Chapter - II
Review of Literature

This chapter reviews the theoretical groundwork and empirical findings regarding antisocial behaviour. Understanding why ASB occurs requires an appreciation for the complexity of human behaviour. Gestalt psychologists maintain that in order to understand the whole, you must take into consideration the sum of its parts. Behaviour is not determined by one factor, but rather influenced by host of interrelated factors (Bandra, Rees & Adams 1982). Both individual and structural level factors are essential to
explaining current behaviour and to predicting future behaviour. Related to this, the field of psychology has intended to be interdisciplinary in nature and should logically support the inclusion of literature from other disciplines. One such discipline that is particularly relevant is criminology while some scholars assert that criminalologists often fail to consider psychological variables in their research (Andrews & Beonta 1998; Andrews & Wormith 1988).

To understand individual behaviour, a number of factors such as personality must be considered. Personality researchers are concerned with providing an account of how individuals differ from one another in their behaviour (Devlega, Winstead & Jones 1989). The study of personality focus on the stable and enduring characteristics influence emotion, motivation and behaviour. That is not to say that all behaviour is stable and not subject to external influences, rather that,” human behaviour can change over time and that individual’s behaviour is often influenced by situational factors. But it is possible to speak of a set of personality characteristics that organize behaviour” (Derlegen et. al. 1989). Those set of characteristics, then, could be used to explain antisocial (Criminal) behaviour.

During the past several years there accumulated a mass of literature on ASB, which reflects a growing interest in the area concerned. Since ASB is not a objective phenomenon, rather it is subjectively experienced and performed as it depend upon the individual’s cognitive appraisal in the area of ASB. The present section deals with the review of researches in the area of ASB. A review of researches on ASB suggest that it is related to variety of individual variables. Investigator have made an attempt for a comprehensive review of related studies conducted in the area of ASB.
Caplan (1975) classified sex differences in antisocial behaviour into two categories: those studies which demonstrate boys to be more antisocial and those which show no difference. It is pointed out that both a failure experience and the presence of an adult during the dependent measure are conducive to the first type of outcome, whereas success or no-failure experiences and the absence of an adult are conducive to the second type. These elements of the experiments play a greater role in producing or abolishing sex-differential behaviour than do sex differences in personality that are alleged to be pervasive or even innate; a mechanism for that is explicated.

Cadoret & Cain (1980) assessed the importance of genetic and environmental factors in adolescent antisocial behaviour. The dependent variable is an antisocial symptom count that tallies antisocial but not necessarily criminal behaviors in adolescence. The independent variables are of two types, genetic and environmental. Genetic variables refer to psychiatric diagnoses of the biologic family. Environmental variables are those identified by previous research as associated with adolescent antisocial behaviour. Results indicate that boys are more vulnerable than girls to the adverse effects of a psychiatrically ill adoptive family member or divorce in the adoptive parents. There is not a significant sex difference in genetic predictors. In the total sample, the genetic variables that predict antisocial behaviour are having an antisocial or alcoholic biologic relative. This finding is in agreement with other heritability studies of antisocial behaviour.

Weiss and colleagues (1985) reported a 15 year follow-up of 61 young adult (mean age of 25 years) hyperactive subjects and 41 controls and also found that significantly more hyperactive than control subjects had a diagnosis of antisocial personality disorder (23%
versus 2.5%). Significantly more hyperactive than control subjects also appeared in court (most for highway offenses) during the 3 years preceding follow-up (18% versus 5%).

*Perez (1986)* concluded two clear cut results: one in prisoners where Extraversion (E), Neuroticism (N) and Psychotocism (P) are positively related to criminal behaviour; the other, with nonincarcerated people, where only E and P are positively related to crime. Thus, the N scale is not related to crime in nonincarcerated persons.

*Goldstein (1989)* found that the use of drugs may lead to involvement in offending either because the effects of these substances directly facilitate the development of such behaviours (psycho-pharmacological effect) or because the need to support substance use motivates offending for instrumental reasons (economical motivation).

