CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The current study is aimed at understanding aggression in children from the perspective of family influences on the development of aggressive behaviours. The study includes family factors such as parenting styles, marital conflict, parental supervision, influence of media and games to understand the relationship of these on aggressive behaviour in children. Based on the Review of Literature, the present ROL has been divided into following categories

A. Studies of Prevalence and continuity of aggressive behaviours
B. Parenting styles or disciplining tactics and problem behaviours in children
C. Marital conflict and its impact on developing problem behaviours in children.
D. Parental supervision and its impact on children’s behaviour.
E. The influence of TV watching on aggressive behaviours in children
F. The influence of video gaming on aggressive behaviours in children
G. Indian Studies
H. Need for the Study

A. Studies of prevalence and continuity of aggressive behaviors

The first section focuses on the studies in the West that have focused on the prevalence and continuity of aggression from childhood to adolescence to adulthood. This section is important since it gives us the justification to conduct the present study in our present sociocultural context.

Huesmann, Dubow and Boxer (2009), in his 40 year longitudinal study following an entire country’s population of third grade students from age eight to forty eight, examined the long term consequences of aggressive and anti-social behaviour in childhood, adolescence and adulthood. They found that there was a moderate level of continuity of aggressive behaviour from age 8 to age 48 both in males and females. They also found that high aggressive participants tended to remain high, while low-aggressive participants tended to remain low. It was also seen that life course persistent high-aggressives had consistently poorer outcomes across the domains of life success, criminal behaviour and psychological functioning at age
48. Finally they saw that the outcomes for late-onset (early adulthood) aggressives were also problematic in some domains, but not as problematic as life-course persistent aggressives.

In a study specifically focused on aggressive behaviour conducted by Cummings et al., (1989), found that the disposition to engage in physical aggression, among boys was highly stable, with correlations as high as r=.76. They say that certain dimensions of physical aggression at age 2 were also positively associated with verbal aggression at age 5. The results indicate that relative aggressiveness tends to remain stable despite declines in the frequency of aggressive behaviour between 2 and 5 years of age.

A study by Nagin, D.S & Tremblay et al., (2003), used data from 6 sites and 3 countries to examine the developmental course of physical aggression in childhood and to analyze the violent and non-violent offending outcomes in adolescence. The results indicate that among boys there is continuity in problem behaviour from childhood to adolescence and that such continuity is especially acute when early problem behaviours take the form of physical aggression. They concluded that chronic physical aggression during elementary school years specifically increases the risk for continued physical violence as well as other non-violent forms of delinquency during adolescence.

In a recent longitudinal study by Thompson et al., (2011), the link between the trajectories of externalizing behavioural problems and early adolescent risk behaviour was examined in a longitudinal sample of 875 child participants in the long scan study. The findings suggest that there is a great deal of continuity between patterns of externalizing behaviour in childhood and risk taking in early adolescence.

Campbell (1995), on his research on the prevalence, course and correlates of behaviour problems in preschool children indicated that serious externalizing problem identified early often persist. It was also seen that this was correlated to inconsistent parental discipline and high levels of family adversity. This was also associated with the emergence of problems early in childhood and predicted their persistence through school age.

A study by Moffitt (1993), found that anti-social behaviour shows an impressive continuity with age, but also that it changes dramatically over age, that is it increases nearly 10-fold temporarily during adolescence. Therefore they say that while a small group engages in antisocial behaviour of one sort or the other at every life stage, a larger group is antisocial only during adolescence. They say that according to their theory of adolescence-limited
antisocial behaviour, a contemporary maturity gap encourages teen to mimic antisocial behaviour in ways which can be normative and adjustive.

Brame, Nagin and Tremblay (2001), explored the application of the early-onset and late-onset concepts of antisocial behaviour to physical aggression. They tried to answer the questions: Are there two categories of physically violent adolescents: Those who are physically aggressive throughout childhood and those who start being aggressive in adolescence. First they found that there was considerable change in the levels of childhood and adolescent physical aggression. Therefore they say that in an absolute sense there is a little evidence for stability in behaviour. Their second key finding concerns with the connection of childhood aggression to adolescent aggression. They found that boys with higher childhood aggression transitioned into higher level adolescent aggression, compared with boys of low level childhood aggression trajectories. Thirdly they also found little evidence of late-onset of high-level physical aggression.

Studies on prevalence and continuity in the west clearly show that chronic childhood aggression leads to adolescent violent behaviour, delinquencies, and also antisocial adult behaviour. Studies have also pointed out to the evidence of early onset of aggressive behaviour and little evidence for late onset of aggressive behaviours. Therefore it stresses on the importance of identifying chronic aggression, and to factors which have an association with early aggression and to frame interventions at each level.

B. Parenting styles or disciplining tactics and aggressive behaviors in children

This section deals with the aspect of parenting styles or disciplining tactics (e.g., Authoritative or authoritarian, permissive) or parenting practices (e.g., warmth, responsiveness and control) which has a relationship with problem behaviours in children. The review for the convenience will be divided into sections, which shows that (i) Studies showing parenting styles associated with aggression or externalizing behaviours. (ii) Studies showing parenting styles having a weak relationship or no relationship with aggression or externalizing behaviours (iii) Studies showing parenting styles having an association with internalizing behaviours.

(i) Studies showing parenting styles associated with aggression or externalizing behaviours.
A study conducted by Chang, Schwartz et al., (2003), presents a model of harsh parenting that has an indirect effect, as well as direct effect on child aggression in the school environment through the mediating process of child emotion regulation. It was tested on a sample of 325 Chinese children and their parents. They also investigated interaction effects between parents’ and children’s gender. They concluded that mothers’ harsh parenting affected child emotion regulation more strongly than fathers’, whereas harsh parenting emanating from fathers had a stronger effect on child aggression. Fathers’ harsh parenting also affected sons more than daughters. Whereas, there was no gender differential effect with mothers’ harsh parenting.

Stormshak et al., (2000), examined the parenting practices and child disruptive behaviour problems in early elementary school. 631 parents of behaviourally disruptive children were interviewed to understand their parenting approaches in terms of warmth and involvement, inconsistent and punitive discipline, spanking and aggression towards the child. It was seen that as was expected from a developmental perspective, parenting practices that included punitive interactions were associated with elevated levels of child’s disruptive behaviours. Low levels of warmth and involvement were associated with elevated levels of oppositional behaviour in kids and physical aggression in parenting was linked specifically with child aggression.

A study by Mulvaney and Mebert (2007), examined the impact of corporal punishments on children’s behaviour problems. Longitudinal analyses were specified that controlled for co varying contextual and parenting variables that partialled child effects. The results indicated that parental corporal punishment uniquely contributes to negative behavioural adjustments. Corporal punishment was associated with increased internalizing behaviours at toddlerhood and with increased externalizing behaviour problems both in toddlerhood and at first grade.

A study by Hart et al., (1998), studied the maternal and paternal parenting styles and also marital interactions linked to childhood aggressive behaviour as described in western psychological literature, were measured in an ethnic Russian sample of 207 families of nursery school age children. Results showed that maternal and paternal coercion, lack of responsiveness, and psychological control (for mothers only) were significantly correlated with children’s overt aggression with peers. Less responsiveness (for mothers and fathers) and maternal coercion positively correlated with relational aggression.
Brenner & Fox (1998) studied the relationship between parenting practices and behaviour problem in very young children, via the parent behaviour checklist. Results indicated that parents’ use of verbal and corporal punishment was the strongest predictor of reported behavior problems, accounting for 20% of the overall variance and 13% of unique variance.

A study by Shawna, Inna and Elizabeth(2013), on maternal warmth and longitudinal associations between maternal spanking and child aggression in early childhood showed that maternal spanking at age 1 was associated with higher levels of child aggression at age 3; similarly maternal spanking at age 3 predicted increases in child aggression by age 5. Maternal warmth when the child was 3 years old did not predict changes in child aggression between 3 and 5 years old. Furthermore, maternal warmth did not moderate the association between spanking and increased child aggression over time. Beginning as early as 1, maternal spanking is predictive of child behaviour problems, and maternal warmth does not counteract the negative consequences of the use of spanking.

A study by Hart et al., (1998) studied the parenting styles and marital linkages to overt and relational aggression in Russian nursery-school-age children. The sample involved 207 families of nursery-school-age children. Results corroborated and extended findings from western samples. Maternal and paternal coercion, lack of responsiveness and psychological control (only for mothers) were significantly correlated with children’s overt and relational aggression with peers. Less responsiveness (for mothers only) and maternal coercion positively correlated with relational aggression. Some of these associations differed for boys versus girls.

A study by Querido, Warner and Eyeberg (2002) studied parenting styles and child behavior in African American families of preschool children. The sample consisted of 108 African American female caregivers of 3-6 year old children. Correlation analysis showed that parent-reported child behaviour problems were associated with maternal education, family income, and parents’ endorsement of authoritative parenting, authoritarian parenting and permissive parenting. Hierarchical regression analysis showed that the authoritative parenting style was most predictive of fewer child behaviour problems. These results are consistent with previous findings with European American families and provide strong support for the cross-cultural validity of the authoritative parenting style.

A study by Denham, Workman et.al (2000) studied the role of parental socialization and emotion expression that contribute to continuity and change in preschool children’s
externalizing problems. Mothers and fathers were observed interacting with their children and child-rearing styles were reported. Teachers, mothers and children reported children’s antisocial, oppositional behaviour. Externalizing problems showed strong continuity 2 and 4 years later. Proactive parenting (supportive presence, clear instructions, and limit setting) predicted fewer behaviour problems over time, after controlling for the initial problems; the converse was true for parental anger.

A study in Beijing, China by Qing, Nancy, Yun & Mark (2004), on the relations among authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles and child’s effortful control and dispositional anger/frustration, externalizing problems, and socially appropriate behaviors on peer rated aggression and leadership/sociability. Authoritarian parenting was associated with children’s low effortful control and high dispositional anger/frustration, which mediated the negative relation between authoritarian parenting and child’s social functioning. Effortful control weakly mediated the positive relation of authoritative parenting to social functioning.

A meta-analytical study by Hoove et al., (2009), analysed 161 published and unpublished studies to determine whether the association between parenting and delinquency existed and to understand the magnitude of the same. The analysis revealed the strongest links for parental monitoring, psychological control, and negative aspects of support like rejection and hostility, accounting up to 11% of the variance. It was also seen that several effect sizes were moderated by parent and child gender, child age, informant on parenting and delinquency type which indicated that some parenting behaviours are more important in particular contexts and sub samples.

