CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF STUDIES

Research on aggression seems to fall in discrete and somewhat overlapping categories so that an account of the various shades of research turns out to be a difficult affair. The ways these studies may be classified vary from reviewer to reviewer depending upon their respective biases and emphases. For example, some of them, such as Edmunds & Kendrick (1980), finds the narrative of aggression research more economical in terms of the theories of aggression, anchoring studies on the problem with biological, drive and social learning approaches. Geen & O'Neal (1976) deal with aggression research under what they call "the antecedent" "intervening" and "outcome" variables. Mummendey (1984), on the other hand, has discussed research on aggression following important definitions of aggression, namely, behavioural, attributional, release of energy and skill. Each one of these has its merits but they are not self-sufficient. Moreover, following either of these in the strict sense will not present a balanced view of the body of research on aggression. These classification schemes within themselves do not follow mutually exclusive categories, leading to glossing over and confounding, giving an impression
that a certain study under a category could belong to the other category equally well.

Faced with the problem of breaking the diverse research on aggression into well defined classes, the only economical course seems to be that the review should be presented on the basis of the actual problem pursued, notwithstanding the underlying concept and theory. This review, therefore, is intended to offer on account of the various studies on aggression under the categories drawn from the studies.

Although the effort has been to avoid overlap, as far as possible, it may be there due to the nature of certain studies which could not be neatly thrashed out because of the complexity of methodology involved or the nature of variables taken up for investigation.

**Frustration Aggression** :-

Sharma & Sharma (1977) studied sex differences in frustration reaction among 50 boys and 50 girls using an Indian adaptation of the Rosenzweig P. F. study. Differences in conformity rating, direction and type of frustration reaction, and superego patterns were determined. Sex differences were found in the direction of
aggression and superego patterns.

Berkowitz’s hypothesis that even when the aggressors themselves were not insulted, the instigating remarks about the victims increased the amount of aggression was confirmed by Kool & Kumar (1977) in a study on 60 male and female subjects.

Aggressive behaviour by means P.F. study was studied by Rosenzweig (1976) among children at different developmental levels among adolescent and adults. Aggression was conceived as self assertive, affirmative or negative, destructive in effect. The direction and type for aggression were categorised into six and three classes respectively resulting into 9 scoring factors. Prognostic validity of the test was demonstrated for behaviour disorders, psychosomatic conditions, delinquency, school adjustment, and a variety of social and vocational problems.

Male and female subjects of preschool and adolescent were subjected to differentially noxious noise burts who aggressed against a male or female P.F. figure (Poorman, Donnerstein & Donnerstein, 1976). Aggression by or toward females was relatively stable over age while aggression by males toward other males showed a marked increased with age.
Sandidge and Friedland (1975) tested the hypothesis that subjects taking the role of male figure would display greater anti-social aggression as compared to girls. The findings supported the sex role interpretation of the expression of aggression.

Spielberg & Rutkin (1974) investigated the effects of P.F. Peer Vs. adult frustration on aggressive response of 36, 8 years old boys. The effects of frustration Vs. non-frustration on aggressive response were also tested. In peer condition more aggression was expressed than in adult condition on the basis of P.F. study's children form. Frustration in general gave rise to stronger aggression. Boys of middle childhood were more sensitive to and exhibited greater aggression to peer frustration than adult frustration. Results supported Dollard and other's frustration hypothesis.

Sinha (1973) studied the possibility that the direction of aggression and reaction type may be partially determined by such variables as achievement and sex. The results also seemed to suggest that high achievement males scored significantly higher than the high achievement females on need-persistence and significantly lower on impunitiveness and ego-defence.
That similarity between frustrater and aggressor was related to self directed aggression was looked into by Pigg and Geen (1971). The subject who was somewhat similar to his attacker tended to display greater strength of self punitive behaviour. A high similarity between subject and attacker appeared to cause greater conflict prior to self punitive behaviour. Instigation to self aggression was greatest when the subject perceived high similarity between himself and the attacker.

