

## C H A P T E R    II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

## CHAPTER-II

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#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Aggression and violence are not the new phenomena in human life. But in the present day fast moving world these phenomena are gaining more and more weight because they are increasing the problems day by day and encountering any problem is a sign of development. Sociologists say that as urbanisation increases there are more and more alienation, selfish motives and practical wisdom which increases value crisis in the society and it may threaten the very existence of the society, to give way to another society. To find out what the phenomenon is, what ~~are~~ the manifestation<sup>are</sup> and how it affects the society and human beings, would need a screening of the literature available on this subject. No one can question the need to understand the aggressiveness in human beings.

There were a number of studies done and books were written to understand the concept of aggression. Controversies remained and researchers kept on doing

researches in this area. Then the problem of development of tools came in, that problem remained and other theories came ~~up~~ up. For India, this area is new, thus, while reviewing the literature, a very small number of Indian researches in the area could be found. So these were incorporated with researches done in other countries.

## 2.2 LITERATURE ON THEORIES

Nature-nurture controversy has always been there when the development of aggression is discussed and hence, the theoreticians can be classified as biological theorists, drive theorists and social learning theorists. Biological theories are the development of Freudian and Adler's psychoanalysis through the ethiological theories of Ardrey (1966), Hinde (1970), Lorenz (1966), Storr (1968), Tinbergen (1968), to the implication of the human karyotype XYY (Price and Whatmore (1967) in aggression and so these theories find it difficult to control aggression. Drive theories begin with Frustration-aggression

hypothesis of Dollard et al. (1939) and were elaborated by Berkowitz (1962) Feshback (1964,1970), Sears, Whiting, Nowlis and Sears (1953), Whiting and Child (1953) and suggest that aggressive drive aroused by frustration is reduced only by some form of aggressive response. Social learning theorists like Bandura (1973) and Geen(1976) expounded learning of aggression from social training and emphasised observational learning, reinforcement of aggression and generalization of aggression.

Moyer (1976) produced something of reapproachment between these diverse approaches at least between biological and social learning theories. He distinguished several different forms of aggression according to both the stimulus situations eliciting them and the pattern of responding involved. Evidence was produced by Moyer that the two centres in the brain associated with these forms of aggression are the hypothalamus and the amygdala, both located in the limbic system. Instrumental aggression, which was contrasted against

stimulus-response forms of aggression, is learned with no specific physiological locus and is elicited by a wide variety of stimulus conditions. And hence, behaviours as maternal defence, territorial aggression and pain induced aggression are stimulus bound and species specific whilst instrumental aggression is non-specific and learned. It was also proposed that species specific aggression is the involvement of the limbic system of the brain in primarily concerned with emotional responses.

### 2.3 LITERATURE ON BIOLOGICAL THEORIES

In his writings Freud said "I can no longer understand how we can have overlooked the ubiquity of non-erotic aggressivity and destructiveness" (Freud 1930, p.120). He had earlier rejected Adler's claim that aggression was an instinctual drive in its own right (Hitchmann 1948). His earlier view was that it was a necessary component of all instinctual drives and that it played a role in neuroses in dream, and in parapraxes. In his early writings on

applied psychoanalysis he also referred to its influence. With regard to the role of aggression in dreams, he devoted an extensive section to death wishes as an active force in the formulation of certain dreams, particularly typical dreams (1900 pp.248 ff). In healthy people egoistic jealous and hostile feeling and impulsion on which the pressures of moral education weighs heavily make, frequent use of the pathway provided by parapraxes in order to find some expression for their strength which, undeniably, exists but is not recognized by higher mental agencies. He also wrote somewhere "It may be assumed that the impulses of cruelty arise from sources which are in fact independent of sexuality but may become united with it at an early stage owing to an anastomosis near their points of origin". (1905b p.193, Sec.II). According to Ross and Abrams (1965) "Agreeing with Fenichel's criticism of death instinct Wolman has maintained that since hostility and destructiveness are undesirable, empirical facts, hostility should be linked not to a death instinct but to the struggle for survival

(1960, Chap. 15; 1964)".

