

**Role of Aggression, Impulsivity and Interpersonal Problem
Among Rapists**

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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the present research work titled, **“Role of Aggression, Impulsivity and Interpersonal Problem Among Rapists”** is the original research work carried out by Mr. Laltanpuia Chhangte under my supervision. The work done is being submitted for the award of the degree of Master of Philosophy in Psychology of Mizoram University.

This is to further certify that the research conducted by Mr. Laltanpuia Chhangte has not been submitted in support of an application to this or any other University or an Institute of Learning.

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DECLARATION

I, Laltanpuia Chhangte, hereby declare that the dissertation entitled, “Role of Aggression, Impulsivity and Interpersonal Problem Among Rapists” is the record of work done by me, that the contents of this dissertation did not form basis of the award of any previous degree to me or to do the best of my knowledge to anybody else, and that the dissertation has not been submitted by me for any research degree in any other University or Institute.

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Chapter – I

INTRODUCTION

Rape is defined as ‘non-consensual sexual penetration of an adolescent or adult obtained by physical force, by threat of bodily harm, or when the victim is incapable of giving consent by virtue of mental illness, mental retardation, or intoxication’ (Searles & Berger, 1987). The term ‘rape’ is sometimes used interchangeably with the term sexual assault (Petraik & Hedge, 2003). Rape is defined in most jurisdictions as sexual intercourse, or other forms of sexual penetration, initiated by a perpetrator against a victim without their consent (Smith & Merrill, 2004). WHO defined sexual violence as any “sexual act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, unwanted sexual comments or advances, or acts to traffic, or otherwise directed, against a person’s sexuality using coercion, by any person regardless of their relationship to the victim, in any setting, including but not limited to home and work.” Sexual violence includes rape, defined as physically forced or otherwise coerced penetration – even if slight – of the vulva or anus, using a penis, other body parts or an object. The attempt to do so is known as attempted rape. Rape of a person by two or more perpetrators is known as gang rape (WHO, 2002).

A person who commits rape is a ‘Rapist’. The term rapist is also used interchangeably with sex offender or sexual perpetrator. Both men and women perpetrate sexual violence, however the majority of sexual offences are committed by men (Steffensmeier et al., 2006; Sikweyiya and Jewkes, 2009; Deering, 2010). People who have been raped or sexually assaulted are known as rape ‘Victims’. Some individuals who have been sexually assaulted prefer to refer to themselves as survivors, whereas others feel that avoidance of the word victim denies the damage that has been done to them (Wang & Rowley, 2007). Based on general population and college student samples from within the United States (U.S.), women have greater victimization rates than men and men have greater perpetration rates than women (Rape, Abuse and Incest National Network, 2009; Rozee and Koss, 2001; U.S. Department of Justice, 2008). According to Baumeister, Catanese, and Wallace (2002), a rape theory cannot simply explain why men commit rape; it must also explain why men do not commit rape. They

also believe that a rape theory should explain why violence against women takes a sexual form and not a purely violent one (Baumeister et al., 2002).

Types of Rapist

The majority of traditional rapist typologies have focused on the relationship to the victim, degree of aggression, motivation, sexual versus nonsexual nature of the assault, and degree of control (impulsive vs. planned). Rapists are often classified by their relationship to the victim (i.e., stranger vs. acquaintance). Seventy-three percent of rapists know their victims (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2012). Acquaintance rapists are characterized as coercive, less violent, and less opportunistic than stranger rapists (Bruinsma, 1995). In contrast, stranger rapists are more hostile and use more expressive violence (i.e., inflicting pain or injury as the goal itself) toward women (Polaschek, Ward, & Hudson, 1997).

Rapists have also been classified based upon motivational characteristics. Groth (1979) created a typology based upon the degree of aggression, the underlying motivation of the offender, and the existence of other antisocial behaviours, which resulted in four types of rapists. The power-reassurance or sexual-aim rapist is characterized by feelings of inadequacy and poor social skills and does not inflict injury upon his victims (National Center for Women and Policing, 2001). The violence used by the power-reassurance rapist is only sufficient to achieve the compliance of the victim or to complete the sexual act. Such an individual may perceive that the victim has shown a sexual interest in him, or that by the use of force the victim will grow to like him (Craissati, 2005). The power-assertive or antisocial rapist is impulsive, uses aggressive methods of control, and abuses substances. His sexual assaults are often unplanned and he is unlikely to use a weapon (Groth, 1979). The third type of rapist is the anger-retaliation or aggressive-aim rapist, who is motivated by power and aggression. This individual sexually assaults for retaliatory reasons and often degrades or humiliates the victim.

The fourth type is the sadistic rapist, who reenacts sexual fantasies involving torture or pain. Sexual sadism is defined as the repeated practice of cruel sexual behaviour that is combined with fantasy and characterized by a desire to control the victim (MacCulloch et. al., 1983). This type is characterized by extensive planning and may often result in sexual murder (Groth, 1979). Although it has been reported in only 5 percent of rapists (Craissati, 2005), sexual sadism has consistently been shown as a strong predictor of both sexual and violent recidivism (Hanson and Morton-Bourgon, 2005).

Although inherently useful for research purposes, these traditional rapist typologies demonstrate little clinical utility because they exclude the irrational cognitions (i.e., offense-supportive beliefs) displayed by most men who commit rape (Hudson & Ward, 1997).

SOME THEORIES

Some theories that may help explain why an individual commits rape are evolutionary theory, feminist theory, self-control theory, narcissistic reactance theory, and American dream theory.

Evolutionary Theory:

A biological explanation of rape includes Thornhill and Palmer's evolutionary theory of rape (Siegert & Ward, 2002). Proponents of this theory claim that those men who were able to force their sexual desires on women were able to reproduce more efficiently, and thus have more offspring with their traits. Thornhill and Palmer are "dismissive of rape theories that emphasize the role of culture and learning in the acquisition of rape-prone traits, arguing that culture is only possible because individuals have evolved capacities that enable them to learn" (Siegert & Ward, 2002). They argue that, over time, rape may have been part of evolution because it was a way for men to "circumvent females' caution when it comes to selecting a

mate” (Siegert & Ward, 2002). They claim this evolutionary trait survived over time because it guaranteed the continuance of the human species. They purport that “rape can only really be understood in the context of mate selection and the adaptive problems faced by both males and females in the Pleistocene environment. The act of rape effectively blocks or interferes with females’ core reproductive strategies” (Siegert & Ward, 2002).

However, Siegert and Ward (2002) also argue that Thornhill and Palmer’s evolutionary theory of rape is not able to adequately explain why men commit rape. They dispute Thornhill and Palmer’s claim that men commit rape for the sole purpose of obtaining sex. Instead, they say that “rapists are an extremely heterogeneous population motivated by quite distinct issues and characterized by different clusters of psychological characteristics,” thus making such a generalized statement impossible (Siegert & Ward, 2002).

Feminist Theory:

Another theory that could help explain rape is Feminist Theory. Feminist theorists assert that rape is only one symptom of the larger problem of a male dominated society (Cahill, 2001). Feminist theorists see rape as more of a violent act than a sexual act, and purport that rape is inspired by political motivations to dominate and degrade. Feminist theorists also deny that rape has an individualistic nature, but claim that rape is “nothing more or less than a conscious process of intimidation by which all men keep all women in a state of fear” (Cahill, 2001). Feminists see rape as serving the function of “ensuring the continued and necessary protection of women by men” (Cahill, 2001). Feminists argue that, as a result of women’s fears of being raped, they become dependent on men to protect them (Cahill, 2001).

Feminists also argue that the representation of women, the social construction of femininity, the socialization of men and the social construction of masculinity can explain rape. For example, men who commit rape against women may claim that women are “inherently

different from men and that these differences cannot be understood readily by men” (Polaschek & Ward, 2002). This “serves to inhibit development of a realistic complex understanding of women’s beliefs and desires” (Polaschek & Ward, 2002). This also implies that these men may feel sex is a “competitive game between two opponents with incompatible needs” (Polaschek & Ward, 2002). Because these men think women are inherently different, it is easier for them to harm women (Polaschek & Ward, 2002).

Theorists who promote the theory of entitlement, which is also linked to gender and feminist theories, postulate that men think they are entitled to having their sexual needs met on demand by women (Polaschek & Ward, 2002). Studies suggest that the likelihood that men will engage in rape depends on their “tendency to attribute to women certain beliefs, capacities, and desires” (Polaschek & Ward, 2002), such as the belief that, “women are inherently duplicitous or constantly seek and desire sex with men” (Polaschek & Ward, 2002). Some men believe that “women exist in a constant state of sexual reception. They were created to meet the sexual needs of men, and women’s most significant needs and desires center around the sexual domain” (Polaschek & Ward, 2002). Men with this belief think that women were put on the earth only to please men, and that women want only what men want. As a result, these men tend to perceive a woman’s actions as being sexual, even when they are not.

Some men also think that a woman’s actions and her sexual needs are often in opposition to each other (Polaschek & Ward, 2002). They think women are “unaware of the unconscious messages their bodies are emitting” (Polaschek & Ward, 2002). They often conclude that “a woman can enjoy sex even when it is forced upon her” and “rape is generally a misinterpretation of sexual cues” (Polaschek & Ward, 2002). This idea leads them to believe that it is acceptable to forcibly rape a woman because, even if she claims she does not want it, she at least subconsciously does.

Often those men who see women as sex objects and as inherently inferior to men are more likely to commit to rape (Polaschek & Ward, 2002). Men who hold these beliefs think that they are “entitled to control women’s sexuality and to determine what a woman really wants” (Polaschek & Ward, 2002). Such men also think they “are entitled to shape women’s sexual and nonsexual behavior and to decide what is acceptable or unacceptable” (Polaschek & Ward, 2002). Therefore, women should meet male needs on demand, men are entitled to force their desires onto women, and therefore, men are entitled to rape women.

Martin, Vieraitis, and Britto’s (2006) study supports the feminist claim that rape is only one symptom of a male dominated society. In their study, areas of greater gender equality tended to have higher rape rates. They state that the “results indicated a backlash effect for the gender equality measures because men may perceive as threatening their hold on socioeconomic status” (Martin et al., 2006). This seems to support the feminist claim; since some males may perceive greater gender equality as a threat, they may resort to rape to feel that they are still dominant.

Self-Control Theory:

One theory that can lead to a man committing rape against a female is based on the premise that the male sex drive is uncontrollable (Polaschek & Ward, 2002). Men with this belief say that their sexual urges cannot be controlled and they are not responsible for their actions. Proponents of this theory “propose both that men’s sexual energy is difficult to control and that women have a key role in its loss of control,” since women deny sex to men who have to relieve their sexual drive (Polaschek & Ward, 2002).

This theory can be tied to Gottfredson and Hirschi’s (1990) low self-control theory. Low self-control theorists posit that, since criminal acts provide immediate gratification, criminals will engage in them because they are not able to defer gratification. In addition,

theorists claim that crime is easy, exciting, requires little skill, and may result in pain to others. Since individuals with low self-control will be more impulsive, adventurous, self-centered, and have fewer skills, they will be more likely to engage in crime because of its perceived benefits (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990).

Studies show that lifestyle impulsivity may be a predictor of sexual aggression (e.g., Prentky & Knight, 1991). Having poor social and interpersonal skills can also be a predictor of sexual aggression (Prentky & Knight, 1991). Studies also show that rapists tend to have “lower empathy, lower adult attachment and stronger sexual dominance motives” compared to the average citizen (Abbey et al., 2007). Thus, men, who have low self-control and are not able to control their sex drive, may obtain “sex without courtship” (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). They are more likely to commit rape.

Narcissistic Reactance Theory:

Another theory that can explain rape is the Narcissistic Reactance Theory, which is also tied to Gottfredson and Hirschi’s (1990) low self-control theory (Agnew, Brezina, Wright & Cullen, 2002). In this theory, narcissists are defined as having a “lower proneness to shame and guilt,” having “unrealistically positive self-evaluations,” and being “especially likely to respond to bad evaluations by blaming other sources, including the evaluator and the technique of evaluation” (Baumeister et al., 2002). These theorists claim that the, “tendency to respond to esteem threats by getting angry and blaming others may contribute to the elevated level of interpersonal difficulties that narcissists report” (Baumeister et al., 2002).

Narcissists have “shallow relationships, along with contempt for and devaluation of others” (Baumeister et al., 2002). Narcissists are “eager to obtain the admiration of others and are prone to envying the successes of others. They are charming and adept at influencing others to do what they want, yet ironically they are also insensitive to others and indifferent to other

people's feelings and desires" (Baumeister et al., 2002). Narcissists tend to be willing to do whatever it takes to achieve the goal that they want from a relationship, including rape (Baumeister et al., 2002). Since they are willing to use any means to achieve their goals, narcissists, arguably, have low self-control and are willing to do whatever it takes to achieve immediate gratification (e.g., rape).

The narcissistic reaction theory of rape is based on the following model: When a man desires sex with a woman, and she refuses, "he is thus presented with a choice between acquiescing to her refusal and using force to obtain sex" (Baumeister et al., 2002). For those who are narcissistic and lack self-control, an unavailable woman would become increasingly attractive to the man as a potential sex partner. The man would try that much harder to reclaim his lost option by having sex with the woman and the man may aggress against the woman, because the woman is the person who restricted the man's freedom. (Baumeister et al., 2002)

According to Narcissistic Reactance Theorists, with narcissism comes an "exaggerated sense of entitlement" which they say could "cause men to form higher expectations of receiving sexual favors than other men would have" (Baumeister et al., 2002). A narcissistic man would, "take a woman's sexual refusal as a personal affront, regardless of her actual reasons" (Baumeister et al., 2002). A narcissistic man is "more likely than others to attribute sexual rejection to personal rather than situational factors" (Baumeister et al., 2002).

In Bushman, Bonacci, van Dijk, and Baumeister's (2003) study, men were shown films depicting rape, and were asked to rate the films in terms of favorability. The findings show that narcissists had a more favorable view of depictions of rape than other men. In fact, "the relatively higher enjoyment of narcissists was most pronounced when the rape scene was preceded by depictions of consensual affectionate activity" (Bushman et al., 2003). This lends

support to the narcissistic reactance theory claim that if a narcissistic man desires sex with a woman, reactance could cause him to force sex on the woman.

American Dream and Crime Theory:

Messner and Rosenfeld (2007) claim that American goals and values pursuant to the American dream are conducive to crime. They claim that the American value of achievement with low emphasis on how to achieve the goal is criminogenic (Messner & Rosenfeld, 2007). According to Messner and Rosenfeld (2007), since the American Dream emphasizes power with little emphasis on the legitimate means to achieve that power, citizens are not restrained from employing any means necessary to achieve power. In other words, the American dream, since it does not specify legitimate means that can be used to obtain power, in fact encourages citizens to employ illegal means (Messner & Rosenfeld, 2007). For example, some rapists may believe that “the world is inherently a hostile and uncaring place where, by default, others are out to harm, exploit, and degrade and deceive in order to promote their own interests” and obtain power (Polaschek & Ward, 2002). They engage in “hostile behavior towards others as a preemptive action to prevent inevitable harm to themselves” (Polaschek & Ward, 2002).

In the US, one’s power is a measure of one’s worth, and it is valued above all else. Since power is advantageous in American society, individuals may use any means to achieve power. If a man is unable to obtain power through legitimate means or feels powerless, he may seek to obtain that power and feel powerful through rape. One study shows that, “Rapists are more motivated to have sex as a means of achieving power over women” (Abbey et al., 2007).

AGGRESSION

In the field of psychology, aggression refers only to a behavior, and not to a mindset or an emotional state. Feelings such as anger, attitudes such as wishing the worst for another, and motivations such as the desire to win or control one's environment may contribute to a person behaving aggressively but are not aggression per se (Warburton & Anderson, 2015). Human aggression is any behavior directed toward another individual that is carried out with the proximate (immediate) intent to cause harm. In addition, the perpetrator must believe that the behavior will harm the target, and that the target is motivated to avoid the behavior (Bushman & Anderson, 2001; Baron & Richardson, 1994; Berkowitz, 1993; Geen, 2001).

Different forms of aggression include physically harming another (i.e., physical aggression such as hitting, biting, kicking, clubbing, stabbing, shooting), hurting another with spoken words (i.e., verbal aggression such as yelling, screaming, swearing, name calling), or hurting another's reputation or friendships through what is said to others verbally or digitally (i.e., relational aggression). Aggression may also be direct (with the victim physically present) or indirect (enacted in the absence of the victim; for example, smashing someone's property or spreading rumors about them) (Warburton & Anderson, 2015).

Aggression also differs by function. It may involve a relatively pure intent to punish/hurt the target person, as in reacting aggressively to provocation (i.e., reactive, affective, hostile, hot, impulsive, or retaliatory aggression) or it may involve a considered and deliberate plan to harm another to gain a desired outcome (i.e., instrumental, proactive, planned, or cold aggression). Aggression may be an automatic response driven by hard-wired self-protection mechanisms (e.g., fight or flight) or involve a script for aggressive behavior that is so commonly enacted that the response is no longer thought-through (Warburton & Anderson, 2015).

