CHAPTER-II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Aggression can be considered as a behaviour rather than a consistent personality trait. Considered from the behavioural aspect, the role of socialization processes and the cultural environment in which it unfolds acquires great significance.

In the present study aggression and values have been delineated as the main variables of study. For review of literature a computerized search was obtained from Informatics Centre, Planning Commission Government of India, New Delhi. This search was done from 1990 onward. An abstract based manual search was also carried out at central Library, M.D.University, Rohtak, where Indian Psychological Abstracts and American Psychological Abstracts were scanned from 1990 onward. This was followed by a journal based study for which central Library M.D.U. Rohtak and Central Library Delhi University were consulted.

The studies reviewed in this chapter have been considered in three sections i.e. studies related to aggression, values and aggression and mediating variables and aggression.

Aggression

Various socio-cultural factors influence aggression. Many studies have been conducted to identify the socio-cultural factors, which influence the degree of aggression in terms of violence, crime, hostility, anger, delinquency and even suicide. Every country has its unique culture, which is different from another culture. Any behaviour,
which is normal in one society or culture, can be abnormal in another
culture.

Ekblad and Olweus (1986) conducted a study on 155 male and
135 female Chinese children by using instruments assessing
aggressive behaviour in a western culture. Results indicate individual
differences among Chinese children in the domain of aggression
inspite of strong societal pressures against aggressive behaviour and
towards aggression control. The Chinese subjects generally were non-
aggressive, well behaved, friendly, prosocial and exerted strong
control over aggressive feelings and behaviour tendencies. In possible
conflicts with adults, they were likely to take a humble and submissive
attitude.

Domino and Takahashi (1991) conducted a study, for comparing
attitudes towards suicide, on 80 male and 20 females from Japanese
medical students and 80 males and 20 female from American medical
students, using suicide opinion questionnaire. Result reveal that
Japanese were more likely to believe in a right to commit suicide and
that suicide is a normal behaviour, while Americans were more likely to
believe that suicide reflects aggression and anger. Males were more
likely to believe that religious values are inversely related to suicide
and females are more likely to believe that suicide is basically an
impulsive act.

Ojha and Shailendra (1993) conducted a study on a sample of
100 Hindu and 100 Muslim male and female students, in age group of
17-21 years. Measures used were Hindi adaptation of Directiveness
Scale, Buss-Durkee Hostility Guilt Inventory and Prejudice Scale.
Cultural differences were found in directiveness, hostility and prejudice in the Muslims as compared to their Hindu counterparts.

Staub (1993) examined the psychological and cultural-societal origins of genocide and mass killing, with a focus on the Holocaust. Difficult conditions of life in a society give rise to powerful needs for security, protection of the psychological self, comprehension, connection and hope. Certain cultural-societal characteristics such as evaluation of a subgroup and a history of aggression create a predisposition for group violence. As perpetrators begin to harm victims, they change. Their evaluation, with steps along a continuum of destruction, ends in genocide or mass killing. Both internal bystanders, members of the society, and external ones including other nations, usually remain passive, which encourages perpetrators. People who endanger themselves to help victims, are guided by moral values and empathy. They also change as a result of their own actions and may become heroic helpers.

Gill and Singh (1995) conducted a study on 200 preschool children and their parents. The measures used to collect information were, Achenbach Edelbrock Child Behaviour Checklist (CBCL) and Social Background Information Scale. It was found that urban pre-school children had more behvioural problems as compared to their rural counterparts. These differences were attributed to more environmental pressures in urban areas than in rural areas. Boys and girls did not differ in their behavioural problems in urban as well as in rural areas. In case of aggressive behaviour and delinquent
tendencies, the urban and rural preschool children did not differ significantly.

Buntaine et al. (1997) conducted a study to determine self-reported differences in the experience and expression of anger between girls and boys. They used elementary school children from an urban, a suburban and rural district. Five hundred and fifty seven 4th and 5th grade children (287 boys and 270 girls) were given a self-report anger questionnaire. No significant differences were found between boys and girls in the self-reported total anger level. However, item analysis indicated that elicited anger differed in boys and girls. Consistent with previous research boys reported significantly higher level of aggression. The urban youngers reported significantly higher level of anger than children who attended school in rural or sub-urban setting.

Grunbaum, Basen and Pandey (1998) administered a 'Youth Risk Behaviour Survey' to 1,617 high school students in a biethnic community in Southeast Texas where 65% of the respondents were Mexican-American and 26% were non-Hispanic White. Results show that there were no significant ethnic differences in prevalence of drinking alcohol, illicit drug use, fighting, carrying a weapon or attempting suicide. Since these behaviours are indicants of aggression, the study shows that anger does not differ across ethnic communities.

Thus, these studies show that aggression is determined by social and cultural factors. A behaviour, such as suicide, may be considered a normal behaviour in one culture, but may be considered
an aggressive activity in another. Hostility and prejudice were found to be more in Muslim culture as compared to Hindu culture. Children can be aggressive inspite of strong societal pressures against aggressive behaviour. Rural-urban differences in aggressive behaviour have been reported, with urban youngsters being significantly higher than rural youngsters. However, some researches report specific indicants of aggressiveness.