Sandstorm (2007), studied the association between mother’s disciplinary strategies and children’s relational aggression and the comparison of those on overt aggression, on a sample of eighty two fourth graders. It was found that parental authoritarian strategy was positively associated with children’s overt aggression, especially boys. Also a trend was seen on the positive association between authoritarianism and relational aggression among both boys and girls. The study also pointed out the positive association between maternal permissiveness and relational aggression.

Combs-Ranto et al., (2009), conducted a prospective 2 year longitudinal investigation between negative maternal parenting and child disruptive behaviour across preschool to school transition. 235 children, their mothers and teachers participated in the study. Observational and multi informant rating of child disruptive behaviour showed differential
patterns of stability and associations with measures of parenting risk. Results indicated that there was a bidirectional and interactive contributions of externalizing behaviour and negative parenting across time.

(ii) Studies showing parenting styles having a weak relationship with aggression or externalizing behaviours

Russell et al., (2003), tried to study the children’s sociable and aggressive behaviours with peers and the contributions of temperament and parenting styles. Pre-school children’s teachers rated the children’s aggressive and social behaviour, while parents completed the parenting styles questionnaire and child temperament questionnaires. Girls were rated as more relationally aggressive and more prosocial, whereas boys were higher on physical aggression. In both US and Australia, it was seen that temperament consistently predicted child’s sociable and aggressive behaviours, with only some evidence for father’s authoritarian parenting also contributing.

Chen et al., (2001), tried to study the parenting practices and aggressive behaviour in Chinese children, it was found that the relations of parenting practices and child aggressive behaviour were moderated by child’s characteristic, where maternal warmth was negatively associated with aggression for a complaint child, whereas paternal positive parenting was directly related to aggression for non-complaint and defiant children.

Elvis Filli (2016), investigated the relationship and impact of parenting styles and aggressive behaviour among preschool children. The participants were 310 school going children and their parents. The correlational analysis indicated an insignificant relationship between parenting styles with aggressive behaviours. The found that regression indicated that there was neither a statistically significant interaction between parenting style and aggression, nor a significant interaction with parenting style and parent gender. And hence they concluded that parenting styles have no relationship or interaction with aggressive behaviour of preschool children.

Shayatesh, Hejazi and Foumany (2014), studied the relationship between parenting styles and adolescent’s identity and aggression in male and female teenagers in high schools. 200 people (100 male and 100 female), along with their parents were randomly selected as a sample. The results revealed that the relationship between parenting style and aggression was not significant. With regard to parenting style and identity formation, authoritarian parenting had
a relationship with all the identity subscales, and permissive parenting had relationship with the formation of identity diffusion and premature identity. Therefore they concluded that parenting attitudes, beliefs and conduct, is a significant factor in identity development.

Hassan and Ee (2015), studied the bully behaviour and parenting styles amongst elementary school children, as well as taking child’s gender into consideration, which involved around 270 students aged 11 years. Pearson’s correlation found a significant positive low relationship between bully behaviour and authoritarian and permissive parenting style, but no relationship between bully behaviour and authoritative parenting style. Overall, it was found that there was a significant low relationship between bully behaviour and parenting styles.

Laura McKee (2008), did a review of prior researches in the area of parenting style, which involved parental warmth, hostility and control on the child’s externalizing disorders versus internalizing problems. It was very notably seen that findings revealed a very little evidence for the specificity of parenting and child externalizing behaviours in the general parenting literature or in the context of parent depression.

(iii) Studies showing parenting styles having an association with internalizing behaviours

Paulussen-Hoogeboom et al., (2008), studied parenting style as a mediator between children’s negative emotionality and problematic behaviour in early childhood in a sample of 196, 3 year old children and their mothers. The results revealed that relations between the child’s negative emotionality and internalizing and externalizing symptoms were partially mediated by mother’s authoritative parenting style and the association between negative emotionality and internalizing behaviour was fully mediated by authoritative parenting.

Radzizewska et al., (1996), studied the parenting style and adolescent depressive symptoms, smoking and academic achievement on a sample of 3993, 15 year old African American and Asian adolescents. Results showed that adolescents with authoritative parents had the best outcomes and those with unengaged parents were least well adjusted, while the permissive and autocratic styles produced intermediate results. It was suggested that the relationship between parenting styles, especially the unengaged style and depressive symptoms may vary according to gender and ethnicity.

Reitz et al., (2006), in his longitudinal study investigated the relationship between parenting, externalizing and internalizing problem behaviours during early adolescence. They included
650, 13-14 year olds as the sample to fill out the youth self-report form and also the questionnaire about parenting. It was seen that the relations between parenting and problem behaviour appeared stronger for externalizing behaviour than for internalizing problem. Parenting significantly predicted an increase in child problem behaviour one year later.

Bayer, Sanson and Hemphill (2006), studied the parental influences on early childhood internalizing difficulties. A sample of 2 year old children (N=112) was followed longitudinally to 4 years. It was seen that predictors of childhood internalizing difficulties were over-involved/protective parenting, low warm-engaged parenting, and parental anxiety-depression. Family life stress and parental anxiety-depression also predicted problematic parenting practices.

The above mentioned studies in the area of parenting style and problem behaviours, show that many studies have seen that there is a significant association between parenting styles and aggression or externalizing disorders, in children and adolescents. They have found that authoritative is the best approach for a positive outcome in children. A few studies have also shown weak associations or no association of parenting styles to aggression, where they say that substance abuse in family, temperament, peers, media play a major role in aggression of children. Very few studies link parenting style to internalizing behaviours, but it shows that parenting anxiety-depression and parental stress related to internalizing rather than parenting styles, which predicts internalizing behaviours in children.

C. Marital conflict and its impact on children

Marital conflict and its impact on children is a widely studied area in the west. Conflict is an integral part of all relationships and which is inevitable, but the way the conflicts are managed by the partners, has been studied to have an effect on the development of children. It hence becomes important to understand the dynamics of conflict, the way it impacts children and the way to minimize its negative impact. Below is some of the research which has been done in this area in the West.

The studies under marital conflict have been researched under some of the prominent hypothesis that has been developed by researchers. The ROL in this section will be segregated according to the hypothesis under which it has been studied.
1. **Emotional Security Hypothesis:**

One of the hypotheses is Emotional Security Hypothesis by Davies and Cumming (1994) which is built on the attachment theory. They argue that children’s concern about emotional security play a role in their regulation of emotional arousal and organization and in their motivation to respond in the face of marital conflict.

Davies and Cummings (1998) explored children’s emotional security as a mediator of the link between marital relations and child adjustment. Guided by the emotional security hypothesis, this study examined whether links between marital relations and children’s adjustment were mediated by children’s emotional security, as evidenced by their emotional reactivity (e.g., vigilance, distress), regulation of exposure to parent affect (avoidance, involvement), and internal representations in the context of inter parental relations. Multiple methods and contexts were used to assess 6-9 year olds’ emotional security in response to standardized, simulated conflicts involving parents. Latent variable path analysis supported a theoretical pathway whereby marital dysfunction was linked with adjustment problems as mediated by response processes indicative of emotional insecurity in relation to parental conflicts. Emotional reactivity and internal representations were most closely linked with marital relations and child adjustment, especially with regard to internalizing symptoms.

Davies, et al., (2002), guided by the Emotional Security Theory, studied the children’s emotional insecurity and interparental conflict in a sample of 327 Welsh children in study 1, which showed that child reports of fear, avoidance and involvement were especially prominent responses to inter parental conflict. Study 2 examines the roles of child emotional insecurity and social-cognitive appraisals in a sample of 285 Welsh children and parents. Findings indicated in support of the hypothesis that emotional insecurity was a robust intervening process in the prospective links between parental conflict and child maladjustment. Study 3 indicated that in 174 sample of children and mothers, that child insecurity continued to mediate the link between parental conflict and maladjustment even after specifying the effects of other parental processes.

Harold et al., (2004), studied the relations between marital conflict and children’s adjustment in a longitudinal research design, proposing emotional security hypothesis as a support. 181 families and their 11-12 year old children were included in the sample. Structural equation modelling indicated that children’s emotional security about interparental conflict mediated the relationship between marital conflict and children’s security about parenting. They
suggested processes pertaining to children’s security in multiple family systems, and provided an indirect mechanism through which interparental conflict affected children’s symptoms of psychological distress assessed 12 months later.

Cummings et al., (2006), advancing the process oriented study between the links of interparental discord and child adjustment, conducted 2 multimethod prospective investigations of emotional security as an explanatory mechanism. Study 1 (113 boys and 113 girls, age 9-18), identified emotional security as a mediator in a 2 wave test, whereas in study 2, (105 boys and 127 girls, ages 5-7 years), indicated emotional security as an intervening variable in a 3 wave test. They found that relations between discord and emotional security increased as children moved to adolescence in study 1. They concluded that emotional security as an explanatory mechanism for both internalizing and externalizing problems in children.

McCoy, Cummings and Davies (2009), Studied the relationship between constructive and destructive conflict and children’s prosocial behaviour from a process oriented approach. Data were collected from 235 families with children from ages of 5-7. Structural equation modelling was used to examine the conflict, children’s emotional security, warm parenting and children’s prosocial behaviour. It was seen that even after controlling for the previous levels of children’s prosocial behaviour at wave 1, children’s emotional security acted as an intervening variable between both constructive and destructive conflict and children’s prosocial behaviour over time.

Mann and Gilliom (2002), tested the emotional security and cognitive appraisals which mediated the relationship between parent’s marital conflict and adjustment in older adolescents. The authors proposed that both cognitive appraisal of parent’s conflict and emotional insecurity mediate the conflict-adjustment link in late adolescent. The results suggested that appraisals and security were both important mediators in the model, but they were not related to each other. But they appeared parallel, yet separate, cognitive and emotional channels through which exposure to parental conflict in childhood can have detrimental effects on later adolescence.

Cummings et al., (2012), studied the interparental conflict in kindergarten and adolescent adjustment, investigating a prospective model of emotional security an explanatory mechanism based on a community sample of 235 mothers, fathers and children. Structural
equation modelling provided support for emotional security in early childhood as an intervening process related to adolescent internalizing and externalizing problems even with stringent autoregressive controls over prior levels of functioning for both mediating and outcome variables.

Martin and Clements (2002) designed a study to examine children’s self-reported and observed emotional and behavioural responding to marital conflict as a potential mechanism linking marital physical aggression (as reported by parents) and children’s behavioral adjustment (as reported by their preschool teachers). In a sample of 48 preschoolers, parental marital physical aggression was positively associated with children’s observed dysregulated responding to interparental conflict and negatively associated with children’s self-reported behavioural disruption. Marital aggression and children self-reported responding to marital conflict predicted teacher-reported behaviour problems, with both variables adding to unique variance. The findings suggested a potential pathway linking exposure to marital conflict, children’s regulatory strategies, and children’s behavioural adjustment outside the home.