A viable alternative approach to understanding the function of aggression is to locate aggressive acts on three dimensions – the degree to which the goal is to harm the victim versus benefit the perpetrator; the level of hostile or agitated emotion that is present; and the degree to which the aggressive act was thought-through (Anderson and Huesmann, 2003).

Five main theories of aggression:

Five main theories of aggression guide most current research. The theories themselves overlap considerably, which is what instigated early attempts to integrate them into a broader framework (Anderson et al., 1995, 1996a).

Cognitive Neo-association Theory:

Berkowitz (1989, 1990, and 1993) has proposed that aversive events such as frustrations, provocations, loud noises, uncomfortable temperatures, and unpleasant odors produce negative effect. Negative affect produced by unpleasant experiences automatically stimulates various thoughts, memories, expressive motor reactions, and physiological responses associated with both fight and flight tendencies. The fight associations give rise to rudimentary feelings of anger, whereas the flight associations give rise to rudimentary feelings of fear. Furthermore, cognitive neo-association theory assumes that cues present during an aversive event become associated with the event and with the cognitive and emotional responses triggered by the event.

In cognitive neo-association theory, aggressive thoughts, emotions, and behavioral tendencies are linked together in memory (Collins & Loftus, 1975). Cognitive neo-association theory also includes higher-order cognitive processes, such as appraisals and attributions. If people are motivated to do so, they might think about how they feel, make causal attributions for what led them to feel this way, and consider the consequences of acting on their feelings.

Such deliberate thought produces more clearly differentiated feelings of anger, fear, or both. It can also suppress or enhance the action tendencies associated with these feelings. Cognitive neo-association theory not only subsumes the earlier frustration aggression hypothesis (Dollard et al., 1939), but it also provides a causal mechanism for explaining why aversive events increase aggressive inclinations, i.e., via negative affect (Berkowitz, 1989). This model is particularly suited to explain hostile aggression, but the same priming and spreading activation processes are also relevant to other types of aggression.

According to social learning theories (Bandura, 1983, 2001; Mischel, 1973, 1999; Mischel & Shoda, 1995), people acquire aggressive responses the same way they acquire other complex forms of social behavior—either by direct experience or by observing others. Social learning theory explains the acquisition of aggressive behaviors, via observational learning processes, and provides a useful set of concepts for understanding and describing the beliefs and expectations that guide social behavior. Social learning theory—especially key concepts regarding the development and change of expectations and how one construes the social world—is particularly useful in understanding the acquisition of aggressive behaviors and in explaining instrumental aggression. For example, Patterson’s work on family interactions and the development of antisocial behavior patterns relies heavily on this approach (Patterson et al., 1989, 1992).

Script Theory:

Huesmann (1986, 1998) proposed that when children observe violence in the mass media, they learn aggressive scripts. Scripts define situations and guide behavior: The person first selects a script to represent the situation and then assumes a role in the script. Once a script has been learned, it may be retrieved at some later time and used as a guide for behavior. This approach can be seen as a more specific and detailed account of social learning processes.

Scripts are sets of particularly well-rehearsed, highly associated concepts in memory, often involving causal links, goals, and action plans (Abelson, 1981; Schank & Abelson, 1977). When items are so strongly linked that they form a script, they become a unitary concept in semantic memory. Furthermore, even a few script rehearsals can change a person's expectations and intentions involving important social behaviors (Anderson, 1983; Anderson & Godfrey, 1987; Marsh et al., 1998). A frequently rehearsed script gains accessibility strength in two ways. Multiple rehearsals create additional links to other concepts in memory, thus increasing the number of paths by which it can be activated. Multiple rehearsals also increase the strength of the links themselves. Thus, a child who has witnessed several thousand instances of using a gun to settle a dispute on television is likely to have a very accessible script that has generalized across many situations. In other words, the script becomes chronically accessible. This theory is particularly useful in accounting for the generalization of social learning processes and the automatization (and simplification) of complex perception-judgment-decision-behavioral processes.

Excitation Transfer Theory:

Excitation transfer theory (Zillmann, 1983) notes that physiological arousal dissipates slowly. If two arousing events are separated by a short amount of time, arousal from the first event may be misattributed to the second event. If the second event is related to anger, then the additional arousal should make the person even angrier. The notion of excitation transfer also suggests that anger may be extended over long periods of time if a person has consciously attributed his or her heightened arousal to anger. Thus, even after the arousal has dissipated the person remains ready to aggress for as long as the self-generated label of anger persists.

Social Interaction Theory:

Social interaction theory (Tedeschi & Felson, 1994) interprets aggressive behavior (or coercive actions) as social influence behavior, i.e., an actor uses coercive actions to produce some change in the target's behavior. Coercive actions can be used by an actor to obtain something of value (e.g., information, money, goods, sex, services, safety), to exact retributive justice for perceived wrongs, or to bring about desired social and self-identities (e.g., toughness, competence). According to this theory, the actor is a decision-maker whose choices are directed by the expected rewards, costs, and probabilities of obtaining different outcomes.

Social interaction theory provides an explanation of aggressive acts motivated by higher level (or ultimate) goals. Even hostile aggression might have some rational goal behind it, such as punishing the provocateur in order to reduce the likelihood of future provocations. This theory provides an excellent way to understand recent findings that aggression is often the result of threats to high self-esteem, especially to unwarranted high self-esteem (i.e., narcissism) (Baumeister et al., 1996, Bushman & Baumeister, 1998).

The General Aggression Model:

The general aggression model (GAM) was designed to integrate existing mini-theories of aggression into a unified whole. This general model has at least four advantages over smaller domain theories. First, it is more parsimonious than the set of existing mini-theories. Second, it better explains aggressive acts that are based on multiple motives, e.g., both instrumental and affect-based aggression (Bushman & Anderson, 2001). Third, it will aid in the development of more comprehensive interventions designed to treat individuals who are chronically

aggressive; many current treatment attempts fail because they focus on only one specific type of aggression or use only one mini-theoretical approach to treatment (Tate et al., 1995). Fourth, it provides broader insights about child rearing and development issues, thus enabling parents, teachers, and public policy makers to make better decisions about child-rearing practices (Zigler et al., 1992).

IMPULSIVITY

Impulsivity is a broad defined concept and consists of several independent dimensions including decreased inhibitory control, intolerance to delay to rewards and quick decision making due to a lack of evaluation of the environment (Evenden, 1999).

The International Society for Research on Impulsivity (ISRI) offers three definitions of impulsivity (DeYoung, 2010):

1. Behavior without adequate thought.
2. The tendency to act with less forethought than do most individuals of equal ability and knowledge.
3. A predisposition toward rapid, unplanned reactions to internal or external stimuli without regard to the negative consequences of these reactions.

Impulsivity may be the most common diagnostic criteria in the fourth version of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual for Mental Disorders (American Psychiatric Association, 1994). In addition to an entire section devoted to impulse-control disorders (e.g., intermittent explosive disorder, kleptomania, and pyromania), impulsivity appears in the diagnostic criteria for psychiatric disorders as varied as: borderline personality disorder (i.e., impulsivity in at least two areas that are potentially self-damaging), antisocial personality disorder (i.e., impulsivity or failure to plan ahead), attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (i.e., blurts out

answers, difficulty waiting turn, and interrupts or intrudes), mania (e.g., excessive involvement in pleasurable activities that have a high potential for painful consequences), dementia (i.e., disturbance in executive functioning), bulimia nervosa (e.g., feeling as though one cannot control how much one is eating), substance use disorders, and the paraphilias. Additionally, impulsivity serves as a centerpiece in etiologic theories of psychopathy (Newman & Wallace, 1993; Lynam, 1996), crime (Moffitt, 1993), and substance use (Wills, Vaccaro & McNamara, 1994).

Dickman (1990) has distinguished two different types of impulsivity: dysfunctional impulsivity defined as the tendency to act with less forethought than do most people which leads the subject into difficulties (“Often I don’t spend enough time thinking over a situation before I act”), and functional impulsivity, that is the tendency to act with little forethought when the situation is optimal (“I am good at taking advantage of unexpected opportunities where you have to do something immediately or lose your chance”).

Dickman’s results illustrate an important issue which is often overlooked – not all impulsive behaviour is disadvantageous. Indeed, one might wonder how obviously impulsive patterns of behaviour have remained intact through evolutionary history if they are as pathological as is sometimes assumed. Dickman has also reviewed evidence for the involvement of cognitive processes in impulsivity (Dickman, 1993), and proposed that differences in impulsivity between individuals may reflect differences in the mechanisms which allocate attention. Even though impulsive individuals claim to act with less forethought, they often respond more slowly in experimental tasks than non-impulsive individuals (Dickman, 1985). Perhaps highly impulsive individuals actually spend less of that preparation time focusing on the task in hand. Low impulsives are superior on tasks which require fixation of attention, whereas Dickman suggests that high impulsives could potentially perform better on tasks where attention needs to be switched rapidly.

Dickman (1993) also identified two aspects of impulsivity which he explicitly omitted from his analysis. The first of these was “reflection-impulsivity”, measured by the matching familiar figures test (Kagan 1966). This exclusion is surprising, since “reflection-impulsivity” would seem to involve attention. Second, Dickman also excludes syndromes of disinhibition (Newman 1987), as evidenced for example, by an increased number of incorrect “go” responses in a go/no-go discrimination test (Newman et al. 1985). Thus, within dysfunctional impulsivity, Dickman identifies at least three separate dimensions – attentional, reflection-impulsivity, disinhibition.

Eysenck and colleagues have discussed impulsivity in terms of their three factor theory of personality which currently consists of neuroticism, extraversion, and psychoticism. In their earlier work, Eysenck and Eysenck (1968) included impulsivity as a subscale of the second order personality trait extraversion. Eysenck and Eysenck (1975) revised their personality scale which, according to Rocklin and Revelle (1981), redefined extraversion in a manner that included liveliness and sociability, but excluded impulsivity. Subsequent to the revision of their three factor theory of personality Eysenck and Eysenck (1977) subdivided impulsivity (labeled broad impulsiveness) into four specific dimensions: narrow impulsiveness, risk-taking, non-planning, and liveliness. They found that the four impulsivity scales correlated differentially with extraversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism. The first factor, narrow impulsiveness, had high correlations with neuroticism and psychoticism, but did not correlate with extraversion. However, the other dimensions, risk-taking, non-planning, and liveliness, were more strongly correlated with extraversion. This work contributed to Eysenck and Eysenck's (1985), reconsideration of their original placement of impulsivity on extraversion (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1975) and their proposal that impulsivity consists of two components: venturesomeness that corresponds to extraversion, and impulsiveness, that corresponds to psychoticism.

Buss and Plomin (1975) included impulsivity, along with emotionality, activity, and sociability in their four factor model of temperament. They hypothesize that impulsivity is a multi-dimensional temperament with inhibitory control, or the ability to delay the performance of a behavior, as its core aspect. The other three components of impulsivity in this system involve the tendency to consider alternatives and consequences before making a decision, the ability to remain with a task despite competing temptations, and the tendency to become bored and need to seek novel stimuli. Although the authors describe impulsivity and the other temperaments as separate dimensions they contend that the traits influence behavior in an interactional manner. For instance, they postulate that while activity and emotionality motivate individuals to action, impulsivity works to slow down or inhibit behavior.

Zuckerman and colleagues likewise have discussed impulsivity in terms of a general model of personality. Zuckerman, Kuhlman, Thornquist and Kiers (1991) began the development of an alternative five-factor model through the factor analysis of a number of general personality inventories. They identified a factor consisting of the four subscales from Zuckerman's Sensation Seeking Scale (Zuckerman, 1994) and other measures of impulsivity which they have since labeled impulsive-sensation seeking. Zuckerman, Kuhlman, Joireman, Teta and Kraft (1993) described this scale as consisting of items that "involve a lack of planning and the tendency to act impulsively without thinking", as well as "experience seeking, or the willingness to take risks for the sake of excitement or novel experiences". They determined that their impulsive sensation seeking scale measured a construct similar to the NEO conscientiousness factor (Costa & McCrae, 1992) and the EPQ psychoticism factor.

Cloninger includes impulsivity as an aspect of novelty seeking, one of the four temperaments. In addition, novelty seeking also includes: (1) the initiation of approach behavior in response to novelty; (2) extravagance in approach to reward cues; and (3) the tendency to quickly lose one's temper. Cloninger therefore, apparently conceptualizes

impulsivity as an automatic response to novel stimuli that occurs at a preconscious level due to biological tendencies.

Tellegen (1982, 1985) has proposed a personality system that includes three higher-order factors. The first two, positive emotionality and negative emotionality, are directly related to mood. The third dimension, constraint, captures an individual's level of caution, restraint, propensity towards risky behavior, and acceptance of conventional society. Individuals low in constraint describe themselves as relatively impulsive, adventurous, and inclined to reject conventional restrictions on behavior. The constraint factor includes a control-versus-impulsiveness scale. In Tellegen's model impulsivity is one of three factors that determines the manner and intensity in which individuals respond to emotional stimuli.

Barratt and colleagues (Barratt, 1993; Gerbing, Ahadi & Patton, 1987; Patton, Stanford & Barratt, 1995; Stanford & Barratt, 1992) have developed one of the most comprehensive approaches to impulsivity by including information from four diverse perspectives: the medical model, the psychological model, the behavioral model, and the social model. The research incorporates a variety of measures including self-report inventories, cognitive and behavioral tasks, and brain-behavioral research with animals (Barratt, 1993). These researchers (Patton et al., 1995) have identified three higher-order factors which they argue reflect the different components of impulsivity: attentional impulsiveness (the ability to focus on the tasks at hand and cognitive instability), motor impulsiveness (acting on the spur of the moment and perseverance), and non-planning (self-control and cognitive complexity). The latter two factors have been identified by other researchers (Luengo, Carrillo-De-La-Pena & Otero, 1991) while the third factor has not replicated reliably.

In an effort to understand impulsivity from a physiological perspective, Newman and colleagues (Newman & Wallace, 1993; Wallace, Newman & Bachorowski, 1991) have

attempted to map Eysenck's system of personality on to Gray's neuropsychological model (Gray, 1987) of approach/avoidance learning. In Gray's model behavior arises from three separate components: the Behavioral Activation System (BAS), the Behavioral Inhibition System (BIS), and the Non-specific Arousal System (NAS). The BAS responds to environmental cues for reward and non-punishment by initiating approach and active avoidance. The BIS, on the other hand, responds to environmental cues for punishment and non-reward, with passive avoidance behavior, or extinction/inhibition of ongoing behavior. Thus, the BAS and BIS have inhibitory connections to each other so that activation of one system inhibits the other. The third system, the NAS, receives excitatory input from both the BAS and the BIS. Stimulation of the NAS in turn serves to intensify the frequency and intensity of behavior emanating from either system. Thus, an increase in the NAS prepares the organism to respond. Further these authors suggest that extraversion reflects the relative strength of the BAS to BIS and that neuroticism reflects the relative strength of the NAS.

Based on this theory, Newman and his colleagues have identified three distinct pathways to impulsive responding. The first pathway (normal impulsivity) involves the dominance of the BAS over the BIS amplified by a highly reactive NAS which results in overresponding to rewards; this pattern is seen in neurotic extraverts. The second pathway (anxious impulsivity) results from a dominant BIS intensified by a highly reactive NAS under conditions in which the dominant response is constrained to be one of approach; this pattern is seen in neurotic introverts. The third pathway, called deficient P-constraint by Lynam (1996), is seen in psychopaths responding under competing reward and punishment contingencies.

INTERPERSONAL PROBLEMS

Interpersonal problems are the characteristic difficulties that an individual experiences in relating to others and are sources of subjective distress (Homey, 1950; Horowitz, 1994; Leary, 1957). Clearly, interpersonal problems are a major reason that people seek psychotherapy (Horowitz, Rosenberg, & Bartholomew, 1993), and each of the major systems of psychotherapy has, in one way or another, addressed the issue of how best to conceptualize, assess, and classify such problems.

Although it may be useful at times to treat interpersonal functioning as a single dimension (Shapiro et al., 1995), this approach neglects, and ultimately obscures, potentially important qualitative differences in interpersonal tendencies. These qualitative distinctions may be broad and crude, as in Horney's (1945) well-known triadic grouping of the "moving against," "moving toward," and "moving away from others" types; or the distinctions may be narrowly individualistic, as evident in many psychodynamic case-formulation methods (Luborsky & Crits-Christoph, 1990).

Classification of interpersonal problems is guided by the circumplex model (Kiesler, 1983; Leary, 1957; Wiggins & Trapnell, 1996). The principal advantage of the circumplex is that it provides a comprehensive and organized description of the varieties of interpersonal traits and problems (Kiesler, 1983; Wiggins & Trapnell, 1996; cf. Benjamin, 1994; Henry, in press); it also has natural ties to the classification process (Gurtman, 1994; Wiggins, Phillips, & Trapnell, 1989).