Glover (1946) writes that "the normal inhibitions against instinctual aggression are by no means secure. In times of inter-group conflict an individual's inhibiting mechanism will give way under the strain of social sanction and the full sweep of his aggression will once more turn outwards" (p.24). Menninger (1959) argues that men sublimate their aggressive fantasies against their mothers by engaging in communal masculine pursuits. This sublimation is not successful and the destructive impulses sooner or later must "forment a war with someone" (p. 622). He also advocates the free expression of emotionality as a way of reducing aggression. He maintains that "among the Jews where there is such a noticeable tendency to express aggression in argument and verbal contact there are few divorces and so little physical violence" (1942) p.274). Moneykyrle (1951) writes that class conflict is based on feelings of guilt and repressed aggression. Storr (1968) emphasises the positive side of aggressive instinct which is an inherent constant of which we

cannot rid ourselves and which is absolutely necessary for survival (p. 109). According to him aggression can be an active striving or a destructive hostility and sporting tournaments and scientific competitions such as 'space race' could provide an acceptable substitute for warfare and in this way aggressive instinct could be sublimated along socially productive lines. Brenner (1971) says "we cannot say whether aggression and sexuality are separate at birth and gradually mix or fuse in the course of development, or whether the two differentiate gradually from a common matrix (p.143).

Izard (1977) attempted to find out the relationship of anger, disgust and contempt with hostility and aggression. According to him anger, disgust and contempt are different at expression as well as experiential level. Tomkins (1963) believes that any increase in the level of stimulation experienced in distress may send the density of neural firing above the threshold for anger. Apparently consistent to this is the findings by Zillman and Bryant (1974) that prior



stimulation (excitation residues) facilitates both anger and aggressive action. Bartlett Izard's (1977) study showed that anger causes the person to feel great tension second only to that in fear and far more self assurance than in any other negative emotion, the sense of physical strength and self assurance tends to make the person feel brave and courageous. Although the control mean in anger did not differ significantly from that of several other emotions, the combination of anger impulsiveness and low control helps explain why the rules for anger expression against anger are carefully laid down during socialization. Izard (1977) distinguished hostility from aggression by defining hostility as affective experience and affective cognitive orientations while an aggression the actions intended to harm.

Sex differences in aggression are generally agreed with evidence supporting sexual dimorphism gained from studies in physiology, animal behaviour

and human development. There is some evidence that castration may have some value in the control of violent sex crimes in human males (Hawke 1950, Lemaire 1956). In laboratory situation human aggression studies have revealed that sex is a major determinant of aggression (Buss 1961, 1963, 1966 a & b).

Brown (1976) found that activation of male sex hormone increases the aggression in animals but Ehrenkraiz, Bliss and Sheard (1974) and Leshner (1978) reported that this effect is less powerful in human beings.

Widon (1978) suggests that highly emotional or active persons may become aggressive due to emotional arousal contributed by hormones. Researches also show that any arousal can increase the probability of aggression to occur e.g. taking part in exercise (Zillman, Katcher and Milavsky 1972) competitive activity (Christy, Gelfamel and Hartzman 1971) and

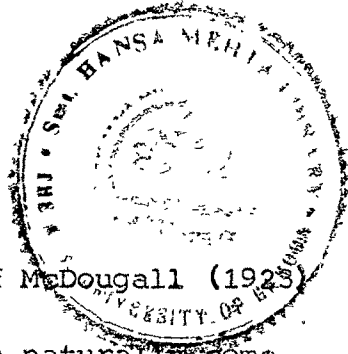
injection of stimulating drugs (O'Neal and Kaufmann 1972).

Men with ~~XXY~~ genetic constitution were found to be far more in prison population than in general population (Jacobs, Brunton and Melville 1965). While only one newborn baby boy in a thousand was XYY only 15 out of one thousand prisoners fall into this category (Jarvik, Klodin and Matsuyama 1973). But the view that this extra Y chromosome made them more aggressive is not supported by Bandura (1973) and by Witkin et al. (1976) in their large scale study.