Ingoldsby et al., (1999), did a longitudinal study of interparental conflict, emotional and behavioural reactivity, and pre-schoolers adjustment problems in a sample of 129 mother-son dyads from low-income, 2 parent families from the time sons were age 2-5. Results showed that children exposed to interparental conflict were more likely to have concurrent and later behaviour problems and patterns of conflict made unique contributions in predicting later behaviour problems. But children’s emotional reactivity in response to conflict had no direct relations to conflict and only modest relations to behaviour problems. Yet, both interparental conflict and reactivity factors interacted to predict behaviour problems at age 3 ½ and 5.

2. Cognitive-contextual model in marital conflict:

Grynch and Fincham (1990), proposed a cognitive-contextual frame work for understanding children’s response to marital conflict. According to the frame work, the features of the conflict that are proposed to have greatest impact on children are its intensity, content, duration and resolution. The frame work proposes that, conflicts of a greater ‘intensity’ cause greater distress to children. The intensity of the conflict may be determined by a number of factors, including the degree of negative affect or hostility expressed, and physical aggression. The ‘content’ of conflicts can vary widely but certain conflicts, such as those concerning the child or the state of marriage may be more upsetting to children than other
less threatening topics. They say that although ‘duration’ of conflict episodes have not received much attention in the literature, longer lasting episodes may lead to greater distress for children because they increase the length of time children are exposed to a stressor. They also suggest that conflicts that lack satisfactory resolution may upset children more than conflicts that are successfully resolved. They also propose that although ‘context’ of a conflict may encompass a broad range of factors including the physical setting of the conflict, the psychological aspects of ‘context’ (e.g., child’s memory of past conflicts) may be most important influences on children’s response to marital conflict. Distal context refers to relatively stable or slowly changing factors and includes such elements as children’s memory of past episodes of conflict. Proximal content, in contrast, refers to the thoughts and feelings experienced by the children immediately before their processing of the conflict episode.

A study by Grynch, & Fincham (1993), studied the children’s appraisal of marital conflict. 2 Studies examined the children’s appraisal of marital conflict. In study 1, 45 11-12 year olds reported cognitive, affective and coping responses to conflicts varying in content and intensity. When conflict concerned the child, children reported more shame and fear of being drawn into the conflict and tended to endorse coping responses that involved direct intervention in it. More intense conflicts lead to greater negative affect and perceived threat. In study 2, 112 12 year olds responded to conflicts that included a parent blaming or child blaming explanation or gave no explanation to the conflict. The findings show that appraisals of marital conflict are influenced by its content, intensity and cause and suggest that the meaning of conflict to children is an important determinant of its impact.

Buehler et al., (2007), studied the adolescent’s cognitive and emotional responses to marital hostility, where cognitive-contextual and emotional Security Hypothesis guided the study, where early adolescents (11-14 years) responses were examined in a sample of 416 families. It was seen that self-blame and threat mediated the association between year 1 marital hostility and year 3 adolescent externalizing problems. Self-blame, lower constructive representations, internalizations of feelings, avoidance and emotional dysregulation mediated the association between year 1 marital hostility and year 3 internalizing problems.

Grynch et al., (2000), studied the interparental conflict and child adjustment, testing the mediational role of appraisals in the cognitive-contextual framework for which the samples were drawn from two samples, one from the community (317, 10-14 year olds) and the other from the battered women’s shelter (145, 10-12 year olds). Results indicated that perceive
threat mediated the association between interparental conflict and internalizing problems for boys and girls in both the samples and perceived threat and self-blame did not mediate the links with externalizing behaviours in boys and girls.

Grynch (1998), studied the children’s appraisal of interparental conflict in the emotional responses of 60, 7-12 year old children. It was seen that properties of conflict, family factors and child characteristics were related to children’s appraisal and the most consistent predictors were the levels of hostility expressed in the interaction, children’s prior experience with physically aggressive interparental conflict and children’s age.

Mark et al., (1999), studied the family conflict and child adjustment testing the cognitive contextual model. Three cohorts of 10-14 year old adolescents were sampled to obtain the perception on the parent’s conflict resolution style, their own conflict resolution styles and their behavioural adjustment. The results showed that as seen previously, boys and girls were not exposed to different levels of or types of conflict and it was seen that boys tended to blame themselves more. It was found from a series of regression analyses supported the model for internalizing problems in adolescents and only a minimum support was found for externalizing problems.

A study by Kerig (1998), examined the moderators and mediators of the effects of interparental conflict on children’s adjustment. Moderational and meditational models of the relationships among appraisals, interparental conflict, and children’s adjustment were tested in a sample of 174 families of school aged children. Parents rated children’s exposure to interparental conflict and internalizing, externalizing and total behaviour problems. Children completed questionnaires regarding their appraisals of their parents’ conflicts including frequency and intensity, perceived threat, control, and self-blame, as well as measures of anxiety and depression. Results overall demonstrated more consistent support for the moderational than the meditational hypotheses. Appraisals of conflict properties, threat, self-blame, and perceived control moderated the effects of interparental conflict on externalizing, total problems, and anxiety in boys. Conflict properties, threat, self-blame, perceived control and self-calming acted as moderators of internalizing in girls.

Cummings et.al (1994), studied the marital conflict, gender and children’s appraisals and coping efficacy as mediators of child adjustment. This was examined for 51, 9-12 year olds from intact families. Gender differences were found in the cognition and coping processes related to marital conflict and child adjustment. Appraisals of coping efficacy and threat
posed by marital conflict predicted adjustment in boys, whereas self-blame was linked with internalizing problems with girls. The appraised destructiveness of conflict was significantly related to perceived threat in boys and self-blame in girls. Boys appeared more attuned and alternatively, less shielded from marital conflict, as reflected by the higher correlations with mother’s report of marital conflict for boys than for girls. They say that the significance of boys’ appraisals to adjustment was suggested by the fact that boys’ perceptions were better predictors of adjustment outcome than were mothers’ reports.

3. Exposure Hypothesis in marital conflict:

Cummings et al., (2004), proposed an exposure hypothesis in marital conflict and its impact on children’s aggressive behaviours. Participants were 108 families with 8-16 year old children, with diary records of children’s reactions to marital conflict in the home completed by 103 mother and 95 fathers. He examined children’s immediate responding to marital conflict, where he concluded that exposure to destructive conflict tactics and negative parental emotionality increased the likelihood of aggressive behaviour in children when they witnessed a marital conflict, whereas constructive conflict tactics and positive parental emotionality decreased the probability of aggression. Therefore the authors proposed that exposure to conflict has a direct impact on the aggressive responding of children immediately.

Katherine et al., (2003), in her meta-analysis examined 118 studies of the psychosocial outcomes of children who are exposed to interparental violence. Correlational studies showed a significant association between exposure and child problems and group comparisons showed that witnesses had worse outcomes than non-witnesses and children from verbally aggressive homes. Witness outcomes were not significantly different from those of physically abused children or physically abused witnesses.

Wolfe et al., (2003), studied the effects of children’s exposure to domestic violence in their meta-analysis. They identified 41 studies which provided relevant data to be included in the analysis, and 40 of these studies indicated that children’s exposure to domestic violence was related to emotional and behavioural problems, which had a small overall effect. And co-occurrence of child abuse increased the level of emotional and behavioural problems above and beyond exposure alone, based on 4 studies which was available.

Grynch et al., (2003), conducted a longitudinal study to test the role of children’s appraisal of threat and self-blame as mediators of the association between interparental conflict and child
adjustment in a sample of 298 Welsch children aged between 11-12 years. It was seen that exposure to higher levels of interparental conflict at time 1, predicted greater perceived threat and self-blame at time 2. Perceive threat was in turn associated with increased internalizing problem at time 2, and self-blame was associated with higher externalizing problems.

A study by Ferguson and Horwood (1998), investigated the relationships between retrospective reports of exposure to inter parental violence in childhood and rates of psychosocial adjustment problems in young adulthood in a birth cohort of New Zealand subjects. Data were gathered during the course of an 18 year longitudinal study of a birth cohort of 1,265 New Zealand children. At age 18 retrospective report of exposure to interparental violence were obtained. At this time the cohort was also assessed on measures of psychosocial adjustment including mental health problems, substance abuse behaviours, and criminal offending. Results showed that young people reporting high levels of exposure to interparental violence had elevated rates of adjustment problems at age 18. These problems included mental health problems, substance abuse behaviours and criminal offending. Multiple logistic regressions showed that much of this risk was explained by social and contextual factors associated with exposure to interparental violence. It was however found that, exposure to father initiated violence was associated with increased risk of anxiety, conduct disorder and property crime, while exposure to mother initiated violence was associated only with increased risks for later alcohol dependence.

David et al., (1996), studied the role of family conflict and marital conflict in adolescent functioning in a sample of 146 mother-adolescent pairs. Mothers completed the measures of general family conflict and marital conflict. Both mothers and teachers completed the measures of child functioning at two points in time separated by 1 year. It was seen that consistent with the earlier findings, general family conflicts was more predictive of child adjustment problems than marital satisfaction. They found that, however, marital conflict occurring in front of the child was equally predictive of child behaviour problems as was general family conflict.

Evans, Davies and DiLlilo (2008), conducted a meta-analytic study to examine the relationship between childhood exposure to domestic violence and children’s internalizing, externalizing and trauma symptoms. 60 studies were reviewed which revealed a mean weighted effect of .48 and .47 for the relationship between exposure to domestic violence and childhood internalizing and externalizing symptoms, indicating a moderate effect. A larger
mean effect size was obtained for the relationship between exposure to domestic violence and childhood trauma symptoms, although this was based only on a few studies. Moderator analysis showed that relationship between exposure and externalizing symptoms was significantly stronger for boys than for girls.

Henning et al., (1997), conducted a retrospective survey of undergraduate students to examine the long-term psychological impact of witnessing interparental physical aggression during childhood. It was seen that both men and women who witnessed interparental physical conflict reported higher levels of physiological distress compared to group of young adults who never observed physical aggression between their parents. It was also seen that negative effect of witnessing interparental aggression was intensified when aggression was serious enough some type of outside assistance for the victim and when the parent of the same sex was being victimized. Therefore it was concluded that witnessing interparental physical aggression leads to a traumatic experience that can have long term psychological ramifications.

Deborah, Jennifer and Christopher (1998), investigated the relationships between lifetime exposure to interparental aggression, both physical and verbal aggression and (1) anxiety, depression, and anger, (2) interpersonal problems (3) symptoms of trauma in a sample of 326 young adults. It was seen that exposure to interparental violence was associated with elevated levels of depression, anxiety and trauma symptoms. Further analysis revealed that interparental verbal aggression predicted all symptom areas and was a stronger predictor than interparental violence.