- Other than culture and rural-urban differences, some demographic factors such as parental-child relationship, socio-economic conditions, caste, intelligence etc. also influence aggression.

Verma (1980) studied the role of socio-economic factors in the development of aggression in children. 82 children aged between 6 and 9 years were studied by using Thematic Apperception Test Cards. Lower the economic status more was the aggression. Lower and middle class subjects did not show significant differences. Lowest sibling was most favourable to normal development.

Kulshreshta and Bhushan (1981) conducted a study in Agra and Mathura on 41 male children in age range 12-16 by using T.A.T. (Indian adaptation by Uma Chaudhry). Results revealed that poverty, lack of education, parental neglect and low caste were high among delinquent. Main need in order to prominence were, aggression, achievement, dominance, affiliation and sex. Frequent use of ego defence mechanisms, unintegrated ego, weak and undeveloped superego were indicative of psychotic and neurotic tendencies in them.

Bhan (1984) reported relationship between aggression and some selected cognitive, personality and environmental factors. After
identifying aggressive subjects (both girls and boys), from students of 8th class (Junior) and 1st year of the three year degree course (senior), studying in various institutes in Jammu city, the aggressive and normal subjects (used as Control) were given various tests/questionnaires to obtain their scores for various factors. Higher intelligence level, better economic condition of family, cordial family relationship, better emotional adjustment and adjustment at home/school/college, higher educational and cultural level of the family and better teacher-pupil relations were associated with relatively lower level of aggression. While \( n\)-achievement and \( n\)-affiliation had a significant positive relationship with aggression only at junior level, \( n\)-power and health adjustment were related positively to aggression, both at junior and senior levels. There was no significant difference between aggressive and normals as far as social adjustment, peer-relationship and security/insecurity goes.

Bhogle (1988) conducted a study to explore the role of some environmental factors in producing aggressive behaviour in children in the age group of one to six years. Results reveal that age, sex, social class, economic class, type of family and sibling order, determine aggressive behaviour. It was also observed that children from caste Hindu and rich homes exhibit high aggression in much greater proportion while backward Hindu children and children from poorer homes are found to show no aggression. Besides these, parental characteristics also seem to influence this behaviour.

Nizamuddin and Banu (1995) conducted a study to find out the differences in child-rearing practices by parents of aggressive and
non-aggressive pre-school children. Two hundred pre-school children (100 boys and 100 girls) were selected randomly from four matriculation schools. Rosenweing Picture Frustration Test and Child-Rearing Practices Scale (Nizamuddin, 1995) were administered. Out of these, on the basis of scores on Rosenweing Picture-Frustration test, 50 children (25 boys and 25 girls) were identified as aggressive and 50 children (25 boys and 25 girls) as non-aggressive. Child-Rearing Practice Scale was administered to parents of aggressive and non-aggressive children. Responses were scored and differences in child-rearing practices were compared by applying ‘t’ test. Results indicated that parents of aggressive children were significantly lower in providing warmth, stimulation, training behaviour and play provision when compared to the parents of non-aggressive children.

Sharma and Nanda (1997) studied the effect of parent-child relationship, socio-economic status and ordinal position on aggression of rural and urban adolescent boys in Ludhiana. Results revealed that adolescent who had very good relationship with their parents showed least aggression, whereas adolescent having average relations showed highest aggression. Adolescents belonging to middle socio-economic status suffer greater frustration leading to higher aggression. In both rural and urban areas, second born showed more aggression as compared to later borns and first borns.

Singh and Bhatt (1998) conducted a study to determine whether crime and caste are related in the Indian society which is stratified on the basis of caste. It was found that majority of the criminals belonged to high society (Brahmin, Jat, Khatri, Arora) but dowry death was not
prevalent among Jats. In high caste category other type of crime were found. Crime was also prevalent among low caste category with dowry death and murder predominating. Crime was found to be very low among medium caste category (Sunar, Nai, Ranguria).

Tripathi, Lakshmi Rani and Vidhya (1998) used a 2x2x2 factorial design with 2 levels of age (A₁ and A₂), and 2 levels of social class (Ad/disadvantage) to study the nature and direction of aggression with the help of Rosenzweig Picture Frustration Test (Indian adaptation). Male children were found to be more aggressive irrespective of social class and age. Further social class emerged as a second major variable in interaction with age and sex to produce detrimental impact on the process of aggression in childhood.

The above reviewed studies show that child-rearing practices have a major influence on aggression. Parents of aggressive children are generally lower in providing warmth, stimulation, training behaviour as compared to non-aggressive children. High level of intelligence, better economic conditions, better emotional adjustment have been found associated with relatively lower level of aggression. Social class emerges as a major variable in interaction with age and sex to produce detrimental impact on process of aggression in childhood. In India where the society is stratified on the basis of caste, aggression has been reported to be high among high and low caste and least among moderate.

Age also has been considered as a major contributing factor to aggression. The tantrum of infancy may be the beginning of aggression. But tantrum behaviours do change. Early rage is
undirected while aggression in preschool year is more directly focused. May (1984) reported that verbal aggression increases after third year. Chumming, Innotti and Wayler (1989) reported that frequency of aggression decreases as age advances. Studies have shown that various age related factors contribute to aggression.