In study of the drug effect on aggression Tayler et al. (1976) found that subjects receiving heavy doses of alcohol become more aggressive in their behaviour than those receiving peppermint oil (control group) and subjects receiving heavy doses of marijuana behaved less aggressively than the control group.

#### 2.4 LITERATURE ON DRIVES THEORIES

Frustration Aggression hypothesis (Dollard et al. 1944) was the end product of many observations



stemming from the work particularly of McDougall (1923) and Freud (1920). Since people have so naturally come to hold their beliefs and prejudices about other groups, they can then use these beliefs as justification for aggression against other races and religions, especially against minority groups, where the rivalry between any of these groups and dominant group becomes acute the result is a feeling of frustration by members of both groups. And reaction to this frustration may be as diversified as shame and embarrassment, withdrawal, regression, feeling of guilt, resource anger or aggression. In a great many instances of frustration, aggression is quite marked (Britt 1949).

Miller (1941) Otis and McCandless (1955) proposed that the extinction of alternative responses through non reinforcement as frustration persists would constitute an additional frustration and hence the instigation to aggression would increase.

Yale school puts forward two propositions regarding the balance of excitatory forces and inhibitory forces for act of aggression to take place. If strength of instigation to aggression was kept constant, it was formulated by Dollard et al. (1944) that the strength of inhibition of aggression would be positively related to the amount of punishment anticipated to be a consequence of that act. Here the punishment means anything that is equivalent to the receipt including actual infliction of pain, injury to a loved object or person etc.

Doob and Sears (1939) constructed sentences which described various kinds of social situations involving frustration. Responses given to them were aggressive, non-aggressive substitute and subjects were supposed to choose between the items on the basis of various criteria; out of which, the two were those items, which could have been most satisfying to do and that item, which would have resulted in most trouble if done. Most satisfying responses checked out were aggressive and overtness of aggression was found to be inversely related with the amount of punishment anticipated as a

consequence of such behaviour .

Miller (1948b) investigated both the generalization which occurs in the absence of frustrating stimulus and the generalization which occurs when the aggressive response to the frustrating stimulus is inhibited through anticipation of punishment. McKellar (1949) found that non overt aggression was much more common than overt aggression, that verbal aggression was more common than physical aggression and that when overt aggression did occur it was usually directed against some object other than a human adult. Each of these could be attributed to displacement.

Aggression was regarded as a natural though not an inevitable consequence of frustration, since non-aggressive responses could be learnt. Still aggression was considered to be the naturally dominant response to frustration. Bakker, Dembo and Lewin (1941) and Wright (1942, 1943) demonstrated that nursery school children may regress when frustrated. Sears (1941) was willing to discard the notion that aggression is the

only unlearned reaction to frustration, but frustration continued to be regarded as inevitable antecedent of aggression.

Berkowitz (1962) considers that anger refers to an emotional state presumably resulting from frustration, which, when congruent with a suitable cue, instigates aggressive responses. He showed that anger does not always lead to aggression but requires the presence of appropriate cues (Berkowitz 1964, 1965). Buss (1971) and Scott (1958) demonstrated aggression in absence of anger. Kaufmann (1965a) stated that anger need not be present, neither is it a sufficient condition for production of aggressive behaviour.

Hinton (1968) found that environmental frustration does significantly reduce creative problem-solving performance. It was supported under a number of alternative assumptions about the 'rest of the world' variables of personality and ability factors.

## 2.5 LITERATURE ON SOCIAL LEARNING THEORIES

Geen (1976) argues that a working basis for under-

standing aggression and all the semantic and theoretical problems the term produces, should include three aspects, the delivery of noxious stimuli, the intent to harm and the fact that the attack has a probability greater than zero of being successful.