4. **Spillover Hypothesis of marital conflict:**

Webster-Stratton and Hammond (1999) studied the marital conflict management skills, parenting styles and early-onset conduct problems. This study examined whether the link between marital conflict management style and child conduct problems with peers and parents is direct or mediated by mothers’ and fathers’ parenting style (critical parenting and low emotional responsivity). Hundred and twenty children, aged 4-7 years, were observed interacting in the laboratory play room solving a problem with their best friend as well as at their home with their parents. In addition all the children’s parents were observed in the laboratory trying to solve two family problems as well as at home interacting under more natural conditions with each other and with their children. Mothers and fathers completed questionnaires assessing marital problem solving as well as reports of their children’s
behavior problems. Results indicated that a negative marital conflict management and children’s interaction with parents and peers was found to be mediated by both mothers’ and fathers’ critical parenting and low emotional responsivity, thereby supporting the indirect as well as the direct model of negative family interactions.

Buehler and Gerald (2002), analysed the data from the 1988 National Survey on families and households to examine the associations among marital conflict, ineffective parenting and adolescent maladjustment. Parent’s use of harsh discipline and low involvement helped to explain the connection between marital conflict and children’s adjustment in ages 2 through 11. It was seen that although ineffective parenting explained a part of the association between conflict and maladjustment, independent effects of marital conflict remained in families with target children aged 2 through 11.

Gerard, Krishnakumar and Buehler (2006), did a longitudinal investigation of spillover effects, on marital conflict, parent-child relations and youth maladjustment. Analyses were based on 551 families with a child age 5-11 years at wave 1. The concurrent associations between marital conflict and youth externalizing problems at both waves was mediated completely at wave 1 and partially at wave 2 by harsh discipline and parent-youth conflict. Also the associations between marital conflict and internalizing problems at both waves were mediated partially through parent-youth conflict. It was also seen that longitudinal mediating effects were detected through stable conflict over 5 years and through its connection with parent-youth conflict. The findings supported the spillover hypothesis model.

Kaczynski et al., (2006), studied the mediational and moderational effect of marital conflict, maternal and paternal and child adjustment. Parenting was examined as a mediator of associations between marital and child adjustment, and parent gender was examined as a moderator of associations among marital, parental, and child functioning in 226 families with a school-age child (146 boys). It was seen that parenting fully mediated associations between marital conflict and child internalizing and externalizing behaviour. Parent gender did not moderate associations when data from the sample or families with girls only were evaluated. And parent gender did moderate the associations when families only boys were evaluated, where the associations between marital conflict and parenting stronger for fathers than mothers. Therefore they suggested that father’s parenting may be more strongly related to internalizing behaviour and mother’s parenting may be more strongly related to externalizing behaviours.
KrishnaKumar and Buehler (2000), conducted a meta-analytic study to examine the associations between interparental conflict and parenting. One hundred and thirty-eight effect sizes were analysed from 39 studies. The overall weighted effect size was -0.62 which indicated moderate association and support for spillover hypothesis. They say that the parenting behaviours most affected by interparental conflict was harsh discipline and parental acceptance.

Schoppe-Sullivan, Schermerhorn and Cummings (2007), did a longitudinal investigations testing whether parenting mediates longitudinal associations between marital conflict and children’s adjustment in a three-wave study design which included 283 families with children aged 8-16 years at wave 1. Relations between marital conflict, parenting which included psychological autonomy, behaviour control and warmth and children’s adjustment (internalizing and externalizing symptoms) were examined. Structural equation modelling showed multiple dimensions of parenting mediating relationships between marital conflict and children’s adjustment. When controls for earlier adjustment were included, behavioural control continued to mediate the relationship between marital conflict and change in children’s internalizing symptoms over time.

5. Studies associating externalizing and internalizing behaviour to marital conflict:

A longitudinal study by Lynn and Gottman (1993), on the patterns of marital conflict to predict children’s internalizing and externalizing behaviours was obtained through observational assessment of marital interaction during conflict resolution obtained when children were 5 year old predicted teachers’ rating of internalizing and externalizing behaviors when the children were 8 years old. They found that two distinct and uncorrelated marital interaction patterns were related to specific forms of outcomes. The mutually hostile pattern, which correlated with later marital dissolution, also predicted externalizing behaviour patterns in children 3 years later. The husband angry and withdrawn pattern predicted children’s internalizing behaviours. Marital satisfaction and child temperament did not relate to child outcomes, nor did they interact with marital patterns to produce deficits in child adjustment. The findings suggest that the specific behaviours couples use when resolving marital disputes may contribute differentially to the presence of externalizing and internalizing behavior patterns in children.
Emery and O’Leary (1982) studied the children’s perception of marital discord and behaviour problems of boys and girls. Children’s feelings of nonacceptance and their perceptions of their parents’ marital discord were related to parental measures of marital satisfaction and behaviour problem in children. In a sample of 50 clinic children, it was found that (1) marital discord, as predicted, was most strongly related to conduct problems in boys, (2) boys and girls perceived parental marital discord with equal and moderate accuracy, and (3) children’s feelings of non-acceptance were not significantly related to ratings of marital discord.

Cummings, (2003) investigated marital conflict styles as mediators in the associations between parental dysphoria and children’s internalizing symptoms. A community sample of 267 children, ages 8 to 16, participated with their parents. Behavioural observations were made of parents’ interactions during marital conflict resolution tasks. Questionnaires assessed parents’ dysphoria and children’s internalizing problems. Structural equation modelling indicated that marital discord, in particular, depressive conflict styles, mediated the relationship between parental dysphoria and children’s internalizing problems. Furthermore, whereas for dysphoric mothers, depressive conflict styles partially mediated the links with children’s internalizing, for fathers’, depressive conflict styles fully mediated the links. Destructive and constructive marital conflicts were associated with parental dysphoria, but did not mediate the relations with children’s internalizing.

Cummings et al., (2002), addressed the gap in methodological approaches to the study of links between marital conflict and children. 51 couples were trained to complete home diary reports on everyday marital conflicts and children’s responses. Parental negative emotionality and destructive conflict tactics related to children’s insecure emotional and behavioural responses. Parental positive emotionality and constructive conflict tactics were linked with children’s secure emotional responding. When parents’ emotions and tactics were considered in the same model, negative emotionality was more consistently related to children’s negative reactions than were destructive marital conflict tactics, whereas constructive conflict tactics were more consistently related to children’s positive reactions than parents’ positive emotionality. Differences in children’s responding as a function of specific parental negative emotions (anger, sadness, fear) and parent gender were identified.

Gordon et al., (1997), in two studies examined the children’s perception of family relationships to examine direct and indirect links between marital conflict and child adjustment in a sample of 146, sixth and seventh graders. Study 1 supported the direct and
indirect effects of marital conflict on internalizing behaviours in children and only a small evidence for indirect effects for externalizing behaviours. Study 2, which analysed the data from 451 families showed indirect effects of marital conflict to parent-child hostility. Through adolescent perception of such behaviour. Direct and indirect effects were found for boy’s concurrent internalizing behaviours.

Erath and Bierman (2006), studied the direct associations between aggressive marital conflict and child aggressive disruptive behaviour at home and school in a cross-sectional study of 360 kindergarten children. Also a mediated pathway linking aggressive marital conflict to maternal harsh punishment to child aggressive behaviour were examined. Hierarchical regression revealed that direct pathways linking aggressive conflict to child aggressive behaviour at home and school and a partially mediated pathway linking aggressive conflict to aggressive-disruptive behaviour at home. Further analyses revealed that rates of marital disagreement moderated the association between aggressive conflict and child aggressive behaviour at home.

Jekielek (1998), used data from the longitudinal survey of youth to understand the parental conflict, marital disruption and children’s emotional well-being. It was seen that both marital conflict and marital disruption increases later anxiety and depression/withdrawal of children aged 6-14. (n=1640), It was also children remaining in high conflict environment generally exhibit lower levels of well-being than children who have experienced high levels of conflict but whose parents’ divorce or separate. Therefore they concluded that the possibility of marital disruption following high conflict, may actually improve the emotional well-being of children relative to a high conflict status.

Patrick and Lisa (2004), studied the role of gender in the relationship between interparental conflict and adolescent psychological symptoms in a sample of 924 children between 10-15 year old and 172 of their mothers. It was seen that interparental conflict was a significantly stronger predictor of adolescent internalizing symptoms for girls than for boys across the type of informant. Further analyses revealed that girl’s tendencies to experience elevated levels of communion partly accounted for their greater vulnerability to interparental conflict.

The research in this area provides us an insight into the aspects of marital conflict and resolution strategies and its impact on children. It can be very well seen that overt marital conflict has a direct impact of either externalizing or internalizing symptoms with children. The symptoms and the intensity and impact differ from boys to girls. ROL also shows that
marital conflict also has an indirect relationship to problem behaviour in children, mediated through harsh parenting, due to parental stress or dysphoria. Problem behaviour can range from externalizing symptoms like aggression, violence and criminality to internalizing symptoms like, depression, anxiety, drugs and substance abuse. The Review of literature in this area stresses on the importance of handling conflicts in a constructive way which will provide children with positive coping mechanism, rather than destructive ways.

D. Parental supervision/monitoring and its impact on children

Studies on parental supervision/monitoring during middle childhood and adolescence has shown consistently that the lack of it leads to a lot of problem behaviours during adolescence like drugs, alcohol, and delinquency and so on. Parental monitoring is defined as “a set of parenting behaviours involving attention to and tracking of the child’s whereabouts, activities and adaptations.” (Dishion and Mcmohan 1998). Parental Supervision is a term used in research to have knowledge about the child. It is about knowing where your children are, what they are doing and who they are with. Below are some of the studies related to parental supervision/monitoring.

A study by Pettit et al., (2001) examined the early childhood antecedents and behaviour problem correlates of monitoring and psychological control. Parenting data were collected during home visit interviews with 440 mothers and their 13 year old children. Behaviour problems (anxiety, depression and delinquent behaviour) were assessed via mother, teacher, and/or adolescent reports at ages 8 through 10 years and again at ages 13 through 14. Home-interview data collected at age 5 years were used to measure antecedent parenting (harsh/reactive, positive/proactive), family background, and mother rated child behaviour problems. It was seen that, monitoring was antecedent by a proactive parenting style and by advantageous family ecological characteristics, and psychological control was anteceded by harsh parenting and by mother’s earlier reports of child externalizing problems. Consistent with earlier research, monitoring was associated with fewer delinquent behaviour problems.