Effects of frustration, attack and prior training in aggressiveness upon aggressive behaviour were observed by Geen (1968) on 120 subjects. Prior reinforcement for shocking was found to interact with the frustration insult variable across blocks of trials. Result for discussed in terms for frustration produced arousal as an activater of responses elicited by aggressive cues.

Buss (1966), in his study of frustration as determinant of physical aggressive found a negative evidence. Among the many variables which showed their effects frustration was the only variable which did not effect aggression, questioning both the definition of frustration and the frustration aggression relationship.

To study intrafamilial similarity in frustration
aggression patterns, Reck Mc-Cary and Weatherly (1969) administered the child and adult forms of P.F. study to all members (parents and 8 years - 12 years old sons and daughters) of 18 religious families. Results indicated that no similarity existed in the form of expressing aggression between family members.

Otis and Mc Candless (1955) differentiated certain need areas of young children in their responses to repeated frustrations. Independent ratings of the children for strength of love affection and power dominance needs were obtained. Children high in power dominance need showed higher total dominance score during frustration. Children high in love affection need showed smaller total score.

Modelling Aggressive Behaviour:

In a study of 5 year old boys of socialization of aggression, Henry (1982) found support for the view that the difference between the "liberal" conscience and "authoritarian" conscience reflected a difference in defenses against hostile impulses.

Whether parent child interaction played a part in television violence and aggression among children was addressed to by Eron (1982). The relationship between
aggression and television violence was supported in two
distant areas and was also found to hold for both boys
and girls. Among the factors that contributed to increase
in aggressiveness were aggressive fantasy, extent of
physical punishment, rejection by parents, and parent's
approval of attitude and behaviours seen in sociopathic
individual.

Kulik and Brown (1979) studied the relationship
between aggression on the one hand and attribution and
blame on the other. Aggression was found to increase in
accordance with attributions of blame, and greater blame
was attributed to another in response to inadequately
justified thwarting than to adequately justified ones.
Anger and other directed aggression were greatest in
response to unjustified thwarting.

Mandel (1978) investigated the aggressive beha-
viour of young children after viewing filmed aggression
which the adults watching the films, either approved or
disapproved. Children who had viewed aggressive films
that were verbally approved saw greater aggression than
those who saw these films with comments of disapproval.
Children, watching filmed aggression alone than with others
were more aggressive.
The influence upon imitative aggression of an imitative peer was studied by Carroll and Others (1977) to test whether the behaviour of peers who also may have been the model's behaviour may be decisive in producing disinhibition for imitative aggression to occur. Among the other observations one was that the young boys imitated more and were motionless in the presence of the peer who also was imitative, indicating a stronger relationship with the model's behaviour who was aggressive.

To examine the relationship between aggressive behaviour in children and their parent's perception, Bogaard (1976) tested the hypothesis that the mothers of children with conduct problem would be different from others of normally behaving children in the way they perceived their children's behaviour.

Harris and Hung (1974) demonstrated that subjects who were let to believe that external causes were responsible for their arousal behaviour reacted less aggressively than those who attributed their arousal as due to their insult.

Reaction to aggression related stimuli following reinforcement of aggression in a sample of male subjects were studied by Geen & Stonner (1973). Reinforced
subjects reacted more aggressively towards having stronger connotations than non-reinforced subjects, but this difference was not there for words with weaker connotations for aggression.

Baron (1972) studied the restraining effect of P.F. censure in reducing the influence of an aggressive model. An interesting finding was that censure of the model by a disliked peer was more effective in inhibiting subsequent aggression on the part of observers than censure by a liked peer.

Whether implicit aggressive verbalization would facilitate aggressive reaction to a movie violence was studied by Turner & Berkowitz (1972). The subjects identifying with the fight victor were more aggressive to the confederate than either those taking the role of the judge or the control subjects within the group identifies with the film aggressor. Also, identification with the film aggressor also enhanced hostility toward the experimenter.

Martin, Gelfand and Hartmann (1971) investigated the effects of adult and peer observers on boys' and girls' responses to an aggressive model. Boys were more aggressive than girls both alone and with another person. Subjects' aggressive response showed an increase all through in the free play session when a permissive adult was present.
Stewart (1971) examined the role functions of peers and adults on socializing agents on dimensions of aggression. Peer related experiences were found to be representative of exposure to modeling and reinforcement contingencies associated with aggression, while report of teacher behaviour were least representative of there dimension.