Aggression is "the delivery of noxious stimulus by one organism to another with intent thereby to harm and with some expectation that the stimulus will reach its target and have its intended effect", as defined by Russell Geen (1976, p.221).

Aggressive behaviour can be enquired at two levels. Firstly whether some experiences as frustration, witnessing a violent film etc. provoke aggressive behaviour in a wide range of individuals or there are certain people who behave aggressively more than others? In the latter case, is it because of their lower threshold for aggressive response or they respond aggressively to a different set of stimuli or their predisposition to aggression is a product of their constitution or their experience ? Studies on selected groups of violent



offenders over the past three decades have suggested that aggression is often associated with social deprivation and parental coldness or punitiveness.

With children as subjects it is consistently found that boys exhibit more physical aggression than girls (Lansky et al. 1961; Becker et al. 1962; Lewin and Sears 1956). Sears et al. (1957) reported that the sex differences in the frequency of aggression emerge at the age of three and increase until eighth year, with differences in the style of aggression, developing over this same period. Research indicates that those sex differences may be partially due to sex rearing differences (Sears 1961; Lansky et al. 1961). Many researchers (McKee and Leader 1955; Davis 1944; Berkowitz 1962) argue that aggressive behaviour is more prevalent and frequent among working class people, resulting from differences in child rearing practices. Trasler (1962) argues that within the working-class family, the socialisation process is class effective, because of weaker parent child

relationships and less consistently and reliably applied sanctions than that in the middle class family. Bandura (1973) concludes that certain parents by behaving aggressively provide models for their children. Eysenck (1967) also argues that emotionality, neuroticism or anxiety acts as a drive. Emotional subjects become highly aroused when confronted with certain stimuli. This conception is similar to Berkowitz's (1962) description of the aggressive personality such as a person does not have a store of 'pent up aggressive energy' but is susceptible to a great number of anger eliciting stimuli, so, when anger is aroused it is more intense than for subjects low in aggressiveness.

Social context and pattern of social interactions influence the intensity of aggressive impulse and its expression. Social reality gives meaning and definition to what is and what is not "aggression" (Isreal and Tajfel 1972). So whether aggression is a specific behaviour, a style of behaviour intended to hurt or

injure another person we cannot ignore the fact that it is manifestly social and may be regarded fundamental to the regulation of social relation. Aggressive behaviour of a child develops in response to the experience of rejection, frustration and aggressive acts of the parents and others belonging to the child's surroundings.

Cultural norms may also increase the probability of aggression (Commstock et al. 1978). Geen(1973) shows that exposure to violence in television programme may increase aggression in observer and effect may be detected for as long as five months after the original observation. Laboratory experiments also show similar effect (Berkowitz and Geen 1967).

The notions advanced to explain the social components of aggression either emphasise (i) motivational components associated with frustration (Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowerer and Sear 1939) experienced in terms of punitive, restrictive and rejecting environmental encounters or (ii) specific

opportunity of learning through observations of aggressive models (Bandura 1965 a&b) or (iii) experienced reinforcement or encouragement for the performance of aggressive behaviour (Bandura and Walters 1959; Sears, Macoby and Lewin 1957). These notions explain differently the three aspects of parents child relationship leading to the development of aggression in children.

Varma (1979) found socioeconomic background to be significantly influencing the interactional setting and situations of the children. Aggression is a very significant interactional outcome. Davis(1963) also reported that in most of the lower class families even physical aggression is as much normal, socially-approved and socially-inculcated type of behaviour as it is in frontier community. Hinde (1976) reported that most aggressive children in slum areas usually learn their aggressive behaviour from their peers and extra familial sources. In lower class families power assertion technique of disciplining children may be characterised by physical punishment, threats, verbal attacks etc. Love oriented techniques are rarely employed (Sears et al, 1957; Arentfreed 1968; Elder 1968). Sibling size plays significant role in acquisition of aggression

(Varma 1979). Highest sibling size (Seven and above) presented a more or less indifferent and inconsistent influence giving rise to slightly lower percentage for the middle aggression group.

