Chapter II
Review of Literature

2.1 Introduction -
In the previous chapter the main concept effect of television violence was discussed. The influence of television violence on certain psychological factors like self concept, aggression and parent child relationship have been highlighted and various technical terms are defined.

In any scientific study review of literature is necessary. It provides us valuable information, which makes the path of carrying out our study smooth and easier. From review of literature, it becomes easier to trace out the gap in research on any specific topic. From the relevant studies one gets information about the effective tools which could be used for data collection. Also, it is possible to know about the appropriate statistical treatment of data. However, it is not possible to include all the abstracts in a small study like the present one. Hence, a few representative studies are reviewed here.

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a review of relevant literature relating to the issues taken up for investigation.

2.2 T.V. violence and Aggression –

- Aggression defined as harmful behavior which violates social conventions and which may include deliberate intent to harm or injure another person or object (Bandura, 1963)

Today we watch many television serials and programmes. Violent and vulgar television programmes are badly and negatively affected with the scene of sex, hostility, crime and aggression. Obviously, it has led to the spread of fashion, incidence of aggression, killing, hijacking and others crimes. Very often we come to learn from violent television serial and programme that particular crimes were committed being motivated from programme of television. Television has also played an important role in giving media a whole new dynamism the positive and negative of television go hand in hand, and are just like the two sides of a coin.
Regular exposure to violence in television serial and programme increases aggression among adolescents which reflects itself in the form of bullying, dominating rude behavior, short temper and reckless unkind attitude towards others.

One of the earliest and most well-known studies was conducted by Bandura in 1963. He had a group of children. They viewed a TV video of a model that kicked and punished an inflated plastic doll. After the viewing, the children were placed in a playroom with other children who had not seen the video. Those that saw the video displayed significantly more aggressive behaviour than those who didn't.

March (1969) the Surgeon General’s Program of Research, headed by Senator John Pastor, conducted a scientific study to see whether or not televised violence produced antisocial behavior in children. Pastors stated that there is a causal connection between televised crime and violence and antisocial behavior by individuals, especially children. He was not condemning all television programs, but he agreed that violent programs are not conducive to good behavior and do not excite and draw out the best attributes of character in our children. This research helped to establish the Surgeon General’s Scientific Advisory Committee on Television and Social Behavior.

Liebert & Baron (1972) the present study confirmed Bandura's findings. This study investigated children's willingness to hurt other children after viewing aggressive TV programs. Two groups of children watched a different TV program, one of which had aggressive content and one of which was neutral. Those who saw the aggressive program (The Untouchables) were found to be more willing to hurt another child after viewing the program than those who watched the neutral program (a track race). Several other studies found that the same held true for viewing violent cartoons, and additionally that children were less likely to share their toys after viewing violent cartoons.

Further evidence for a positive relationship between a child's regular exposure to violence on television and in the movies and aggressive behavior comes from one-shot field studies. Children who consume more such violent content have been found
to behave more violently, and to hold believes more approving of aggressive behavior (Huesmann, 1982; Paik & Comstock, 1994).

Gerbner and Gross (1980) studied that the average American child graduates high school; they will have seen more than 13,000 violent deaths on television. Bushman and Huesmann (2001) also extend this by stating by the time the average American child graduates from elementary school, they will have seen more than 8,000 murders and more than 100,000 other acts of violence on television (the numbers are higher for those children with access to cable television).

Huesmann, Eron, Lefkowitz & Walder, (1984) the present study was able to make an important link between heavy viewing of TV violence by 8-year-olds with serious criminal behaviour by the same group at the age of 30. At the same time, this correlation did not hold true for 18-year-olds who preferred TV violence, the 18-year-old group did not display any significant increase in aggressive behaviour resulting from viewing violent programming. This study verifies that younger children are likely to experience more profound negative effects from viewing TV violence.

Present research study researcher comparing children who watched a violent short film with those who watched a non-violent one, the first group is consistently found to behave more aggressively towards each other (Bjorkqvist, 1985) exposed 5- to 6-year-old Finnish children to either violent or nonviolent films. Two raters who did not know which type of film the youngsters had seen then observed the children playing together in a room. Compared with the children who had viewed the nonviolent film, those who had just watched the violent film were rated much higher on physical assault (hitting other children, wrestling, etc.), as well as other types of aggression. The results for physical assault were highly significant (p .001), and the effect size was substantial (r _ .36).