A study by Cookston (1999), on parental supervision and family structure, studied single-mother, single-father, and intact families from homes ranging from low to high supervision. And they were compared to determine the effects of family structure and parental supervision on adolescent alcohol use, illicit drug use, and delinquency. Adolescent self-reports, scores were derived for adolescent problem behaviours and rates of supervision by resident parents.
Results indicate that supervision was lowest for single-father homes, was slightly higher in single-mother homes, and was highest in intact families. Results also indicate that alcohol and drug behaviours, as well as delinquency rates, were highest in single father homes. Finally, an interaction between supervision levels and sex of the participant indicates that for adolescent females low and medium levels of supervision serve to protect the adolescent female from problem behaviour involvement, while males evidenced higher levels of problem behaviours in both medium and low supervision groups.

Pettit, Bates Dodge, and Meece (1999), studied unsupervised peer contact in the after-school hours as a risk factor in the development of externalizing problems in a longitudinal sample of early adolescents. Parental monitoring, neighbourhood safety, and adolescents’ pre-existing behavioural problems were considered as possible moderators of the risk relation. It was seen that unsupervised peer contact, lack of neighbourhood safety, and low monitoring incrementally predicted grade 7 externalizing problems, after controlling for family background factors and grade 6 problems. The greatest risk was for those unsupervised adolescents living in low monitoring homes and comparatively unsafe neighbourhoods. The significant relation between unsupervised peer contact and problem behaviour in grade 7 held only for those adolescents who already were high in problem behaviour in grade 6.

A study by Flannery, Williams, Vazsonyi (1999) examined the relationship among after-school time, parental monitoring and problem behaviour in a sample of 1170 early adolescents. Those spending unsupervised time with peers reported higher levels of aggression, delinquency, substance abuse, and susceptibility to peer pressure, and lower levels of parental monitoring, than did adolescents at home with parents. Adolescents home alone after school were similar to those who spent time with adults or in school activities.

A study by Chilcoat and Anthony (1996) examined whether parental supervision and monitoring in middle childhood might have a sustained impact on risk of drug use later in childhood and adolescence. A sample of 926 urban-dwelling youths was individually interviewed annually, when the children were 8 to 10 year old, continuing through later years. Standardized questionnaires measured drug use, parenting behaviours and other suspected determinants of drug use. It was indicated that children in the lowest quartile of parent monitoring initiated drug use at earlier ages. The contrast in risk of initiating alcohol, tobacco, or other drug use across levels of parental monitoring was greatest when children were under 11 years old; at older ages there was no difference in risk. However in analysis
focused specifically on marijuana, cocaine and inhalant drugs, they observed a sustained higher risk of starting to use these drugs among youths who had been monitored at the lowest levels in middle childhood. They concluded that the results add to the chain of inference that effective supervision and monitoring in middle childhood by parents or guardians might induce delay or prevent onset of drug use among youths living in urban areas.

A study by Ary et.al (1999), studied the development of adolescent problem behaviour. Sample included longitudinal data from 523 adolescents. The problem behaviour included substance use, antisocial behaviour, academic failure and risky sexual behaviour. Families with high levels of conflict were less likely to have high levels of parent-child interaction or involvement. Such family conditions resulted in less adequate parental monitoring of adolescent behaviour, making associations with deviant peer more likely. Poor parental monitoring and associations with deviant peers were strong predictors of engagement in problem behaviour. These constructs accounted for 46% of the variance in problem behaviour. Although association with deviant peers was the most proximal social influence on problem behaviour, parental monitoring and family factors (conflict and involvement) were key parenting practices that influenced this developmental process.

A study by Laird, Pettit, Bates, and Dodge (2003), examined the links between parental knowledge and adolescent delinquent behaviour and were tested for correlated rates of developmental changes and reciprocal associations. For 4 years beginning at age 14, adolescents (N=396) reported on their delinquent behaviour and on their parents’ knowledge of their whereabouts and activities. Parents completed measures of their adolescents’ delinquent behaviour. Knowledge was negatively correlated with delinquent behaviour at baseline, and increases over time in knowledge were negatively correlated with increases in parent-reported delinquent behaviour. Reciprocal associations indicate that low levels of parental knowledge predict increases in delinquent behaviour and that high levels of delinquent behaviour predict decreases in parental knowledge.

A study by Ann et al., (1990) examined the relationships between parental monitoring and children’s school performance and conduct in 77 dual and 75 single-earner families, in which the eldest child was between 9 and 12 years old. During home interviews, mothers and fathers and children reported on children’s school grades, perceived academic competence, and perceived conduct. Parental monitoring (i.e., parental knowledge about children’s daily experiences) was assessed in 7 evening telephone interviews. Results indicated that less well-
monitored boys received lower grades than did other children. Less well-monitored boys in dual-earner families perceived their conduct more negatively than did other children, a pattern corroborated by parents’ reports.

Rai et al., (2003) studied the relative impact of monitoring and peer involvement among six cohorts of African-American youth in their mid-adolescence years. Data was collected from six cohorts involving 1279 low income African-American youth aged 13 to 16 years. Self-reported behaviours and perceptions of parental monitoring and peer risk-involvement were assessed through structured questions. Results showed that there was a rapid increase in sexual activity and substance use behaviours during mid-adolescence. Monitoring had a protective influence on substance use behaviours and sexual activity, but no impact on condom use or drug trafficking. Peer involvement influenced all evaluated risk behaviours. The influences overall did not statistically change over time. They concluded that despite the marked increase in risk behaviours during mid-adolescence, monitoring and peer involvement both influenced adolescent behaviours across each cohort.

Jacobson and Crockett (2000), studied the associations between parental monitoring and a variety of indicators of adolescent adjustment. Specifically the investigators examined whether higher levels of parental monitoring were associated with higher adolescent grade point average, lower levels of adolescent depression, and lower levels of adolescent sexual activity and minor delinquency, and whether these relations were moderated by gender, grade level or mother’s work status. 424 7th to 12th grade students were included as a sample. Correlations indicated that parental monitoring had strong associations with all indicators of adjustment for both boys and girls, with the exception of boy’s depression. Gender and age level simultaneously moderated the relation between parental monitoring and adolescent delinquency, with the effect of parental monitoring increasing across grade levels for boys, and decreasing with grade level with girls. Furthermore, maternal employment moderated the relationship between monitoring and adolescence delinquency and sexual behaviour. For both boy and girls, monitoring was a significant predictor of problem behaviours among adolescents whose mother worked full time. Thus effective monitoring may compensate for a lack of direct supervision. However, gender further moderated these associations. Specifically, the relation between monitoring and adjustment was also significant for girls when their mothers were not working and among boys when mothers’ worked at least part time.
Stattin and Kerr (2000) studied parental monitoring of 703, 14 year olds in central Sweden and their parents. They pointed out that monitoring measures typically assess parents’ knowledge but not its source, and parents could get knowledge from their children’s free disclosure of information as well as their own active surveillance efforts. They argued that parental knowledge came mainly from child disclosure, and child disclosure was the source of knowledge that was most closely linked to broad and narrow measures of delinquency. These results held for both children’s and parent’s reports, for both sexes, and were independent of whether the children were exhibiting problem behaviour or not. They concluded that tracking and surveillance is not the best prescription for parental behaviour and that a new prescription must rest on an understanding of the factors that determine child disclosure.

Borawski et al., (2003), compared two different parenting practices (parental monitoring and negotiated unsupervised time) and perceived parental trust in the reporting of health risk behaviour among adolescents. A sample of 692 adolescents in 9th grades was selected from the enrolled data in health education classes in six urban high schools. The adolescent’s perception of the degree on parental monitoring activities and their permission to negotiate unsupervised time with friends and the trust they feel that parents have on them were completed by a self-administered paper based survey. A logistic regression analysis, examined the relative importance of parental monitoring, negotiated unsupervised time with peers, and parental trust in predicting reported sexual activity, sex related protective actions and substance use. The results showed that for males and females, increased negotiated unsupervised time was strongly associated with less alcohol use and consistent condom use. Parental monitoring had no effect on female behaviour. Perceived parental trust served as a protective factor against sexual activity, tobacco, and marijuana use in females, and alcohol use in males. They concluded that although monitoring is an important practice for parents of older adolescents, managing their behaviour through negotiation of unsupervised time may have mixed results leading to increased experimentation with sexuality and substances, but perhaps in a more responsible way. Trust established between an adolescent female and her parents continues to be a strong deterrent for risky behaviours but appears to have a little effect on adolescent males.

Goldstein (1986), studied the relationship between parental composition (mother-father compared to mother-only families) and the likelihood of a youth demonstrating conduct problems in a sample of 12-17 year olds. The mediating effect of parental supervision of the
youths’ activities was also explored. Sex, income, and race were controlled. Youths from father-absent families were more likely to demonstrate conduct problems than those from father-present ones. However, it was the youths from father-absent households with low parental supervision who showed the greater likelihood of conduct problems. In households with a high degree of supervision, youths from father-absent families were no more likely than those from father-present families to demonstrate conduct problems.

A study by Li, Feigelman and Stanton (2000), examined the gender and age differences among urban, low-income, African-American children and adolescents in perceived monitoring by their parents and the association of perceived parental monitoring with family characteristics, health risk behaviours and risk perceptions. Three cross-sectional surveys were conducted in 1992 (n=455), 1994 (n=355) and 1996 (n=349). Respondents were aged 9-17 years from low-income urban areas. Low levels of perceived parental monitoring were associated with participation in several health risk behaviours, including sexual behaviour, substance/drug use, drug trafficking, school truancy, and violent behaviours. Females perceived themselves to be more monitored than did males. In general, the perceived parental monitoring tended to decrease with advancing age of youth. They concluded that inverse correlation between perceived parental monitoring and adolescent risk suggests that parental monitoring initiatives may be an effective intervention tool. They suggested that longitudinal studies are needed to determine the long-term relationship between perceived parental monitoring and adolescent risk involvement.

Fischer (1983), did a review of the literature in the area of parental supervision over their children and suggested that it is a significant variable in controlling the amount of delinquency, where high supervision leads to low delinquency. They say that this relationship remains when other factors such as mother’s affection, parental conflict parental aggression, father’s deviance or absence and father’s occupation are controlled. And also that it appears to be effective under extremely adverse conditions such as poverty, authoritarian and repressive methods of child rearing. Therefore they concluded that parental supervision as an essential ingredient and the need for it be further developed and evaluate it as a means of reducing delinquency.

Research in this area has consistently shown that parental supervision during childhood and mostly adolescence is positively correlated with academic achievement, behaviour control, less substance abuse and drug use, lower risky behaviours, lesser delinquent behaviour and
criminality. Hence parental monitoring or supervision is termed as ‘preventive science’ and also as a protective factor against problem behaviour in childhood and adolescence.