Kanekar, Duarta and Kolswalla (1981) obtained evaluation of an aggressor and a victim of aggression in 2 studies, in which a paragraph describing an instance of aggression and its consequence was read by college students. In Experiment-I (336 subjects), the victim was rated on intelligence, morality, adjustment, and likeability; in Experiment-II (320 subjects), the aggressor was rated. The non-retaliating victim was evaluated more positively than the retaliating victim and the aggressor received a more negative evaluation, in some conditions, with the non-retaliating rather than the retaliating victim. The younger victim was evaluated more negatively with the older rather than the younger aggressor, and the younger aggressor received a more negative evaluation with the older rather then the younger retaliating victim. Results reflect the norms regarding aggression in a specific culture and suggest the acceptability of non-retaliation or non-violation as a powerful moral weapon.

Cermak and Blatny (1995) explored sex and age differences in the comparison between concept of aggression and moral disengagement. One hundred and thirty three Czech boys and ninety eight Czech girls (10-25 years) were administered scales that measured personality indicators of aggression that included their attitudes toward violence, irritability, emotional susceptibility, fear of
punishment, dissipation-rumination, and moral disengagement. Regarding moral disengagement, the results show a significant effect for sex, with boys more often rating themselves as using these mechanism, boys evaluated themselves as more emotionally susceptible, as needing more reparation then did girls, and as ruminating about aggression less than did girls. Girls reported themselves as more irritable and 13-25 year olds needed more reparation than 10-22 years olds.

Smith and Levan (1995) devised a pictorial questionnaire to explore definitions and experienced of bullying behaviour. The questionnaire was given individually to sixty pupils (6-7 years) from 2 schools, balanced by sex. Various indicators suggested that the children responded reasonably consistently to the questions, they had an understanding of what bullying meant, irrespective of questionnaire format, which include indirect as well as direct forms, and they had some understanding of the time frame of reference. However, despite evidence for general consistency in responses, many children extended their definition of bullying to include fighting behaviour and aggressive behaviour, which was not necessarily repeated, or qualified in other ways.

Harris (1996) conducted a study to assess the relationship of experiences as a target and an instigator of aggression to ethnicity, gender, age and aggression. In this study 259 female and 102 male, 18-26 years old, Anglo and Hispanic University students completed a questionnaire drawn from the Conflict Tactics Scale and Aggression Scale. Anglo subjects reported experiencing more life time aggression,
as both target and aggressor, then did Hispanic subjects. There were no interactions between ethnicity and gender. Men had experienced more aggression both over a life time and in the last month and scored significantly higher on scales of physical and verbal aggression. Respondent age was negatively correlated with experiences of aggression in the last month and with aggression questionnaire scale scores. Results are consistent with a social learning account of aggression as influenced by both individual experiences and culture.

Crick, Casas and Mosher (1997) attempted to assess relational aggression in preschool-age children. Reliable measures of relational aggression were developed by the authors to study the relation between relational aggression and social-psychological adjustment. Results provided evidence that relationally aggressive behaviours appear in children’s behaviour repertoire at relatively young ages, and that these behaviours could be reliably distinguished from overtly aggressive behaviours in preschool age-children. Preschool girls were significantly more relationally aggressive and less overtly aggressive than preschool boys. Relational aggression was significantly related to social-psychological maladjustment for both girls and boys.

Huesmann and Guerra (1997) conducted a study on children’s normative beliefs about aggression and aggressive behaviour by using a scale assessing normative beliefs about aggression. The authors investigated the longitudinal relation between normative beliefs about aggression and aggressive behaviour in a large sample of elementary school children living in poor urban neighbourhoods. Results indicated that children tended to approve more of aggression as they grew older
and that this increase appeared to be correlated with increase in aggressive behaviour. Individual differences in aggressive behaviour predicted subsequent differences in normative beliefs in younger children. Individual differences in aggressive behaviour were predicted by preceding differences in normative beliefs in older children.

Miles and Carey (1997) studied genetic and environmental factors of human aggression. A meta-analysis was performed on data from 24 genetically informative studies by using various personality measures of aggression. There was a strong overall genetic effect that may account for up to 50% of the variance in aggression. This effect was not attributed to methodological inadequacies in the twin or adoption designs. Age differences were important. Self-report and parental ratings showed genes and the family environment seem to be important in youth; the influence of genes increased but that of family environment decreased at later ages. Observational ratings of laboratory behaviours found no evidence for heritability and a very strong family environment effect.

Peterson and Rigby (1999) conducted a study at an Australian coeducational secondary school. Staff and students co-operated in developing and implementing appropriate policies and procedures to counter bullying. Questionnaires assessing the incidence of bullying and related attitudes were completed by students in years 7, 9, 10 and 11 in 1995 and again in 1997. Significant reductions in levels of victimization were recorded for 7 years students only. Significantly increased support for anti-bullying initiatives was found among senior students (Years 10 and 11). Anti-bullying activities directed and
undertaken by students themselves received most approval from peers.