Kniventon & Stephenson (1970) conducted a study to investigate the effects of pre-experience on imitation of aggression film model. The hypothesis to be tested was that the effect of a film models on young children play behaviour is greater for a child who had no previous experience in the situation portrayed than for a child who had previously played there. The results indicate that imitation is reduced when there is experience in the situation prior to presituation of the film model.

A relationship between acquisition of a hostile attitude and aggressive behaviour was determined by Loew (1967). Results indicated that differential training of aggressive verbalizations was effective in producing differential physical aggression. However, there was no evidence for the differential effects of the frustrating conditions. The conclusion was that hostile responses mediated overt aggressive behaviour.
Bandura and Others (1963), studied imitations of film mediated aggressive models to test the hypothesis that exposure to children to film mediated aggressive models would increase the probability of subjects' aggression to subsequent support to the view that the effects of film exposure are a function of the sex of the model, sex of the subjects and the reality cues of the model.

The role of family interaction determining the direction of aggressiveness was determined by Mc Cord, Mc Cord and Howard (1963). The results suggested that extreme neglect and punitiveness associated with a deviant aggressive potential model produced anti-social aggressiveness. Moderate neglect and punitiveness and ineffective controls produced socialized aggressiveness.

Bandura and Others (1961) observed the effect of transmission of aggression through imitation of aggression models. Subjects in the aggressive condition exhibited significantly more imitative and non-imitative aggressive behaviour and were less inhibited in their behaviour than subjects in the non-aggressive condition. Imitative was found to be differentially influenced by sex of the model, boys showing more aggression than girls following exposure to the male model subjects who observed the non-aggressive models, specially the subdued male model, were generally
Aggression: Cathartic and Anti-cathartic Stance:

Krebs (1981) described the effect of television on aggression or attitudes towards aggressive action on a sample of 12-15 years old students within the frame of observational learning theory. Results of longitudinal causal analysis show mutual effects between attitude and television viewing. T.V. was found to play a vital role in influencing the attitude towards specific aggressive action.

In a study of television viewing habits and other characteristic of normal, aggressive and non-aggressive children, Langham & Steward (1981) found that 7-8 and 8-10 years old aggressive subjects favoured the physically violent whereas the non-aggressive subjects' favourite character was empathetic. The parents of aggressive subjects were more unskilled, remained absent from home.

Geen and others (1975) collected evidence against the catharsis hypothesis in "the facilitation of aggression by aggression", forwarding argument in favour of the observation in terms of feelings of restraint against aggressing which a subject experiences after committing an aggressive act.
The effects of verbal reports of violence on aggression were observed by Scharaff and Schlottmann (1973) in a sample of male and female students. While significant sex differences were found, the catharsis hypothesis was negated by the results as subjects who had not been insulted were significantly more aggressive after exposure to nonviolent video reports than subjects in the non-insult violent group.

Cameron & Janky (1971) investigated the effects of the television violence on children after varying exposures to television violence. It was found that generally all the groups became pathologic after violent television viewing those after a violent television viewing did show more pathologic changes than those exposed to passive television diet.

Shortell and Epstein (1970) studied the effect of the degree of defeat and the capacity for massive retaliation on the instigation to aggression. The main finding was that primary frustration was a relatively unimportant instigator to aggression as compared to learned social situations.

Mussen and Naylor (1954) observed that among lower class boys, those having a relatively greater amount
of fantasy aggressive needs indulged in more overt aggressive behaviour than those with a fewer fantasy aggressive needs. Subjects with high fantasy aggression with small degree of fear of punishment showed more aggression in their behaviour than those who had a small fantasy of aggression accompanied by a high degree of fear of punishment.

Inhibition of Aggression and Counter Aggression:

Sanders and Steven (1975) used situations with expanded range of responses options where subjects were put to instigation throughout a response period. Pain cues were found to depress aggressiveness but only when the subjects' aggression was initially ineffective in changing their target's behaviour. Situational uncertainty was found to be relative to aggressiveness. The main finding was that the range of situation was potential to aggressiveness.