In the study of *Costa, and McCrae (1990)*, data from three normal samples were used to examine links between personality disorder scales and measures of the five-factor model of personality. In the first study, self-reports, spouse ratings, and peer ratings on the NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI), a measure of the five basic factors of personality, were correlated with MMPI personality disorder scales in a sample of 297 adult volunteers. In the second study, self-reports on the NEO-PI were correlated with Millon Clinical Multiaxial Inventory (MCMI-I) scales in a sample of 207 adults; self-reports on the MCMI-II were examined in a sample of 62 students. Results generally replicated the findings of Wiggins and Pincus (1990), suggesting that the five-factor model encompasses dimensions of both normal and abnormal personality. Distinctions between the MMPI, MCMI-I, and MCMI-II scales are examined in light of the model, and suggestions are made for integrating traditional personality trait models with psychiatric conceptions of disorder.
Farrell (1992) examined the personality and antisocial behaviour among emotionally behaviourally disturbed boys employing 100 boys experiencing emotional and behavioural disturbance, aged 9 to 16 year. The questionnaire ascertained whether the boys had shown certain forms of behaviour during the previous 6 months. The behaviours were grouped as stealing (S), violent (V), avoidance (A) or manipulative (M). Violent and manipulative behaviour, either separately or together was reported for 50% of the sample of boys. The EPQ (J); Eysenck Personality Questionnaire; Junior Version [Eysenck & Eysenck (1975) Manuals of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire London : Hodder and Stoughton Educational] was administered to the boys. Mean levels of extraversion (E), neuroticism (N) and psychoticism (P) were ascertained for the overall sample and for the various sub-groups divided according to the predominant pattern of behaviour (stealing, violent, avoidance, manipulative or various combinations of these). Overall, the sample showed personality scores of N + P + E -. However, the number of subjects in sub-groups of behaviour were too small to be characterized by distinctive personality scores.

Creighton’s (1992) study examining child abuse trends in England and Wales found that parents of children who were physically abused were distinguished from parents nationally by their youth, low socio-economic status, high unemployment and increased likelihood of engaging in criminal activity. As highlighted above, Cawson et al (2000) found that those in the lower social grades were almost 50% more likely to have experienced physical abuse than those from professional AB grades.

Mooij (1993) concluded that antisocial behaviour can be a stable personal characteristic from a young age onwards, but it is also sensitive to environmental
influences. He concluded that regular school practice has to change to support the pro-social behaviour of pre-schoolers at risk.

Perceptions of anti-social Behaviour are driven by processes of interpretation. There is often a mismatch between an objective measure of antisocial behaviour, and perceptions. Based on analysis of available research studies, sourced using a rapid evidence assessment methodology, this report outlines two processes of interpretation that seem to be fundamental in supporting heightened perceptions of antisocial behaviour.

*Paik & Comstock (1994)* found positive and significant correlation between television violence and aggressive behaviour, albeit to varying degrees depending on the particular research question. The effect of television violence on the antisocial behaviour of boys and girls is found to be marginally equal in surveys. A host of tests are performed to solidify these, and further results.

*Wright and Wright (1994)* concluded that the family is the foundation of human society. Children who are rejected by their parents, who grow up in homes with considerable conflict, or who are inadequately supervised are at the great risk of becoming delinquent. Adolescence is a time of expanding vulnerabilities and opportunities that accompany the widening social and geographic exposure to life beyond school or family. Understanding the nature of relationships within the family, i.e. family adaptability, cohesion, and satisfaction, provides more information for understanding youth behaviour. Cohesiveness of the family successfully predicts the frequency of delinquent acts for non-traditional families. Family behaviours, particularly parental monitoring and disciplining, seem to influence association with deviant peers throughout the adolescent period.
Rigby (1994) concluded that children with positive relationship with their parents are less likely to participate in bullying. In other words, children who are insecurely attached to their parents are more likely to bully their peers. In the same vein, it has also been shown that children, who perceive their families to be less cohesive and less caring for each other, are also more likely to participate in school bullying. The family background of children who bully others is characterized by neglect, dominance, hostility, and harsh punishment.

Damisio (1994) observed two key prefrontal neurological syndromes that bear on antisocial syndromes that bear on antisocial behaviour have been delineated on the basis of the timings of neurological damage, and give rise to slightly different antisocial outcomes, ‘Acquired sociopathy’, in which accidental damage occurs to the ventromedial PFC in adulthood, have been shown to result in pseudopsychopathic, disinhibited and antisocial behaviour.