Thus, the studies relating to age and aggression show that age related factors have an important influence on aggression. Youth have been reported as most susceptible to aggression. Children tended to approve more to aggression as they grow older. Differences in normative beliefs of younger and of older has been reported. Sex differences have also been reported. Girls have been found to exhibit significantly more relational aggressive and are less overtly aggressive than boys. Genetic differences has also being reported.

**Value and Aggression**

Values are universal statements about what we think is desirable or attractive. They are an integral part of culture and are transmitted through the process of socialization from one generation to the other. Values have a profound effect on behaviour of an individual as outcome expectencies of behaviour act as powerful reinforcer. As values are multidimensional, they have a differential effects on behaviour. Values themselves are not static but tend to change with the passage of time.

Age is significantly associated with the development of values. Values begin to develop at the age of 3 years and develop upto the age of 17-18 year. But values are not static rather they change with the passage of time. When a child is absolutely depend on his or her parents, then he or she adopts the parental values. After, a child comes in the contact with peer group, teachers and society, he
develops his own values. Many studies have been conducted to study the relationship between age and values.

Tripathi, Devendra and Mishra (1979) conducted a study on 120 Indian children whose age ranged from 6 to 11, in order to test the development of moral judgement in Indian children. A 3x2x2 factorial experimental design with three age levels (6-7, 8-9, 10-11 years), two sex groups (male and female), and two levels of economic status (high and low) were used. Results indicated a significant main effect of age. Age x Sex and age x economic status interaction yielded significant effects. The interaction of the three independent factors was also found to be significant. It was concluded that although the capacity of moral judgement increases with age, the pattern is significantly mediated by factors of sex and economic status.

Roscoe and Peterson (1989) examined generation differences in perception of age-appropriate behaviour during adulthood in 3 generations of maternally related females: 95 adolescents (aged 24 years or less), 78 mothers and 83 grandmothers: were administered a questionnaire to assess age-appropriate behaviours in 3 broad categories: recreation, occupation/career, and family. Results show that adolescent subjects were most tolerant of behaviours performed by individuals at varying ages while older subject most closely ascribed to age constraints. Adolescent’s values or family issues are consistent with those of their parents and that adherence to age norms increases throughout the life span or are the result of generational differences in socialization.
Sikula and Costa (1994) measured ethical values of 171 college students by using a subset of the Rokeach Value Survey. Nonparametric analysis, 4 value measures, and 4 different consistent tests of significance and probability showed that the younger subjects scored significantly higher ethnically on 3 out of 4 measures. Younger subjects valued equality, freedom and honesty more than their older classmates. The younger subjects were also more concerned with being helpful and intellectual and were less involved in pursuing an exciting life and in social recognition than were the older subjects.

Thus the above reviewed studies show that values are subjected to socialization factors and change as the individuals interactions become diverse and they are exposed to a different value system.

Today, the adolescents are facing a paradoxical situation where there is a wide chasm between the values they have ingrained from their parents and those being propogated and practiced by the peers. The traditional values and institutions are undergoing a metamorphic change as a result of technological advancements and globalization. As certain cultural practices advocate and encourage aggressive behaviour, studies related to investigation of the relationship between aggression and values have been reviewed.

This relationship has been describing by Lott and Hart (1977) who discuss a cattle-herding tribe of sub-saharan Africa, and the high cultural value, they place on aggressiveness and courage. It is suggested that one casual factor for the aggressive personality of the Fulani is the social systems of the two species, cattle and men, and their interaction. The dominance pattern among the cattle requires
strongly aggressive behaviour by the herdsman to control the adult bulls. Boys are expected to display the same aggressive behaviours toward others as toward the bulls. Other behavioural patterns among the Fulani further reinforce the cultural ideal of courage and aggressiveness.

The function of family and it's traditional dynamic force in social and moral education, and in the affective support and protection of it's members has been expounded by Palermo and Simpson (1994). Since the institution of the family is progressively crumbling under the pressure of ever-changing socio-economic events, people feel insecure and frustrated. The present day family often does not pass on to it's members those traditional high moral values of honesty and responsibility, so important for good citizenship and self-esteem and when compounded by unemployment and the wide spread and presence of psycho-active drugs in the street, this may be a basic factor in the up-surge of violence. The too easy availability of guns and the drug culture are certainly important factors, the authors believe that the progressive disintegration of the family and it's value deficit are basic to the problem of disruptive violence in the street.

Sinha and Shrivastava (1994) conducted a study to find out whether sex and religiosity are critical determinants of hostility and if significant interaction exists between sex and religiosity. Hindi adaptation of hostility (Shrivastava, 1985) and directiveness of hostility and RTMS Religiosity Measurement (Shrivastava, 1985) were used. Results revealed that both sex and religiosity are significant determinant of hostility, and sex and religiosity were significantly
interactive. The males were found to be higher in hostility than female and high religiosity group was higher in hostility than low religiosity group.

Wu (1996) reported cultural differences between Taiwanese and American undergraduates with respect to values and attitudes that reflect individualism and collectivism as well as independent, cooperative, defensive, and aggressive behaviours. A sample of 90 subjects from each culture was taken. The Schwartz Value Instrument and Attitude Survey were used. The findings show that the relatively homogeneous culture of Taiwan and the heterogeneous culture of the United States differ on specific values and attitudes reflecting the individualistic versus collectivistic natures these cultures.