The circumplex model depicts the variety of interpersonal problems in terms of a circular continuum bisected by two axes: The vertical axis is a control dimension generally referred to as Dominance, and the horizontal axis describes an affiliation dimension usually referred to as Love (Kiesler, 1983). Interpersonal theory originally offered a conceptual framework to describe and predict dyadic interactions between individuals (Kiesler, 1996;

Sadler & Woody, 2003). According to interpersonal theory (Leary, 1957), interactions can be described according to two dimensions: Control and Affiliation. Control represents the degree of influence that one person applies to the partner in the interaction, with dominance at one end of the dimension and submissiveness at the other. Affiliation describes the degree of emotional immediacy, warmth, and support in the interaction, and ranges from friendliness to hostility (Gurtman, 2001; Kiesler, 1996). These dimensions are considered to be orthogonal (Sadler & Woody, 2003).

Roorda et al. state that a central concept in interpersonal theory is the complementarity principle (Carson, 1969; Kiesler, 1983). Complementarity can be used to predict people's reactions to the behaviours of their partner in the communication. For the Affiliation dimension complementary behaviours would include reactions that are similar – friendly behaviour is answered with friendly behaviour, anger with anger. The opposite would be expected on the Control dimension – dominance might be met with submissiveness or vice-versa. For example, a person might be talking (high Control), while the companion responds by listening (Dryer & Horowitz, 1997; Sadler & Woody, 2003; Tracey, 1994; 2004; Wubbels et al., 2006). While complementarity is theorized to be the most probabilistic pattern, it is quite possible for partners to respond in a variety of ways (Estroff & Nowicki, 1992; Tiedens & Jimenez, 2003; Tracey, 2005).

The domain of interpersonal problems within the sexual assault literature is not well developed. In one study involving interpersonal violence, family functioning, attachment and interpersonal problems were studied in violent men (Lawson, 2008). The severe group of violent men displayed less secure attachments, less cohesive family structure, and more hostility dominance related interpersonal problems. The severe group indicated difficulty with perspective taking, being too aggressive, controlling others too much, being suspicious of others, and desiring revenge. In addition, this type of hostile interpersonal problem was also

associated with increased likelihood of psychological aggression and severe violence. While this study did not include sexually aggressive men, there seems to be a parallel in the type of attachment, family environment, and interpersonal style reviewed earlier in sexually aggressive men.

The relationship between attachment and affect regulation, manifesting in interpersonal problems, has been studied in college students (Wei et al., 2005). Emotional reactivity was associated with attachment anxiety, negative mood, and interpersonal problems. On the contrary, emotional cut-off was associated with attachment avoidance, negative mood, and interpersonal problems. These emotional regulation strategies used rigidly may result in negative mood states and interpersonal problems. In individuals with attachment anxiety, they may use this anxiety to draw interpersonal attention, however others soon tire of their overdramatic presentation leading to social isolation. Individuals with attachment avoidance may seek to use distance as a way of preventing emotional conflicts, resulting in loneliness, distress, and interpersonal problems.

Difficulty with intimacy and relationship building, particularly with women, has been suggested as a risk factor for sexual assault (Covell & Scalora, 2002). Social incompetence has been well documented among sex offenders (Stermac et al., 1990). These factors potentially combine to establish the relational dynamics of most sexual assaults. In this scenario, a man demands sex through a mixture of coercion, poor communication, dominance, and aggression, that can be conceptualized as antisocial and immature defenses that are employed to meet a basic human need for intimacy and relationships.

Aggression and Impulsivity:

The initiation of aggressive behavior is closely related to impulsivity, as a trait-characteristic, both in humans and in animals (Cervantes and Delville, 2007; Rudebeck et al.,

2007; García-Forero et al., 2009). Impulsivity is an important component of several externalizing disorders, such as attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) (DSM-IV) and antisocial personality disorder (Swann et al., 2009). In hamsters, high levels of impulsivity are related to high levels of aggression, whereas low aggressive hamsters are less impulsive (David et al., 2004; Cervantes and Delville, 2007). Impulsivity or behavioral inhibition plays an important role in many types of behavior and is an aspect of behavior that can have both beneficial and detrimental outcomes. Fast decisions can result in better outcomes, for example due to saving of time in dangerous situations. However, impulsivity can also have negative consequences, i.e. a correct short term decision is not necessarily beneficial in the long run as well. Impulsivity is an important aspect of several psychiatric disorders and is among others associated with ADHD, eating disorders, mania, substance abuse and personality disorders (American Psychological Association, 1994). The most common definition of impulsivity is action without forethought. However, impulsivity is not a unitary construct and consists of several heterogeneous categories of behaviors. The definition of these categories is a matter of debate among psychologists. However, the most common categories include decreased inhibitory control, intolerance of delay to rewards and quick decision-making due to lack of reflection (Winstanley et al., 2006a). These behavioral categories are reflected in distinct neuroanatomical as well as the neurochemical substrates (Evenden, 1999; Pattij and Vanderschuren, 2008). Anatomically, the striatum, limbic brain regions and the prefrontal cortex have been shown to play an important role in aspects of impulsive behavior. Brain serotonin (5-hydroxytryptamine, 5-HT), dopamine, and noradrenalin systems have been shown to be involved in impulsive behavior as well (Cardinal, 2006; Dalley et al., 2008; Pattij and Vanderschuren, 2008).

Impulsivity has been associated with several psychological disorders including Antisocial Personality Disorder (ASPD), Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD),

Borderline Personality Disorder (BPD), eating disorders (EDs), and substance use disorders (SUDs), as well as suicide (Dolan, Anderson, & Deakin, 2001; Enticott & Ogloff, 2006; Plutchik & van Praag, 1990; Rachlin, 1974; Stein, Hollander, & Liebourit, 1993). Verbal skills deficits and low IQ also have been correlated with impulsive aggression (Barratt, Stanford, Kent, & Felthous, 1997; Mungas, 1988; Vitiello, Behar, Hunt, Stoff & Ricciuti, 1990). Dolan and Fullum (2004) reported that individuals with high scores on measures of impulsivity had significantly higher aggression scores and lower IQ scores than those who scored low on measures of impulsivity.

Impulsivity and Interpersonal Problem:

There is some preliminary evidence that impulsivity may manifest in dysfunctional interpersonal behavior. People with an inability to regulate in one domain (e.g., smoking, drinking, overeating) have been found to have difficulties regulating themselves in other areas (Baumeister & Heatherton, 1996), and thus may also have difficulties in regulating behavior related to effective interpersonal functioning.

Newman, Caspi, Moffit and Silva (1997) studied predictors of adult interpersonal functioning and found they were able to predict interpersonal functioning at age 21 from temperament assessed at age three. At age three, they divided the children into five distinct groups based on behavioral observations: well-adjusted, under-controlled, reserved, confident, and inhibited. The well-adjusted, reserved, and confident children were found to have normal adult interpersonal behavior. Children classified as inhibited at age three had lower levels of support in their social networks and in their homes, but had normal levels of support at work and in romantic relationships. The under-controlled children were found to have lower levels of adjustment and greater interpersonal conflict as adults. Given this preliminary evidence that

impulsivity may be related to later interpersonal dysfunction, it is proposed that such lack of behavioral control will extend to inability to curb dysfunctional interpersonal behavior.

Impulsivity was found to be associated with dysfunctional interpersonal behavior and perceived social support, such that low impulsivity was associated with more dysfunctional interpersonal behavior and less perceived social support. Low impulsivity was also positively associated with each of the other proposed underlying factors of dysfunctional interpersonal behavior including emotion dysregulation, rejection sensitivity, and compulsivity. The relationship between low impulsivity and high compulsivity is consistent with the measurement model, given that low impulsivity shared two indicators in common with compulsivity: having many fears and sensitivity to reward. However, unlike emotion dysregulation and rejection sensitivity, low impulsivity was not shown to be associated with problem alcohol use (Reel, 2011).

Interpersonal aggression is a complex social phenomenon that requires a more complete formulation of aggression than previous theories. Psychologists developed the general aggression model (GAM) to account for previous perspectives in a more integrated way. The GAM attributes two main factors, the current situation and person factors, influencing human aggression (Baron et al., 2006). Situational and individual differences can cause interpersonal aggression. Situational influences include frustrations, insults from environment and other people, discomfort, and other environmental problems. Personal factors include irritability traits, physical arousal, affective states, cognitive appraisals, beliefs about other's intentions, and developmental skills related to aggression. The GAM recognizes that people exposed to high levels of aggression through direct experience or other sources develop tendencies toward aggressive behavior more readily than individuals without as much exposure do to violence. Interpersonal aggressive behavior stem from social, cultural, personal and situational variables.

RAPE IN MIZORAM:

Though Mizoram, which is situated in the North-eastern part of India, is a Christian dominated state, the occurrence of rape is not an exception. The word 'rape' is termed as 'Pawngsual' in Mizo. Pre-colonial practices of *Nula zen* (a form of sexual abuse) and *mi hur zawn* (public punishment of whore/public rape) have been declared illegal since the early part of 20th century by the colonial rulers. A number of Sexual offences and penalties were recorded in the first Mizo customary laws (A monograph on Lushai Customs and Ceremonies, 1927) drafted by colonial ethnographer N.E Parry. In the colonial times, all genuine cases of rape have to be reported to the Superintendent. Rape however is very rare indeed in these hills. Cases of alleged rape are occasionally brought to court, but enquiry generally reveals that the girl has been caught out with a young man and is trying to save her face. A genuine case of rape is unmistakable, as the girl would at once rush to the chief and complain and he would send her straight into court. *Pawngsual* generally takes place in the jungle or down in the *jhums* as it would be practically impossible for anyone to commit rape in a *Lushai* village or in a house as there are always numbers of people about and if the girl was an unwilling party she would have no difficulty at all in getting help (Parry, 1927). *Puitlinglo mutpui* is the offence of having sexual connection with a girl under age. According to *Lushai* custom if the girl was unwilling, the man is to be fined Rs.40 and *salam*, but if the girl was willing no fine is inflicted (Parry, 1927). Nowadays all such cases have to be reported to the Superintendent to be dealt with him. The offence however is very rare.

Rape may not be common in traditional society, though other forms of sexual offences were widely known. If not, Mizo customs may not deal so much about sexual offences. It is said that rape was very common during the insurgency period (1966-1986) but there have not been any specific records of any rape incident. Hence, rape is not a new trend in the Mizo society. However, the nature of rape has been widespread in the recent decade.

RAPE PREVALENCE IN INDIA:

A total of 34,651 rape cases were reported in India in 2015. Among these, in 33,098 cases the offenders were known to the victims, as per National Crime Records Bureau (NCRB) data (NCRB, 2016). The rape victims were among the age group of below six years to over 60 years. Madhya Pradesh has reported 4,391 rape cases, a highest among the states. Whereas, the national capital has reported 2,199 such cases--highest among the union territories (NCRB, 2016).

Nearly 3.27 lakh cases of crimes against women were reported across the country. Of these over 1.3 lakh were sexual offences--1.2 lakh in states and 9,445 in union territories. The sexual offences cases included rape; attempt to commit rape, assault on women with intent to outrage her modesty and insult to modesty of women (NCRB, 2016).

Among the rape cases, Maharashtra reported 4,144 such incidents. A total of 3,644 and 3,025 rapes were reported in Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh, the data said. As many as 2,251 rape cases were reported in Odisha, Assam (1,733), Chhattisgarh(1,560), 1,256 in Kerala, West Bengal registered 1,129, 1,070 in Haryana and 1,041 in Bihar, it said (NCRB, 2016).

Among the union territories, 72 rape cases were reported in Chandigarh, 36 in Andaman and Nicobar Island, eight in Dadar and Nagar Haveli, five in Daman and Diu and three Puducherry. No such crime was reported in Lakshadweep (NCRB, 2016).

Of the total sexual offences against women, Maharashtra reported a highest of 16,989 cases, 12,887 in Madhya Pradesh and 11,343 in Uttar Pradesh. As many as 9,359 such offences were reported in Odisha, 8,873 in Rajasthan, 8,274 in West Bengal, 8,049 in Andhra Pradesh and 6,044 in Telangana (NCRB, 2016).

Chhattisgarh reported 3,500 such cases, 1,743 in Gujarat, 1,738 in Bihar and 270 in Goa. Among the north eastern states, Assam reported a highest of 6,636 sexual offences against women, followed by 609 in Tripura, 231 such cases in Meghalaya, 186 in Arunachal Pradesh, 141 in Mizoram, 133 in Manipur, 53 in Nagaland and 29 such crimes in Sikkim (NCRB, 2016).

Sexual offences against children, prosecuted under the new Protection of Children from Sexual Offences Act, shows a similar trend. Of the 8,800 POCSO cases, in 8341 (94%) instances, the accused were known to the victim (NCRB, 2016).

Chapter – II

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The perceived causes of rape scale developed by Cowan and Campbell (1995) and by Cowan and Quinton (1997) have six dimensions of causes of rape: *female precipitation, male dominance, male sexuality, male hostility, male pathology, and society/socialization*. The six beliefs differentiate individual and societal causes of rape. Among individual causes are those that blame the victim of rape—female precipitation—and those that blame the perpetrator of rape—male hostility, male pathology, and male sexuality. Socio-cultural and systemic causes of rape include male dominance and society/socialization. Male dominance is the belief that rape is due to gender inequality, the cultural belief that women are men's property, and a belief that views rape as the outcome of a patriarchal system in which men have more power than women. Society/socialization is not as overtly politically based as male dominance and assesses the belief that rape is caused by social processes, such as media, that foster male aggression against women. Causes consistent with feminist theory include male dominance, society/socialization, and male hostility toward women. Causes that function as rape myths include female precipitation, male sexuality, and male pathology. Burt (1980) observed that acceptance of interpersonal violence, gender-role stereotyping of attitudes toward women, and adversarial sexual beliefs were antecedents of rape myth acceptance.

Prentky and Knight (1991) identified critical dimensions among rapists, including impulsivity, pervasive anger, aggression, dominance and control, social competence, and alcohol use. Berkowitz's integrative model (Berkowitz, 1992, 1994) conceptualized factors of perpetrator and victim socialization, personality, situational characteristics, and misperceptions as increasing the likelihood of sexual assault. Berkowitz suggests that rape-supportive attitudes and beliefs create the potential to rape that is reinforced by personality factors and early sexual experiences.

An analysis of brain dysfunction in relation to criminal behaviour by Yeudall, Fedora, and Fromm (1987) associated dysfunctions in the basal orbital lobe with "lack of self-control;

emotional outbursts; dramatic changes in personality; lack of, or indifference to emotional feelings or conflicts (loss of normal guilt, shame, remorse, etc.); increases in impulsivity; decrease in inhibition of sexual and aggressive behaviour," although such dysfunctions may not directly affect higher-level cognitive or intellectual processes.

Barth and Kinder (1987) agreed that the habitual sexual behaviour is a disorder of impulsivity and suggested the diagnosis of "atypical impulse control disorder." Travin (1995) presented two additional models of habitual sexual behaviour: an affective disorder and a sexual impulse disorder. Kaplan (1995, 2008) stated that hypersexuality represented a pathological lack of control over sexual desire comparable to overeating for the person with obesity or bulimia, whereas hyposexual desire was a result of pathological over-control of sexual desire, analogous to the eating disordered person with anorexia nervosa. Likewise, Carnes (1996) spoke of the extreme fear of sexual intimacy and obsessive avoidance of sex in his book entitled, "Sexual Anorexia: Overcoming Sexual Self-Hatred." Carnes (1991) claimed 72% of sex addicts exhibited symptoms of "sexual anorexia," otherwise known as sexual aversion-desire disorder.

Kaplan (1995, 2008) described out-of control sexual behaviour as a disorder of faulty regulation of sexual desire, stating that the individual has little ability to control his or her sexual desires. Quadland' (1985) study on sexually compulsive behaviour as evidence and called it as "sexual impulsivity". Barth and Kinder (1987) agreed with Quadland that this is not a disorder of hypersexuality or an inflated sexual desire but one of control. Barth and Kinder attributed this due to a lack of impulse control rather than to an exaggerated desire.

The DSM III (American Psychological Association, 1980) already included Impulse-Control Disorder NOS which seemed to adequately describe sexual impulsivity. However despite the strong logic and early support of the impulsivity nosology, research did not progress

beyond Barth, Kinder and Quadland. Studies show that lifestyle impulsivity may be a predictor of sexual aggression (Prentky & Knight, 1991). Having poor social and interpersonal skills can also be a predictor of sexual aggression. Studies also show that rapists tend to have “lower empathy, lower adult attachment... stronger sexual dominance motives” compared to the average citizen (Abbey et al., 2007). Barratt’s Impulsivity scale (Patton et al., 1995) has proposed a 3-factor model according to which impulsivity can be decomposed as a combination of attentional (“getting easily bored”), motor (“going into action”) and cognitive (“inability to plan”) factors. Impulsivity has been included in the diagnostic criteria for more than 15 maladaptive behaviours in the fourth edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual for Mental Disorders, for example borderline personality disorder (BPD), eating disorder, and substance use disorders (APA, 1994).