E. TV watching and aggressive behaviours in children

In the recent past there have been extensive studies in the area of TV usage or violent media and problem behaviours in children. As it’s known, the impact of media has its own advantages and disadvantages depending on the usage of this medium. In the West, there have been a lot of studies which has tried to understand the influence of media in children and adolescents. An exhaustive review of literature has been done and below given are some of the important researches in this area.

Bushman and Huesmann (2006), studied the short-term and long-term effects of violent media on aggression in children and adults. They used a meta-analytical design where participants were children younger than 18 years and adults. It was seen that the effects of violent media were greater for adults than for children, whereas the long-term effects were greater for children than for adults. The results also revealed an overall modest but significant effect sizes for exposure to media violence on aggressive behaviours, thoughts, angry feelings and arousal levels in children. They concluded that short term effects are mostly due to the priming of well-encoded scripts, which adults can do, whereas, long term effects require the learning of scripts schemas or beliefs, where children can encode new scripts, schemas and beliefs via observational learning with less interference and effort than adults.

Boxer et al., (2009), examined the role of violent media preference and the cumulative developmental risk for violence and general aggression. In their study, 820 youths, including 390 juveniles and 430 high school students were included as sample to study the relationship of violent media use to involvement in violence and general aggression. Criterion scores were used through cross-informant modelling of data from self, parent/guardian, teacher/staff. It was seen that childhood and adolescent violent media preferences contributed significantly to the prediction of violence and general aggression.

Ostrov, Gentile and Crick (2006), conducted a longitudinal study to understand the role of media exposure on concurrent and future aggressive and prosocial behaviour. The amount of media and the nature of content were used to predict various subtypes of aggression and prosocial behaviour. The two year longitudinal study found that media exposure predicted various subtypes of aggression and prosocial behaviour. It was seen that the parental reports
of media exposure was associated with relational aggression for girls and physical aggression for boys at school.

Huesmann et al., (2003), studied the longitudinal relations between children’s exposure to TV violence and their aggressive and violent behaviours in young adulthood. For this the longitudinal relations between TV violence viewing at the ages of 6 to 10 and adult aggressive behaviours about 15 years later was followed in the sample between 1970-1980. Follow up archival data (N=450) and interview data (N= 329), revealed that childhood exposure to media violence predicts young adult aggressive behaviour for both males and females. They concluded that identification with aggressive TV characters and perceived realism of violence also predict later aggression. They say that this relationship persisted even when the effects of socioeconomic status, intellectual ability and a variety of parenting factors are controlled.

Anderson et al., (2001) studied the early childhood television viewing and adolescent behavior. They reported the follow up of 570 adolescents who were studied as preschoolers in one of two separate investigations of television use. The primary goal of the study was to determine the long-term relations between preschool television viewing and adolescent achievement, behaviour and attitudes. Using telephone interview and high school transcripts, they assessed adolescent media use; grades in English, Science and Math; leisure reading; creativity; aggression; participation in extracurricular activities; use of alcohol and cigarettes; and self-image. In each domain they tested theories emphasizing the causal role of television content (social learning, information processing) as contrasted with those theories positing effects of television as a medium, irrespective of the content. The results provided much stronger support for the content based hypothesis than for the theories emphasizing television as a medium. Moreover patterns differed for both boys and girls. Viewing educational programs as pre-schoolers was associated with high grades, reading more books, placing more value on achievement, greater creativity, and less aggression. These associations were more consistent for boys than girls. By contrast, the girls who were more frequent preschool viewers of violent TV programs had lower grades than those who were infrequent viewers. These associations held true after taking into account family background, other categories of preschool viewing, and adolescent media use. Television content (e.g., entertainment, sports or world events) predicted extracurricular activities, role models and body image. The only evidence for possible effects of television as a medium was the positive relation of total
viewing to obesity for girls. They concluded that the medium of television is not homogenous or monolithic, and content viewed is more important than the raw amount.

Johnson et al., (2002), conducted a 17 year interval longitudinal study, to understand the television viewing and aggressive behaviour during adolescence and adulthood in a sample of 707 individuals. It was seen that there was a significant association between the amount of time spent watching television during adolescence and early adulthood and the likelihood of subsequent aggressive acts against others. They say that this associations remained significant after previous aggressive behaviour, childhood neglect, family income, neighbourhood violence, parental education were controlled statistically.

Ozmert et al., (2002), tried to understand the behavioural correlates of television viewing in primary school children evaluated by Child Behaviour checklist. In a cross-sectional survey, students from grades from 2 and 3, and their parents were selected for the sample. 888 second and third graders parents were sent questionnaires regarding child’s daily activities and the CBCL. It was seen that overall television viewing time had a negative correlation with social and school achievement. It was also seen that withdrawn, social problem, thought problem, attention problem, delinquent behaviour, aggressive behaviour and externalization scores were positively correlated with the time spent watching television. Logistic regression revealed that only significant variables associated with a risk of watching television for more than 2 hours were age, gender, social subscale, and attentional subscale scores of CBCL.

Christakis and Zimmerman (2007), studied the effect of violent television programme on pre-schooler’s behaviours and their antisocial behaviour at school age. Data for 184 boys and 146 girls were available. It was seen that after adjusting for baseline behavioural index scores and age, parental education, maternal depression and cognitive and emotional support, violent TV programs was associated with an increased risk for antisocial behaviour for boys, but not for girls. They saw that neither educational nor non-violent programs were associated with increased risk for boys and girls. It was concluded that viewing of violent programmes by pre-school boys was associated with subsequent aggression and hence the content viewed by young children may be more important to be understood.

Gentile, Coyne and Walsh (2011), studied the media violence, physical aggression, and relational aggression in school age children. 430 3rd-5th graders, their peers and their teachers were surveyed. It was seen that children’s consumption of media violence early in the school age predicted higher verbal, relational and physically aggressive behaviour, and also lesser
prosocial behaviour later in the school age. They also found that these effects were mediated by hostile attributional bias.

The above quoted studies which covers an exhaustive review of literature in the area, shows that the effect of violent television viewing has a definite long term and a short term impact on children’s aggressive and violent behaviours. It is also suggested in the review that more than the amount of time spent on watching television, content of what is watched has a significant positive or negative impact, depending on the nature of the content.

**F. Video gaming and aggressive behaviours in children**

The present era is an era of technology and virtual world, and hence gaming technology is a

A Meta analytic review by Anderson and Bushman (2001) on effects of violent video games on aggressive behaviour, aggressive cognition, aggressive affect, physiologic arousal, and prosocial behaviour. A meta-analytic review of the video game research literature reveals that violent video games increases behaviour in children and young adults. Experimental and non-experimental studies with males and females in laboratory and field settings support this concluded. Analyses also reveal that exposure to violent video games increases physiological arousal and aggression related thoughts and feelings. Playing violent video games also decreases pro social behavior.

Bushman and Anderson (2002), tested the General Aggression Model, on the exposure of violent video games and hostile expectations. They tested whether violent video games produce hostile expectation bias- i.e. the tendency to expect others to react to potential conflicts with aggression. Participants (N=224), played either a violent or nonviolent games, and later they read ambiguous story about potential interpersonal conflicts. They were then asked about what the main character will do, say, think, and feel as the story continues. It was seen that people who played violent game described the main character as behaving more aggressively and thinking more aggressive thoughts and feeling more angry than did people who played a nonviolent game.

Gentile et al., (2004), studies the of violent video game habits on adolescent hostility, aggressive behaviour and school performance. Six hundred and seven, 8th grade and 9th grade students participated in the study. It was seen that adolescents who expose themselves to greater amount of video game violence were more hostile, reported getting into arguments with teachers, had more physical fights, and also performed poorly in schools. Mediational
pathways suggested that hostility mediated the relationship between violent games exposure and outcomes.

Anderson et al., (2010), conducted a Meta analytical study the violent video games effect on aggression, empathy, and prosocial behaviour in Eastern and Western countries. It was seen that the Meta analyses yielded significant effects for all the six outcomes, which was aggressive behaviour, aggressive cognition, aggressive affect, physiological arousal, empathy/desensitization and prosocial behaviour. They suggested that the pattern of results for different outcomes and research designs fit the theoretical predictions very well. It was very well seen that the evidence strongly suggested that exposure to violent video games is a causal risk factor for increased aggressive behaviour, aggressive cognition, and aggressive affect and decrease in prosocial behaviour and empathy. Moderator analyses revealed significant research design effects, weak evidence in cultural differences in susceptibility.

A survey was conducted by Emil and Weigman (1997), among 346 school children from the 7th and 8th grade of 7 elementary schools, to examine possible positive and negative effects of playing video games. Analysis revealed that playing video games did not appear to take place at the expense of children’s other leisure activities, social integration, and school performance. A gender difference arose: Boys spent more time playing video games than did girls. There was no significant relationship between the amount of time children spent on video games and aggressive behaviour. A negative relationship between time spent playing video games and pro social behaviour was found; however, this relationship did not appear in separate analysis in boys and girls. Furthermore, a positive relationship was found between time spent on video games and a child’s intelligence.

Sherry (2001) did a meta-analytical study on the effects of violent video games on aggression. This study cumulates findings across existing empirical research on the effects of violent video games to estimate the overall effect size and discern important trends and moderating variables. Results suggest there is a smaller effect of violent video games on aggression than has been found with television violence on aggression. This effect is positively associated with type of game violence and negatively related to time spent playing the games.

Wiegman and VanSchie (1998) studied the video game playing and its relations with aggressive and pro social behaviour. They studied 278 children from the seventh and eighth grade of five elementary schools. The relationship between the amount of time children spent
on playing video games and aggressive as well as pro social behaviour was investigated. In addition, the relationship between the preference for aggressive video games and aggressive and pro social behaviour was studied. No relationship was found between the video game uses in general and aggressive behaviour, but a significant negative relationship with pro social behaviour was supported. However separate analysis for boys and girls did not reveal this relationship. More consistent results were found for the preference for aggressive video games: Children especially boys, who preferred aggressive video games, were more aggressive and showed less pro social behaviour than those with a low preference for this game. Further analysis showed that children who preferred playing aggressive video games tended to be less intelligent.

Polman, Castro, VanAken (2008), did an experimental study which was aimed at investigating the differential effects of actively playing vs. passively watching the same violent video game on subsequent aggressive behaviour. Fifty-seven children aged 10-13 either played a violent video game (active violent condition), watched the same violent video game (passive violent condition), or played a non-violent video game (active non-violent condition). Aggression was measured through peer nominations of real-life aggressive incidents during a free play session at school. After the active participation of actually playing the violent video game, boys behaved more aggressively, than the boys in the passive gaming condition. The same relationship did not hold good for girls. These findings indicate that, specifically for boys, playing a violent video game should lead to more aggression than watching television violence.