Borecka (1997) tested the hypothesized link between general and more particular self-evaluation levels and aggressive behaviour in situations of social exposure. One hundred and forty eight normal male and female Polish adolescent (74 aggressive and 74 non-aggressive) in the 7th-8th grade were taken for the study. A socio-metric naming technique, Questionnaire on Aggressive Behaviours in Social Situations (D. Boreka-Biernal, 1989), and Self-Evaluation Scale (W.Fitts, 1975) were used. Subjects rated themselves with respect to their physicality moral-ethical norms, privacy, family ties, social norms, and self-perception of behaviour. General self-evaluation of all aggressive persons (including girls) was significantly lower than that of non-aggressive persons. This held as well for particular self-evaluations of given aspects of the self-image (as related to moral values and norms, functioning in roles and social structures, self-
perception and experiencing self and own behaviour).

Gasteiger and Klicpera (1997) analyzed the influence of social development and long-term adjustment of children on the social experiences of students in secondary school. The presence of aggressive behaviour was determined by means of peer ratings and self ratings. Classroom climate was considered as a modifying factor. Results indicate that social experiences attitude and values of the students were highly correlated with the frequency of their involvement in aggressive arguments. There were some marked discrepancies between peer ratings and self-ratings of behaviour, but both types of rating appear to have some clinical relevance. Beside the social status in peer group the classroom climate had considerable impact on the social experiences of aggressive children.

Baroun, et al. (1998) conducted a study to understand the personality and religiosity aspects of criminals behaviours and to see whether criminals differ from non-criminals on these dimensions. 20 subjects were taken. T.A.T., Standard Progressive Matrix, and Religious Scale were administered. Results show that absolute differentiation between criminal and non-criminal could not be confirmed. Among the group of criminals, however, differences in personality type were observed regarding religiosity aspect. The criminals by a large, were found to be more religious than non-criminals.

Crane, Tisak and Tisak (1998) conducted a study to investigate whether aggressive and conventional rule-violating behaviours could be predicted by social-cognitive beliefs and values regarding
aggression and conventional rule violation. Aggressive behaviour and conventional rule violating behaviours were predicted by (1) beliefs about the legitimacy of aggressive and convention violating behaviour. (2) Values placed on the expected outcomes of these acts, such as negative self evaluations, peer disapproval and tangible rewards, and (3) beliefs about the effects of these acts on others. Aggressive and conventional transgressions were predicted both by beliefs and values within the same social cognitive domain than across domains. In contrast to females, male students committed more aggressive acts and conventional rule violations and reported beliefs and values that were more supportive of aggressive behaviour and conventional rule-violating behaviour. However, gender differences in belief and values were greater for aggressive acts than for conventional acts.

Garnier, Helen and Stein (1998) explored the influence of family values on adolescent problem behaviours in an 18 years study of 119 families. Factors analysis revealed two value dimension: traditional/achievement and humanistic/egolitarian. Problem behaviour was indicated by drug use, delinquency, drop out and sexual behaviour. Maternal values predicted similar adolescent values. Traditional values generally protected adolescents against problem behaviours. Humanistic/egolitarian values protected against delinquency but increased drug use risk, maternal counter-cultural identity protected adolescent against hard drug use.

Granic, Isabela, Butter and Stephan (1998) examined the relationship between anger and anti-social beliefs in a sample of young offenders and investigated whether scores on either variable
differentiated aggressive from non-aggressive offenders. State-trait anger inventory and the criminal sentiments scale assessing anti-social cognition were administered on 22 aggressive and 20 non-aggressive young offenders (age 12-16 years). Results indicated a significant correlation between the two measures. Aggressive offenders scored significantly higher on anger and anti-social beliefs than non-aggressive offenders. Results also support the rationale for incorporating both cognitive and effective components in intervention programs designed for aggressive young offenders.

McGregor, Lieberman, Greenberg, Solomon, Arndt, Simon and Pyszczynski (1998) tested the hypothesis that morality salience motivates aggression. In this regard four studies have been conducted. In study 1, the experimenters induced participants to write about either their own death or a control topic, presented them with a target who either disparaged their political view or did not, and gave them the opportunity to choose the amount of hot sauce the target would have to consume. As predicted, moral salience participants allocated a particularly large amount of hot sauce to the worldview-threatening target. In studies 2 and 3, the author found that following moral salience induction, the opportunity to express a negative attitude toward the critical target eliminated aggression and the opportunity to aggress against the target eliminated derogation. This suggests that derogation and aggression are two alternative modes of responding to moral salience that serve the same psychological function. Finally, study 4 showed that moral salience did not encourage aggression against a person who allocated unpleasant juice to the participant,
supporting the specificity of moral salience induced aggression to worldview threatening others.

Ehrensaft and Vivian (1999) tested the hypothesis that men and women in violent dating relationship tend to behave in highly controlling ways towards their partner (e.g. restricting their social interactions, monitoring of activities, and reducing decision-making power) than individuals in non-violent relationship. 119 college students (Mean age 18.6 years) were administered Conflict Tactics Scale. Results indicate that individuals who had either engaged in or received partner aggression try to behave in highly controlling ways.