The societal implications of aggressiveness, which results in numerous facets of aggressive behaviour and ranges from the establishment of hierarchies and dominance to antisocial behaviour and delinquency, have been examined by anthropologists, psychologists, and sociologists. Biologists have implicated hormones and neurotransmitters in aggressive behaviour, while behavioural pharmacologists have shown that drugs of abuse such as cocaine, amphetamines, and alcohol can lower the threshold to violent and criminal behaviour (Tecott and Barondes, 1996). In both humans and animals, the term aggression comprises a variety of behaviours that are heterogeneous for clinical phenomenology and neurobiological features (Vitiello and Stoff, 1997).

Based on different approaches, human aggression may be differentiated into several subtypes depending on the presence or absence of causes or motivation (spontaneous/impulsive or reactive/hostile, offensive or defensive, proactive/ instrumental), nature of trigger (e.g., conditioned, response to narcissistic insult), characteristics of mediators (physiologic, biochemical, gender-specific, arousal/ anger/affect-related, injurious), form of manifestation

(cognitive, symbolic, verbal, physical, direct versus indirect, open versus concealed), direction (outward versus inward), and function (intentional harm, injury or damage to subjects or objects, expression of an emotional–affective reaction, compensation of hypoarousal) (Archer and Browne, 1989; Berkowitz, 1962, 1974, 1988; Buss, 1961; Campbell, Sapochnik, & Muncer, 1997; Crick and Dodge, 1996; Loeber and Stouthamer-Loeber, 1998). In a recent review on qualitatively distinct subtypes of human aggression the dichotomy between an impulsive–reactive–hostile–affective subtype and a controlled–proactive–instrumental–predatory subtype has emerged as the most promising construct (Vitiello and Stoff, 1997). Finally, antisocial behaviour is also a complex phenomenon that arises out of multiple causes involving biologic, psychological, and social forces, and different forms of violent antisocial behaviour may each result from different biopsychosocial pathways (Scarpa and Raine, 1997).

Stereotypes about rape, called rape myths, reframe sexual aggression as expected male behaviour that women encourage or enjoy (Payne, Lonsway, and Fitzgerald, 1999). “Rape myths are attitudes and beliefs that are generally false but are widely and persistently held, and that serve to deny and justify male sexual aggression against women” (Lonsway and Fitzgerald, 1994). Rape myths have been called “the most self-serving justification of sexual coercion ever invented by callous men” (Zillmann and Weaver, 1989).

Rape myths may be part of a cognitive scheme that reflect the belief in a just world and facilitate sexual aggression (Bohner et. al., 2009). Rape myths can provide comfort to women and men because they allow them to distance themselves and their own behaviour from the possibility of being victims or perpetrators of rape. Bohner and colleagues (2009) found that rape myth acceptance served as a buffer for women who experienced less anxiety when presented with the issue of sexual violence.

Malamuth and his colleagues (Kingston et. al., 2009; Vega & Malamuth, 2007) described a confluence model in which sexual aggression was predicted by the interaction between several factors. These factors include hostile masculinity, the desire for impersonal sex, and general hostility. Hostile masculinity includes several rape supportive beliefs such as rape myth acceptance, adversarial sexual beliefs, hostility toward women, and dominance motives for sex. When men are taught to be dominant and aggressive, this often leads to hypermasculinity; male peer support for sexual aggression, development of rape myths, and adversarial sexual beliefs (Kilmartin, 2000; Rozee & Koss, 2001).

Many studies have shown that men imprisoned for rape exhibit greater sexual arousal to descriptions of sexual aggression than non-sexual offenders (Abel, Barlow, Blanchard & Guild, 1977; Earls & Proulx, 1986; Lalumiere & Quinsey, 1994; Quinsey, Chaplin, & Upfold, 1984; Quinsey, Chaplin, & Varney, 1981). These patterns have been found in non-forensic samples as well, with sexually coercive men displaying greater arousal to forced-sex cues than do non-coercive men (Malamuth, 1986; Malamuth, Check & Briere, 1986). Thus, patterns of arousal to aggressive sexual stimuli not only can discriminate rapists from other criminals, but also can discriminate between sexually aggressive and non-aggressive men in the community (Prentky & Knight, 1991).

Knight and Prentky, in a series of studies of adult child molesters and rapists, further elaborated sex offender classification criteria (Knight & Prentky, 1990; Prentky, Knight, & Rosenberg, 1988). Child molesters were classified on two axes: (a) degree of fixated sexual interest in children and (b) amount of contact with children. Rapists were classified on the basis of motivation of behaviour: opportunistic, pervasively angry, sexual, or vindictive. In both classification systems, the level of social competency was theorized to further differentiate between offender subtypes. Higher levels of violence were associated with less social competency and sexual arousal in response to sadistic behaviour. Rapists who expressed

vindictive hostility toward women were relatively more aggressive. Malamuth (1997) has also found hostility toward women to have predictive validity for understanding sexual aggression in nonclinical samples of young men.

Warren, Reboussin, Hazelwood, and Wright (1991) analyzed victim and offender reports of rape crimes in an attempt to identify which crime patterns were predictive of a rapist's subtype and of escalating offender violence. Rapists with patterns of escalating violence were those who used bindings, transported the victim, did not negotiate with the victim, and were more "macho" in demeanour. Violence levels were higher for rapists classified as power-assertive or anger rapists, as opposed to power-reassurance rapists. These results were believed to indicate that increasing violence is associated with better offender planning and impulse control and with offenders who are more emotionally detached.

Adult rapists have been found to have had more varied criminal careers than child molesters and, usually, to have begun their criminal activity at a younger age (Barbaree, Hudson, & Seto, 1993). They also have been found to complete fewer paraphilic acts than child molesters and to possess fewer social skills deficits (Abel & Rouleau, 1990; Segal & Marshall, 1985a).

There were theoretical foundations and empirical findings concerning to sexual coercion correlates to some psychosocial variables - impulsivity, aggression and interpersonal relationship. Studies show that lifestyle impulsivity may be a predictor of sexual aggression (Prentky & Knight, 1991). Having poor social and interpersonal skills can also be a predictor of sexual aggression. Studies also show that rapists tend to have "lower empathy, lower adult attachment and stronger sexual dominance motives" compared to the average citizen (Abbey et al., 2007). Thus, men, who have low self-control and are not able to control their sex drive, may obtain "sex without courtship" (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990), and are more likely to commit rape.

The present study will try to highlight the role of aggression, impulsivity, and interpersonal relationship among rapists. It is expected that the present study would contribute to a better understanding of some psychological aspect of the rapist when compared with the control group i.e. Non-Rapists, that would provide the importance of psychological aspect for suggestion of prevention, intervention strategies for the rapist and also to advice policy maker to frame any necessary laws for the nation. The fact is that most of the research paid attention to the victim, especially trying to provide psychological and physiological wellbeing but neglecting the rapist - where the main problem starts. The Rapist wellbeing is almost completely neglected as many were simply confined under strict custody. Though, the authorities of the nation start paying attention to the women safety and empowerment but not paying attention to the person- the assault. In responding this challenge, the present study would not only provide academic interest of the researcher by highlighting the behavioural component of the Rapist as their psychological problems, but also the need of psychological intervention. This in turn may help policy maker to formulate prevention, intervention in working out national security as a whole. However, it will be an exploratory in nature as it is going to be the first endeavor and would satisfy academic interest in providing theoretical basis for suggesting the prevention, cessation and intervention of sexual coercion in the targeted population.

Objectives:

The study aimed to elucidate variable relationship, in addition to the correlational inferences, by way of incorporating the 'level of sexual coercion' on the sub-scale/sub-factor measures of **impulsivity, aggression, and interpersonal problem** (dependent measures); the main objective of the study are:

- 1) To examine the level of impulsivity, aggression, and interpersonal problem among the samples.
- 2) To examine significant relationship between the selected dependent variables among the samples.
- 3) To examine the main variable (levels of sexual coercion) independent significant effects on dependent variables.
- 4) To examine the effect of demographic profile in determining effect on dependent variables among the samples.

Hypothesis:

Based on the objectives set forth, the following hypotheses were framed for the present study:

- (1) It was expected that Rapist would score higher on dependent variables than control group i.e., Non-Rapist.
- (2) There will be a significant relationship between the dependent variables.
- (3) It was expected that independent variables would show significant effect on dependent variables.
- (4) It was expected that demographic variables would play a significant role in sexual coercion.

Chapter – III

METHODOLOGY

Sample: Keeping in view the objectives of the study, one hundred and sixty (160) Adult male subjects (80 Rapist and 80 control group) were selected by following purposive sampling procedures from different part of Mizoram as female has higher inhibition and still not come out openly to serve as rapist. 80 Rapists were randomly selected from the inmates of Central Jail from 80 Rapists but come from different part of Mizoram; 80 control were also selected based on background information of the rapist such as age, ecology and socio economic status by using demographic profiles constructed by the researcher, and also from different part of Mizoram. The researcher constructed the demographic profile to be used as an inclusion and exclusion criteria for the selection of sampled looking the objectives of the study, and for which it included all background information of the participants such as locality, age, family monthly income, family size, educational qualifications.

Design: The study incorporated separate group design between two types of ‘sexual coercion’ can be named as “rapist” and “control group/non-rapist”. Under each cell, 80 participants shall be included for psychoactive evaluation of the behavioural measures for study.

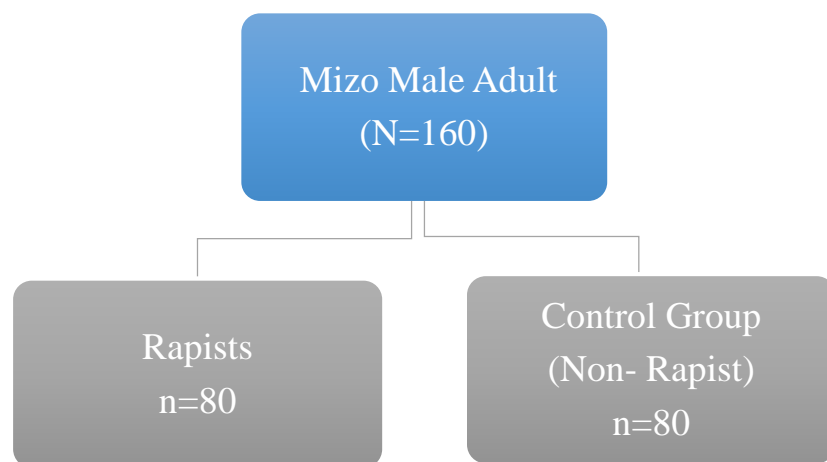


Figure-1: Model depicting equal distribution of subjects for study.

Psychological Tests to be used: To meet the objectives of the present study, the following psychological measures were incorporated:

1. ***Aggression Questionnaire*** (Buss, A. H., & Perry, M., 1992): This 29-item, Likert type scale measures participants' disposition of different areas of aggression such as physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger, and hostility. High scores indicate high aggression.
2. ***Barratt Impulsiveness Scale***, Version 11 or BIS-11 (Patton et al., 1995) is the most widely used self-report measure of impulsive personality traits. The scale has three subscales - attentional impulsiveness (attention and cognitive instability), motor impulsiveness (motor and perseverance) and non-planning impulsiveness (self-control and cognitive complexity) A total score on impulsivity is obtained by summing all the scores on the subscales. Negatively worded items are reversed scored. The items are scored on a four point scale.
3. ***Inventory of Interpersonal Problems – Circumplex version (IIP-C; Alden, Wiggins, & Pincus, 1991)***: The IIP-C consists of 64 items scales with options (0 to 4) for increasing symptoms severity to be responded by the participants, each item designed to measure tendencies of individual's specific experience of interpersonal problem and common to the individual in general.
4. ***Demographic Profile***: Structural questionnaire will be constructed by the researcher for qualitative analysis of rapist behaviour. This questionnaire will be constructed based on personal interview with the rapist while conducting a pilot study of the present research.

Procedure: In the beginning, Demographic profile was framed by the researcher to tap all important information about the participants, and standardized psychological tools to be used were collected; required permission and consent were obtained from concerned authority and participants. The administration of the psychological scale were conducted in individual setting for the ethical purpose of psychological assessment as prescribed by APA ethical code, 2002. Then, the researcher administered the Demographic Profile and psychological tools personally to the subjects. All the prescribed administration procedures laid down by each scale were strictly followed. The response sheet were carefully checked to detect any missing or incomplete answer before leaving the administration setting, and collected for further analysis.

Statistical Analyses:

The quantitative primary data collected was processed with the help of computer and analyzed with statistical packages. The Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) were employed in conjunction with Microsoft Office Excel (2013). The psychometric adequacy of all the behavioral measures is ascertained. The data are then presented with Descriptive statistics (Mean, SD, Skewness and Kurtosis). The inferential statistics principally include ANOVA and multiple regression with careful check of their assumptions.

Chapter – IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Firstly, the descriptive statistics were computed including the mean, standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis, reliability, linearity of the Scales/Sub Scales in checking the normal distribution of scores for checking data structure to decide appropriate statistics on selected behavioural measures such as: i) Aggression Scale (Buss & Perry, 1992); ii) Barratt Impulsiveness Scale, Version 11 (Patton et al., 1995); and iii) Inventory of Interpersonal Problems – Circumplex version (Alden, Wiggins, & Pincus, 1991).

Secondly, Pearson's Bivariate Correlation on scales /subscales of the behavioral measures for the whole samples were calculated to indicate significant relationship of variables for further analysis in predicting cause and effect among variables.

Thirdly, ANOVA was employed to illustrate the independent and interaction effect of the independent variables on selected dependent variables for the whole samples.

Finally, regression analysis was employed to determine prediction (R^2). This was done to detect the presence of autocorrelation in the residuals (prediction errors) to make conclusion of the cause and effect relationship.

Distribution of Demographic variables

Table-1 revealed the distribution of demographic variables such as education, level of church involvement, and level of societal involvement among the selected samples for Rapist and Non-Rapist (Control) groups separately. The results showed that Rapist showed lower educational qualification: 64% below HSLC, 32% of HSLC to HSSLC, and 4% were Undergraduate and above among the rapists, while 57% were below HSLC, 36% of HSLC to HSSLC, and 7% were Undergraduate and above among Non-Rapist (Control group). 27% of the rapists in the samples were below 20 years of age, 36% in 21-30 years, 33% in 31-40 years and 4% are 40 years and above.

Table-1: Distribution of demographic variables of Educational Level, Levels of Church Involvement, Level of Social Involvement among Rapist and Control group (Non-Rapist).

Groups	Educational level (%)			Level of Church Involvement (%)			Level of Social Involvement (%)		
	Below HSLC	HSLC to HSSLC	UG and above	hardly	sometimes	always	hardly	sometimes	always
Rapists	64	32	4	27	57	16	35	52	13
Control group (Non-Rapists)	57	36	7	9	52	39	25	49	26

Psychometric properties of the behavioral measures:

The parametric statistical analyses of Descriptive Statistics, Cronbach Alpha and Split Half Reliability, normality, linearity, and homogeneity were checked with an objective to justify the appropriate statistical treatment for further analyses of the raw data; to work out any requirement of appropriate transformation of the raw data; missing responses, outliers and those responses outside the sampling frame as well as deviated responses from the distributed data which were excluded for statistical analyses were performed for simple and clear presentation of the results, and the descriptive statistics of the Scales/Subscales of the behavioural measures are presented in Table-2 and 3.

The results (Table–2) highlighted the Mean, Standard Deviation, Standard Error, Skewness and Kurtosis of the scales/subscales of: i) Aggression Scale (Buss & Perry, 1992) which has 4 subscales: Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Anger and Hostility; ii) Baratt Impulsiveness Scale, Version 11 (Patton et al., 1995) which has three subscales: Attentional impulsiveness, Motor impulsiveness and Non-Planning impulsiveness; and iii) Inventory of Interpersonal Problems – Circumplex version (Alden, Wiggins, & Pincus, 1991) for the whole sample.

Table-2: The Mean SD, SEM, Kurtosis, and Skewness for the measured variables of the scales and subscales of Aggression Questionnaire with subscales Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Anger and Hostility; Barratt Impulsiveness Scale with subscales Attentional impulsiveness, Motor impulsiveness and Non-Planning impulsiveness; and Inventory of Interpersonal Problems – Circumplex version between Rapist and Control Group (Non-Rapist).