Goma - i - Freiaxent (1995) the personality variables common to those who engage in physical risky activities, and those that differentiate among the groups along the continuum. The sample consisted of 77 antisocial risk takers incarcerated for having committed armed robbery, 332 risky sportsmen, 170 prosocial risk takers, and 54 subjects not engaged in any risky activity. Subjects were administered the Sensation Seeking scale, the EPQ, the Impusiveness scale of the IVE, the Socialization scale of the CPI, and the Susceptibility to Punishment and Reward scale. Discriminant analysis identified three functions. The antisocials were located in an Impulsive Unsocialized Sensation Seeking dimensions characterized by poor socialization, neuroticism, disinhibition, and impulsivity. The three risk taking groups had high scores on a venturesomeness function
characterized by high thrill and adventure seeking and extraversion. The prosocials were characterized by low scores on experience seeking and psychoticism, representing the search for experience by a conforming life style.

_Burkeet and Myers (1995)_ conducted a study of investigate psychotic comorbidity in male and female adolescents with conduct disorder. Twenty-five respondents (11 females, 14 males) with conduct disorder were evaluated using structured diagnostic interviews for Axis I and personality disorders. The most common Axis Iomorbid diagnosis were depressive disorders, 64% anxiety disorders, 54%, substance abuse, 48%, and attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder, 28%. The most common Axis II disorder was borderline personality disorder found in 32% of the children.

_Cadoret & Yates (1995)_ studied such a combination of the genetic and environmental effects on 95 male and 102 female adoptee and their adoptee parents. They found that (1) a biological background of antisocial personality disorder predicted increased adolescent aggressiveness, conduct disorder, and adult antisocial behaviours, and (2) adverse home environments (parents who had marital problems, were divorced, separated, or had anxiety conditions, depression, and substance abuse) independently predicted increased antisocial behaviour.

_Gunnoe & Lea (1997)_ investigated the effect of spanking on subsequent misbehaviour of children may depend on the way a child interprets the spanking and may differ among social groups. It is evident from results that spanking was associated with fewer school yard fights in subsequent years among young and black children, and more fights in older and white children. There was no clear or simple relationship between spanking and increased aggression in children.
Muray, Sugarman & Giles - Sims (1997) reviewed data from interviews with 807 mothers of children aged 6-9 years. Almost half the mothers reported spanking their child during the previous week, averaging 2.1 episodes of spanking. Children spanked more often had higher rates of antisocial behaviour, such as lying, trouble at school, and deliberate misbehaving, when evaluated two years later. Spanking may lead to increases in the behaviour it is intended to correct.

Bifulco and Moran’s study (1998) analysed women’s childhood experiences of neglect and abuse and depression in adulthood. Women from poor childhood homes were twice as likely to have suffered abuse or neglect (77 percent versus 38 percent), and the association was even more striking with multiple forms of abuse, with a three-fold increase: 45 per cent of those from poor childhood homes had experienced more than one form of abuse compared with per cent who had experienced no poverty.

Gillham et al. (1998) correlated registered cases of abuse and neglect and official census data on child population, with indices of social deprivation such as social workers ratio, unemployment rates, single-parent density, means-tested clothing grants and free school meals for children. The analysis of 5,551 referrals and 1,450 registered cases of abuse and neglect in Glasgow between 1991 and 1993 found substantial correlations with all indices of deprivation, particularly between physical abuse and rates of male unemployment. The study concluded that “living in areas of localised high unemployment (particularly male) is likely to put families, otherwise vulnerable, at greater risk of child physical abuse and neglect”.

Kemp & Center (2000) attempt to evaluate Eysenck’s antisocial behaviour (ASB) hypothesis. The hypothesis proposes that there is an antisocial temperament that in
interaction with socialization, intelligence, and achievement put an individual at significant risk for developing antisocial behaviour. Evaluation of Eysenck’s ASB hypothesis was conducted with a male sample of recently paroled young adults (N 107) from a large, urban city. The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire - Revised was administered to assess temperament characteristics and the Basic Adlerian Scales for Interpersonal Success - Adult was administered to assess socialization. Retrospective data on juvenile behavior were collected using an adaptation of the National Yough Survey. Intelligence and achievement scores were obtained from participants file data. All participants had previously been administered the Culture Fair Intelligence Test and the Wide Range Achievement Test - 3. The results were supportive of Eysenck’s ASB hypothesis. The sample differed in predicted directions from test norms in both temperament and socialization. There were also within sample differences in predicted directions between participants with relatively high antisocial behaviour history scores in contrast to those with relatively low antisocial behavior history scores. No difference was found for intelligence. However, there was one significant within sample achievement difference with high antisocial participants scoring significantly lower in arithmetic. Mean scores in reading and arithmetic for both high and low antisocial participants were below the 20th percentile in comparison to their normative peers. Only 11% of the participants had received special education services when they were public school students.