Band & Dutton (1975) examined four different kinds of expectations for future interactions hypothesizing that the critical variable inhibiting aggression was related to the potential for counter aggression.

Baron (1974) studied aggression as a function of victims pain cues, level of prior anger arousal and
exposure to an aggressive model. The results affirmed the hypothesis. It was predicted that any aggression restraining influence of victims pain cues would be significantly reduced by exposure to the actions of aggressive model who ignored such feed back.

To study the effects of varying intensity of attack and fear arousal on the intensity of counter-aggression, Knott, Drost (1972) administered small, medium or large number of painful shocks on the subjects and then allowed them to counter aggress by administering painful shock to the aggressor. It was inferred from the data that generally the strategy of increasing the intensity of one's own attack is likely to results in an increase rather than a decrease in the intensity of the opponent's counter attack.

Drost & Knoff (1971) studied the effect of status of attacker and intensity of attack on the intensity of attack. Subjects in the same and high status condition were found to be more counter aggressive than those exposed to a low status confidant.

Whether perceived suffering of the victim tended to inhibit attacked induced aggression was studied by Geen (1970) in a sample of 48 students who interacted with an experimental confidant posing as a fellow -
subject. They were either attacked by this person or not attacked. The attack meant a large number of shocks given by the confederate in criticism of subject's opinion. The subjects then reacted to the confederate who either expressed suffering upon receiving the shock or remained silent. Confederate who expressed suffering received minor shocks from the subjects than those who remained silent. The results indicated that feedback of suffering from the victims led to inhibit expression of aggression.

Berkowitz and Rawling's (1963) studied the effects of film violence on inhibitions against subsequent aggression to reveal that the justified fantasy aggression produced increased overt hostility toward insulting others by lowering inhibition against aggression.

**Aggression: Exposure to Movie Violence**

Peter (1980) tested the hypothesis that affection training would buffer the occurrence of television provoked aggression. Results indicated that during prompted play only directly imitative aggression was provoked by the aggressive video tape. No significant differences in occurrence of directly imitative aggression
were obtained between affections trained and teacher training children.

Fenigstein (1979) tested the hypothesis that physical aggression and fantasy aggression would lead to a preference for viewing violence. The results provided perspective on the relationship between the observation of violence and the expression of aggression. As viewing violence increased aggressiveness so also aggression increased the preference for viewing violence.

Children coming from the middle class and working class homes were shown two aggressive television films, (Kniventon, 1974). There was a significant relationship between a child's imitative response to the two films. There was a tendency to be more aggressive toward the second film. The working class children were more sensitive to aggression film. It appeared that those with less ability to develop their own interest were influenced more by filmed aggression. A relationship was found to exist between the degree of deprivation of life satisfaction and the child's increased tendency to imitate than between the filmed aggression and imitation of aggression.

Liebert (1974) studied the influence of television violence on the aggressive behaviour of children.
based on 50 reports of laboratory experiments and other studies involving about ten thousand children belonging to different socio-economic backgrounds. A reliable significant relationship was found between the amount of violence watched on television and the extent of aggressive attitude and behaviour. Television violence was also related to both learning novel ways of acting aggressively and learning an anti-social value system.

The study by Geen & Stonner (1974) was concerned with the meaning of observe violence effect on arousal and aggressive behaviour. The results indicated that the meaning attached to observe violence might affect the aggression elicited by violence in two ways, by lowering inhibition against aggressing and by raising arousal levels.

In two exploratory studies Wotring and Greenberg (1973) studied the effect of television violence on verbal aggression where relationship between physical and verbal aggressiveness was not supported. Liebert and Baron (1973) reported that after viewing aggressive and non-aggressive television films, subjects finding an opportunity to agree against a peer behaved differently. A non-aggressive film gave rise to lesser aggression than an aggressive film.
That exposure to an aggressive model and apparent probability of retaliation from the victim was related to aggressive behaviour was investigated into by Baron (1971). One significant observation was that contrary to the hypothesis even a high apparent probability of retaliation failed to eliminate the influence of the model on subjects behaviour.