Huesmann & Eron, 1986) such as Israel, Finland, and Poland in most countries, the more aggressive children also watched more TV, preferred more violent programs, identified more with aggressive characters, and perceived TV violence as more like real life than did the less aggressive children. The combination of extensive exposure to violence coupled with identification with aggressive characters was a particularly
potent predictor of subsequent aggression for many children. Still, there were
differences among the countries. Although the synchronous correlations were positive
in all countries, the longitudinal effect of violence viewing on aggression was not
significant for girls in Finland or for all children in Australia. In Israel, there were
significant effects for children living in a city but not for children raised on a kibbutz.

Joy, Kimball, Zabrack, 1986; Williams, (1986) One of the most convincing studies
compared the incidence of aggressive behaviour among children both before and two
years after TV was introduced into the Canadian community where they resided.
There was a significant increase in both physical and verbal aggression after two
years of viewing TV.

Singer & Singer, (1986) in a study have focused more on the question as to whether
all children have the same reactions to TV violence. As such, they seek out aggressive
television programming more than other children and are at the same time more prone
to be adversely effected by viewing it. In fact, high aggression children view action
and adventure TV programming four times as often as low aggression children. These
same children have also been found to be more prone to aggressive behaviour toward
other kids as a result of viewing televised violence.

Leonard Eron (1982) the study found that those who watch the most television and
movies in childhood were more likely to have been arrested or convicted of violent
felonies. Of a group of 100 criminals, 22% confessed to having imitated or tried out
criminal techniques they had seen on television.

Hansen & Hansen 1988; Tiggeman & Pickering, (1996) the study found that the
Eroticism, sexism, and sex role stereotyping are common themes in many music
videos. Adolescent females are emulating many of the actions portrayed in music
videos.

Ledingham & Richardson, (1993) media violence is recognized as a potential
contributor to the increase of antisocial attitudes in children and adolescents.
Gunter, (1994) the present studies find out the development of television as a common mass entertainment and information medium during the 1950s encountered similar concerns about potential harms, especially in connection with young audiences.

Similarly to Paik and Comstock, (1994) they acknowledged that not all studies showed an effect but, when findings were combined in the meta-analysis, children and adolescents were significantly more aggressive after watching violent television programmes or films.

Tiggeman, & Pickering, (1996) music videos, more than any other genre of television programs, has been found to have the strongest influence over adolescent females when portraying how women should look and behave.

Gunter & McAleer, (1997) the American Psychological Association established a Commission on Youth and Violence to examine the literature on the causes and prevention of violence. They concluded that American children are exposed to high levels of violence, and the heavy viewers of this violence demonstrated increased acceptance of aggressive behavior.

Groebel, (1998) in the largest study of its kind, over 5,000 12-year-olds from 23 countries in all regions of the world were surveyed. The participating countries included: Angola, Argentina, Armenia, Brazil, Canada, Costa Rica, Croatia, Egypt, Fiji, Germany, India, Japan, Mauritius, the Netherlands, Peru, Philippines, Qatar, South Africa, Spain, Tajikistan, Togo, Trinidad & Tobago, and the Ukraine. The sample was remarkable for its diversity, not only in regions, but also by including children from urban areas, rural areas, and even refugee camps. Perhaps surprisingly, 93% of children had access to a TV set (ranging between 99% for the North-Western hemisphere and 83% for Africa), with children worldwide spending an average of three hours per day watching. One conclusion from this study was that “TV has become a major socialization factor and dominates the life of children in urban and electrified rural areas around the globe”. A parallel conclusion was that “media violence is universal”.

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Although about three-quarters of American parents agree that children who watch a lot of violent TV are more aggressive than children who watch less TV (Gentile, 1999),

**Kandakai, Price, & Telljohann, (1999)** parents, teachers, politicians and school administrators continue blaming the media for increases in violence attitudes among adolescents. For instance, school principals, mothers, and young people were surveyed for their perceptions of factors influencing violence among youth. The results showed that violent messages in rap music and violence in the movies are perceived as the factors influencing violence.

**Borzekowski et al. (2001)** found a positive relationship exists between music video viewing and the onset of drinking alcohol, smoking cigarettes, and sexual promiscuity in adolescent females. Music videos portray high levels of tobacco use, and overt violence and weapon carrying.

**Bushman & Huesmann, 2001; Comstock, 1980; Geen, 1990; Geen & Thomas, 1986; Huesmann, Moise, & Podolski, (1997)** the consistent finding from such randomized experiments is that youths who watch violent scenes subsequently display more aggressive behavior, aggressive thoughts, or aggressive emotions than those who do not.

**Anderson, Carnagey, & Eubanks, 2003** found that the Listening to violent rock music has been found to increase subjects’ hostility and aggressive thoughts.