Jacqueline (2000) investigated the use of moral development stages in the selection of behavioural and psychological counseling interventions in a sample of 28 adolescents with emotional and behavioural disorders. The adolescents were diagnosed with oppositional - defiant and conduct disorders, and ranged in age from 11 years, 11 months
to 18 years, 10 months (mean = 16.9). It was hypothesized that adolescents with emotional and behavioural disorders, particularly those with oppositional-defiant and conduct disorders, who receive specific behavioural and/or counseling interventions based on their measured stage of moral development would decrease antisocial and increase prosocial behaviour. Findings failed to support the expected decrease in antisocial and increase in prosocial behaviour following a six-week intervention period. Prosocial behaviour approached significance in the negative direction indicating a near significant decrease in prosocial behaviour. A decrease in antisocial behaviour was found between specific groups. Stage one reasoners demonstrated a bigger decrease in antisocial behaviour as compared to stage four and two reasoners. Stage three reasoners demonstrated a bigger decrease in antisocial behaviours as compared to stage two reasoners.

Slutske (2001) concluded on the basis of the evidence from over 100 twin and adoption studies of antisocial behaviour suggests that genetic factors account for about half of the variation in risk. However, behavioral genetic studies of anti-social behaviour still tend to produce far-ranging estimates of heritability, suggesting that there may be important moderators of these genetic risk factors.

Juby and Farrington (2001) claim that there are three major theories that explain the relationship between disrupted families and delinquency; trauma theories, life course theories, and selection theories. Trauma theories suggest that the loss of a parent has a damaging effect on children, most commonly because of the effect on attachment to the parent. Life course theories focus on separation as a long drawn out process rather than a discrete event, and on the effects of multiple stressors typically associated with separation.
Selection theories argue that disrupted families are associated with delinquency because of pre-existing differences in family income or child rearing methods.

*Pears & Capaldi (2001)* examined a model in which the association between a parent’s history of abuse and the parent’s own abusive behaviour toward his or her children was hypothesized to be mediated by parental psychopathology, early childbearing, and consistency of discipline. Additionally, the effect of severity of abuse on the likelihood of becoming abusive was examined. A number of factors, including parental socio-economic status (SES), antisocial behaviour, depression and Post-traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD), consistency of discipline, and the perceived early difficulty of the children were measured. It was observed that abuse experienced by the parents, as well as consistency of discipline and depression plus PTSD, were predictive of parental abuse of child, and, there were significant interactions between parental history of abuse and consistency of discipline, as well as abuse history and depression and PTSD. Parents who had experienced multiacts of abuse and at least one physical impact were more likely to become abusive than were the other parents.

*Brower & Price (2001)* concluded on the basis of neurological researches that individuals with orbitofrontal lesions are typically disinhibited, impulsive, and unconcerned with the consequences of their behaviour.

*Caspí, McClay, Moffitt, Mill, Martin, Craig, Taylor & Poulton (2002)*, studied a large sample of male children from birth to adulthood to determine why some children who are maltreated grow up to develop antisocial behaviour, whereas others do not. A functional polymorphism in the gene encoding the neurotransmitter - metabolizing enzyme monoamine oxidase A (MAOA) was found to moderate the effect of maltreatment.
Maltreated children with a genotype conferring high levels of MAOA expression were less likely to develop antisocial problems. These findings may partly explain why not all victims of maltreatment grow up to victimize others, and they provide epidemiological evidence that genotypes can moderate children’s sensitivity to environmental insults.

*Lane (2002)* examined the relationship between the personality components of psychoticism, extraversion and neuroticism, and levels of conduct disorder, delinquency and therapy responsiveness in children is investigated. A series of studies reporting short and long-term results test Eysenck’s (1970) argument that extraverts, because of their lower levels of conditionability, should feature more prominently in groups showing higher levels of conduct disorder or delinquency. The extension of that argument to include the role of psychoticism (Eysenck H.J. and Eysenck S.B.G., *Psychoticism as a Dimension of Personality*, Hodder & Stoughton, London, 1976) is also subjected to experimental test. Two alternative conceptions of the part played by neuroticism, either that it acts as an amplifying device (high N) or as a filter against pressure to change (low N), are considered. The results support the importance of including personality factors in the study of antisocial behaviour in children.