Mussen and Rutherford (1961) studied the effects of aggressive cartoon on children's aggressive play. The results suggested a major prediction that exposure to aggressive fantasy in an animated cartoon would stimulate children's aggressive behaviour in play.

Aggression and Personality Factors :-

Responses of boys and girls to aggressive, assertive and passive behaviour of male and female characteristics were studied in a sample of boys and girls by Connor, Serbin and Ender (1978). Sex appeared to be an important variables in terms of approval for the two types of aggressive behaviour and passivity, boys and girls responding in different ways to the three types of the behaviour. Developmental trends show an increasingly positive evaluation of the effectiveness of passive behaviour by females and an increasingly negative evalua-
Kanekar and Kolsawalla (1977) studied the relationship between person perception and retaliation to aggression. The fact that a non-retaliating victim of aggression was evaluated more positively than the retaliating seems to have considerable significance for interpersonal and possibly for international relations, also giving credence to "nobility of violence".

The relationship between dogmatism, hostility and aggression in a sample of male and female college students was studied by Heyman (1977). Significant positive relationships were found between dogmatism and hostility for both male and female. A negative relationship between dogmatism and overcontrolling of hostility existed for males. They appeared to be better able to integrate aggressive behaviour into personality patterns.

Kane, Joseph and Tedeschi (1976) examined Berkowitz's paradigm for the study of aggression in their study of person perception. The results of the three studies subsumed under one agreed with Berkowitz paradigm and were discussed in terms of the ecological validity of Berkowitz Paradigm and metatheoretical implications for the scientific study of harm doing behaviour.
Whether the nature of the aggressor in terms of being admirable or unadmirable had an effect on subsequent aggression was answered in Epstein and Rakosky's (1976) study. The results supported the view that the implicit communication of values within the modeling situation was an important factor in determining whether witnessed aggression would be imitated.

Galassi and Galassi (1975) studied the relationship between assertiveness and aggressiveness in order to determine the validity of the self expression scale and certain measures of Boss-Durkey Hostility Guilt Inventory. Only with female sample, significant correlation between the two measures was discovered. In most cases the Buss-Durkey scales were either unrelated or inversly related to aggressiveness.

Chien-Wen (1975) studied the relationship between peer and maternal aggressive ratings and maternal child rearing practices in small children. Peer aggressiveness was found to be negatively correlated with popularity class, positively correlated with severity of maternal punishment, maternal criticism and negatively correlated with father's education level in boy but positively correlated with father's education level with girls.
The role of perceived Vs. actual attack in human physical aggression was determined by Greenwell and Dengerink (1973). Symbolic attacks, or specifically the perceived intent of the attacker appeared to be more potent instigator of aggression than physical attack per se.

Geen and Murray's (1973) prediction that self-discloser and threat to self esteem were functionally related to instigation to aggression was found to be valid because high self-discloser subjects were significantly more aggressive. Highself discloser followed by personal threat was a potent antecedent of angry aggression.

Hebda, Peterson and Millar (1972) studied the relationship among aggression, anxiety, perceptions of aggressive cues, and expected retaliation. Expected retaliation seemed to be a composite function of sex and anxiety of the subjects and sex and aggressiveness of the picture.

Effects of viewing justified and unjustified real film violence on aggressive behaviour were studied by Meyer (1972). Angered College students who witnessed justified real film violence turned out to be more aggre-
ssive than subjects witnessing unjustified real of fictional film violence, a non-violent film or films. The findings suggested that the effects of increased aggression demonstrated for anger viewers of justified functional violence were also applicable to angered viewers of real film violence.

Aggressive and friendly behaviour in young children were studied in a development context by Ruediger, Schroeer Flapan (1971). Boys who were predominantly aggressive or predominantly friendly at age 4, tended to be the same later. This is not the case with girls who were not good at establishing consistent style of interacting.