**Slater, Henry, Swaim, & Anderson, (2003)** the consistent finding across longitudinal studies of TV and film is that early violent media exposure is related to increased later aggressive thoughts and aggressive behaviors, rather than the other way around, although there is also evidence that it is a vicious circle, with each increasing the other over time.
Positive Effect -

Verma and Larson (2002) in their study found that adolescents watch television for 12 hours per week on an average. The study further indicates that Television viewing is seen as a major source of stress relieving activity. It was concluded in the study that 29% of viewers watch television for purpose of learning/education.

Ahluwalia and Singh (2011) found in their study that on an average, children watch two hours or less of TV daily and most of them indulged in bedtime TV Viewing. They watched TV primarily for entertainment and for learning. Children’s most preferred program was children’s shows-serials, followed by cartoon-animated programs.

2.3 T.V. violence and Self concept -

- Baumeister (1999) self concept is "the individual's belief about himself or herself, including the person's attributes and who and what the self is".

Self concept is the key stone of personality. Television serials and programmes have been affects the adolescent self, body image, moral and values. The aspects of the television serials and programmes infiltrate through society and affect adolescent self-concept negatively. Adolescent is the willingly collecting the information in television serial and programmed. The youth and children choose television actors and models as their role models. They followed their styles and habits. The addresses which are wrong by the actors, actress and models are blindly followed by the adolescent. The hair style, dress-up, life style of actors has been very popular in adolescent.

National Institute of Mental Health (NIMH-America-1982) report reinforced this conclusion, and professional organizations took a similar position in viewing media violence as a serious threat to public health because it stimulates violent behavior by youth. By the early 1990s, most researchers in the field had arrived at a consensus that the effect of media violence on aggressive and violent behavior was real, causal, and significant.
Valaskakis (1983) in his study examined television viewing tastes and habits among the Inuit Indians of the Eastern and Central Arctic. The findings revealed that the amount of different types of programming was significantly different among the Inuit Indians. Accordingly, the underlying assumption is that, the Inuit males who are heavily engaged in television's sports fare, would underestimate the mean world of television.

Brewer (1991) and colleagues (Brewer & Gardner, 1996) discovered that collective identities can be activated through the manipulation of the salience of the collective ("we") and can then in turn affect self-definitions and judgments of similarity and difference with others.

Pipher (1994) states the pervasive media messages have a strong influence on an adolescent girl’s self image. They look to the media to help them find meaning in their lives, rules for social interactions, and definitions of self. Adolescent girls are heavy consumers of media. The images and messages presented in the media have a strong influence on how an adolescent girl views the world and her role in it.

Duck, Terry, and Hogg (1995) found that when positive effects of media exposure were examined, the self and in-group were perceived as more influenced, whereas negative media effects were viewed as less influential for the self and in-group.

Arnett (1995) says that “media consumption gives adolescents a sense of being connected to a larger peer network” (pg. 524). Adolescents look to television, magazines, and movies to help them find and define their station and place in society.

Harrison & Cantor, (1997) say that No one type of media can be held more responsible for the messages presented to adolescent females. Each form of media plays a crucial role in influencing adolescent females in different ways. Although television viewing is related to body dissatisfaction, there are no strong correlations linking this channel of communication to proactive drives for thinness or eating disorder behaviors like there are with magazine consumption.
Vessy, Yim-Chiplis and MacKenzie (1998) found that television tends to portray girls as more passive than boys. They are concerned about grooming, clothing, and dating, not intellectual endeavors. It has also been found that on television soap operas, women are more likely to be acted upon (raped, abandoned, misunderstood) than males. While women strive for fulfillment through relationships and ties to society, men take more active roles and are less tied to relationships.

Durham, (1999) pop culture, more than current events, is what adolescent females look to in the media to help them define their role in the world around them.

Anderson (2002) study examined the relationship between exposure to violent media and the automatic self-concept on two levels. First, can exposure to violent media—in this case, playing the violent video game Doom in the laboratory—temporarily change the extent to which people associate the self with aggression? Second, does the extent to which a person plays violent video games in their own life predict their automatic self-concept with regard to aggression, above and beyond self-reported aggressiveness? Both short and long-term effects of exposure to violent video games on the automatic self-concept seem likely. Violent video games, because of their interactive nature and because they lead the player to assume a violent role, may be even more likely than violent television and movies to lead to the learning of aggressive scripts, attitudes and self-views.

Borzekowski, Robinson, and Killen, 2000; Harrison & Cantor, 1997; Seidemen, (1999) the present study television viewing, different types of programming are more influential than others. So in order to understand the overall role that media have on female adolescents’ perceptions of self and society, all genres must be examined.