*Duncan, Duncan, Strycker & Chanmeton (2002)* examined relations among antisocial and prosocial activities for boys and girls aged 10, 12 and 14 years. Antisocial activities included substance use and other deviant behaviours. Prosocial activities included physical activity, organized sports, organized non-sport activities, volunteer and religious activities. Household income and single vs. two-parent family status were included as covariates. The sample comprised 356 youth (mean age = 12.06 years, 50% female, 73% White). A six-group (age by gender) multiple-sample structural equation model was
employed to determine the existence of latent factors (substance use, deviant behaviours, prosocial activities) and relations among variables. Results showed a positive relationship among prosocial behaviours, and between substance use and other deviant behaviours. Organized sport and days of physical activity were inversely related to substance use. Higher income and living in a two-parent family were associated with less substance use and deviant behaviour. There was little variation by gender and age.

Sonderstrom et. al. (2002) found significant correlation between reduced frontol blood flow and increased antisocial, aggressive behaviours.

Horn et. al. (2003) concluded on the basis of MRI studies that abnormal OFC activation was observed in impulsive individuals during response inhibition.

Morris, Sallybanks, Willis & Makkai (2004) concluded that involvement of children in physical activity and sport improves their mental well being and reduces the incidence of antisocial behaviour. The study identified and described programmes that use sporting activities to reduce antisocial behaviour in youth across Australia. It is suggested that sport and physical activity programmes can facilitate personal and social development through which behaviour is positively affected.

Barkley et. al. (2004) reported on the lifetime antisocial activities and illegal drug use self-reported at young adult follow-up (mean age of 20-21 years) of 147 hyperactive and 73 control children. The hyperactive group committed a higher frequency of antisocial activities including illegal drug-related activities than the control group. Hyperactives had a greater rate of official arrests for misdemeanor (24% versus 11%) and for felony (27% versus 11%) offenses. Barkley concluded that hyperactive children are at greater risk for
antisocial activities and arrests by young adulthood that appear to be principally associated with illegal drug possession, use, and sale.

*Weisner, Kim and Capaldi (2005)* conclude that early involvement in antisocial behaviour decreases an individual’s opportunities to interact positively with others and conversely fosters chances of affiliation with deviant peers, trapping the individual in a risky and dangerous lifestyle.

*Farrington (2005)* concluded on the basis of his longitudinal study that low parental supervision, discipline based on physical punishment, and parent’s rejection toward their children all predict violent behaviour. Likewise, we can integrate other variables such as inconsistent discipline, parental cruelty, passivity and detachment from their children: their existence doubles the possibility of development of violent behaviours during adolescence. Farrington (2005) indicates that physical victimization during childhood is a strong predictor of violent behaviours during adolescence.

*Hemphill, Toumbourou, Herrenkohl, Mc Morris & Catalano (2006)* examined the effect of school suspensions and arrests (i.e., being taken into police custody) on subsequent adolescent antisocial behaviour such as violence and crime, after controlling for established risk and protective factors in Victoria, Australia and Washington State, United States (U.S.).

*Veenstra, Lindenberg, Oldehinkel, Winter & Ormel (2006)* concluded that antisocial behaviour can be triggered by negative social experiences and individual’s processing of these experiences. This study focuses on risk - buffering interactions between temperament, perceived parenting, socio-economic status (SES), and sex in relation to antisocial behaviour in Dutch population sample of preadolescents (N = 2230). Perceived
parenting (overprotection, rejection, emotional warmth) was assessed by the EMBU (a Swedish acronym for My Memories of Upbringing) for children, temperament (effortful control and frustration) by the parent version of the Early Adolescent Temperament Questionnaire - Revised, SES by information on parental education, occupation, and income, and antisocial behaviour by the Child Behaviour Checklist (parent report) and the Youth Self-Report (child report). All parenting and temperament factors were significantly associated with antisocial behaviour. The strongest risk-buffering interactions were found for SES which was only related to antisocial behaviour among children with a low level of effortful control or a high level of frustration. Furthermore, the associations of SES with antisocial behaviour were more negative for boys than for girls. Thus, the effects of SES depend on both the temperament and SES of the child.

In MRF studies Yang et. al. (2006) obtained reduced grey matter volumes in the OFC in antisocial individuals.

Barkataki et. al. (2006) found a significant association between early onset conduct disorder (without substance abuse comorbidity) and smaller temporal gray matter volumes.

Fontaine (2007) studied the development of youth antisocial functioning has largely focused on response patterns (e.g., cognitive responses to aversive cues). It is evident that there are meaningful differences in structure, phenomenology and function of subtypes of antisocial behaviour (instrumental versus reactive).