Fraczek and Jacqueline (1971) studied the role of some personality factors in reaction to aggressive stimuli and found that the perceptual set for aggressive stimuli and the presence of such stimuli had an interactive effect on aggressive tendencies.

That awareness of ones own anger level is a factor in subsequent aggression was studied by Berkowitz Lepinski & Angul (1969). Subjects through exposure to an abnoxious accomplice of the experimenter were made to believe of their low moderate or high level of anger
towards this person. The high anger subjects were found to inhibit strong aggressive response because the knowledge that they were very angry had made them highly anxious, since the moderate provocation did not justify their extreme emotional reaction.

Berkowitz (1965) received support to some of the earlier observations in respect of some aspects of observed aggression having found that the angered subject's inhibitions against aggression varied with the apparent justification for the observed aggression.

The role of the personality characteristics of the mother's of aggressive and unaggressive children in children's aggression was studied by Lynn (1961). Sear's physical punishment factor appeared to be a genuine environment influence determining the level of aggression of the child, whereas maternal permissiveness factor seems to be independent of environmental influence.

The role of personality factors in the readiness to express aggression was determined by Worchel (1958). The personality factors included self ideal discrepancy and displacement. Subjects with low self ideal discrepancy were found to express significantly
greater direct aggression than those with high self ideal discrepancy. Subjects expressed significantly greater negative feelings towards the instigator when the instigator was not named than named. There was no evidence for displacement for aggression towards the instigator.

In a study on the relationship between patterns of aggression in parents and their children (Hess and Handel, 1956) children's aggression patterns were found to be systemetically related to other aspects of personality more than with aggression.

That aggression is a function of the attack and the attacker was taken up for study by Graham and Others (1951). It was found that the frequency and the degree of aggressiveness of the aggressive responses were a function of the individual who made the attack. The greater the punishment threatening value of the individual the less the aggressiveness of the response. The degree of aggressiveness of the attack and the kind of individual making the attack interacted in the effect on the aggressiveness of the responses.
Emotional Arousal and Aggressive Behaviour:-

The effects of sex role taking on children responses to aggressive conflict situation were determined by Olson (1984). Significant interaction effect between type of conflict situation and sex of character was obtained. Findings suggested the importance of situational factors in determining children sex stereotyped expectations for aggressive retaliation.

Schlottmann, Shore and Palazzo (1975) studied the effects of factual Vs. emotional wording in printed accounts of violence and aggression. Subjects exposed to emotional violence gave significantly higher shocks than subjects to facture violence.

Whether awareness of arousal was related to aggression was studied by Geen Rakosky and Pigg (1972). It was found that behaviour following an attack was consistent with the victim's cognition of his response to attack.

Aggressive behaviour as a function of emotional arousal studied by Rule and Nesdale (1970) findings revealed that if the aggressive response was directed primarily toward injuring the target an angered person expressed aggression.
Holzberg and Bursten (1955) tested the hypothesis that reporting of aggression was an indication of aggressive tension where dynamic personality theory was found to hold, as subjects who over-reported or under-reported aggressive implications in situations were charged with greater aggressive tension than average reporters.

Studies on Anxiety:

Our another variable taken up for investigation, seems to be no less unmanageable than those of aggression in terms of the concept of anxiety adopted, the approach of the study and the samples studied. In reviewing studies on anxiety our main purpose has been to confine to the relevant ones in respect of the objectives of the present investigation. Instead of classifying the studies into separate categories, which here too appeared to be no easy affair, we have been content with presenting them in a sequence following either the sample in question or the commonality of the purpose of studies forming somewhat different clusters.

The assortment of studies to be reviewed here may represent such headings as role of certain external factors in determining anxiety, anxiety as a variable in performance, role of personality variables in
anxiety and so forth.

Gottfried (1982) determined the relationship between academic intrinsic motivation and anxiety in children and young adolescent. The hypothesis tested was that academic intrinsic motivation and anxiety are negatively related when both are differentiated into the various subjects areas. Results supported the hypothesis.