Fouts & Burggraf, (2000) television is an important part of North American culture. As of 2003 it was estimated that 99% of Canadian households owned at least one color television; 61.2% owned at least two (Statistics Canada, 2005). Because of its prevalence in everyday life, television is an important source for sociological analysis.

Fatima (2000) suggests through research that TV has a long-term effect on peoples thinking. Therefore, instead of glamorization, portrayal of crime and
commercialization, positive trends need to be introduced on the TV channels in order to save our values.

Murnen & Smolak (2000) found that television, more than any other form of media, plays an important role in shaping adolescent females' attitudes and views about society and social interactions. It is through television that adolescent girls are given a connection to the expansive social world. Girls look to television to define normal and appropriate roles and behavior for men and women.

Rideout, (2003) about 25% of children this age are already active computer users, while about the same percentage has a TV, VCR, or video game player in their bedroom. Having grown up with television themselves, their parents trust in the educational value of their children’s media interactions, with 78% reporting that their children model prosaically behavior from their viewing.

Trautwein, Ludtke, Koller, & Baumert, (2006) it is crucial to understand these differences between self-concept and self-esteem, but it is also important to realize that self-esteem is manufactured through self-concept. When, child has a positive self-concept, high self-esteem falls into place much more easily.

A study conducted by Indiana University found that TV viewing can alter children's self esteem. White girls and black boys and girls tend to feel worse about them after viewing various forms of electronic media. However, white boys are in luck, TV viewing actually increases their self confidence.

2.4 T.V. Violence and Parent Child-Relationship -

- “Parent child relationships typically involve asymmetrical distribution of power” (Piaget 1932)

  If parents are genuinely concerned with what their children are viewing, there are several options available to them. They can watch the same programmes their children are, and decided if that show is appropriate for their children. The parents to make an information decision when deciding what their children’s were allowed to view television serial and programmes.
Parents and caregivers are ultimately responsible for what their children view on television. It is recommended that parents exhibit their responsibility and take control of their children’s viewing habits. If your children are regularly watching violent and aggressive show, serials, programmes immediately change the channels. You will not only be determining your children from committing hostile, aggression, but helping to groom a better adult in years to come. Everywhere are serials, pictures, programmes of injured or dead people in pool of blood. How does a child react to these and what are the immediate and long term effect of such exposure on children are question which need to tackled intelligently by parents, teachers and all well wishers of society.

**Whiting, Nowlis, and Sears (1953)** studied 40 three and four year olds and also found a linear relationship between physical punishment and aggression, but only for the boys in the sample.

**Sears, Maccoby and Levin's classic (1957)** study found a positive, significant correlation between parental use of physical punishment and child's aggression in the home.

**Becker, Peterson, Luria, Shoemaker, and Hellmer (1962)** examined boys and girls separately and noted that physical punishment of girls was associated with aggression at home, while boys who were physically punished tended to behave aggressively in general.

**Maurer, (1974)** one child rearing experience which has been an important focus has been children's exposure to parental physical aggression. Such aggression is commonly conceived as existing on a continuum, ranging from very severe parental aggression (i.e., child abuse) to much milder and normative parental aggression, such as use of corporal or physical punishment. Many psychologists are opposed to any parental aggression, even the use of physical punishment.

**Rossiter and Robertson (1974)** suggest that parent-child communication about television is necessary if children are to develop adequate defenses to negate the influence of television commercials.
Ward, Wackman and Wartella (1977) while co-viewing and verbal interaction may provide some means to offset the impact of television on children, others suggest that parents often attempt to directly monitor and control what their children view on television.

Singer and Singer (1986) proposed that when parents take an active mediating approach toward television viewing by their children—including commenting regularly and critically about realism, justification, and other factors that could influence learning—children are less likely to be influenced badly by media content.

Carlson and Grossbart 1988; Carlson et al. (1992) present research studies find out the Watching and discussing programs and commercials with children are indicative of an open communication environment in homes where parents exhibit a warmer relation with children.

In the New Orleans study (1993), the majority (62%) of parents felt that their children were very safe at home, but only 30% felt that they were very safe at school, and only 17% felt that they were very safe walking to and from school and playing in their neighborhood. The children also reported that they felt much safer at home and in school than walking to or from school or playing in their neighborhood. Ninety percent of their parents felt that violence was a serious problem or crisis in their community.

Cantor, Stutman, & Duran, 1996, however, parents express different concerns over different types of content. In fact, the decision to amend the TV Parental Guidelines to include content descriptions of programs was based, in part, on the fact that parents have differential concerns about television content.