Funk et al., (2004), tried to understand violence exposure in real-life, video games, television and internet and its impact on desensitization. 154, 5th graders were recruited as samples and they completed measures of real life violence exposure, media violence exposure, empathy and attitudes towards violence. Regression analyses indicated that only exposure to video games was associated with lower empathy. Both video games and movie violence exposure were associated with stronger pro-violence attitudes. They concluded that the active nature of playing video games, intense engagement, and the tendency to be translated into fantasy play might explain the negative impact, though they say that causality was not investigated in the present design.

Bartholow and Anderson (2002), in their experimental design, studied the effects of violent video games on aggressive behaviour. They examined how playing a violent video game
affected levels of aggression displayed in the laboratory in a total of 43 undergraduate students and were randomly assigned to play either a violent or a nonviolent video game for 10 mins. The results showed that playing the violent game would result in more aggression than would playing the nonviolent game. Also that the effect was larger for men than for women.

Moller and Krahe (2009), studied the relationship between exposure to violent games and aggressive cognitions and behaviour in a longitudinal design. A sample size of 295 German adolescents completed the measures of violent video game usage and the endorsement of aggressive norms, hostile attribution bias and physical as well as indirect aggression. A subsample of N=143, was measured again 30 months later. Results showed a direct relationship between violent game usage and aggressive norms, and an indirect link to hostile attributional bias through aggressive norms. Longitudinal analysis also showed that violence exposure at T1 predicted physical aggression 30 months later, but aggression at T1 was not related to later video game usage. Exposure to violent games at T1 influenced physical aggression at T2 via increase of aggressive norms and hostile attributional bias.

Anderson et al., (2004), studied the effects of violent video games and its specific effects of violent content on aggressive thoughts and behaviour. It was seen in experiment 1 that violent video games in general increase the accessibility to aggressive thoughts. Experiment 2 and 3 found that playing violent video games increased aggression, even when arousal and affect were controlled. It was also found that trait hostility and trait aggression were positively related to laboratory aggression. There was also correlational evidence for repeated exposure to violent video games and trait aggressiveness. They concluded that there exists links among habitual exposure to violent video games and persistent aggressive cognitions and aggressive behaviour.

Ferguson et al., (2008), in his study examined the relationship between exposure to violent video games and aggression or violence in the laboratory or real life. Study 1 participants were either randomized or were allowed to choose to play a violent or a non-violent game. It was seen that although males were more aggressive than females, neither randomized exposure to violent games or previous real-life exposure to violent games caused any differences in aggression. Study 2 examined the correlations between trait aggression, violent acts, and exposure to both violent games and family violence. Structural equation modelling suggested that family violence and innate aggression as predictors of violent crime than
exposure to violent games. Therefore they say that these results questioned the common belief that violent video games causes violent acts.

Anderson and Dill (2000), conducted 2 studies which examined the violent video game effects on aggression related variables. It was found in study 1 that real-life violent video game was positively related to aggressive behaviour and delinquency. It was seen that the relationship was stronger for individuals who were characteristically aggressive and for men. It was also seen that academic achievement was negatively related to overall amount of time spent playing video games. In study 2, it was seen that the laboratory exposure to a graphically violent video increased aggressive thoughts and behaviour. Hence it was concluded that exposure to violent videos will increase aggressive behaviour both in the short term and in the long term.

Bartholow et al., (2005), studied the correlates and consequences of exposure to video game violence. A correlational study showed that video game exposure is positively related to the self-reports of aggressive behaviours in individuals. A laboratory experiment showed that individuals low in violent video game exposure behave more aggressively after playing a violent video game than after a non-violent video game, but it was seen that those in high violent video exposure display higher levels of aggression regardless of the game content. Mediational analysis showed that trait hostility, empathy and hostile perceptions partially accounted for the violent video game exposure on aggression. They concluded that repeated exposure to violent video games increases aggression via changes in cognitive and personality factors associated with desensitization.

Unsworth, Devilly, Ward (2007), studied the effect of video games on adolescents, where they try to address the confusion in various research findings that claims that violent games increase the aggression effects in adolescents, where other researchers found that there was no detrimental or positive effects from game playing. In their study, adolescents played a violent video game and their measures of anger were taken both before, during and after the game play. The results showed that some people increase, some decrease and the majority show no change in their anger ratings. They also demonstrated that these changes were mediated by the player’s feelings immediately prior to the game and their temperament, one predisposed to aggression, and they say that these variables predict people’s reactions to gaming with an average 73% concordance rate.
Ivory and Kalyanaraman (2007), studied the possible impact of technological advancement on video games effect, and particularly violent games. 120 participants were exposed to either a newer or older version of a violent or a nonviolent game and measured the factor effects on players’ sense of presence, involvement, physiological arousal, self-reported arousal and cognitive aggression. Results indicated that technological advancement increased the participant’s sense of involvement, presence and physiological and self-reported arousal. They say that neither advancement nor violence had statistically significant effects on accessibility of player’s aggressive thoughts, but there was some evidence that violent gaming increased player’s state hostility.

The literature review in the area of gaming on the gadgets and aggressive behaviour in children show mixed results, where some studies say that the impact or the influence of habitual violent video gaming does have an impact on the aggressive thoughts, cognitions and hostile perceptions which can mediate the effect of gaming on aggressive behaviours. It is also seen that there are contradictory results and suggestions from the researchers on the same, where they conclude that the influence of violent video gaming on children would not necessarily lead to aggressive behaviours, but can increase other intellectual and visuospatial abilities in them. And they also argue that the influence of the exposure to violent media is much more than the influence of exposure to violent video gaming.

G. Indian studies

In the area of aggressive behaviours and the factors associated, there are only a handful of published Indian studies which have been found relevant. Below mentioned are a few which is found after an exhaustive literature search.

A study by Dutt et al., (2013), studied the magnitudes and types of aggressive behaviour in school children and the influence of age and sex on aggressive behaviour in a rural area of West Bengal. The participants were 161 boys and 177 girls of classes 7th and 9th. The students were asked to complete a self-administered questionnaire indicating the types of aggressive behaviour by them in the previous month (verbal/physical). They concluded that overall, 66.55% of the children were physically aggressive in the previous month: Boys 75.8%, girls 58.2%; 56.8% were verbally aggressive: Boys 55.2% and girls 61%. Verbal indirect passive aggression was more common among girls. With increasing age/class, physical direct aggression decreased while physical indirect passive and verbal indirect
passive aggression increased. They concluded that aggressive behaviour was common both among boys and girls. Research needs to be carried out on the factors associated with aggressive behaviour and reasons for aggression.

Bjorkqvist et al., (2001) investigated the aggressive behaviour of Indian adolescents of three age groups: 8, 11, and 15 years of age, using Direct and indirect aggression scale (DIAS). It consisted of adolescents from three religious groups from Delhi: Hindu, Muslims and Sikhs. Sex differences in the aggressive behaviour were one focus of the study, besides age differences. 677 adolescents (284 girls and 393 boys) of three age groups and of different religious background: Hindu (n=411), Muslim (n=87), and Sikh (n=179). The results showed that there are relatively high levels of aggression among Sikh children aged 8 and 11, especially physical aggression among Sikh boys. The exceptionally low levels of female aggression were seen in the sample. Sex differences in aggression appear to be greater in India than in the West. Perhaps Women in India are oppressed to such an extent that they have to suppress their aggression more than Western women.

Datta and Firdoush (2012), studied the association of aggression with socio-demographic characteristics in a cross sectional study among rural youth. The present study was conducted to find out different socio-demographic characteristics association with aggression among adolescents. The community based cross sectional study was conducted in Ramnagar, Jalapura, and Rasalpur villages of Singur block of Hoogly district of West Bengal in Eastern India. The study included adolescents aged between 15 and 19 years of age. To assess aggression, Direct and Indirect aggression scale (DIAS) was used. Results showed that a high proportion of adolescents scored very high in DIAS scale. Total aggression score was significantly higher among older adolescents (18-19 years), among males, among adolescents belonging to lower income groups, and whose mothers were working. Physical aggression score was significantly higher in younger adolescents, but other types of aggression were found to be significantly higher among older group.

Munni and Malhi (2006) did an exploratory study to investigate the prevalence and demographic characteristics of the witnesses, victims and perpetrators of violence in a high school sample and to see if any gender differences existed. The impact on their psycho-social adjustments was also examined. Cross sectional survey design using an anonymous self-report questionnaire was employed. This was administered to high school students in the year 2001-2002 which elicited demographic details and data regarding different aspects of
violence exposure: witness, victim, and perpetrator. Recent exposure to violence was measured by directly asking the children to report violence they had experienced or witnessed personally over the past year. Exposure to verbal abuse was enquired, and the settings in which the violence occurred were probed e.g. school, home, neighbourhood. Media exposure was studied by asking them about the duration of viewing per day, and their preference of shows and movies. Violence committed by the adolescents was measured by asking them to self-report along a five-point scale during past one year. The pre-adolescent adjustment scale (PAAS) was used to assess the psycho social adjustments of the students towards home, school, teachers, peers and general issue. The sample consisted of 1500 students from classes 8th to 12th of 10 government schools of Chandigarh. Mean age was 15 years and gender distribution was almost equal. Results showed that 1013 adolescents had witnessed some form of violence in real life. The maternal educational status of the witnesses was significantly low, those who witnessed violence had poor academic achievement, they were also poorly adjusted at home and with teachers, and males were worse than females. Victimization by at least one violent act was reported by 27% of the respondents of which 7% were of serious nature, that they were bruised or injured. Overall adjustment of victims was lesser. The victimized girls had significantly more adjustment problems. Thirteen percent students self-reported violent behaviours and 60% were engaged in physical fights at a frequency of more than once per week. Maximum fights happened at school (74%), followed by neighbourhood and lastly at home. The perpetrators were generally those who enjoyed seeing more action and violence oriented in television and movies and for a longer duration of time, boys reported higher rate of violence towards others than girls. They concluded that violence is exposure at school is alarming, in a situation of adolescents in a peaceful urban setting. Therefore they say it is important to assess what causes violence among children and adolescents, and to identify the risk factors, so that suitable measures can be taken to stem the tide of associated morbidity and mortality.

Talebi, and Verma (2007), Examined the factors related to aggression in Iranian and Indian school children. Attachment security was the independent variable considered. Kerns Attachment security scale (KSS) was administered for 600 students in the 5th grade; 300 were Iranian and 300 were Indian (each consisting 150 boys and 150 girls). The results showed that attachment security demonstrated significant negative correlations with aggression in the boys, girls and the total Iranian sample. The girls’ dependency on mothers was the only case with insignificant correlations. In the Indian sample, attachment security
was also found to be negatively correlated with aggression. The only exception was the correlation between mothers’ availability and aggression in girls, which was not significant. They concluded that it is important that parents treat their children in a tender, loving manner so that a secure attachment develops between them.