Reer, Koff and Heller's (1982) study analyzed male and female human figure drawings of a sample of male and female students for anxiety related to aggression/hostility and insecurity/lability. Males, as compared to females, avoid more anxiety about aggression hostility. Both male and female subject drew male figures with more aggression hostility and anxiety indices than female figures. Results were interpreted in terms of the impact of sex role socialization.

Sturgeon and Hamley (1979) tested the hypothesis that christians, both male and female, were highly religious form a heterogeneous group that can be separated into intrinsic and extrinsic orientation, the former interacting their religious beliefs, resulting in less anxiety and greater locus of control. The results con-
firmed the hypothesis.

Douglas and Rice (1979) administered general and test anxiety scales for children on 5th and 6th grade children along with the defensiveness scale for children. Girls were found to score higher than boys on the anxiety measures but there were no differences on the defensiveness scale. This suggested that the content of the scales rather than defensiveness required further investigation.

Stattin and Magnusson (1978) studied stability of perception of reactions across a variety of anxiety provoking situations. A self-report instrument was administered to a sample of class of 8th grade students who rated their psychic and sometic anxiety reactions for different anxiety evoking situations. The inventory was administered twice over an interval of six months. Results supported the hypothesis of stable organization of reactions over different kinds of threatening situations and of stable reaction pattern over time. It was argued that the strength of expressed reaction pattern was related to perceptual characteristic.

Littig and Knopp (1978) demonstrated the effects of ability grouping and course level on trait anxiety and
test anxiety and a sample of 7th graders into comprehensive schools with ability grouping and one comprehensive school without ability grouping. Results revealed no relationship between ability grouping/course level and trait anxiety. In terms of test anxiety, it was found that subjects attending comprehensive schools with ability group and higher levels of test anxiety than subjects of higher ability level.

Tapasak, Roodin and Vought (1978) studied the effects of anxiety and other variables on children's verbal fluency and coding task performance. The Junior Eysenck Personality Inventory was administered on boys and girls of different ages and simple and a complex verbal fluency task and the coding subject of WISC. Anxiety influenced girls' performance on the more complex verbal fluency task but it did not effect boys' performance.

Potter's (1978) study on the correlates of children imitation of oral participation in classrooms employed test anxiety for children, the Diffensive Scale for children and the Self Concept of the Ability Scale. Anxiety scores predicted hand raising in a positive direction due to the greater frequency of hand raisers of children with high levels of anxiety. Marked sex difference were found in prediction of hand raisers with girls hand
raising predicted quite well by their perception that other children would not be critical then participation.

Scanlon (1977) administered Sport Competition Anxiety Test on 5th and 6th grade boys to study the effects of success-failure on the perception of threat in a competitive situation. Three groups (success, moderate success and failure) were identified. State anxiety was used as a measure of perceived threat and causal attribution as a measure of self protective behaviour. Findings indicated that success-failure was an important variable affecting the perception of threat to self in a competitive situation.

Liebetrau (1975) explored the anxiety of boys and girls belonging to urban and rural environments using a Children Anxiety Test, and adjective check list and a specially designed interview. Rural children were more afraid of animals than urban children but less afraid of strangers. City girls had the most anxiety and were more prone to psychosomatic disturbances. Girls seemed to have more diffused and general anxiety.

**Need Patterns:**

Our yet another variable is need patterns comprising the five sub-dimensions—dominance, deference, aggression, autonomy, abasement—borrowed from Murray &
Gough and employed by Gough (1934). While going through the studies on this variable we would come across only those on certain sub-dimensions and not others: most of the studies included dominance and autonomy and aggression (also separately treated as a motivational variable), whereas on deference and abasement we could seldom find one. However, one study (Aijaz, 1984) of need hierarchy among caste Hindu and Harijans studied abasement and deference among other need variables. While no significant differences were found between the two groups on abasement and deference, significant differences were reported between high caste boys and girls and low caste boys and girls on abasement, deference remaining unaffected by the variable of sex.

Booth (1982) analysed the socio-cultural aspects of play and moral development in a group of children with a view to seeking answer to the assumption that play was an important factor in the development of personal autonomy. It was suggested that since play reflects this cultural environment, the play programmes should be organized around the ethnic, age, socio-economic, and demographic aspects. The importance of the game as a vehicle for developing autonomy was discussed. It was suggested that teacher should use a play profile of each child in
analysing the moral development among children.