Nathanson (1999) found that children whose parents discuss the appropriateness of television violence with them or restrict access to violent television shows report lower aggressive tendencies than children whose parents do not discuss television violence or restrict access to violent television shows. Other findings suggested that
either type of parental intervention may decrease the importance children give to violent TV, which in turn may lower children’s aggressive attitudes.

**Stith, (2000)** a number of research has exposed the important origin of conflict within the family. It is directly imposed on children who have witnessed or experienced the conflict, and this can be related to child and adolescent maladjustment. Similarly, there is also an association between violence in the family of origin with an increased risk of violence in one’s current family. Those relations can be seen even into adulthood, when the family is origin of conflict. There are links between witnessing destructive inter-parental conflict, experiencing physical abuse or the combination of both, and all these are associated with diminished emotional health and problematic behavior of children, adolescents, and young adults.

This study found several robust markers of adolescent’s attachment security in the mother adolescent relationship. Each of these markers was found to contribute unique variance to explaining adolescent security, and combination, they accounted for as much as 40% of the raw variance in adolescent security. These finding suggest that security is closely connected to the working of the mother adolescent relationship via a secure base phenomenon in which the teen can explore independence in thought and speech from the secure base of a maternal relationship characterized by maternal attunement to the adolescent and maternal supportiveness. That is why the above finding can be supported by the conclusion of the studies carried out by Allen et al (2003).

Several studied have revealed the association between inter-parental conflict and adolescents’ problematic behaviors. In fact, there are conflicts in marriages and partnering, but the amount and intensity of the conflicts which vary across parents is very significant. These conflicts are considerably significant for parents themselves, as well as substantial important for their adolescents and children (Buehler, Gerard, 2002).

**Blum et al., 2003,** this finding points out that for girls the nature of relationships with parents and the quality of the context in which they are sustained, may have a direct impact on behavior at school, as a consequence of its influence on the development of
the empathic response, that inhibits the participation on aggressive acts against others. These findings are in line with those reporting that girls are more likely to develop aggressive behaviors because of the impact resulting from poor parenting practices.

Phares (2004) the present studies described the relationship between the aspects of family functioning (i.e. parent-child relationships, family and self-expressiveness, and inter-parental conflict) and young adults’ patterns of anger expression. All the one hundred twenty-eight undergraduate psychology students were studying at a Metropolitan University in the Southeast of United State participated in the study. The results showed that people from more negative expressive families would report higher level of negative self-expressive and express anger more often. In addition, the findings also indicated that inter-parental conflict was negatively related to the perceptions of the parent-child relationship and parental emotional availability.

Vandewater, Bickham, & Lee, (2006) one recent study results indicated that time spent watching television both with and without parents or siblings was negatively related to time spent with parents or siblings, respectively, in other activities. Television viewing also was negatively related to time spent doing homework for 7- to 12-year-olds and negatively related to creative play, especially among very young children (younger than 5 years). There was no relationship between time spent watching television and time spent reading (or being read to) or to time spent in active play.

A research conducted by Melissa (2006) investigated the impacts of hostility and withdrawal in inter-parental conflict on parental emotional unavailability and children’s difficulties in adjusting. The sample included 210 mothers, fathers, and their 6-year-old children. The study revealed that inter parental conflict had a detrimental impact on all areas of children’s adjustment. The association between inter-parental conflict and children psychological symptoms and scholastic problems has been consistently documented in the literature.

This statement is drawn from a list of “risk factors for aggressive/ and violent behavior” in a 2007 study by Craig Anderson, Douglas Gentile and Katherine Buckley.138 In this list, the effect size given for VVG exposure (r = 0.30) is given an
equivalent value to gang membership \( (r = 0.31) \) and is higher than abusive parents and poverty.

**Vyas, (2008)** examined the present study parents and other significant members in the family have major role in contributing to healthy development of an adolescent. It is necessary for the parents to provide best possible environment at home, so as to create a conducive, fostering and supportive experiences for smooth transition from adolescence into adulthood.

**Kim and others (2009)** conducted a study on the role of adolescent appraisal of inter-parental conflict in relation to exposure to inter-parental conflict and adolescent dating relationship conflict. The sample includes 169 students who were enrolled in a public high school \( (3.6\% \text{ in the 9th grade}, 61.9\% \text{ in the 10th grade}, 20.2\% \text{ in the 11th grade}, 14.3\% \text{ in the 12th grade}) \) located in a large city in the Southeast of United States. The participants comprising of 52.6\% male and 47.4\% females aged between 14 and 19 year old \( (\text{mean} = 16.02 \text{ years, Standard deviation [SD] } = 1.05) \). The result showed the relationship between inter-parental conflict and adolescent sexual aggression, and between inter-parental conflict and adolescent threatening behavior. In addition, the perceived threat appraisal was found to partially mediate the relationship between inter-parental conflict and adolescent sexual aggression.