Satterfield et. al. (2007) compared the official arrest records for a large number of hyperactive boys (N = 179), most with conduct problems, and 75 controls boys; to examine childhood IQ, socio-economic status, and parent reports of childhood hyperactivity and
conduct problems for their contribution to criminal behaviour in adulthood; and to compare adult outcome for multimodality-treated (MMT) and drug treated only (DTQ) hyperactives employing (18 to 38 years of age) adulthood in these 254 white subjects. Results indicate that Hyperactive subjects had significantly higher arrest, conviction, and incarceration rates compared with controls. Childhood antisocial behaviours, socio-economic status, and IQ predicted adult criminality. Multimodality-treated boys with Hyperactive/ADHD (attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder) did not fare better than DTO boys with ADHD. Hyperactive/ADHD boys with conduct problems are at increased risk for adult criminality. Hyperactive boys without childhood conduct problems are not at increased risk for later criminality.

*Odgers et. al (2007)* compared to research on males, study of female offending is still in its infancy, though justice statistics have recently documented a significant increase in rates of crime perpetrated by young women.

*Frick & White (2008)* concluded that the presence of a callous and unemotional interpersonal style designates an important subgroup of antisocial and aggressive youth. Further, antisocial youth with callous - unemotional traits show a number of distinct emotional, cognitive, and personality characteristics compared to other antisocial youth. These characteristics of youth with CU (Callous unemotional) traits have important implications for causal models of antisocial and aggressive behaviour, for methods used to study antisocial youth, and for assessing and treating antisocial and aggressive behaviour in children and adolescents.

*Johnson, Matthew, McGue & Lacono (2009)* concluded that antisocial behaviour increases in adolescence, particularly among those who perform poorly in school. As
adolescents move into adulthood, both educational attainment and the extent to which antisocial behaviour continues have implications for their abilities to take on constructive social roles.

*Mulvey, Cauffman, Steinberg & Monahan (2009)* examined trajectories of antisocial behaviour among serious juvenile offenders from 14 through 22 years of age and tested how impulse control, suppression of aggression, future orientation, consideration of others, personal responsibility, and resistance to peer influence distinguished between youths who persisted in antisocial behaviour and youths who desisted. Different patterns of development in psychosocial maturity from adolescence to early adulthood, especially with respect to impulse control and suppression of aggression, distinguished among individuals who followed different trajectories of antisocial behaviour. Compared with individuals who desisted from antisocial behaviour, youths who persisted in antisocial behaviour exhibited deficits in elements of psychosocial maturity, particularly in impulse control, suppression of aggression, and future orientation.

*Ngale (2009)* explored the relationship between family structure and juvenile delinquency employing a purposive probability sample of 120 adolescents of the Betamba children’s correctional center using a questionnaire. The use of quantitative statistical analysis revealed the following significant relationships: (1) Juvenile delinquents mostly come from homes in which the parents are married; (2) The moral education of juvenile delinquents in undertaken more by others than their biological parents; (3) Most delinquent children come from the lowest socio-economic stratum of society; (4) About two-thirds of the juvenile delinquents come from homes where 7 persons and above live under the same roof; (5) Most parents of our respondents have low paid jobs which keep them for long
periods away from their children. A growing number of parents need additional socio-economic support, development of vital skills of responsible parenting, in order to adequately manage periods of rapid social change and simultaneous multidimensional challenges.

*Bannister, Flint, Parr, Millie & Fleetwood (2010)* concluded (a) that people use certain ‘shorthand’ ways to judge the level of disorder in an area. (b) perceptions of antisocial behaviour are linked to deeper seated anxieties about the state of society in general, and qualities of neighbourhoods in particular.

*Gaik, Abdullah, Elias & Uli (2010)* examined antisocial behaviour from many perspectives, including the academic experience, and peer relation and socio-economic status. Thus, this study focuses on the role of family relations, especially parent-child attachment, as determining factor in the development of antisocial behaviour among adolescents. It is evident from the results that secure attachment is generally related to positive behavioural and social outcomes, while insecure attachment (ambivalent or avoidant) are often related to negative outcomes. Insecure attachment which is associated with parental negativity and rejection predicts externalizing behaviour such as aggression and disruptiveness; and internalizing behaviours; such as depression, anxiety, and social withdrawal.