## 2.6 LITERATURE ON TOOLS OF MEASUREMENT :

Buss (1965) and Kaufmann(1970) distinguish between aggression and hostility. Kaufmann(1970) states that for a hostile person "we think of him as one who has a habit or propensity for disliking others, wishing them harm or aggressing against them". (p.11). In a somewhat similar manner Buss(1961) has suggested that "hostility involves negative evaluations of people and events ..... (and) may be inferred when the attack is reinforced more by injury than by attaining the extrinsic reinforcer" (p.202). Bandura(1973) uses the term hostile aggression to denote behaviour reinforced by injurious consequences. These negative evidences open up several options to be taken,

- i) to conclude the measuring instruments are invalid.
- ii) to question the validity of the independent variable.
- iii) to question the relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

Actually we are presented with more situationally inconsistent data. Bowers (1973) has argued cogently for an interactionist or biocognitive analysis of determinants of behaviour, who maintained, that when behaviour is analysed, the main effects found, will depend upon the sample of settings and individuals under consideration. This point of view has been elegantly validated by Bem and Allen (1974). It is shown by them that it is possible to identify on a priority grounds those individuals who would be cross-sectionally consistent and those who would not. They concluded that the personality assessment must measure situations and persons as well. A general finding is that a stable personality factor of aggressiveness /hostility for both males and females exists. In males two stable personality dimensions, Aggressiveness and Hostility are found which is not the case in females. Most of the researches were carried out on males as the factor structure for females was not stable.

Generally the results show stable factors in

males though not in females and results were epitomised by investigation by Kreuz and Rose (1972). They found that personality measures were significantly correlated but those personality measures were not correlated with plasma testosterone or fighting behaviour. The prisoners with histories of violence and aggressive crimes in adolescence had a significantly higher mean testosterone level (n=10) than the remaining prisoners without such a history. Personality tests failed to differentiate high and low fighting, behaviour within the prison. They thus suggested that aggression is highly stimulus bound. This notion is same as Moyer's (1976) classification of different types of aggression where he contrasted instrumental aggression with predatory, inter male, fear induced, maternal, irritable and territorial aggression. These are the species specific behaviour but within them learning can have its role. He suggested that the stimulus situation which evokes an irritable aggressive response is the presence of an attackable organism or object.

Resenzweig picture frustration test was developed (1948) to measure two types of responses to frustration intropunitiveness (IN) or inner directed aggression and extrapunitiveness (EX) or aggression directed against the external world. Researches focused on the validity of the EX scale as a measure of aggressiveness and here studies have yielded conflicting but essentially negative results. Some workers (Megargee 1964; Mercer and Kyriazis 1962) have compared the EX scores of assaultive and non-assaultive and prisoners and have failed to obtain significant differences. However Peterson et al. (1962) found that assaultive prisoners scored significantly higher on the EX score than non-assaultive ones. Weinberg (1953) reported that the EX scores of criminal groups were significantly lower than those of the non-criminal groups and a sample of criminals classified as assaultive scored significantly lower than non-assaultive criminals.

TAT studies also produce conflicting results. TAT scores did not discriminate aggressive from non-aggressive schizophrenics in studies by Scodel and Lipetz



(1957) and Rao (1964). But in a study by Stone (1956) violent prisoners did score significantly higher in TAT aggression than prisoners convicted for non-violent offences. Similarly significant correlation was found between TAT scores and rating of aggressiveness by Haskell (1961) Purcell (1956) and McCasland (1961). Megargee (1970) thus concluded that "The fact that significant differences have been obtained in some studies suggests that the material elicited by TAT is potentially capable of discriminating some types of violent people. Much more research needs to be done however" (p. 132).