		Aggression				Impulsivity			Interpersonal Problems
		Physical Aggression	Verbal Aggression	Anger	Hostility	Attentional Impulsiveness	Motor Impulsiveness	Non-Planning	
Rapist	Mean	26.86	17.46	22.75	20.26	18.74	32.28	48.71	100.45
	SD	4.44	4.37	5.40	5.15	3.28	5.00	3.79	9.19
	SEM	0.50	0.49	0.60	0.58	0.37	0.56	0.42	1.03
	Kurtosis	-0.85	-0.95	-0.63	-0.01	-1.06	-0.31	-0.50	-0.29
	Skewness	-0.17	-0.08	0.38	0.56	-0.01	-0.32	-0.26	-0.48
Control group (Non-Rapist)	Mean	19.18	12.95	25.26	26.29	23.48	28.91	40.41	90.55
	SD	4.28	4.12	4.64	4.94	3.70	5.18	3.44	7.23
	SEM	0.48	0.46	0.52	0.55	0.41	0.58	0.39	0.81
	Kurtosis	-0.89	-1.12	-0.70	-0.23	-0.93	-0.95	-0.61	0.63
	Skewness	-0.08	0.02	-0.07	-0.36	-0.26	0.24	0.09	0.16
Total	Mean	23.02	15.21	24.01	23.28	21.11	30.59	44.56	95.50
	SD	5.81	4.80	5.18	5.87	4.22	5.35	5.51	9.62
	SEM	0.46	0.38	0.41	0.46	0.33	0.42	0.44	0.76
	Kurtosis	-0.71	-0.77	-0.78	-0.81	-0.83	-0.86	-0.90	-0.77
	Skewness	-0.01	0.04	0.09	0.03	0.05	-0.05	0.06	0.10

Table–2 illustrates the mean scores for the subscales of Aggression between Rapist and Non- rapist (control group) in the present study. **Physical aggression** was observed to be higher among rapists (M=26.86) as compared to control group (M=19.18). The total mean score for physical aggression was 23.02 for the whole sample. **Verbal aggression** was observed to be higher among rapists (M=17.46) as compared to control group (M=12.95). The total mean score for Verbal aggression was 15.21 for the whole sample. **Anger** was observed to be lower among rapists (M=22.75) as compared to control group (M=25.26). The total mean score for Anger was 24.01 for the whole sample. **Hostility** was observed to be lower among rapists (M=20.26) as compared to control group (M=26.29). The total mean score for Hostility was 23.28 for the whole sample.

Figure-2: Histogram for the levels of the subscales of Aggression between Rapist and Control group (Non-Rapist).

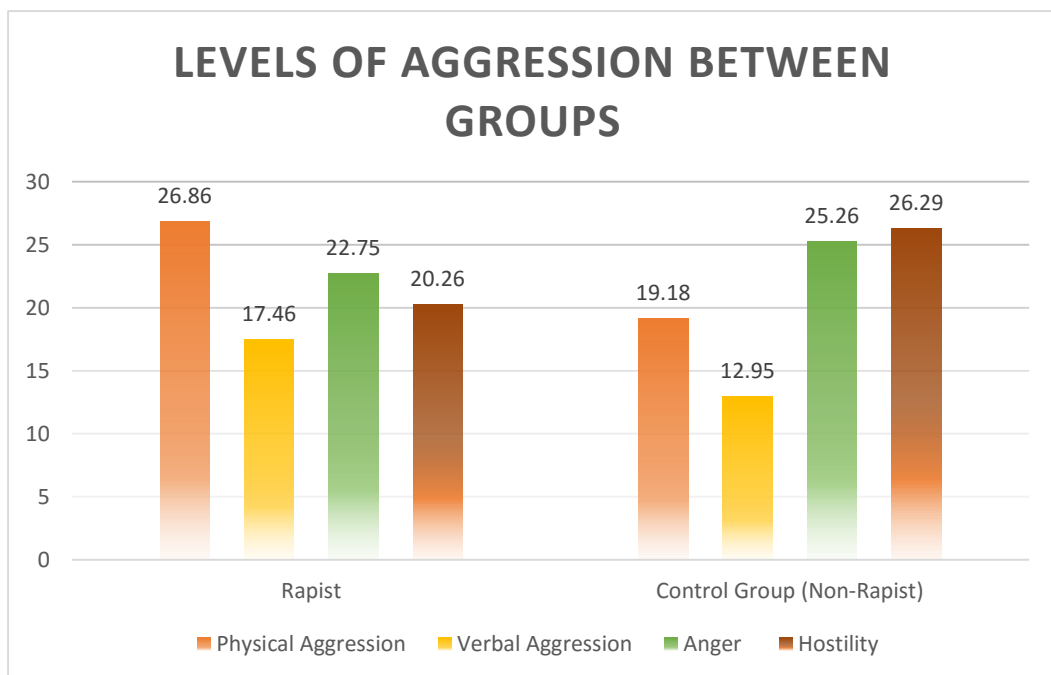
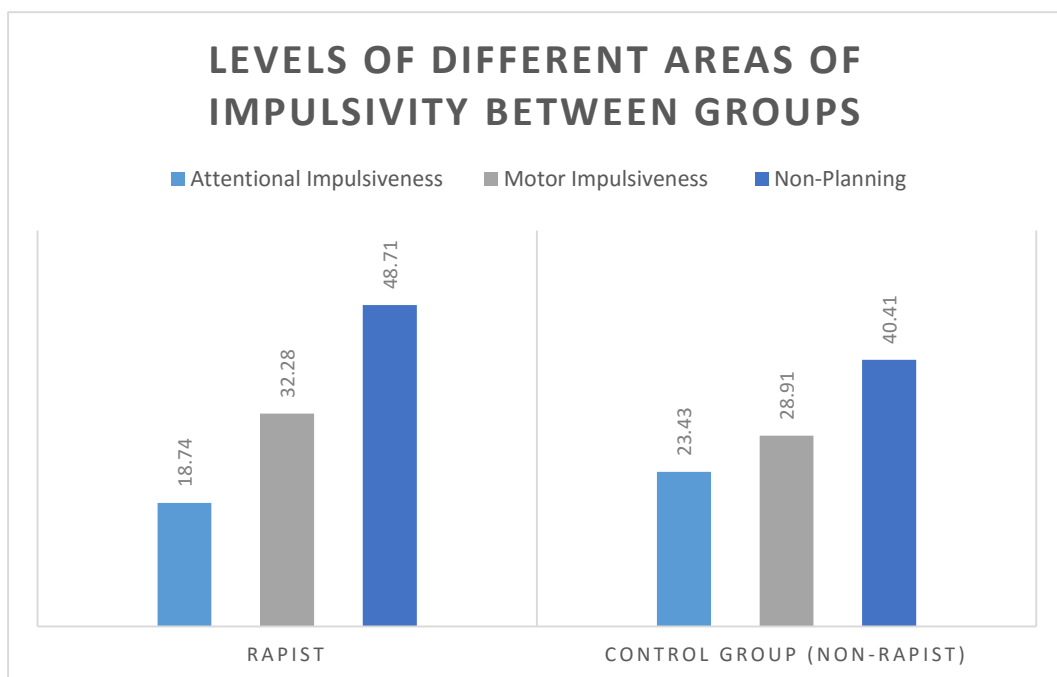


Table-2 indicated the mean scores for the subscales of Impulsivity between Rapist and Non- rapist (control group) as follows:

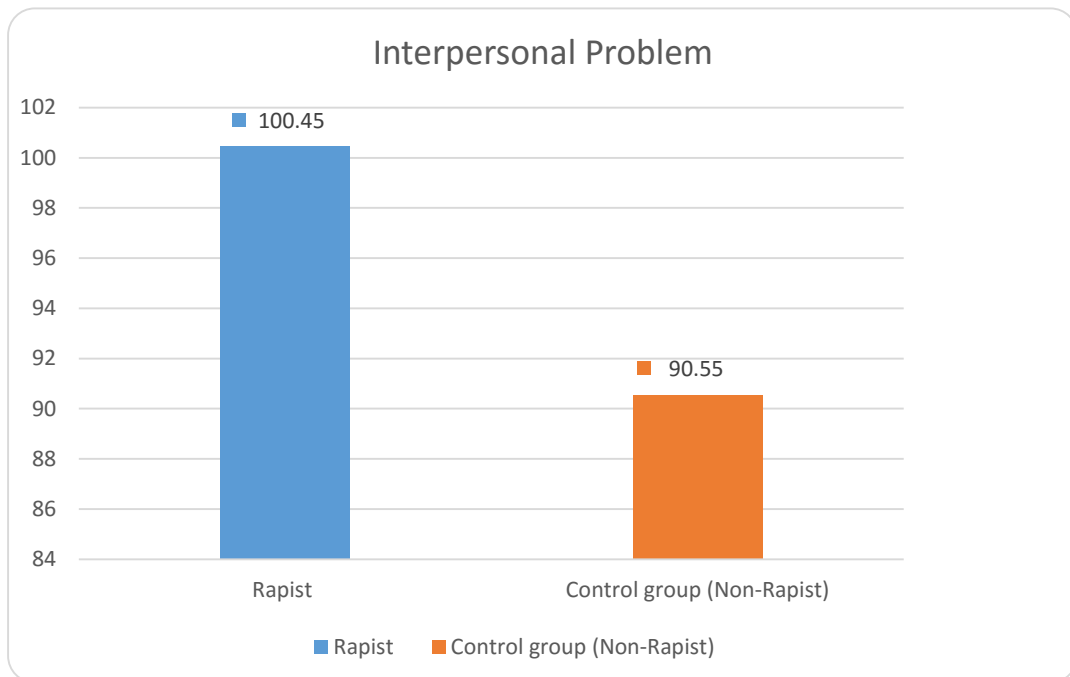
Attentional Impulsiveness was observed to be lower among rapists (M=18.74) as compared to control group (M=23.48). The total mean score for Attentional Impulsiveness was 21.11 for the whole sample. **Motor Impulsiveness** was observed to be higher among rapists (M=32.28) as compared to control group (M=28.91). The total mean score for Motor Impulsiveness was 30.59 for the whole sample. **Non-Planning Impulsiveness** was observed to be higher among rapists (M=48.71) as compared to control group (M=40.41). The total mean score for Non-Planning was 44.56 for the whole sample.

Figure -3: Histogram for the levels of the subscales of Impulsivity between Rapist and Control group (Non-Rapist).



Interpersonal Problem was observed to be higher among rapists ($M=100.45$) as compared to control group ($M=90.55$). The total mean score for Interpersonal Problem was 95.50 for the whole sample, as illustrated in Table-2.

Figure-4: Histogram for the levels of Interpersonal Problem between Rapist and Control group (Non-Rapist).



The reliability coefficients (Cronbach alpha and Split half), Homogeneity and Robust test of the Scales /Subscales of the Behavioral variables of Aggression Scale (Buss & Perry, 1992), Baratt Impulsiveness Scale, Version 11 (Patton et al., 1995), and Inventory of Interpersonal Problems – Circumplex version (Alden, Wiggins, & Pincus, 1991) were computed for the whole samples.

Table-3: Cronbach Alpha, Split-Half Reliability test, Levene's test for equality of variances and Brown-Forsythe Robust Tests for the scales and subscales of Aggression Questionnaire with subscales Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Anger and Hostility; Barratt Impulsiveness Scale with subscales Attentional impulsiveness, Motor impulsiveness and Non-Planning impulsiveness; and Inventory of Interpersonal Problems – Circumplex version.

Statistics		Reliability test		Homogeneity test	
Dependent Variables		Alpha	Split Half	Levene's test	Brown Forsythe
Aggression	Physical aggression	.78	.77	.98	.00
	Verbal Aggression	.75	.77	.50	.00
	Anger Aggression	.75	.77	.19	.00
	Hostility	.65	.63	.69	.00
Impulsivity	Attentional Impulsiveness	.80	.71	.20	.00
	Motor impulsiveness	.62	.53	.40	.00
	Non-planning Impulsiveness	.67	.59	.28	.00
Interpersonal Problem		.57	.84	.08	.00

The reliability coefficient (Cronbach Alphas and Split half) was computed on all behavioural measures. Results (Table-3) revealed substantial consistency over the level of analyses that ascertained applicability of the scales/subscales of the behavioral measures and recommended using a total score of scale as well as subscale scores. Thus, the scales/subscales was retained for further analyses as it fulfilled the statistical assumption of additivity, linearity, normality and homogeneity tests (Glass, Peckham and Sandras, 1972; Tomarken and Serlin, 1986; Rogan and Keselman, 1977). Results revealed substantial item-total coefficient of

correlation (and relationship between the items of the specific scales) for the sub-scales and order of reliability coefficient. Cronbach's alpha was .57 with Split half .84 for Interpersonal problem; Cronbach's alpha was .78 with Split half .77 for Physical Aggression, Cronbach's alpha was .75 with Split half .77 for Verbal Aggression, Cronbach's alpha was .75 with Split half .77 for Anger and Cronbach's alpha was .65 with Split half .63 for Hostility of Aggression Questionnaire subscales; Cronbach's alpha was .80 with Split half .71 for Attentional Impulsiveness, Cronbach's alpha was .62 with Split half .53 for Motor Impulsiveness and Cronbach's alpha was .67 with Split half .59 Non-Planning of Barratt Impulsiveness subscales. The reliability coefficients emerged to be strong indicating the dependability of the test scales for measurement purposes in the project population, and are conforming to the findings in previous research.

The analysis for the preliminary psychometric properties was required for illuminating the applicability of the concerned scale/subscale of the behavioural measures for the present study. The main reason was because scales constructed and validated for measurement of theoretical construct for a given population might not be reliable and valid when taken to another culture setting, and need to check again the reliability and validity (Berry, 1974; Witkin and Berry, 1975), as the differential social desirability and response styles should influence the results among the group (Van de Vjverand Leung, 1997), and for methodological fulfilment.

Diagnostic tests of assumptions that underlie the application of General Linear Model (ANOVA etc.) were first checked using the Levene's Test of Equality of error Variances for each scale to indicate homogeneity of error variance. The Levene's Test of Equality of error Variances for each scale was shown in Table – 3, it revealed non-significance on all the scales that indicated that there was a difference between the variances (heterogeneous variance) on all behavioural variables. The Brown Forsythe results revealed the robust of equality means on all behavioural measures, depicting significant level that counter confirmed the applicability of

parametric statistics for further analysis including ANOVA and Regression Analysis in the present study.

Relationship of the Behavioural Measures

The bivariate relationships between the scales/subscales of the behavioral measures were computed (Table - 4) and it indicated the relationships among the scales/subscales of the behavioral measures. The results of Pearson Correlation on Table-3 revealed that there is more significant positive relationship than significant negative relationship amongst the scales/subscales of the behavioural measures.

As shown on the table, Interpersonal Problem shows significant positive correlation with Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Anger, Hostility, Attentional Impulsiveness, Motor Impulsiveness and Non-Planning. The Pearson Correlation shows highest positive correlation between Interpersonal Problem and Physical Aggression (.38**). This shows that the increase in Interpersonal Problem highly correlates with increase in Physical Aggression.

Physical Aggression has a significant negative correlation with Verbal aggression, Motor Impulsiveness and Non-Planning, depicting that when Physical Aggression increases, Verbal Aggression and Non-planning decreases. The Physical Aggression scale also shows a positive correlation with Anger, Hostility and Attentional Impulsiveness.

Verbal Aggression shows a positive significant relationship with Anger, Hostility and Attentional Impulsiveness whereas it shows a significant negative relationship with Non-Planning. Anger shows a significant negative relationship with Hostility. Hostility shows a greater negative significant relationship with Attentional Impulsiveness while it shows a positive relationship with Non-Planning. Attentional Impulsiveness shows a significant positive correlation with Motor Impulsiveness and Non-Planning whereas Non-Planning has a significant negative correlation with Motor-Impulsiveness.

Table-4: Pearson Correlation for the measured variables of Aggression Questionnaire with subscales Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Anger and Hostility; Barratt Impulsiveness Scale with subscales Attentional impulsiveness, Motor impulsiveness and Non-Planning impulsiveness; and Inventory of Interpersonal Problems – Circumplex version.

Dependent Variables	Physical aggression	Verbal Aggression	Anger Aggression	Hostility	Attentional Impulsiveness	Motor impulsiveness	Non-planning	Interpersonal Problems
Physical aggression	1	-.25**	.19*	.35**	.45**	-.31**	-.52**	.38**
Verbal Aggression		1	.05	.27**	.30**	-.03	-.36**	.24**
Anger Aggression			1	-.21**	-.13	.12	.10	.31**
Hostility				1	-.37**	.14	.30**	.26**
Attentional Impulsiveness					1	.16*	.40**	.31**
Motor impulsiveness						1	-.33**	.14
Non-planning Impulsivity							1	.32**
Interpersonal Problems								1

Prediction of the independent variables on dependent variables:

The ANOVA was computed to depict the significant independent effects of ‘Rapist and Control group’ on the test scores of the behavioural measures.

Table-5: ANOVA for Rapist and Control Group (Non-Rapist) on Aggression Questionnaire with subscales Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Anger and Hostility; Barratt Impulsiveness Scale with subscales Attentional impulsiveness, Motor impulsiveness and Non-Planning impulsiveness; and Inventory of Interpersonal Problems – Circumplex version.

Statistics		ANOVA		
Dependent Variables		F-ratio	Sig.	Eta Squared
Aggression	Physical aggression	124.10	.00	.44
	Verbal Aggression	45.19	.00	.22
	Anger Aggression	9.95	.00	.06
	Hostility	57.04	.00	.27
Impulsivity	Attentional Impulsiveness	73.44	.00	.32
	Motor impulsiveness	17.47	.00	.10
	Non-planning Impulsivity	109.94	.00	.57
Interpersonal Problem		57.38	.00	.27

The illustration of the results of ANOVA (**Table-4**) showed significant independent effects of ‘Rapist and Control Group’ for all the analyses on the Interpersonal Problem (F=57.38, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .27$); Physical Aggression (F=124.10, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .44$), Verbal Aggression (F=45.19, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .22$), Anger (F=9.95, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .06$), and Hostility (F=57.04, $p < .01$,

$\eta^2=.27$), from the subscales of Aggression Questionnaire; Attentional Impulsiveness ($F=73.44$, $p<.01$, $\eta^2=.32$), Motor Impulsiveness ($F=17.47$, $p<.01$, $\eta^2=.10$) and Non-Planning ($F=109.94$, $p<.01$, $\eta^2=.57$), from the subscales of Barratt Impulsiveness Scales.

