan Wu, Yue Pu, Yuting Zhang, Yaning Guo, Yuntao Gao, Lingwei Zeng, Yangyang Shen (2023). A Review of Research on the Relationship between Relative Deprivation and Aggression. Advances in Psychology, 13(5), 2087-2094. https://doi.org/10.12677/AP.2023.135256.
- [29] Giancola, P. R., Josephs, R. A., Parrott, D. J., & Duke, A. A. (2010). Alcohol myopia revisited: Clarifying aggression and other acts of disinhibition through a distorted lens. Perspectives on Psychological Science, 7(3), 205–220.
- [30] Raine, A. (2013). The anatomy of impulsive aggressive behavior: The biological roots of crime. Vintage Books.
- [31] Folkman, S. (2013). Stress: appraisal and coping. In Encyclopedia of behavioral medicine (pp. 1913-1915). Springer, New York, NY. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4419-1005-9_215
- [32] Berkowitz, L. (1990). On the formation and regulation of anger and aggression: A cognitive-neoassociationistic analysis. American Psychologist, 45(4), 494–503.
- [33] Anderson, C. A., & Bushman, B. J. (2018). Human aggression. Annual Review of Psychology, 69, 53–88. https://doi.org/ 10.1146/annurev-psych-122216-011904
- [34] Coccaro, E. F., Śripada, C. S., Yanowitch, R. N., & Phan, K. L. (2016). Corticolimbic function in impulsive aggressive behavior. Biological Psychiatry, 79(1), 82–90. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biopsych.2015.02.0
- [35] Denson, T. F., Pedersen, W. C., Ronquillo, J., & Nandy, A. S. (2009). The angry brain: Neural correlates of anger, angry rumination, and aggressive personality. Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience, 21(4), 734–744.
- [36] Bushman, B. J., & Anderson, C. A. (2001). Is it time to pull the plug on the hostile versus instrumental aggression dichotomy? Psychological Review, 108(1), 273–279.
- [37] Easterbrook, J. A. (1959). The effect of emotion on cue utilization and the organization of behavior. Psychological Review, 66(3), 183–201.
- [38] Beersma, B., & Van Kleef, G. A. (2012). Why people gossip: An empirical analysis of social motives, antecedents, and

- consequences. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 42(11), 2640–2670. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2012.00 956.x
- [39] Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). Stress, appraisal, and coping. Springer publishing company.
- [40] Blair, R. J. R. (2016). The neurobiology of impulsive aggression. Journal of Child and Adolescent Psychopharmacology, 26(1), 4-9.
- [41] Geniole, S. N., Carré, J. M., & McCormick, C. M. (2020). State, not trait, neuroendocrine function predicts costly reactive aggression in men after social exclusion and inclusion. Biological Psychology, 152, 107870.
- [42] Tingyu Li. (2009). Path Selection of Community Mental Health Service. Journal of Shanghai Administration Institute, 10 (05), 70-77.
- [43] Anderson, C. A., & Bushman, B. J. (2018). Human aggression. Annual Review of Psychology, 69, 53–88. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-1222 16-011904
- [44] Wilkowski, B. M., & Robinson, M. D. (2012). When Aggressive Individuals See the World More Accurately: The Case of Perceptual Sensitivity to Subtle Facial Expressions of Anger. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 38(4), 540-553. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167211430233 (Original work published 2012)
- [45] Kashdan, T. B., Disabato, D. J., Goodman, F. R., Doorley, J. D., & McKnight, P. E. (2020). Understanding psychological flexibility: A multimethod exploration of pursuing valued goals despite the presence of distress. Psychological Assessment, 32(9), 829–850.
 - https://doi.org/10.1037/pas0000834
- [46] Barrett, L. F. (2017). The theory of constructed emotion: An active inference account of interoception and categorization. Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience, 12(1), 1–23.
- [47] Chester, D. S., & DeWall, C. N. (2017). Combating the sting of rejection with the pleasure of revenge: A new look at how emotion shapes aggression. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 112(3), 413–430.