*O’ Brien, Kolt, Martens, Ruffman, Miller, Lynott (2011)* conducted a study on alcohol related aggression and antisocial behaviour in non-US collegiate athletes. The present study addressed this gap by examining these behaviours in Australian university sportspeople. University sports people and non-sportspeople completed questionnaires on alcohol consumption, aggressive and antisocial behaviours (e.g., abused, hit or assaulted
someone, made unwanted sexual advance, damaged property) when intoxicated. Participants also reported whether they had been the victim of similar aggressive or antisocial behaviours. Demographic data and known confounders were collected. It is evident from results that university sportspeople were significantly more likely than non-sports people to have displayed aggressive behaviour (i.e., insulted or assaulted someone; and damaged property in the past year when intoxicated. Sportspeople were no more likely to have received aggression, had property damaged due to others intoxication or to have made unwanted sexual advances. Sports people were less likely to have reported being sexually assaulted when intoxicated.

*Thompson et. al. (2011)* employed a regional sub-samble of the 2005 Canadian Community Health Survey of 7,342 women was used. Women reported whether they had been diagnosed with chronic fatigue syndrome (CFS), fibromyalgia (Fm), irritable bowel syndrome (IBS), or multiple chemical sensivities (MCS). Fully 749 reported having been physically abused by someone close to them during their youth. When controlling for potentially confounding factors, childhood physical abuse was significantly associatd with CFS.

*Fuentes, Gazquez, Mercader, Molero & Rubira (2011)* analyzed the relationship between violence and academic achievement, two of the most important problems in Secondary Education in Spain. Participants were 881 students 14-18 years old (M = 15.20, SD = 0.901) from 6 public centers of Secondary Education. Results indicate that men show more prevalence in antisocial behaviour, increasing with age and school year. Failure in academic achievement was associate to antisocial and delinquent behaviors. Also, the educational level of mothers was related to the presence of antisocial behaviour.
Traclet, Romand, Morer & Kavussanu (2011) designed a study to examine (a) the moral disengagement mechanisms athletes use when they engage in antisocial behaviours in scorer and (b) whether the frequency of these mechanisms differs depending on the type of behaviours. Participants were 30 scorer players competing at a regional level. During a semi-structured interview, these participants were presented with video clips of their antisocial acts that occurred during regular games and were asked to explain why they engaged in these behaviours. Their explanations were coded based on the moral disengagement mechanisms described by Bandura (1999). Content analyses revealed that (a) the more frequent mechanisms used by the players were displacing responsibility to other (e.g., referees) and moral justification, and that (b) cheating acts and instrumental aggression elicited more displacement of responsibility than hostile behaviours.

Castro, Carbonell & Anestic (2011) examined the potential contribution of gender role in the prediction of antisocial and somatic symptomatology, controlling for biological sex, impulsivity and negative affect. Participants were 349 undergraduate students in southeastern USA. and found that masculine gender role was positively related to antisocial behaviour, while feminine gender role was negatively related to antisocial behaviour. Gender role did not predict somatization. Gender role may be important to the expression of antisocial behaviour, but does not influence somatic symptoms.

Estevez & Emler (2011) assessed the bidirectional relationships between offending and antisocial behaviour, victimization and drug use in a sample of 4980 participants aged 10 to 25, analysing those associations for both gender and age groups. Statistical analyses were carried out using linear regressions and a structural equation model. Results showed significant differences in patterns of interactions among variables included in the study.
between males and females, as well as between early-middle adolescence and late adolescence-youth. Findings of this study have important practical implications in relation to policy-making to prevent youths at risk to continue their lifestyle in based on non-compliance with mainstream norms.

Bosler, Criss & Morris (2012) conducted a study to examine whether peer relationships (i.e., peer antisocial behaviour) mediated the link between family factors (i.e. neighbourhood violence, maternal depression, parent-youth relationship quality) and adolescent adjustment (antisocial behaviour, prosocial behaviour). The sample consisted of 206 adolescents (M age = 13.37, SD = 2.32’ 51% female; 29.6% European American, 70.4% ethnic minorities) and their parents (85.4% biological mothers; Median annual income = $ 40,000; 38.7% single parents). Youth reports were used to measure neighborhood violence and peer antisocial behaviour. Mothers reported on maternal depression. Adolescent antisocial and prosocial behaviour were based on both mother and youth ratings. Observational coding was used to assess parent-youth relationship quality.