The result showed interaction effect of 'Rapist and Control group' on Interpersonal Problem with an effect-size of 27% ($p<.01$); Physical Aggression with effect-size of 44% ($p<.01$); Verbal Aggression with effect-size of 22% ($p<.01$); Anger with effect-size of 6% ($p<.01$); Hostility with effect-size of 27% ($p<.01$); Attentional Impulsiveness with effect-size of 32% ($p<.01$); Motor Impulsiveness with effect size of 10% ($p<.01$); and Non-Planning with effect-size of 57% ($p<.01$).

The result on Table-4 shows that Rapist and Control group had the highest significant independent effect on Physical Aggression ($F=124.10$, $p<.01$, $\eta^2=.44$), from the subscales of Aggression Questionnaire, among all the variables; and the largest effect-size was found to be on Non-Planning from the subscales of Barratt Impulsiveness Scales with 57% ($p<.01$).

Multiple Regression Analysis:

Prediction of Aggression, impulsivity and interpersonal problems on Rape:

For prediction of rape from the behavioral measures of scales and sub-scales of Aggression (Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Hostility and Anger), Impulsivity (Attentional Impulsiveness, Motor Impulsiveness and Non-Planning) and Interpersonal Problems, Multiple regression analyses was employed which attempted to determine the antecedents and the consequences relationship among the behavioural measures of the theoretical construct as envisioned, results was presented in **Table-5**.

The regression model with Anger ($R^2=.44$; $F=124.29$; $p<.01$), Verbal Aggression ($R^2=.22$; $F=45.19$; $p<.01$), Physical Aggression ($R^2=.06$; $F=9.95$; $p<.01$) and Hostility ($R^2=.26$; $F=57.04$; $p<.01$) as predictors and Rape as the criterion emerged to be statistically significant.

The R square and the change statistics are presented in **Table-5** which revealed that Anger as a predictor explained 44% of variances, Verbal Aggression explained 22%, Physical Aggression explained 6% and Hostility explained 26% on Rape. Aggression ($R^2 = .61$; $F=59.35$; $p<.01$) as predictor explained 61% of variances on Rape.

The regression model with Attentional Impulsiveness ($R^2 = .32$; $F=73.44$; $p<.01$), Motor Impulsiveness ($R^2 = .10$; $F=17.47$; $p<.01$) and Non- Planning ($R^2 = .57$; $F=209.95$; $p<.01$) as predictors and Rape as the criterion emerged to be statistically significant. The R square and the change statistics are presented in Table-4 which revealed that Attentional Impulsiveness as a predictor explained 32% of variances, Motor Impulsiveness explained 10% and Non-Planning explained 57% on Rape. Impulsivity ($R^2 = .64$; $F=98.20$; $p<.01$) as predictor explained 64% of variances on Rape.

The regression model with Interpersonal Problems ($R^2 = .26$; $F=57.38$; $p<.01$) as predictor and Rape as the criterion emerged to be statistically significant. The R square and the change statistics are presented in Table-5 which revealed that Interpersonal Problems as a predictor explained 26% of variances on Rape.

Table-6: Model summary of the Multiple regression analyses in the prediction of Rape from the measured variables of Aggression Questionnaire with subscales Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Anger and Hostility; Barratt Impulsiveness Scale with subscales Attentional impulsiveness, Motor impulsiveness and Non-Planning impulsiveness; and Inventory of Interpersonal Problems – Circumplex version.

Criterion	Predictor	R ²	F Change	Sig.	Beta	t	Sig.	
Rape	Aggression	Anger	.44	124.29	.00	.66	-11.14	.00
		Verbal Aggression	.22	45.19	.00	-.47	-6.72	.00
		Physical Aggression	.06	9.95	.00	.24	3.15	.00
		Hostility	.26	57.04	.00	.51	7.55	.00
		Aggression (all subscales)	.61	59.35	.00	-.49	-8.85	.00
						-.28	-5.19	.00
						.08	1.64	.10
						.25	4.51	.00
	Impulsivity	Attentional Impulsiveness	.32	73.44	.00	.56	8.52	.00
		Motor Impulsiveness	.10	17.47	.00	-.32	-4.18	.00
		Non-Planning Impulsiveness	.57	209.95	.00	-.76	-14.49	.00
		Impulsivity (all subscales)	.64	98.20	.00	.31	5.95	.00
						-.06	-1.28	.21
						-.61	-11.34	.00
Interpersonal problems		.26	57.38	.00	-.51	-7.50	.00	

Prediction of demographic variables on Rape:

To reveal the role of demographic profiles on rape, the non- parametric statistics of Kendall’s tau-b and Binary Logistic regression were computed and put together in **Table-6**. The Kendall’s tau-b revealed that church participation and societal participation showed significant effect on rape. The bivariate correlation coefficients of demographic variables under study as expected are presented in Table - 6 provided sufficient evidences to show predictability of church involvement was stand out among the demographic variables; which revealed a satisfactory goodness of model-fit with HosmerLemeshow test ($X^2=2.83$; $p> .01$) in supporting evidence of the prediction of church participation.

Table-7: Kendall’s tau-b and Binary Logistic regression for Demographic Variables relationships such as Educational Level, Level of Church Involvement and Level of Societal Involvement and prediction on rape.

Independent effect of Demographic variables on rape			
Statistics	Educational Level (%)	Level of Church Involvement (%)	Level of societal Involvement (%)
Kendall's tau-b	.41 NS	4.24**	2.41*
Binary Logistic Regression (Demographic variables as predictor and rape as criterion)			
Demographic variables	Level of Education	Church Involvement	Societal involvement
Beta	.38	1.04	.14
Exp (Beta)	1.46	2.83**	1.15

The results of the present study got support of earlier study as Rapist has critical dimensions including impulsivity, pervasive anger, aggression, dominance and control and social competence (Prentky and Knight, 1991). Other studies also show that rapists tend to have “lower empathy, lower adult attachment and stronger sexual dominance motives” compared to the average citizen (Abbey at al., 2007). There are several studies that showed that men who were imprisoned for rape exhibit greater sexual arousal to descriptions of sexual aggression than non-sexual offenders (Abel, Barlow, Blanchard, & Guild, 1977; Earls & Proulx, 1986; Lalumiere & Quinsey, 1994; Quinsey, Chaplin, & Upfold, 1984; Quinsey, Chaplin, & Varney, 1981). The present study hypothesized that Rapist would score higher on dependent variables than the control group. From the result of the study, we can conclude that Rapists exhibited higher scores on Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Motor Impulsiveness, Non-Planning and Interpersonal Problems than the control group. Control group i.e., Non-rapists showed higher scores on Anger, Hostility and Attentional Impulsiveness.

Studies show that lifestyle impulsivity may be a predictor of sexual aggression (Prentky & Knight, 1991). Having poor social and interpersonal skills can also be a predictor of sexual aggression (Abbey at al., 2007). Rapists who expressed vindictive hostility toward women were relatively more aggressive (Knight & Prentky, 1990; Prentky, Knight, & Rosenberg, 1988). Malamuth (1997) has also found hostility toward women to have predictive validity for understanding sexual aggression in nonclinical samples of young men. The initiation of aggressive behavior is closely related to impulsivity, as a trait-characteristic (Cervantes and Delville, 2007; Rudebeck et al., 2007; García-Forero et al., 2009). High levels of impulsivity are related to high levels of aggression, whereas low aggressives are less impulsive (David et al., 2004; Cervantes and Delville, 2007). Dolan and Fullum (2004) reported that individuals with high scores on measures of impulsivity had significantly higher aggression scores.

Impulsivity was found to be associated with dysfunctional interpersonal behavior and perceived social support, such that low impulsivity was associated with more dysfunctional interpersonal behavior and less perceived social support. Low impulsivity was also positively associated with each of the other proposed underlying factors of dysfunctional interpersonal behavior including emotion dysregulation, rejection sensitivity, and compulsivity. (Reel, 2011).

Secondly, it was hypothesized that there will be a significant relationship between the dependent variables. From the result of the present study, we can conclude that significant correlation was found between the scales/subscales of Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Anger, Hostility, Attentional Impulsiveness, Motor Impulsiveness, Non-Planning and Interpersonal Problems.

Interpersonal Problem shows significant positive correlation with Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Anger, Hostility, Attentional Impulsiveness, Motor Impulsiveness and Non-Planning. Highest positive correlation was found between Interpersonal Problem and Physical Aggression. This shows that the increase in Interpersonal Problem highly correlates with increase in Physical Aggression.

Physical Aggression has a significant negative correlation with Verbal aggression, Motor Impulsiveness and Non-Planning, depicting that when Physical Aggression increases, Verbal Aggression and Non-planning decreases. The Physical Aggression scale also shows a positive correlation with Anger, Hostility and Attentional Impulsiveness.

Verbal Aggression shows a positive significant relationship with Anger, Hostility and Attentional Impulsiveness whereas it shows a significant negative relationship with Non-Planning. Anger shows a significant negative relationship with Hostility. Hostility shows a greater negative significant relationship with Attentional Impulsiveness while it shows a positive relationship with Non-Planning. Attentional Impulsiveness shows a significant

positive correlation with Motor Impulsiveness and Non-Planning, whereas Non-Planning has a significant negative correlation with Motor-Impulsiveness.

Berkowitz's integrative model (Berkowitz, 1992, 1994) conceptualized factors of perpetrator and victim socialization, personality, situational characteristics, and misperceptions as increasing the likelihood of sexual assault. Berkowitz suggests that rape-supportive attitudes and beliefs create the potential to rape that is reinforced by personality factors and early sexual experiences. Barth and Kinder (1987) agreed that the habitual sexual behaviour is a disorder of impulsivity and suggested the diagnosis of "atypical impulse control disorder." Studies show that lifestyle impulsivity may be a predictor of sexual aggression (Prentky & Knight, 1991). Having poor social and interpersonal skills can also be a predictor of sexual aggression. Malamuth (1997) has also found hostility toward women to have predictive validity for understanding sexual aggression in nonclinical samples of young men. Violence levels were higher for rapists classified as power-assertive or anger rapists, as opposed to power-reassurance rapists. These results were believed to indicate that increasing violence is associated with better offender planning and impulse control and with offenders who are more emotionally detached. (Warren, Reboussin, Hazelwood, and Wright, 1991).

Thirdly, it was hypothesized that that independent variables would show significant effect on dependent variables. The results of the present study indicated that Rapist showed significant independent effects on the Interpersonal Problem; Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Anger and Hostility, from the subscales of Aggression Questionnaire; Attentional Impulsiveness, Motor Impulsiveness and Non-Planning, from the subscales of Barratt Impulsiveness Scales. The largest effect-size was found to be on Non-Planning from the subscales of Barratt Impulsiveness Scales. Anger as a predictor explained 44% of variances, Verbal Aggression explained 22%, Physical Aggression explained 6% and Hostility explained 26% on Rape. Aggression as a whole as predictor explained 61% of variances on Rape.

Attentional Impulsiveness as a predictor explained 32% of variances, Motor Impulsiveness explained 10% and Non-Planning explained 57% on Rape. Impulsivity as a whole as predictor explained 64% of variances on Rape. Interpersonal Problems as a predictor explained 26% of variances on Rape.

Rapists comprise an extremely heterogeneous population that cannot be characterized by single motivational or etiological factors' (Miller and Schwartz, 1995). No two rapists are alike, however, they often exhibit some similar characteristics. Previous studies conducted by other researchers also suggested that the average age of rapists at arrest is 31, of which twenty-two percent of imprisoned rapists report that they are married. (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1997). Many defense attorneys will talk about whether their client, the alleged assailant, either fits the profile of a rapist or doesn't. This is an invalid argument because there is no typical profile of a rapist. This is why it is good to focus on that person's behaviour instead of who they are in their community (Maas, 2007).

The final hypothesis was that demographic variables would play a significant role in sexual coercion. The result of the present study results showed that the Rapist showed lower educational qualification than the Non-Rapist (Control group). The results revealed that church participation and societal participation showed significant effect on rape. The bivariate correlation coefficients of demographic variables under study provided sufficient evidences to show predictability of church involvement was stand out among the demographic variables.

Chapter – V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The present study tried to highlight the role of aggression, impulsivity, and interpersonal relationship among rapists with an expectation that would contribute to a better understanding of some psychological aspect of the rapist when compared with the control group, that would provide the importance of psychological aspect for suggestion of prevention, intervention strategies for the rapist and also to advice policy maker to frame any necessary laws for the nation. The fact is that most of the research paid attention to the victim but almost completely neglected as many were simply confined under strict custody. The present study also aims to provide research bases for policy maker to formulate prevention, intervention in working out national security as a whole in particular the targeted population.

One hundred and sixty (160) Adult male subjects (80 Rapist and 80 control group) were selected by following purposive sampling procedures from different part of Mizoram as female has higher inhibition and still not come out openly to serve as rapist. 80 Rapists were randomly selected from the inmates of Central Jail who were collected come from different part of Mizoram; 80 control were also selected based on background information of the rapist such as age, ecology and socio economic status by using demographic profiles constructed by the researcher. The researcher constructed the demographic profile to be used as an inclusion and exclusion criteria for the selection of sampled looking the objectives of the study, and for which it included all background information of the participants such as locality, age, family monthly income, family size, educational qualifications.

The study incorporated separate group design between two types of 'sexual coercion' which are termed as "rapist" and "control group/non-rapist". Under each cell, 80 participants shall be included for psychoactive evaluation of the behavioural measures for study.

To meet the objectives of the present study, the following psychological measures were incorporated: i) Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992) which has 4 subscales:

Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Anger and Hostility; ii) Baratt Impulsiveness Scale, Version 11 (Patton et al., 1995) which has three subscales: Attentional impulsiveness, Motor impulsiveness and Non-Planning impulsiveness; and iii) Inventory of Interpersonal Problems – Circumplex version (Alden, Wiggins, & Pincus, 1991) to tap the role of aggression, impulsivity and interpersonal problems among the rapist.

Demographic profile was framed by the researcher to tap all important information about the participants, and standardized psychological tools to be used were collected; required permission and consent were obtained from concerned authority and participants. The administration of the psychological scale were conducted in individual setting for the ethical purpose of psychological assessment as prescribed by APA ethical code, 2002. All the prescribed administration procedures laid down by each scale were strictly followed. The response sheet were carefully checked to detect any missing or incomplete answer before leaving the administration setting, and collected for further analysis.

The quantitative primary data collected was processed with the help of computer and analyzed with statistical packages. The Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) were employed in conjunction with Microsoft Office Excel (2013). The psychometric adequacy of all the behavioral measures is ascertained. The data are then presented with Descriptive statistics (Mean, SD, Skewness and Kurtosis). The inferential statistics principally include ANOVA and multiple regression with careful check of their assumptions. Results were as follows:

The parametric statistical analyses of Descriptive Statistics, Cronbach Alpha and Split Half Reliability, normality, linearity and homogeneity were checked with an objective to justify the appropriate statistical treatment for further analyses of the raw data; to work out any requirement of appropriate transformation of the raw data; missing responses, outliers and

those responses outside the sampling frame as well as deviated responses from the distributed data which were excluded for statistical analyses were performed for simple and clear presentation of the results.

The reliability coefficients (Cronbach alpha and Split half), Homogeneity and Robust test of the Scales /Subscales of the Behavioral variables of Aggression Scale (Buss & Perry, 1992), Barratt Impulsiveness Scale, Version 11 (Patton et al., 1995), and Inventory of Interpersonal Problems – Circumplex version (Alden, Wiggins, & Pincus, 1991) were computed for the whole samples. Results revealed substantial consistency over the level of analyses that ascertained applicability of the scales/subscales of the behavioral measures and recommended using a total score of scale as well as subscale scores. Thus, the scales/subscales was retained for further analyses as it fulfilled the statistical assumption of additivity, linearity, normality and homogeneity tests (Glass, Peckham and Sandras, 1972; Tomarken and Serlin, 1986; Rogan and Keselman, 1977). Results revealed substantial item-total coefficient of correlation (and relationship between the items of the specific scales) for the sub-scales and order of reliability coefficient. Cronbach's alpha was .57 with Split half .84 for Interpersonal problem; Cronbach's alpha was .78 with Split half .77 for Physical Aggression, Cronbach's alpha was .75 with Split half .77 for Verbal Aggression, Cronbach's alpha was .75 with Split half .77 for Anger and Cronbach's alpha was .65 with Split half .63 for Hostility of Aggression Questionnaire subscales; Cronbach's alpha was .80 with Split half .71 for Attentional Impulsiveness, Cronbach's alpha was .62 with Split half .53 for Motor Impulsiveness and Cronbach's alpha was .67 with Split half .59 Non-Planning of Barratt Impulsiveness subscales. The reliability coefficients emerged to be strong indicating the dependability of the test scales for measurement purposes in the project population, and are conforming to the findings in previous research.