Calister, Ama, Barroso, Peters and Kelder (2000) showed that behavioral journalism influences audiences by presenting peer modeling for cognitive processes that lead to behaviour change. They used this technique in students newsletters promoting intergroup tolerance and moral engagement in a Huston high school with a diverse ethnic composition. Pretest (N = 393) and post-test (N=363) cross-sectional comparisons of the student population in that school provided evidence of short term (six months) communication effect on attitudes and behaviour. Increased Tolerance and moral engagement in students showed a corresponding reduction in hostile behavioural intentions and in reports of verbal aggression. Results indicated that morality and tolerance reduce aggression.

Henry, Guerra, Huesmann, Tolan, VanAcker & Eron (2000) conducted a study to understand the effect of classroom normative influences on individual aggressive behaviour. 614 and 427 urban elementary school children were assessed with measures of
aggressive behaviour and normative beliefs about aggression. The hypothesis related to the effects of personal normative beliefs, descriptive classroom norms, injunctive norms and norms salience was tested. Results indicated that injunctive norms (classmates beliefs about the acceptability of aggression) effected individual normative beliefs and aggression, but descriptive norms (the central tendency of classmate aggressive behaviours) had no effect on either. In classroom where students and teachers made norms against aggression salient, aggressive behaviour diminished overtime.

Landav et al. (2002) assessed the effect of religiosity and ethnic origin on aggressive behaviour and victimization to aggression among Israeli children. Physical, verbal and indirect aggressive behaviour was investigated by means of peer estimation. A total of 630 subjects in 3 age groups (8, 11 and 15 years) completed questionnaires. The effect of religiosity and ethnic origin in Israeli society has been found. This effect was stronger among girls than boys. Among boys, religiosity affected verbal and indirect aggressive behaviour and victimization. Among girls indirect aggressive behaviour and victimization as well as victimization to physical aggressive behaviour were affected by religiosity. In aggressive behaviour and victimization 11 year old scored high and 15 year scored low score. The results are discussed within the wider context of the role of religiosity and ethnic origin in Israeli society.

Menesini, Fonzi and Sanchez (2002) conducted a study to find out the role of moral emotions and reasoning in relation to bullying behaviour in 91 male and female children and adolescent (aged 9-13
years) in Italy. Subjects were divided into status groups (bullies, victims, outsiders, and defenders) using a Scan Bullying Test and interviewed about their feelings relative to the task of putting themselves in the role of bullies. The results were evaluated according to status group and expression of emotions of guilt and shame associated with moral responsibility and emotions of indifference and pride associated with moral disengagement. The results indicate that bullies, compared to victims and outsiders, showed a higher level of disengagement when asked to put themselves in the role of bullies. The results also shows that bullies had higher scores for egocentric responsibility and use of deviant rules than victims, outsiders, and defenders and that victims, outsiders, and defenders tend to had similar moral responsibility and moral disengagement profiles.

On the basis of above studies it can be concluded that religion, belief, norms, values and morality etc. influence human behaviour to a great extent. Increase in Moral engagement showed a corresponding reduction in hostile behavioural intentions. Religiosity has been reported as a critical determinant of hostility with high religiosity being associated with higher aggression. Significant differences between delinquents and non-delinquents in value orientation have also been reported. It has been reported that the progressive disintegration of a family and it's value deficit are basic to the problem of disruptive violence. But sometimes society itself encourages and motivates aggression in situations where the social/cultural demands lead to the acceptance of this type of behaviour.
Mediating variables and Aggression

Research has indicated that the relationship between values and aggression might not be through a direct link between the two rather some mediating processes may form a bridge between values and behaviour. Although research has implicated a large number of potential mediating variables which have been proposed to mediate between values and aggression, two of these have been considered for the present study.

Since an important mediator of aggression is feeling of insecurity. Many studies have been conducted to find out whether insecurity leads to aggression.

Rubin et al. (1995) conducted a study on 60 second graders (aged 7 years) to examine childhood social withdrawal (CSW) and aggression as predictive of adolescent maladaptation. Sociometric measure of peer preference, a peer assessment, measures of social behaviour and a self-report measure of social perceived competence and general self worth were individually administered to the subjects. In the 9th grade, subjects (aged 14 years) were again assessed for perceptions of interpersonal relationship, self perceptions of competence, loneliness and social dissatisfaction, and delinquency. Results indicate that CSW contributed to the adolescent loneliness, feeling of insecurity, and negative self-regard. Aggression predicted adolescent delinquency; and social competence, felt security in the peer group and substance use.

Gunthey and Jain (1997) conducted a study to explore certain personality traits associated with drug addiction on a sample of 30
postgraduate and undergraduate drug takers by using security-insecurity inventory and the adaptation version of neuroticism scale. Results indicate that drug users were emotionally unstable, hostile, suffered from feeling of inferiority, self rejection and isolated as compared to non-drug users.

Jain and Bansal (1998) conducted a study to see the relationship between male and female juvenile delinquents in regard to insecurity and feeling of inferiority. 80 juvenile delinquents (40 male and 40 female) were studied for insecurity by Pati’s Insecurity Questionnaire and feeling of inferiority was assessed by Pati’s Inferiority Questionnaire. Significant difference was found between male and female delinquents in regard to their insecurity and feeling of inferiority. Positive relationship was also found between insecurity and feeling of inferiority in both the groups.