Kane (1955) and Wolf (1957) found that content scoring systems of Rorschach Inkblot Test did discriminate between assaultive and non-assaultive prisoners. Formal scoring of those ink blots generally failed to discriminate between these two types (Finney 1954; Stormont and Finney 1953; Wolf 1957). Buss (1961) thus observed that "Formal scoring on the Rorschach does not yield measures that are consistently related to aggression. On the other

hand hostile content on the Rorschach is related to variety of aggressive behaviour ".(p.137).

Sinha (1976) found that high aggressive group subjects had significantly lower private self and social self as against the subjects with low aggression.

## 2.7 SURVEYS AND ANALYTICAL RESEARCHES

Hovland and Sears (1940) argued that aggression would be expected to increase during years of depression since universal goal responses would be frustrated more than during the years of prosperity. They were criticized by Mintz (1946) on statistical grounds who examined the non-linear trends of curves and used tetrachoric co-efficients results in spuriously elevated correlation. Another important confirmation of this came by the study of Graham et al. (1951) who investigated the influence of aggression itself as a frustrating situation. Here fifty incomplete sentences were scaled for frustration value (e.g. he hit me so I.....was given a high rating) and ordered into five categories of decreasing

strength of frustration. Adolescent subjects were required to complete the sentences and their completion were then rated for aggression. A positive relationship between degree of frustration (indicated by the aggression ratings of the incomplete sentences) and the amount of aggression shown in the responses was found. Three measures of response strength (percent frequency, amplitude and magnitude) were used.

Palmer (1960) found that convicted murderers had been subjected to significantly more physiological and psychological frustration during childhood than had their control brothers. The murderers also showed fewer socially acceptable forms of aggression release.

Graham et al. (1951) in addition to varying strength of frustration utilized five types of instigator i.e. parent, sibling, friend/classmate, authority (policeman, teacher etc.) and inferior. Inferiors, siblings and friends evoked significantly more aggression than either parents or authority i.e. the greater punishment threatening value of an instigator the fewer and the less

intense will be the aggressive responses evoked by him .  
The amount of aggression increased significantly with increased degree of instigation when instigator was a sibling, friend or inferior but did not increase to any level when the investigator was a parent.

Cohen (1955) and McKellar (1950) found similar results by Thibaut and Reicken (1955), the subjects were realistically frustrated by high status instigator (HSI) or low status instigator (LSI) and their hostility measured by analysing the content of assessments of the instigator before and after the frustrating experience. It was found by Cohen (1955) that there was less aggression when frustrating agent was an authority than when it was a peer. He also found that there was less aggression exhibited in the situations showing justifiability of frustration (non-arbitrary situations) and less exhibited aggression in presence of normative sanctions than in absence of any such sanctions.

There is much empirical evidence that personality make up, childhood experiences, class position, ethnicity

and other social factors are associated with homicidal behaviour. Case histories of murderers reveal that they have more often suffered from frustration, usually belonged to lower socioeconomic or minority groups and less likely to be on police records (Palmer 1960; Megargree 1966; Wolfgang & Ferracuti 1967). It has been pointed out that quite often murders are crimes of passion, explosive reaction to a difficult situation. While numerous studies on homicidal behaviour have been reported from the western countries, only a few studies on this subject have so far been undertaken in India and these too are largely based on clinical observation of selective sample (Somasunderam 1970; 1973; Sethi, Gupta, Raj, Nathawat 1971a; Jha 1971; Gupta and Sethi 1974). The psychosocial variables investigated in this study refer to various personal, familial and social characteristics of the convicts as well as the precipitating factors of homicidal behaviour. A study by Gupta and Srivastava (1977) found about two-third of convicts were young adults (age group 21-40 years).

Similar to the previous study by Gupta and Sethi (1974) where mean age was 31.6 years several other studies also show that there is higher incidence of aggressive crimes among young adults (Wolfgang and Ferracuti 1967). According to Cortes and Gath (1972) the expressive needs of aggressivity potentials are higher during adolescence and young adults. In the study by Gupta and Srivastava (1977) majority of victims were residents of same or neighbouring village and murders were the results of long enmity due to land disputes and groupism. Most of the confessed convicts had prolonged hostile feelings for their victims which were the response to the threatening behaviour of victim.