**2.5 School and Aggression** –

With regard to the effect of relational aggression on the broader context, research has found that students feel less safe in schools in which relational aggression is frequent \( (\text{Kuppens, Grietens, Onghena, Michiels, & Subramanian, 2008}) \). Given that relational aggression occurs quite often among both boys and girls and has an effect on the school environment, it appears that school-based programming for relational aggression is needed for both girls and boys.

Given research indicating the importance of the school climate and that witnessing higher levels of relational aggression can affect feelings of safety \( (\text{Kuppens et al., 2008}) \), this program has a clear strength in that it addresses the classroom social climate.
While few in number, those studies linking school-based problems with aggression in boys report a similar pattern with girls. That is, aggression is reported higher for girls who have chronic school absence and higher dropout rates (Kupersmidt & Coie, 1990).

Further, social rejection in school as a result of aggression was a predictor of girls’ later aggressive tendencies, a pattern that was a somewhat stronger risk predictor for girls than for boys (Huesmann, Guerra, Zelli, & Miller, 1992). In general, a weak attachment to school from an early age appears to be a relevant factor in understanding girls’ potential for aggression in later childhood and into adolescence.

Everett and Price (1995) suggest that while females are lower in rates of school violence when compared to males - when violence is defined as overt aggression - girls are proportionally more likely to appear in the data when verbal threats and intimidation are included.

Lawrence Mundia, (2006) More in-depth qualitative research should investigate the reasons why there are more students with moderate to severe aggressive tendencies in government schools ($X^2$ (df = 4) 18.16, $p < .01$).

Van Acker, Grant, and Henry (1996) describe following important findings relating to students’ aggressive behavior: Schools can adversely affect student behavior as there is connection between school environment and students’ behavior; teachers may transfer their own anger and aggression against students; and lack of positive teacher feedback for appropriate student behavior can create undesirable behavior in students.

2.6 School and Self concept –

Chubb, Ferman, and Ross (1997) provide additional evidence that female self-esteem in the high school years is significantly lower than their male peers.

The findings were also against the results of Yadav; Surya Kamal (2011) which concluded that self-concept of govt. school students is higher as compared to non govt. students.
Chickering (1958) however, found no stable relationship between self discrepancy, and school effort, since this study involves actual ideal self discrepancy. It is interesting to note that achievement appears more closely related to the actual self than to the ideal.

Henderson (1973) also found that students in predominately black school had higher self concept than children in predominately white schools.

Koskoff (1973) those who were enrolled in open classrooms rather than traditional classrooms made significantly higher self concept score.

Hinojosa (1974) found relationship between high self esteem and an open climate and low self esteem and a closed climate in the elementary classrooms.

A longitudinal study by Swing, E.L., Gentile, D.A. (2010) The major postulation enunciated by this study was that there will be no significant difference between Govt. and Private school students with regard to their self concept.

Chandra Shekhar, Syed Shehna & Syed Zubaidah (2012) The current study found that there was a non significant difference between the self concept of govt. and private school students.

2.7 School and Parent child relationship –

The effects of the programmes are described in terms of the overall impact of numerous interventions. Family attention to learning increases, and as teachers interact with parents, teachers are reminded of the importance of parental engagement, and the child’s learning increasingly becomes the focus of parent and teacher interactions. This was found to lead to better, more frequent interactions between parents and teachers, and a school community which is more supportive of children’s successes (Redding 2004).
‘Parental engagement’ does not always mean the same thing to parents and schools and many activities valued by parents as engaging with their children’s learning are neither recognized nor acknowledged by schools (Conteh and Kawashima 2008).

Lopez found that schools which were successful in engaging parents operated with a broad definition of parental engagement: in addition to or in place of interaction with the school, this included working with the child at home and taking an interest in the learning of the child. Home visits were a high priority for these schools, as were continuing interactions with the families (Lopez et al 2001).

Involvement in the Parents and Partners program, a parent involvement program at a rural elementary school in West Virginia, resulted in increased child expectations about graduation from high school (Dalton et al., 1996).