Hendersen (2000) conducted a study to explore how attachment security, and different patterns of insecurity, were associated with men’s and women’s childhood experiences and experiences of relationship aggression in adulthood. A telephone survey assessed level of psychological and physical aggression in a community sample of 1249 Vancouver residents. A subsample of 128 participants completed a self-report measure of recollections of childhood, and the history of attachments interview which explored experiences in interpersonal relationships. Results indicated that positive childhood experiences were associated with greater security in adulthood, while negative experiences were associated with greater fearfulness and pre-occupation. Further, preoccupation in adulthood was associated
with both the receipt and perpetration of relationship aggression, particularly for men. Finally, men's childhood experiences were associated with both the receipt and perpetration of relationship aggression.

Salmivalli (2001) conducted a study to examine the relation between self-esteem, and aggressive behaviour. There have been different theories connecting aggression to either low or high self-esteem, while neither view has been uniformly supported by clear empirical evidence. A plausible suggestion, also supported by empirical findings, is that it is a certain subset of people who report a high self-esteem who are aggressive. Despite their self-confident surface and, consequently, self-reports of high self-esteem, these people have underlying insecurity regarding their self-view. Empirically, such insecurity is reflected, for example, in the instability of their self-esteem, or by their grandiose, narcissistic, and defensive characteristics. It is suggested that instead of studying self-esteem as unidimensional continuum from low to high qualitative distinctions should be made, for instance, between different types of unhealthy self-esteem, such as disparaging and underestimating self versus narcissistically refusing to see anything negative in oneself. It is the latter type which seems to be associated with aggressive behaviour.

Smallbone and Dadds (2001) conducted a study to examine relationship between childhood attachment insecurity and antisociality, aggression, and coercive sexual behaviour in non-offenders. In the replication of the study of S.W. Smallbone and M.R. Dadds (2000), one hundred nineteen male undergraduate students (aged 17-
49 years) reported information concerning childhood maternal and paternal attachment, adult attachment, antisociality, aggression, and coercive sexual behaviour. Results show that insecure childhood attachment was significantly associated with coercive sexual behaviour when antisociality and aggression were statistically controlled. Maternal avoidant attachment rather than paternal avoidant attachment emerged as an important predictor of coercive sexual behaviour. Insecure patterns of both maternal and paternal attachment were associated with coercive sexual behaviour independently of aggression and anti-sociality. Adult attachment avoidance was associated with coercive sexual behaviour and adult attachment anxiety was associated with antisociality and aggression.

These studies show that significant differences exist between male and female delinquents in regard to their insecurity and feelings of inferiority. Positive relationship has been also found between feeling of insecurity and feeling of inferiority which lead to aggressive behaviour. Positive childhood experiences have been found to be associated with greater security in adulthood, while negative experiences were associated with greater fearfulness and preoccupation. Insecure patterns of both maternal and paternal attachment found to be associated with coercive sexual behaviour independently of aggression and anti-sociality.

Due to changes in environment and society, values have also gone under changes. Traditional values are being replaced by materialistic values in order to adjustment to the demands of the environment. To fulfil material needs people are moving to urban from
rural areas. Here they are confronted with an alien environment and the demands of the new environment, make them more self-centered and alienated, leading to feeling of insecurity, on the other hand it reduces the social pressures thereby leading to reduction in feeling of guilt. However people who are closer to their roots, are more subjected to social pressure which help to sublimate aggressive behaviour due to development of guilt. A number of researches have identified guilt as an important moderator of aggression.

Darley, Klosson and Zanna (1978) attempted to determine whether the moral judgements of adults and children take into account circumstances which in a legal sense tend to justify or excuse intentional, harm-doing actions. 144 Ss (1st graders, 4th graders, and adults) were presented with a vignette in which one child harmed another. For half the Ss, information designed to constitute a valid legal defense was appended; for the other half, no such mitigating circumstance was presented. In various Vignettes the legal defenses of necessity, public duty, and provocation were instantiated. Results indicate that each mitigating circumstance led to less recommended punishment for the harm-doing act and that this was so across the entire age range (5 to 44 years) sampled. The lack of a clear developmental result as well as the implications of these findings for the utility of employing a legal analogy for investigating the development of moral judgements are discussed.

Lagerspetz and Westman (1980) conducted a study on 83 subjects (aged 17-68 years) to investigate (1) the approval of various kinds of aggressive behaviour under different specified circumstances
and (2) the arousal of feelings of aggression in imagined situations. In addition, an attitude test was presented that discriminated between the 2 highest of L. Kohlberg’s (1969) level of moral reasoning. Aggressive behaviour was most approved when it was given altruistic purpose. Self defence was rated as the second highest justification for aggressive behaviour. Aggressive behaviour was found least legitimate when the reasons were emotional (e.g. drunkenness or range). The justification of some types of aggressive behaviour were dependent on the conditions under which they occurred, whereas others appeared independent. Killing and torture were the most disapproved kinds of aggressive behaviour. Being attacked was the most powerful instigator of feelings of aggressive behaviour, whereas frustration seemed relatively unimportant. Females approved of emotional expressions of aggressive behaviour to a greater extent than did males. The moral test did not correlate with approval of aggressive behaviour in general, but there were 2 specific exceptions. The total score correlated negatively with punishment and with killing.