Sharma (2012), studied the aggressive behaviour in university students, and explored the relationship of it to the family environment. A total of 400 students (200 males and 200 females) participated in the study. They were Indian students drawn from different departments of Himachal Pradesh University, Shimla. They were randomly selected from the classes. Direct and indirect aggression scales (DIAS) and the family environment scale was used to collect data. Each student was given the DIAS, to rate their peer under options they felt were relevant for him/her. Males rated males and females rated females. In the case of family environment scale, subjects were instructed to rate their own family environment. The results demonstrated that family environment affected aggressive behaviour and reported some different correlates of aggressive behaviours of males and of females.

Sharma and Marimuthu (2014), studied the prevalence and psychosocial factors of aggression among youth. 5476 participants were surveyed on anger data sheets, resilience scale and Buss-Perry aggression scale. It was seen that 17.7% of youth had high mean aggression scores. Males experienced more verbal, physical aggression and anger than females. Younger age group experienced more aggression than older age group. The risk factors for aggression were identified as physical abuse in childhood, substance abuse, negative peer influence, family violence, academic disturbance, ADHD, suspicion, disturbance, negative childhood experience and TV and media.

Dasgupta and Ghosh (2012), studied the psychological correlates of aggression among adolescents. They investigated the relationship between aggression and each of the variables namely, personality, emotional quotient and parental bonding. 100 adolescents from different English medium schools participated and the results showed that there is a relationship between aggression and personality, emotional quotient and parental bonding.

Johal and Kaur (2015), examined the relationship between aggression of adolescents and their parental behaviour. 155 students from senior secondary classes were selected from CBSE schools. Aggression was measured by aggression scale, and parenting behaviour by multidimensional parenting scale. The results showed that there was a significant positive relationship between aggression among adolescents and deviant parental behaviour. It was
also found in the study that parents show more deviant parenting towards girls than boys in some dimensions. In boys it was seen that only one dimension, i.e., democraticism of parental behaviour was associated with aggression, whereas all the other parenting behaviours did not show significant association, whereas for girls, only dominance of parental behaviour showed significant association with aggressive behaviour in girls.

Shayesteh, Hejazi and Foumany (2014), studied the relationship between parenting styles and adolescent’s identity and aggression. A descriptive-correlational study method was used to understand the relationship between parenting styles and adolescent aggression and identity. 200 Adolescents (100 male and 100 female) aged 14-18 years, along with their parents were taken as sample for the study. It was seen that the relationship between parenting styles and adolescent aggression was not significant, but it was seen that the relationship between parenting styles and identity formation, was significant, where democratic parenting had a relationship with the formation of premature identity subscale, diffusion and advanced. And authoritarian parenting style had a relationship with all identity subscales and permissive parenting had a relationship with the formation of identity, diffusion and premature identity. Therefore they concluded that parenting styles or child rearing practices were a significant factor in identity formation and not in development of aggression.

Sharma and Sandhu (2006), studied the association between parenting dimensions and externalizing behaviours in children. Data from middle class families from Patiala (N=240), were collected from schools and families. Parents completed the parenting dimensions questionnaire and externalizing behaviours of children. Results indicated that the analysis of variance for parenting variables showed significant differences for age and gender on indulgence, punitive, physical coercion, and verbal hostility parenting dimensions. Correlations between non-reasoning, verbal hostility, physical coercion, autonomy and indulgence parenting and externalizing behaviours were significantly positive, whereas regulation and connection parenting dimensions showed a significant negative correlations with externalizing behaviours. Multiple regression analysis showed that autonomy, nonreasoning and indulgence parenting dimensions predicted externalizing behaviours in children.

The above quoted studies in the area of aggressive behaviour in children and adolescents in India indicates that there has been a lacunae in the published studies in this area and only a handful of studies point out towards parenting behaviours and aggression in children. And
studies which have been quoted and reviewed shows that aggressive behaviour is an issue which is becoming prevalent by the day and parental awareness programs and school awareness programs to educate parents and schools about the prevalence, course and outcomes of this behaviour is important to curtail it at an early stage.

**H. Need for the study**

In the present day Indian scenario we see an alarming proportion of children in schools displaying externalizing behaviours displayed through aggressive behaviour like, hitting, kicking, biting, scratching, destructive behaviours, teasing or verbally abusive language towards children and adults. Often these behaviours go unnoticed or ignored or even overlooked by schools and teachers. Sometimes they are tackled through some sort of inconsistent punishments and many of the times the issues are escalated to the parents, where parents, perhaps, are not ready to take the blame or work towards it, since they might feel defensive about their child. The reasons for the ineffective ways of dealing with these behaviours may be, one, lack of awareness in handling these issues, two, lack of time due to acute academic pressures and deadlines on schools and teachers, and three, non-availability of the resources to deal with these problem behaviours. All these reasons might have led to the increase of these behaviours in schools. To help the schools and parents understand aggressive behaviours and the factors which might influence these behaviours in children, the present study tries to, in the first place, identify aggressive behaviours in schools through teachers and understand the nature of aggressive behaviours in children and then try to find the influence of parenting variables and family environment on the display of these aggressive behaviours in children.

The reviewed studies in the Indian context show that aggressive behaviour is highly prevalent in young children and adolescents in schools. The Review of Literature in the West and other counterparts show that externalizing behaviours and specifically aggressive behaviours have been vastly researched in various theoretical and empirical studies. As seen in the Western studies reviewed, various factors have been studied to understand the relationship of the variables like parenting, conflict in family, temperament, peers, neighbourhood, media, video games to aggressive behaviours in children and adolescents. Causal mechanisms are also very well investigated in many of these studies. In the Indian scenario, these researches are in a nascent stage and there is a large gap between the studies in the west and in India. The current study tries to address this gap by doing an ex post facto study design, by choosing
samples of children who display aggressive behaviour in school and to explore the association of the same with family variables chosen by the researcher. As there are not many published studies in the Indian population on these variables and aggressive behaviours, the present study becomes exploratory in nature. The study focuses on the factors related to family and home like, parenting styles, supervision, marital conflict, usage of TV and gaming on gadgets. The rationale for the variables chosen for the present study has been discussed in the next section.

In the current socio-cultural situation in India, we are witnessing a lot of crime and cruelty against women and children, where in many of the cases the offenders are juveniles and youngsters, which is very alarming. This trend seen will surely shake the balance of the society. Therefore it is very important to take measures which will arrest this trend of minors getting into criminal and antisocial activities. As discussed in the earlier section, studies shows that, there is very less evidence for late onset of delinquent behaviour (Brame et al., 2003) and it usually sets in as ‘problem behaviour’ in early childhood and if not tackled at that time continues into adolescence and also adulthood (Nagin, D.S & Tremblay et al., 2003; Thompson et al., 2011). It is therefore important to identify children who are high on aggressive tendencies early in their childhood, and curtail them at the onset. To control this behaviour, it is important to have an understanding of the factors which lead to these behaviours. Hence this study intends to explore the factors that might influence the aggressive behaviour in children.

Elementary school children are selected as the population for this study, as it is seen that children, very young, between the ages of 2 to 4 years are very unpredictable and unstable in terms of behavior. And the behaviour is also usually overlooked and accepted as “terrible twos or “he/she will grow out of it” and so on. Therefore it could be perhaps seen that by the time of school entry, the child’s behaviour tends to get crystallized and the child starts recognizing the consequences of behaviour and understand what is acceptable and what is not, how to inhibit some behaviours, and how to express others. Hence by the time they are into elementary school, the deviant or problem behaviours are easy to notice and recognize as problematic.

It is generally seen that the role of parents is very crucial in the development of children. Children tend to see their parents as their role models to learn behaviour. The way the parents handle them, discipline them, provide understanding and warmth is perhaps understood to be
very essential for a balanced development. Hence this study tries to understand parenting and disciplining styles, which is an important aspect of parenting. Although there is always a confusion of how much influence a parent can have on their child in the present era, and the studies in the area of parenting and aggressive behaviours also give some contradicting results, the researcher feels that it becomes important to understand the role of parents in the child’s developing of problem behaviours in schools.

The amount of time parents spend with their kids, quality versus quantity of time the parents spend to get to know the activities and happenings in their child’s day to day life is also important for the parents, as this will help the parents to know their child better. As is seen in the present context in India, we can notice that there is an increasing proportion of population where both the spouses are working. Some of the arguments say that since parents are away for long hours, they may not be able to provide kids with adequate amount of supervision. It is also sometimes seen that even with non-working or stay-at-home mothers, children are many times unsupervised, because of their other preoccupation. Hence it is important to study the supervision practices of parents on kids, to understand if it has a relationship with their aggressive behaviour.

Marriages in our culture are now-a-days seen to be undergoing a transformation. These days both men and women are competing in every field; some of it can be seen in the marriages also. There are some who opine that since both the spouses are sharing equal responsibility of the family and finances, they may get into competing with each other and compromising on priorities in their life. This may lead to disturbances in their family life due to stress, which in turn might lead to overt and covert ongoing conflicts in the marriage. This might affect the kids adversely. This view makes it important to study the conflict present in the couple, their resolution strategies, and the relationship with aggressive behaviour of their children.

With the advancement in technology these days, there are a lot of advantages and also disadvantages which are associated with it. Now-a-days we see that children tend to get hooked on to internet, games and TV, at the cost of free play or outdoor activities. These tendencies in kids are creating a lot of stress and worry amongst parents. Some of the views say that this behavior in kids, where they are always attached to the fantasy and the non-real world, would be detrimental to their overall growth and development. It is also a fact that these days most of the TV shows and games portray a lot of violence and negative behaviors.
And hence it becomes important to understand the amount of impact these has on children on their aggressive behaviour.

Therefore these factors emerge very important in the current socio-cultural scenario and hence the need to study these factors in relation to aggressive behaviour in children. The current study focuses on the aggressive behaviours of elementary school children, ages 5-10 years, displayed in schools. The researcher has chosen schools to identify aggressive behaviour, since it is a setting where children spend more than 1/3rd of their time, and it is also a place where children get a lot of opportunity to display their learnt behaviour. Hence it becomes easy to observe behaviours which are deviant or problematic to the teachers or to the peers. Hence private schools from Bangalore city are chosen to choose the sample of aggressive children.

Therefore the present study found it relevant to explore the above mentioned factors in relationship with aggressive behaviours displayed by children in schools. To explore the above relationships the researcher tried to form null hypotheses to each of the variables related to home and parenting to aggressive behaviour of children displayed in schools. Null hypotheses was chosen for this since it was understood through the review of literature and past researches, that there was a lacunae in the available published studies in India which has dealt with these variables in association with aggression. And hence it could be treated as an exploratory research in an ex post facto study design.