## 2.8 EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES :

Chasdi and Lawrence (1955) found in an actual experimental (doll play) situation that punishment (verbal reprimand) for aggressive doll play led to a reduction in such aggression in subsequent sessions. They also found that the permissiveness with respect to aggression will reduce the anticipation of punishment and/or increased anticipation of reward for

aggression.

Hokanson (1961) compared groups of high hostility and low hostility subjects with respect to changes in physiological indices of anxiety from a resting state to a situation involving frustration. Though no difference between the groups was found initially the high hostility group showed a significantly greater change in the physiological indices used (towards a higher level of anxiety) when frustration was induced than did low hostility group. It seems very reasonable to assume that the high hostility group had in the past expressed its hostility very readily, had been punished frequently for that expression and hence now tend to develop anxiety responses in situations likely to have an outburst of aggressive behaviour.

Wheeler and Cagguila (1966) Feshbach Stiles and Bitner (1967) and Hartman (1969) found that victims indication of pain was followed by an increase in shock aggression. While Buss (1966a) and Baron (1971a,b)

found that pain cues from victims in fact reduced the subject's aggression.

Worschel (1957) found that subjects frustrated in intellectual tasks were able to express their hostility more freely to an assistant in the absence of the experimenter than when the experimenter remained present .

Anticipation of fear is less when the individual was a member of a group than when he was facing the instigator alone. It was found by M. Wright (1943) that children frustrated in pairs more freely expressed aggression against the instigator than when frustrated on their own. Pepitone and Reichling (1955) formed highly cohesive and poorly cohesive groups and subjected them to frustration in the form of an insulting lecture. Within group hostility expression was recorded. When they were left on their own, cohesive group ~~they~~ expressed significantly more hostility than the poorly cohesive group and expressed ~~that~~ ~~that~~ ~~more~~ ~~hostility~~ ~~than~~ ~~the poorly cohesive group and expressed that hostility~~



significantly more often directly against the instigator.

It was also found that organised groups could express aggression more freely than unorganised groups by French (1944). He frustrated organised and unorganised groups by giving them soluble problems, which, however could not be solved in the time available. Organised group showed a higher degree of frustration and aggressive reaction was more directly expressed in the organised group (by physical attacks) than the unorganised group.

Thibaut (1950) and Lanzetta (1955) suggested that inter-group aggression under frustration may actually decline when instigator was perceived as an individual of high status. Indirect evidence of hostility (intrinsic hostility) was obtained in a study by Thibaut and Caules (1952), subjects were frustrated by their partners and not allowed to express the hostility. A large number of them wished to quit the experiment. The more hostile the initial disposition the less communication was formed.

It was found that verbal approval can increase aggression over a series of trials in a laboratory setting (Geen 1968; Geen and Pigg 1970; Geen and Stonner 1971; Gentry 1970; Staples and Walters 1974; Buss 1971).

Results of a study by Tidwell, Romeria and Bachus (1977) show that in a follow-up role playing exercise majority of subjects showed a preference for discussion rather than physical fighting as a means to resolving interpersonal dispute after group counselling.

A person who has a great deal of basic hostility may, through reaction formation, display interpersonal response traits of excessive friendliness and sympathy (Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey 1962). According to Lindgren (1973) the form of aggression that concerns us the most is of course violence which is a form of destructive aggression that involves inflicting of physical damage on persons or property (since property is so often symbolically associated with the self).

Brown and Elliot (1965) found that aggressiveness of male nursery children was modified by rewarding the cooperative social behaviour and disregarding all the aggressive behaviour. The repeated sound of an annoying buzzer could cause a child give up thrashing a large size doll (Deur and Parke 1970). Adults reduced the shock given to others if it resulted in counter shock (Donnerstein and Donnerstein 1976; Wilson and Rogers 1975).