The analysis for the preliminary psychometric properties was required for illuminating the applicability of the concerned scale/subscale of the behavioural measures for the present study. The main reason was because scales constructed and validated for measurement of theoretical construct for a given population might not be reliable and valid when taken to another culture setting, and need to check again the reliability and validity (Berry, 1974; Witkin and Berry, 1975), as the differential social desirability and response styles should influence the results among the group (Van de Vjverand Leung, 1997), and for methodological fulfilment.

Diagnostic tests of assumptions that underlie the application of General Linear Model (ANOVA etc.) were first checked using the Levene's Test of Equality of error Variances for each scale to indicate homogeneity of error variance. The Levene's Test of Equality of error Variances for each scale revealed non-significance on all the scales that indicated that there was a difference between the variances (heterogeneous variance) on all behavioural variables. The Brown Forsyth results revealed the robust of equality means on all behavioural measures, depicting significant level that counter confirmed the applicability of parametric statistics for further analysis including ANOVA and Regression Analysis in the present study.

The results of the present study got support of earlier study as Rapist has critical dimensions including impulsivity, pervasive anger, aggression, dominance and control and social competence (Prentky and Knight, 1991). Other studies also show that rapists tend to have "lower empathy, lower adult attachment and stronger sexual dominance motives" compared to the average citizen (Abbey at al., 2007). There are several studies that showed that men who were imprisoned for rape exhibit greater sexual arousal to descriptions of sexual aggression than non-sexual offenders (Abel, Barlow, Blanchard, & Guild, 1977; Earls & Proulx, 1986; Lalumiere & Quinsey, 1994; Quinsey, Chaplin, & Upfold, 1984; Quinsey, Chaplin, & Varney, 1981). The present study hypothesized that Rapist would score higher on dependent variables than the control group. From the result of the study, we can conclude that

Rapists exhibited higher scores on Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Motor Impulsiveness, Non-Planning and Interpersonal Problems than the control group. Control group i.e., Non-rapists showed higher scores on Anger, Hostility and Attentional Impulsiveness.

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Aggression, Anger, Hostility, Attentional Impulsiveness, Motor Impulsiveness, Non-Planning and Interpersonal Problems.

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Verbal Aggression shows a positive significant relationship with Anger, Hostility and Attentional Impulsiveness whereas it shows a significant negative relationship with Non-Planning. Anger shows a significant negative relationship with Hostility. Hostility shows a greater negative significant relationship with Attentional Impulsiveness while it shows a positive relationship with Non-Planning. Attentional Impulsiveness shows a significant positive correlation with Motor Impulsiveness and Non-Planning, whereas Non-Planning has a significant negative correlation with Motor-Impulsiveness.

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two percent of imprisoned rapists report that they are married. (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 1997). Many defense attorneys will talk about whether their client, the alleged assailant, either fits the profile of a rapist or doesn't. This is an invalid argument because there is no typical profile of a rapist. This is why it is good to focus on that person's behaviour instead of who they are in their community (Maas, 2007).

The final hypothesis was that demographic variables would play a significant role in sexual coercion. The result of the present study results showed that the Rapist showed lower educational qualification than the Non-Rapist (Control group). The results revealed that church participation and societal participation showed significant effect on rape. The bivariate correlation coefficients of demographic variables under study provided sufficient evidences to show predictability of church involvement was stand out among the demographic variables.

Limitations: The present study taken care the methodological confinement conducted as far as possible was not free from limitations. The selected Rapist samples were collected from Central Jail, Aizawl and could not include those rapist who were outside the central jail due to time limitation, and that may leave vacuum for not getting complete information though they were from different part of Mizoram. Only three psychological variables were used to tap psychological functions of Rapist while many other variables were left out limiting the causes of raping behaviour. The sample size may be too small as there may be many hidden rapists present in the population which could not be included in sample size estimation in this study. Qualitative study including more demographic variables should be incorporated to strengthen the quantitative study like the present study. Longitudinal study would provide the details psychological functions which could not be observed with cross sectional methods.

Suggestion for further study: Based on the experience of the present study, larger sample size was suggested to get more information about the psychological foundations of rapist; inclusion of more psychological variables would provide more information like parenting, personality, clinical conditions, socioeconomic status and so on; longitudinal / case study of Rapist would provide specific problems with on set, situation, etc.; qualitative methods could provide unforeseen problems which were not envision in the objectives.

Significance of the Study: Like other research, the present study could not cover the whole psychological functions of Rapist but it does provide clearly the role of aggression, impulsivity and interpersonal problems among Rapist comparing with Non-Rapists Adult Male samples. The present study revealed that Rapist exhibited higher scores on Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Motor Impulsiveness, Non-Planning and Interpersonal Problems than the control group. Control group showed higher scores on Anger, Hostility and Attentional Impulsiveness. There was significant positive correlation with Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Anger, Hostility, Attentional Impulsiveness, Motor Impulsiveness and Non-Planning. Highest positive correlation was found between Interpersonal Problem and Physical Aggression. Physical Aggression has a significant negative correlation with Verbal aggression, Motor Impulsiveness and Non-Planning, depicting that when Physical Aggression increases, Verbal Aggression and Non-planning decreases. The Physical Aggression scale also shows a positive correlation with Anger, Hostility and Attentional Impulsiveness. Verbal Aggression shows a positive significant relationship with Anger, Hostility and Attentional Impulsiveness whereas it shows a significant negative relationship with Non-Planning. Anger shows a significant negative relationship with Hostility. Hostility shows a greater negative significant relationship with Attentional Impulsiveness while it shows a positive relationship with Non-Planning. Attentional Impulsiveness shows a significant positive correlation with Motor Impulsiveness

and Non-Planning, whereas Non-Planning has a significant negative correlation with Motor-Impulsiveness.

Results showed significant independent effects of Rape on the Interpersonal Problem; Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Anger and Hostility, from the subscales of Aggression Questionnaire; Attentional Impulsiveness, Motor Impulsiveness and Non-Planning, from the subscales of Barratt Impulsiveness Scales. The largest effect-size was found to be on Non-Planning from the subscales of Barratt Impulsiveness Scales.

The results revealed that church participation and societal participation showed significant effect on rape. The bivariate correlation coefficients of demographic variables under study provided sufficient evidences to show predictability of church involvement was stand out among the demographic variables. Demographic variables provided that highest prevalence of rapist were found in 20-40 years age group and in lower educational level; and also having lower church involvement and societal participation compare to non-rapist.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX-I
DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

Name : _____

Age : _____ (in years) **Sex:** Male / Female

Marital Status: Single / Married / Divorced

Educational Qualification: Below HLSC / HLSC to HSSLC / Graduate & Above

Occupation : _____ **Personal Income:** _____

No. of Siblings: _____ **Birth Order:** _____

Religion : Hindu / Christianity / Muslim / Buddhism / Others

Birth Place : _____ **Present Address:** _____

Church Participation: Never / Sometimes / Always

Societal Participation: Never / Sometimes / Always

Parent's Occupation : a) Father: _____

b) Mother: _____

Parent's Marital Status: Married / Divorced / Deceased

APPENDIX-II (A)

AGGRESSION QUESTIONNAIRE (MIZO TRANSLATION)

KAIHHRUAINA: Dinglam panga chhanna thlan tur awm hmang hian i nihna mil bera i hriat thai bial rawh.		Ka nihna a ni miah lo	Ka nihna a ni lem lo	Ka hre lo	Ka nihna a ni ve tho	Ka nihna dik tak a ni
1	Ka thian thenkhatte chuan thinchhe tak niin min ngai.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Ka dikna leh chanvo tharum hmanga humhalh a tul chuan, tharum thawh ka hreh lo.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Ka chung a mi an that viau chuan, engnge ka lakah an beisei tiin ka ngaihtuah thin.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Ka pawm loh zawng a thiante an awm chuan, tlang takin ka hrilh mai thin.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Ka thin a rim lutuk chuan thil ka ti chhe thin.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Midang nen kan ngaihdan a in an loh chuan, ka hnial ngei ngei thin.	1	2	3	4	5
7	A chang chuan engvanga thinrim mai thin nge ka nih ka ngaihtuah thin.	1	2	3	4	5
8	A chang chuan mite kutthlak lo tura ka insum theihna ka hlah thin.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Thinchhe lo tak ka ni.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Hmelhriat ngai loh inti nelawm lutuk hi chu ka ringhlel thin.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Ka hmelhriatte ka vau tawh thin.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Ka thinrim thut thin a, mahse ka theihnglhil leh vat thin.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Min tih thinrim viau chuan, kut thlak ka hreh lem lo.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Miin min tih thinrim chuan, an mahni ka ngaihdan pawh ka hrilh mai ang.	1	2	3	4	5
15	A chang chuan itsikna in ka khat thin.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Mi chung a kutthlak hrim hrim hi a thatna ka hre lo.	1	2	3	4	5
17	A chang chuan ka nunphung hi rothap lutuk in ka hre thin.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Thinrim insum hi harsa ka ti.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Ka thinrim viau a ka beidawn chuan, ka lungawi lohna ka tilang thin.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Mite ngaihdan ang nilo ngaihdan nei fo thin in ka inhria.	1	2	3	4	5
21	A chang chuan miin hmsit takin hnunglamah min nuih thin niin ka hria.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Miin kut min thlak chuan kut ka thlak let ve thin.	1	2	3	4	5
23	A chang chuan thinchhe lutuk puakkeh mai tur ang in ka in ngai.	1	2	3	4	5
24	Mite hi chuan thinrim lova hahchawlhna hun an nei reng thin in ka hria.	1	2	3	4	5
25	Mi thenkhat chu ka ngaihteih loh zawngin an awm lui a, kan intibuai fo thin.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX-II (B)

AGGRESSION QUESTIONNAIRE

(AQ; Buss & Perry, 1992)

<p>INSTRUCTIONS: Using the 5 point scale shown on the right, indicate how uncharacteristic or characteristic each of the following statements is in describing you. Place your rating in the box to the right of the statement.</p>		<p>extremely uncharacteristic of me</p>	<p>somewhat uncharacteristic of me</p>	<p>neither uncharacteristic nor characteristic of me</p>	<p>somewhat characteristic of me</p>	<p>extremely characteristic of me</p>
1	Some of my friends think I am a hothead.	1	2	3	4	5
2	If I have to resort to violence to protect my rights, I will.	1	2	3	4	5
3	When people are especially nice to me, I wonder what they want.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I tell my friends openly when I disagree with them.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I have become so mad that I have broken things.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I can't help getting into arguments when people disagree with me.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I wonder why sometimes I feel so bitter about things.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Once in a while, I can't control the urge to strike another person.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I am an even-tempered person.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I am suspicious of overly friendly strangers.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I have threatened people I know.	1	2	3	4	5
12	I flare up quickly but get over it quickly.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Given enough provocation, I may hit another person.	1	2	3	4	5
14	When people annoy me, I may tell them what I think of them.	1	2	3	4	5
15	I am sometimes eaten up with jealousy.	1	2	3	4	5
16	I can think of no good reason for ever hitting a person.	1	2	3	4	5
17	At times I feel I have gotten a raw deal out of life.	1	2	3	4	5
18	I have trouble controlling my temper.	1	2	3	4	5
19	When frustrated, I let my irritation show.	1	2	3	4	5
20	I sometimes feel that people are laughing at me behind my back.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I often find myself disagreeing with people.	1	2	3	4	5
22	If somebody hits me, I hit back.	1	2	3	4	5
23	I sometimes feel like a powder keg ready to explode.	1	2	3	4	5
24	Other people always seem to get the breaks.	1	2	3	4	5
25	There are people who pushed me so far that we came to blows.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX-III (A)

BARRATT IMPULSIVENESS SCALE (MIZO TRANSLATION)

KAIHRUAINA: Mihring hian kan chetdan leh ngaihtuahna ah hian ze hran theuh kan nei a. Hei hi mite chetdan leh ngaihtuahna enchhinna a ni. Ngun takin a thu hi chhiar la, a dinglama chhanna dik i tih ber hi thai bial rawh.		Ngai lo	A chang chang in	Zing viau	Ziah thin
1	Tihtur reng reng fel takin ka ruahman thin.	1	2	3	4
2	Ngaihtuah hmasa lovin thil ka ti thin.	1	2	3	4
3	Ka rilru ka siam vat thin.	1	2	3	4
4	Mi ngaihsam tak ka ni.	1	2	3	4
5	Engahmah ka ngaihtuahna ka pe tak tak lo.	1	2	3	4
6	Ngaihtuahna hrang hrang ka nei.	1	2	3	4
7	Ka tihtur a hma daih atangin ka ruahman lawk thin.	1	2	3	4
8	Mahni in thunun thei tak ka ni.	1	2	3	4
9	A tul hunah awlsam takin ka rilru ka sawrbing thei.	1	2	3	4
10	Ka thil neih atangin, a tul hun a tan, hun bi neiin a then ka dahtha thei.	1	2	3	4
11	Infiam emaw mi ka zirtir lai hian ka zak thin.	1	2	3	4
12	Thil reng reng fimkhur takin ka ngaihtuah thin.	1	2	3	4
13	Ka hnathawh tur him leh him loh ngun takin ka ngaihtuah lawk thin.	1	2	3	4
14	Ngaihtuah lawk lovin thil ka sawi mai mai thin.	1	2	3	4
15	Thil harsa tak tak ngaihtuah nuam ka ti.	1	2	3	4
16	Ka hnathawh ka thlak ka thlak thin.	1	2	3	4
17	Tha tho thuta thil tih ka ching.	1	2	3	4
18	Ngaihtuahna nasa tak hmanga chinfel ngai tihtur hi ka ning zung zung thin.	1	2	3	4
19	Hmun leh hmunah ka tihtur nia ka hriat ka ti nghal thin.	1	2	3	4
20	Hmanhmawh lutuk lo a thil ngaihtuah mi ka ni.	1	2	3	4
21	Ka chenna ka thlak ka thlak thin.	1	2	3	4
22	Phur thut a thil lei ka ching.	1	2	3	4
23	Tum khatah thil pakhat chiah ka ngaihtuah thin.	1	2	3	4
24	Ka ngainat zawng ka thlak ka thlak thin.	1	2	3	4
25	Ka lakluh aia tam ka hmang emaw, hman ka duh thin.	1	2	3	4
26	Thil tul lo ka ngaihtuah tel fo thin.	1	2	3	4
27	Hma lam hun aiin tun hun hi ka ngaipawimawh zawk.	1	2	3	4
28	Puipunnaah ka awm hle hle thei lo.	1	2	3	4
29	PUZZLES ka ngaina.	1	2	3	4
30	Hmalam hun ngaipawimawh tak ka ni.	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX-III (B)

BARRATT IMPULSIVENESS SCALE, VERSION 11

(BIS-11; Patton et al., 1995)

DIRECTIONS: People differ in the ways they act and think in different situations. This is a test to measure some of the ways in which you act and think. Read each statement and circle the appropriate number on the right side of this page. Do not spend too much time on any statement. Answer quickly and honestly.		Rarely/Never	Occasionally	Often	Almost Always/Always
1	I plan tasks carefully.	1	2	3	4
2	I do things without thinking.	1	2	3	4
3	I make-up my mind quickly.	1	2	3	4
4	I am happy-go-lucky.	1	2	3	4
5	I don't "pay attention."	1	2	3	4
6	I have "racing" thoughts.	1	2	3	4
7	I plan trips well ahead of time.	1	2	3	4
8	I am self-controlled.	1	2	3	4
9	I concentrate easily.	1	2	3	4
10	I save regularly.	1	2	3	4
11	I "squirm" at plays or lectures.	1	2	3	4
12	I am a careful thinker.	1	2	3	4
13	I plan for job security.	1	2	3	4
14	I say things without thinking.	1	2	3	4
15	I like to think about complex problems.	1	2	3	4
16	I change jobs.	1	2	3	4
17	I act "on impulse."	1	2	3	4
18	I get easily bored when solving thought problems.	1	2	3	4
19	I act on the spur of the moment.	1	2	3	4
20	I am a steady thinker.	1	2	3	4
21	I change residences.	1	2	3	4
22	I buy things on impulse.	1	2	3	4
23	I can only think about one thing at a time.	1	2	3	4
24	I change hobbies.	1	2	3	4
25	I spend or charge more than I earn.	1	2	3	4
26	I often have extraneous thoughts when thinking.	1	2	3	4
27	I am more interested in the present than the future.	1	2	3	4
28	I am restless at the theater or lectures.	1	2	3	4
29	I like puzzles.	1	2	3	4
30	I am future oriented.	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX-IV (A)

INVENTORY OF INTERPERSONAL PROBLEMS – CIRCUMPLEX VERSION
(Mizo Translation)