Talwar, Carlson & Lee (2012) examined the effect of a punitive vs. non-punitive school environment in 2 West African private schools in relation to the children’s ‘executive functioning’ performance (goal-directed problem solving). The study compared grade 1 students from the same urban neighbourhood whose parents were mostly civil servants, professional and merchants. Overall, the study found that with age, children exposed to a harsh punitive environment performed significantly worse than their counterparts in the non-punitive school, and as a result may be at risk for behaviour problems related to deficits in executive functioning.
Simons & Wurtde (2012) explored the intergenerational cycle of violence. They examined the relationship between parental and children’s approval of corporal punishment and the relationship between children’s experience of corporal punishment and their preference for hitting to resolve interpersonal conflict. They concluded that parents who experienced frequent corporal punishment perceived it as acceptable and frequently spanked their own children. Their children, in turn, advocated spanking as a disciplinary method, and preferred aggressive conflict resolution strategies with peers and siblings.

Omoteso (2012) examined the prevalence and nature of bullying behaviour among secondary school students in Nigeria. It also investigated the factors associated with bullying and its psychological consequences. The study adopted a survey design. A sample of 750 secondary school students was selected through stratified random sampling technique using sex, age and class level as strata from five randomly selected secondary schools in Ile-Ife, Osun State, Nigeria. Information was collected from the students through the administration of an instrument titled “Bullying Behaviour Questionaire” (BBQ). Results showed that the prevalence of bullying among the students was 67.2%. From this, 88.1% had been bullied and 33.1% were bullies. Many students (64.7%) had been involved in relational bullying. Watching violent films (57.5%) and retaliation for being bullied in the past (51.2%) were some of the factors associated with bullying. The bullied students exhibited fear (63.6%) and depression (58.1%).

Robertson, McAnally & Hancox (2013) investigated whether excessive television viewing throughout childhood adolescence is associated with increased antisocial behaviour in early adulthood. It is evident from the obtained results that young adults who had spent more time watching television during childhood and adolescence were
significantly more likely to have a criminal conviction, a diagnosis of antisocial personality disorder, and more aggressive personality traits compared with those who viewed less television. The associations were statistically significant after controlling for sex, IQ, socioeconomic status, previous antisocial behaviour, and parental control. The associations were similar for both sexes, they concluded that excessive television viewing in childhood and adolescence is associated with increased antisocial behaviour in early adulthood.

Paik & Comstock (2013) investigated the effect of television violence on aggressive behaviour. Partitioning by research design, viewer attributes, treatment and exposure variables, and type of antisocial behaviour, allows one to interpret computed effect sizes for each of the variables in the partitions. They found a positive and significant correlation between television violence and aggressive behaviour, albeit to varying degrees depending on the particular research question for survey to .40 for laboratory experiments. Erotica emerges as a strong factor even when it is not accompanied by portrayal of violence. The effect of television violence on the antisocial behaviour of boys and girls is found to be marginally equal in surveys.

McEvoy & Welker (2013) have demonstrated a strong correlation between antisocial behaviour and academic failure among students. They concluded that current educational programs designed to modify one or both of these patterns of conduct tend to be limited in at least two fundamental ways. First, they tend to treat conditions associated with academic achievement as separate from those associated with violent or other antisocial behaviour. Second, they often focus narrowly on modifying selected cognitions or personality characteristics of the individual (e.g., changing attitudes and beliefs.)
Cole & Dodge (2014) Concluded on the basis of obtained results that the genetic, biological, socialization, environmental, and contextual factors were found significantly related to aggression and other antisocial behaviour.

Gardon et. al. (2014) we examine whether gang membership is associated with higher levels of delinquency because boys predisposed to delinquent activity are more likely than others to join they used 10 years of longitudinal data from 858 participants of the Pittsburgh Youth Study to identify periods before, during and after gang membership. They found more evidence than has been found in prior studies that boys who join gangs are more delinquent before entering the gang than those who do not join.

Giancola, Peterson & Pihl (2014) tested two hypotheses: First, that nonalcoholic men with a multigenerational familial history (MGH) of alcoholism would play more cards on a card task that has been shown previously to differentiate antisocial populations from normals and, second, that MGH subjects would display more evidence of ASP on two personality questionnaires: The Self-Report Psychopathy scale and the Socialization scale of the California Psychological Inventory. A total of 28 subjects (14 MGH and 14 family history negative for alcoholism [FH-] were employed in this study. MGH subjects played significantly more cards during the card task that did FH - subjects. However, the two groups did not differ on the ASP questionnaires. The possibility that a subtle frontal- lobe deficit, rather than ASP per se, underlies the poorer performance of the MGH males is discussed.