But researches also show that punishment increases the probability of aggression to occur (Allinsmith 1960; Anderson and Burgess, 1977; Bandura 1977; Bandura and Walters 1963; Sears Maccoby and Levin 1957).

Bandura and Walters (1963) distinguished between acquisition and maintenance of a response. They maintain that many forms of complex human behaviour are not acquired solely by shaping but that observation has a major role to play in the acquisition process. Bandura, Ross and Ross (1961) tested the theory propounded by

Bandura and Walters (1963) that in observational learning, the initiator watched the model and registered the model's behaviour in the memory system from where it could be retrieved. In their study, two groups of children of both sexes in a nursery school observed a live female model enter a room containing several ~~toy~~ toys amongst which was a large inflated plastic doll. The first group of children watched the model play with the toys for some time and then assault the doll with other toys and her fists in several distinct ways. A second and control group of children observed the same model behave non-aggressively towards the doll. When children from both groups were allowed to enter the room it was found that observation of aggressive behaviour resulted in the first group of children producing the destructive aggressive behaviour of the model more frequently than those children from the control group. Though children had not actually performed matched dependent behaviour and were not reinforced for performing the model responses, the behaviour was learned.

Bandura, Ross and Ross (1961) showed that nursery school children previously exposed to aggressive model were more aggressive in their play than those exposed to non-aggressive model or those who were not exposed to any model.

Some clinicians believed that aggressive responses were considered self-reinforcing since they reduced the drive state produced by frustration, so the likelihood of aggressive response to occur immediately after, was much less. This phenomenon they called catharsis. Experimental evidence is very little to favour catharsis hypothesis (Weiss 1969) but the expressive therapists called ventilationists by Berkowitz (1973) carry this principle to an extreme. According to them bottling up of feelings is unhealthy. Though acting out of aggression in therapy tends to reduce anxieties and tensions but it tantamounts to rewarding aggression. Walters and Brown's (1963) experiments with children indicate that occasional rewards had some more than strengthening effect, the playful punching they had in the experiment in fact

strengthened a broad variety of aggressive responses. Others have demonstrated that rewarding the use of aggressive words encouraged an individual to attack available targets later (Parke, Ewell and Slaby 1972). This is just the opposing hypothesis of catharsis hypothesis. The findings available are inconclusive and insufficient for guiding the therapist. If anything research findings do highlight, the complexity of variables such as the influenced of the observer's characteristics (Borden, 1975), differential anticipation of approval or disapproval from observers (Bandura 1973), differential cue properties of the environment i.e. stimulating aggression (Feshbach 1956, 1961), actual annoyance experienced by the subject (Konechi and Doob 1977) and against whom the aggression is expressed (Doob and Wood 1972).

Usha Kumar (1976) felt that aggression and its ramifications were labelled as antisocial. Some behaviours later on, were accepted because they were natural for human beings. There is a strong justification

for certain kinds of actions that are related to aggression, for example, self defence or assertive action. There is a thin line in certain instances between aggression and healthy assertion. But generally aggression is taken as destruction and annihilation, so it becomes difficult to imagine that aggression may not be all that harmful. And that is why still aggression is taken as antisocial. Aggressive behaviour in accordance with Kelly's views (1955) escapes the anti-social label because it views it in terms of the client's meaning and not in the perceiver's framework. Aggression could be desirable if it leads to perceptual elaboration of one's life space.

Gergen & Gergen (1981) mention that the value bears is inherent in the definition of aggression where it is presented as a negative form of behaviour which should be reduced or controlled. But it overlooks the potentially useful social functions of aggression. At this, peace, simply may mean that oppression is opportune and perfect. But aggression may be used by

those who are opressed, to call attention to their condition (Lubek 1979). Riots in South Africa and Ghetto's in USA gained international support.

By reviewing the related literature on aggression it was found that the correlational survey type researches were not done taking other variables viz self concept achievement motivation and performance as correlates. Mostly aggression was taken as a negative term while in present study it was taken as a continuous of behaviour. Moreover it was found that there was paucity of such Indian research.

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