Lal Krishan (2013) in this study found there is no significant difference between Parent Child Relationship of male students of government secondary school and private secondary school. Therefore, the hypothesis, "there is no significant difference between Parent Child Relationship of male students of government secondary school and Private secondary school” is accepted. (t=0.21)

Sharma & Manhas (2013) research study indicates that regarding the first domain i.e protecting in case of mothers, the mean value with regard to government school girls was 32.23 and for the private school girls was 30.30. The “t” test also shows that this difference was significant in case of mothers. It shows that mothers of Government school girls were more protecting towards their daughters as compared to mothers of private school girls.

**2.8 Area and Aggression –**

Many of the health related issues experienced by adolescents are preventable and are often related to risky behavior by adolescents (Shannon & Broussard, 2011).
D’Esposito and colleagues (2011) explored how certain personality traits, behaviors, and social status may be associated with the target of peer aggression in rural communities.

Affonso and colleagues (2010) report factors associated with youth violence in rural schools. Further research is needed to better understand the factors associated with youth violence in schools and how rural schools differ from urban schools in this regard.

Malesińska M., Lewko J., Roszko-Kirpsza I., Marcinkiewicz S., Olejnik BJ., Maciorkowska E. (2015) In our study, which included 755 students from rural areas, we observed a higher percentage of aggressive behaviors among children and adolescents from poor families (70.2%). Aggressive behaviors among the evaluated children and adolescents were most common in the group of students who reported everyday conflicts at home (88.2%).

2.9 Area and Self concept –

The present study also revealed a statistically significant difference between the self-concept of girls in rural and urban set-up. The results showed that girls in urban had a higher self-concept than their colleagues in rural set up. Parents of girls in urban area were more conscious of the benefits of education, communicated this knowledge to their school going children and inspired them to aspire to see themselves as academically capable. Perhaps, this invariably served as a motivator to the students in urban colleges to see themselves as more academically capable and competent than their counterparts in rural colleges. The general perception of rural urban differences also extends too many other socially desirable outcomes, such as aptitude, intelligence and aspiration. De Young and Lawrence, (1995), Herzog and pitmans (1995).

Devi and Prasanti (2004) reported that pupils staying in rural area generally suffer from social and cultural deprivation in comparison with urban pupils. There are indications from research that the environment plays a determining role student in self-esteem. Student come from urban environment are found to be superior as compared to the student s from the urban environments.
Hundekar & Khadi (2013) Majority of the children of urban locality (93.3 %) had high level of self concept, followed by average level (6.7%). None of the children of urban locality fell in low level of self concept. Similar trend was also observed in rural group. On statistical analysis non-significant association was found between locality and self concept, indicating that both urban and rural children were similar on the level of self concept.

Nuthana and Yenagi (2007) reported that rural children had better self-concept than urban children.

One of the findings of the study was that no significant difference was observed in the self concept of the student gender and management variation, but there was a significant difference in relation to locality. It was found that urban students have better self-concept than rural students. Agrawal & Teotia (2015).

2.10 Area and Parent child relationship –

Meta-analyses investigating the effects with students representing racial diversity urban children (Jeynes, 2005), and adolescents have found effect sizes of parent involvement models in the .70s.

Rural parents have been found to talk with their children about school programs, attend school meetings, and interact with teachers less frequently relative to their counterparts in suburban and urban schools (Prater et al., 1997).

National Center for Education Statistics (NCES, 2007), survey the National Household Education Surveys Program and reported that only 54% of rural parents being satisfied with the way that school staff interacted with them. Contributing to the challenges associated with family-school connections in rural settings is the lack of research providing empirical guidance since the majority of research on family-school connections has been conducted in urban and suburban settings to date (Prater et al., 1997).

Lastly, a parent involvement family literacy program delivered in a rural community was found to improve children’s language performance compared to controls (St. Clair & Jackson, 2006).
Two studies reported that residence in a rural community did not predict parental involvement (Howley et al., 1997; Keith et al., 1996).

Prater and colleagues (1997) revealed that in comparison to suburban and urban parents, rural parents (a) talked less frequently about school programs with their children, attended school meetings less regularly, and interacted with teachers less frequently; (b) attended more school events; and (c) did not limit television viewing as habitually.

Prater, Bermudez & Owens (1997) there research study also differences across settings in a number of questions that dealt with parent/school interactions. Urban and suburban students (62.3% and 58.3%, respectively) reported that their parents attended school meetings substantially more frequently than was reported by rural students (50.8%).

2.11 Gender and Aggression –

Frodi, Macaulay and Thome (1971) reviewed 314 studies on human aggression, and found that 54% of these concerned men only, and only 8% women. These facts are certainly revealing.