Sobel (1980) maintains that the social implications of the superhero rest in the opportunity it affords troubled youngsters (9, 10-12 years old boys in the present study) to express and work through their feelings of hostility and aggression to sublimate primitive impulses and compensate for object loss and/or maternal rejection that could otherwise manifest itself in displaced aggression toward the external world. The superhero provides an acceptable way for youngsters to indirectly obtain retribution and initiate a process of self-
Nachman (1984) discussed the concept of matol, which designates shame and moral aggression, among Melanesian Islanders on Nissan, an island with more than 2,550 inhabitants. Matol, or shame, defines the quality of social relationships on the island and is a measure of the distance between social entities. To the islanders, the sense of shame is implicit in the human condition. Only humans can experience shame, and this capacity distinguishes them from other form of life. Matol can be viewed as repressive because it stifles both individual and group initiative, but it also offer a basis for individual and group identity and a protection against infringement by others. Topics of discussion include shame and guilt, censure and moral shame, shame of the victim, non-moral shame, relations involving shame, and the meaning and translation of matol. Matol is also discussed as a tool by which islanders perform acts of moral aggression; specifically, acts of moral aggression in the context of the Nissan mortuary feast are examined. Such acts not only enable men to serve their own self-interests but also further the selfless morality that matol supports.

Caprara et al. (1992) conducted a study to further corroborate and extend the scope of previous findings regarding the path of influence between negative affectivity, need for reparation and fear of punishment when examining the determinants and the motivational components or guilt. Data were collected from 3 different European countries (i.e. Italy, Hungary, and the Czech Republic) 1,246 11-15 years olds were involved in the research. The generalizability of a homological network linking individual differences in negative
affectivity to Need for Reparation, Fear of Punishment was tested. Prosocial behaviour and aggression has been investigated across countries and gender by means of structural equation modelling. Need for reparation turned out to be positively related to prosocial behaviour and negatively related to aggression. Fear for punishment turned out to be positively related to aggression and negatively related to prosocial behaviour with the exception of Hungary. Alternative paths of influence among considered variables have been examined. Practical implications for prevention and education are discussed.

House (1997) conducted a study to examine children's moral internalization of prosocial norms as a mediator of the relationships between parenting practices, and children's attachment, moral internalization, temperament, and aggression towards peers. Data was collected from eleven to twelve year old children and their families. Results indicated that positive attention and communication practices between parents and children decreased the likelihood of children's aggression toward peers, whereas harsh punishment and criticism increased the likelihood of children's aggression. Both, mother's positive and negative parenting predicted children's moral internalization in the expected direction. In addition, children's level of moral internalization mediated the relationship between mother's positive parenting and children's aggression. Attachment security was not predictive of children's aggressive behaviour. Thus, positive attention and communication practices appear to increase children's level of moral internalization, which in turn decrease the likelihood that children will engage in aggression toward peers. Research and clinical
implications are discussed.

Liao (1999) conducted a study to identify differences between aggressive and non-aggressive boys and between sixth- and third-grade boys in their emotional and cognitive reactions to hypothetical moral transgressions. One hundred aggressive and one hundred non-aggressive boys in the third and sixth grades in Taiwan selected on the basis of teacher ratings, were interviewed individually. The results indicated that boys in all groups, regardless of age and aggressiveness, reported that they would feel high levels of negative emotions and low levels of positive emotions and they believed that aggression is inappropriate. However, they differed in the strength of their feelings, outcome expectations, and responsibility attributions. For the sixth graders, non-aggressive boys reported that they would feel higher levels of sadness, guilt, shame, and empathy, have a stronger intention to compensate, would be more intensely disturbed, expect a less favourable outcome, and attribute less responsibility to victims, when compared to aggressive boys. Among the third graders, non-aggressive boys reported that they would expect less favourable consequences for transgression and attribute more responsibility to self, relative to aggressive peers. Age differences were also found. Younger aggressive boys reported that they would feel higher levels of happiness and pride than older boys. The older aggressive boys reported that they would expect more disapproval from friends for the aggression than did younger aggressive boys. The older non-aggressive boys reported that they would feel higher levels of shame and a stronger intention to remedy their misbehaviour than did the
younger boys. Both aggressive and non-aggressive older boys reported that they would be more intensely disturbed longer and attribute more responsibility to self and victims, compared to the younger boys.

These studies show that guilt, shame and reparation are positively related with prosocial behaviour and negatively with aggression. Shame and guilt are a fundamental tool in installing morality. This is further evident from the fact that justification for aggressive behaviour which reduces guilt, makes the same behaviour more acceptable.

Considered together the present review shows that aggression and values are influenced by a number of societal factors. Value deficit and moral disengagement influence aggression to a great extend, although sometimes social pressures and values make such behaviours acceptable. Thus the effect of values on aggression may be modulated by guilt reactions and insecurity generated by the social pressures. In light of the review of literature, the problem and hypotheses of the present study was formulated. These have been presented in Chapter III.