Rejskind (1982) related autonomy with creativity among children. Results indicated that the amount of independence children experienced in their relationship with teachers and parents influenced their creativity. It was also suggested that the nature of creative task was also a significant factor.

Whitney (1982) studied two main elements of autonomy i.e. individual human rights and power and independence, in relation to the popular concept of personhood. It was found that contradictions arose when autonomy was related to development in young children. Also important were the factors like one's own will, altruism and self awareness. Autonomy was found to be irrelevant to personhood.

The effects of sex and dominance were studied by Aono (1981) in a sample of male and female students, classified into high and low dominance groups and assigned to a male or female approaching person. Inter-personal distance between S and approaching person was measured at 8 orientation around subjects body. It was found that interpersonal distance decreased as the bodily orientation shifted from the front to the rear. Males' personal
space was greater than females. The effect of dominance was not found except for two interactional effects.

Pickert and Wall (1981) investigated children's perception dominance relations in terms of three factors: self or other ranking on dominance, subjects placement in the class hierarchy and the terms used for ranking. Dominance ranking of self and other varied according to hierarchy position and terms used for dominance behaviour.

The effects of an adult model's dominance and honesty on children's identification and imitation were studied by Smith and Guerney (1977). A group of 6th graders was exposed to different conditions with male models who varied on the trait of dominance and honesty. It was found that subjects' imitation of value judgements generally results from exposure to the model's dominance or other trait. The variable of identification was more sensitive to the experimental manipulation of Model's Characterological traits than the measure of imitation. The subjects viewed leadership strictly interm of character.

Bertacchini and Genta (1975) observed that among 6-10 years old females were found to be less dominant than males but equally territorializing.
Shouval, Duck and Ginton (1975) using a measure of children's autonomy to a multiple choice form found that the multiple choice form could be an alternative to a sentence completion test for the same purpose.

The influence of attitudes of autonomy in the family upon the behaviour of the preparatory school child were determined by Cariou (1974). The educational practices of the parent and their child's behaviour in their school were compared. It was discussed that a level of autonomy enjoyed by the child in a home was an important factor in determining self control in the classroom, a high level favouring high motivation and a high level of work.

Esser (1973) explored dominance and territoriality in a group of institutionalized boys aged 9-14 years. Imitation of fighting was positively related to dominance order, to fighting with the staff. It was suggested that property oriented attitudes of staff might be related to the degree of territorial actions. In a study by Symonds and Littman (1973) sex differences were discovered in dominance behaviour, both physical and verbal, girls engaging more in verbal dominance behaviour and play mother. Boys could be easily ranked in a dominance hierarchy. Also dominance status was related among
Boys to physical variables like age, size and musculature.

Baumrind (1973) studied the development of instrumental competence through socialization in a study of young children focussing on the possible effects on different types of parental control such as authoritative permissiveness. Results suggested that authoritative child rearing was associated with purposive, dominant and achievement-oriented behaviour in girls and with all indices of social responsibility in boys.

A positive relationship between musculinity and autonomy and aggressive non-conformance was discovered and study of 8th grade students by Gottfries and Sven (1971).

Loch (1970) analyzed the readiness to respond aggressively-destructively in a sample of a children. The development of aggressive-destructive patterns of reaction was dependent on the long period of dependency giving rise to envy, hate and destructive impulses. These feelings among children could be controlled if the significant others were perceived as exerting their influence on child’s growth and autonomy.

Robert and Minturn (1969) studied the socialization of children into compliance systems with respect
to authority rules and aggression in a group of school children representing different nationalities. The main purpose was to observe the development of behaviour related to authority figure and to rules and laws designed to govern behaviour.

This somewhat protracted review of studies on aggression in classified categories may appear not very relevant from the point of view of the purpose of the study. Nonetheless seeing the nature of research on aggression, this was possibly a working account of the state of affairs in aggression research. Atleast the objective of presenting a context for the present study may seem to have been fulfilled in some measure.