There is, accordingly, no wonder that Maccoby & Jacklin (1974), in their well-known review from 1974, considered it self-evident that male is more aggressive than females. Their conclusion was almost exclusively based on observational studies in kindergarten and school yards, and rough and-tumble play was, in fact, in many of the reviewed studies regarded as aggression.

Crick (1995) suggests that "the degree of aggressiveness exhibited by girls has been underestimated in prior studies, largely because forms of aggression relevant to girls' peer groups have not been assessed" (p. 719).

Similarly, research on gender stereotypes has shown that men are rated as more aggressive than women and as more extreme on related qualities such as assertiveness and competitiveness (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1972; Ruble, 1983; Spence & Helmreich, 1978).
Numerous public opinion surveys document that men are more approving of aggression than are women. Survey findings, recently reviewed by Smith (1984), have shown repeatedly that men have more favorable attitudes than women toward aggressive and violent behavior in realms as diverse as international relations and war, social control and law enforcement, interpersonal relations, and the portrayal of violence on television.

Hyde (1986) found that the tendency for men (and boys) to be more aggressive than women (and girls) was not significantly larger for physical than psychological aggression. Because Hyde's sample included few studies assessing psychological aggression, we sought a larger sample to test the hypothesis of larger sex differences for physical than psychological aggression.

In the study by O'Brien and Huston (1985), for instance both boys and girls were revealed to prefer playthings that allowed moderate to high activity levels. Possibly one argue that children enjoy active games is that they believe the arousal that comes with such games as pleasant. Maybe they show affection to watching violence for the same cause.

2.12 Gender and Self concept –

Hundekar & Khadi (2013) Gender was not significantly associated with child’s self concept. Majority of the boys (92.7%) as well as girls (95.3%) had high self concept. Both boys and Girls are becoming more competitive, venturesome, open-minded, outgoing and independent. Irrespective of gender, children are provided equal opportunities in all curricular, co-curricular and extra-curricular activities.

Beemer (1971) reported higher self concept in girls than in boys.

Mason (1975) however, found that boys had more positive self concept than girls.

2.13 Gender and Parent child relationship –

The results of a study conducted by Craig (2006) found that mothers were more likely than fathers to spend not only more time overall with their children, but also
more time multitasking, more physical labor, a more rigid timetable, more time alone with children, and more overall responsibility for their care.

Craig (2006) also found that these gender differences in the amount of time spent with children as well as the circumstances stated above are the same even when the mother works full time. Fathers were found to be more likely to spend time with their children by playing with them, talking with them, engaging in educational and recreational activities more than any other kinds of caring.

Other research has consistently found that mothers still spend two to three times as much time with children as fathers (Baxter, 2002).

The reason for the gender difference in how much time mothers and fathers spend with their children is probably not due to the fact that fathers don’t want to spend time with their children. In fact, Milkie, Mattingly, Nomaguchi, Bianchi, and Robinson (2004) found that men said that they wanted to spend more time with their children.

One common view of mothers is that they are often over involved in their children’s lives, while fathers have a much less involved approach, being mostly playmates for their children (Craig, 2006). Also, perhaps it is more acceptable for women to show affection than men, so it might be more difficult for men to show affection towards their sons.

Women are often perceived as more nurturing in our society, and many people think that women are better at taking care of children than men are (Craig, 2006).

Lachmann (2005) found that women tend to show more empathy than men, and men tend to be more assertive than women. People may assume that finding applies to all men and women and that there cannot be assertive women and empathetic men. Therefore, society often tends to assume that all women should take care of children and all men should focus on work and leave the childrearing to the mother. It is also assumed that mothers should have a closer relationship to their children than the fathers because mothers are supposed to be more focused on their children.
Lal Krishan (2013) found that the mean score of the male students is greater than the female students of Secondary School that’s why it shows that male students have good parent-child relations with their parents.

With regard to parent-child relationship, a study done by Prior, Sanson, Smart and Oberklaid (2000) suggests that the gender differences of parent-child relationship differ from time to time during their first 15 years of life. According to their study, females had more difficulties in parent-child relationship during the age of 5 to 7 years; however, it gradually decreases to the age of 15 years. On the contrary, males’ difficulty in parent-child relationship gradually increases throughout their first 15 years of life.

This chapter contains the review of literature regarding adolescents who watch violent serial on television. Most of the people in our society generally have the opinion that Violent serial on television increases aggression in children and adolescents. Another way the television violent serial affects a child’s life, body image, self-esteem, aggression and parent child relationship. The aim of the present study, its objective and hypothesis are presented in the following chapter.