Ngai miahlo	Ngai manglo	A changin	Zing viau	Ziah
0	1	2	3	4

Hetiang ah hian harsatna ka nei:		
1.	Midangte ring ngam thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
2.	Midangte hnar thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
3.	Rual pawl thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
4.	Midang laka thu zep tlat thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
5.	Duhzawng midangte hriattir thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
6.	Min tibuailo turin mi ka hrihl thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
7.	Mi thar hnena mahni inhriattir hmasa thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
8.	Mite nena kan inkara harsatna awm hmachhawn mai thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
9.	A tul dan azira mahni ngaihndan sawi ngam thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
10.	Thinrimna mite hriattir thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
11.	Midang laka thutiam vawng tlat mi.	(0 1 2 3 4)
12.	Midang tana hotu ni thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
13.	A huntawn dan azira thinurna tilang mi.	(0 1 2 3 4)
14.	Midangte zinga awm ho nuam ti	(0 1 2 3 4)
15.	Mite chungah hmangaihna lantir thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
16.	Midang remthiam mi.	(0 1 2 3 4)
17.	Midangte ngaihndan hriatthiampui thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
18.	Mahni rilru sutthlek midangte hriattir mai thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
19.	A tul huna dingnghet tlat thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
20.	Mite hnena hmangaihna thu hrihl thin mi.	(0 1 2 3 4)
21.	Midangte laka ramri kham chin nei.	(0 1 2 3 4)
22.	Midangte hmakhua ngaia pui peih.	(0 1 2 3 4)
23.	Midang nena inlaichinna nei tha.	(0 1 2 3 4)
24.	Tihtakzeta midangte harsatna hriatthiampui thin	(0 1 2 3 4)
25.	Mite nen inhnia thin	(0 1 2 3 4)
26.	Mahnia awm nuam ti.	(0 1 2 3 4)
27.	Midangte thilpek pe thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
28.	Lainate chungah thinrimna lantir thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
29.	Midangte mamawh mahni aia dah pawimawh thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
30.	Midangte hlimnaa inrawlh lo.	(0 1 2 3 4)
31.	Hotute thurawn zawm thin	(0 1 2 3 4)

32.	Mite hlimnaa hlimpui thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
33.	Midangte inkawmpui tura sawm thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
34.	Mite chungah thinrim thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
35.	Mahni rilru sutthlek mite hnena lantir.	(0 1 2 3 4)
36.	Mi chungah thinrim mahila ka ngaidam leh thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
37.	Mite'n mamawh viau mahse mahni tana tha bak ngaihtuah ngailo.	(0 1 2 3 4)
38.	Mite rilru hliam tur dawn lova thil ngaihtuah.	(0 1 2 3 4)
39.	Mite zinga mahni inringtawk.	(0 1 2 3 4)

A hnuiaia mi te hi ka ti fo thin:

40.	Mite nena insual nasa thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
41.	Mite harsatna chinfel hi mahni mawhphurhna a ngai mi.	(0 1 2 3 4)
42.	Mite thusawi awih zung zung mi.	(0 1 2 3 4)
43.	Ka ngaihdan mite hmaah ka phawrh mah mah thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
44.	Mahnia tlat nuam ka ti.	(0 1 2 3 4)
45.	Mite chungah ka thinurna ka tilang fo thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
46.	Mi rilru hneh tumin ka bei fo thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
47.	Ka uang mah mah thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
48.	Mite hriathlawh nih ka tum thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
49.	Midangte ka ring fo thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
50.	Mi te ka thuhnuiaia dah ka tum fo thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
51.	Midangte mamawh mahni mamawhna aiin ka dah pawimawh hmasa mah mah thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
52.	Midangte ngaihdan sawhsawsak tum tlat mi.	(0 1 2 3 4)
53.	Duh duha midangin an kaihhruai theih mi.	(0 1 2 3 4)
54.	Midangte tana thilphal tak ka ni.	(0 1 2 3 4)
55.	Midangte ringhlel thin mi	(0 1 2 3 4)
56.	Midangte ringhlel phawt thin mi.	(0 1 2 3 4)
57.	Mite mahni duh anga awm tir tum thin mi.	(0 1 2 3 4)
58.	Mahni chungchang mite bulah ka sawi hnem mah mah thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
59.	Mite ka hnial nasa mah mah thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
60.	Midangte hla taka dah thin mi.	(0 1 2 3 4)
61.	Mite ka inhneh tir mah mah thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
62.	Mi hmaah ka mualpho fo thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
63.	Midangte sualna avanga lungngai thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)
64.	Harsatna min thlentu chungah phuba lak tum thin.	(0 1 2 3 4)

APPENDIX-IV (B)

INVENTORY OF INTERPERSONAL PROBLEMS – CIRCUMPLEX VERSION
(IIP-C; Alden, Wiggins, & Pincus, 1991)

Please rate each statement using the following rating scale:

Not At All	A Little Bit	Moderately	Quite A Bit	Extremely
0	1	2	3	4

It is hard for me to:		
1.	Trust other people.	(0 1 2 3 4)
2.	Say “no” to other people.	(0 1 2 3 4)
3.	Join in on groups.	(0 1 2 3 4)
4.	Keep things private from other people.	(0 1 2 3 4)
5.	Let other people know what I want.	(0 1 2 3 4)
6.	Tell, a person to stop bothering me.	(0 1 2 3 4)
7.	Introduce myself to new people.	(0 1 2 3 4)
8.	Confront people with problems that come up.	(0 1 2 3 4)
9.	Be assertive with another person.	(0 1 2 3 4)
10.	Let other people know when I’m angry.	(0 1 2 3 4)
11.	Make a long-term commitment to another person.	(0 1 2 3 4)
12.	Be another person’s boss.	(0 1 2 3 4)
13.	Be aggressive toward someone when the situation calls for it.	(0 1 2 3 4)
14.	Socialize with other people	(0 1 2 3 4)
15.	Show affection to people.	(0 1 2 3 4)
16.	Get along with people.	(0 1 2 3 4)
17.	Understand another person’s point of view.	(0 1 2 3 4)
18.	Express my feelings to other people directly.	(0 1 2 3 4)
19.	Be firm when I need to be.	(0 1 2 3 4)
20.	Experience a feeling of love for another person.	(0 1 2 3 4)
21.	Set limits on other people.	(0 1 2 3 4)
22.	Be supportive of another person’s goals in life.	(0 1 2 3 4)
23.	Feel close to other people.	(0 1 2 3 4)
24.	Really care about other people’s problems.	(0 1 2 3 4)
25.	Argue with another person.	(0 1 2 3 4)
26.	Spend time alone.	(0 1 2 3 4)
27.	Give a gift to another person.	(0 1 2 3 4)
28.	Let myself feel angry at somebody I like.	(0 1 2 3 4)
29.	Put somebody else’s needs before my own.	(0 1 2 3 4)
30.	Stay out of other people’s happiness.	(0 1 2 3 4)

31.	Take instructions from people who have authority over me.	(0 1 2 3 4)
32.	Feel good about another person's happiness.	(0 1 2 3 4)
33.	Ask other people to get together socially with me.	(0 1 2 3 4)
34.	Fed angry at other people.	(0 1 2 3 4)
35.	Open up and tell my feelings to another person.	(0 1 2 3 4)
36.	Forgive another person after i've been angry.	(0 1 2 3 4)
37.	Attend to my own welfare when somebody else is needy.	(0 1 2 3 4)
38.	Be assertive without worrying about hurting other's feeling.	(0 1 2 3 4)
39.	Be self-confident when I am with other people.	(0 1 2 3 4)

The following are things that I do too much:		
40.	I fight with other people too much.	(0 1 2 3 4)
41.	I feel too responsible for solving other people's problems.	(0 1 2 3 4)
42.	I am too easily persuaded by other people.	(0 1 2 3 4)
43.	I open up to people too much.	(0 1 2 3 4)
44.	I am too independent.	(0 1 2 3 4)
45.	I am too aggressive toward other people.	(0 1 2 3 4)
46.	I try to please other people too much.	(0 1 2 3 4)
47.	I clown around too much.	(0 1 2 3 4)
48.	I want to be noticed too much.	(0 1 2 3 4)
49.	I trust other people too much.	(0 1 2 3 4)
50.	I try to control other people too much.	(0 1 2 3 4)
51.	I put other people's needs before my own too much.	(0 1 2 3 4)
52.	I try to change other people too much.	(0 1 2 3 4)
53.	I am too gullible.	(0 1 2 3 4)
54.	I am overly generous to other people.	(0 1 2 3 4)
55.	I am too afraid of other people	(0 1 2 3 4)
56.	I am too suspicious of other people.	(0 1 2 3 4)
57.	I manipulate other people too much to get what I want	(0 1 2 3 4)
58.	I tell personal thing to other people too much.	(0 1 2 3 4)
59.	I argue with other people too much.	(0 1 2 3 4)
60.	I keep other people at a distance too much.	(0 1 2 3 4)
61.	I let other people take advantage of me too much.	(0 1 2 3 4)
62.	I feel embarrassed in front of other people too much.	(0 1 2 3 4)
63.	I affected by another person's misery too much.	(0 1 2 3 4)
64.	I want to get revenge against people too much.	(0 1 2 3 4)



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PARTICULARS OF THE CANDIDATE

NAME OF CANDIDATE : Mr. Laltanpuia Chhangte
DEGREE : Master of Philosophy
DEPARTMENT : PSYCHOLOGY
TITLE OF DISSERTATION : “Role of Aggression, Impulsivity and Interpersonal Problem Among Rapists”.
DATE OF ADMISSION : 29.07.2015

APPROVAL OF RESEARCH PROPOSAL

1. BOARD OF STUDY : 19.04.2016
2. SCHOOL BOARD
REGISTRATION NO. & DATE : MZU/M.Phil./332 of 22.04.2016
3. ACADEMIC COUNCIL : 28.04.2016
4. DATE OF COMPLETION OF
M Phil. COURSE WORK : 17.02.2016
Extension (If any) : Nil

(Dr. C. LALFAMKIMA VARTE)
Head,
Department of Psychology

(Abstract)

**Role of Aggression, Impulsivity and Interpersonal Problem
Among Rapists**

Mr. Laltanpuia Chhangte

(Regn. No.: MZU/M.Phil/332 of 22.04.2016)

Dissertation Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirement of the Degree
of Master of Philosophy in Psychology

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

MIZORAM UNIVERSITY

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2016

The present study tried to highlight the role of aggression, impulsivity, and interpersonal relationship among rapists with an expectation that would contribute to a better understanding of some psychological aspect of the rapist when compared with the control group, that would provide the importance of psychological aspect for suggestion of prevention, intervention strategies for the rapist and also to advice policy maker to frame any necessary laws for the nation. The fact is that most of the research paid attention to the victim but almost completely neglected as many were simply confined under strict custody. The present study also aims to provide research bases for policy maker to formulate prevention, intervention in working out national security as a whole in particular the targeted population.

One hundred and sixty (160) Adult male subjects (80 Rapist and 80 control group) were selected by following purposive sampling procedures from different part of Mizoram as female has higher inhibition and still not come out openly to serve as rapist. 80 Rapists were randomly selected from the inmates of Central Jail who were collected come from different part of Mizoram; 80 control were also selected based on background information of the rapist such as age, ecology and socio economic status by using demographic profiles constructed by the researcher The researcher constructed the demographic profile to be used as and inclusion and exclusion criteria for the selection of sampled looking the objectives of the study, and for which it included all background information of the participants such as locality, age, family monthly income, family size, educational qualifications.

The study incorporated separate group design between two types of ‘sexual coercion’ which are termed as “rapist” and “control group/non-rapist”. Under each cell, 80 participants shall be included for psychoactive evaluation of the behavioural measures for study.

To meet the objectives of the present study, the following psychological measures were incorporated: i) Aggression Scale (Buss & Perry, 1992) which has 4 subscales: Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Anger and Hostility; ii) Baratt Impulsiveness Scale, Version 11 (Patton et al., 1995) which has three subscales: Attentional impulsiveness, Motor impulsiveness and Non-Planning impulsiveness; and iii) Inventory of Interpersonal Problems – Circumplex version (Alden, Wiggins, & Pincus, 1991) to tap the role of aggression, impulsivity and interpersonal problems among the rapist.

Demographic profile was framed by the researcher to tap all important information about the participants, and standardized psychological tools to be used were collected; required permission and consent were obtained from concerned authority and participants. The administration of the psychological scale were conducted in individual setting for the ethical purpose of psychological assessment as prescribed by APA ethical code, 2002. All the prescribed administration procedures laid down by each scale were strictly followed. The response sheet were carefully checked to detect any missing or incomplete answer before leaving the administration setting, and collected for further analysis.

The quantitative primary data collected was processed with the help of computer and analyzed with statistical packages. The Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) were employed in conjunction with Microsoft Office Excel (2013). The psychometric adequacy of all the behavioral measures is ascertained. The data are then presented with Descriptive statistics (Mean, SD, Skewness and Kurtosis). The inferential statistics principally include ANOVA and multiple regression with careful check of their assumptions. Results were as follows:

The parametric statistical analyses of Descriptive Statistics, Cronbach Alpha and Split Half Reliability, normality, linearity and homogeneity were checked with an objective to justify the appropriate statistical treatment for further analyses of the raw data; to work out any requirement of appropriate transformation of the raw data; missing responses, outliers and those responses outside the sampling frame as well as deviated responses from the distributed data which were excluded for statistical analyses were performed for simple and clear presentation of the results.

The reliability coefficients (Cronbach alpha and Split half), Homogeneity and Robust test of the Scales /Subscales of the Behavioral variables of Aggression Scale (Buss & Perry, 1992), Baratt Impulsiveness Scale, Version 11 (Patton et al., 1995), and Inventory of Interpersonal Problems – Circumplex version (Alden, Wiggins, & Pincus, 1991) were computed for the whole samples. Results revealed substantial consistency over the level of analyses that ascertained applicability of the scales/subscales of the behavioral measures and recommended using a total score of scale as well as subscale scores. Thus, the scales/subscales was retained for further analyses as it fulfilled the statistical assumption of additivity, linearity, normality and homogeneity tests (Glass, Peckham and Sandras, 1972;

Tomarken and Serlin, 1986; Rogan and Keselman, 1977). Results revealed substantial item-total coefficient of correlation (and relationship between the items of the specific scales) for the sub-scales and order of reliability coefficient. Cronbach's alpha was .57 with Split half .84 for Interpersonal problem; Cronbach's alpha was .78 with Split half .77 for Physical Aggression, Cronbach's alpha was .75 with Split half .77 for Verbal Aggression, Cronbach's alpha was .75 with Split half .77 for Anger and Cronbach's alpha was .65 with Split half .63 for Hostility of Aggression Questionnaire subscales; Cronbach's alpha was .80 with Split half .71 for Attentional Impulsiveness, Cronbach's alpha was .62 with Split half .53 for Motor Impulsiveness and Cronbach's alpha was .67 with Split half .59 Non-Planning of Barratt Impulsiveness subscales. The reliability coefficients emerged to be strong indicating the dependability of the test scales for measurement purposes in the project population, and are conforming to the findings in previous research.

The analysis for the preliminary psychometric properties was required for illuminating the applicability of the concerned scale/subscale of the behavioural measures for the present study. The main reason was because scales constructed and validated for measurement of theoretical construct for a given population might not be reliable and valid when taken to another culture setting, and need to check again the reliability and validity (Berry, 1974; Witkin and Berry, 1975), as the differential social desirability and response styles should influence the results among the group (Van de Vjverand Leung, 1997), and for methodological fulfilment.

Diagnostic tests of assumptions that underlie the application of General Linear Model (ANOVA etc.) were first checked using the Levene's Test of Equality of error Variances for each scale to indicate homogeneity of error variance. The Levene's Test of Equality of error Variances for each scale revealed non-significance on all the scales that indicated that there was a difference between the variances (heterogeneous variance) on all behavioural variables. The Brown Forsyth results revealed the robust of equality means on all behavioural measures, depicting significant level that counter confirmed the applicability of parametric statistics for further analysis including ANOVA and Regression Analysis in the present study.

The results of the present study got support of earlier study as Rapist has critical dimensions including impulsivity, pervasive anger, aggression, dominance and control and social competence (Prentky and Knight, 1991). Other studies also show that rapists tend to have "lower empathy, lower adult attachment and stronger sexual dominance motives"

compared to the average citizen (Abbey et al., 2007). There are several studies that showed that men who were imprisoned for rape exhibit greater sexual arousal to descriptions of sexual aggression than non-sexual offenders (Abel, Barlow, Blanchard, & Guild, 1977; Earls & Proulx, 1986; Lalumiere & Quinsey, 1994; Quinsey, Chaplin, & Upfold, 1984; Quinsey, Chaplin, & Varney, 1981). The present study hypothesized that Rapists would score higher on dependent variables than the control group. From the result of the study, we can conclude that Rapists exhibited higher scores on Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Motor Impulsiveness, Non-Planning and Interpersonal Problems than the control group. Control group i.e., Non-rapists showed higher scores on Anger, Hostility and Attentional Impulsiveness.

Studies show that lifestyle impulsivity may be a predictor of sexual aggression (Prentky & Knight, 1991). Having poor social and interpersonal skills can also be a predictor of sexual aggression (Abbey et al., 2007). Rapists who expressed vindictive hostility toward women were relatively more aggressive (Knight & Prentky, 1990; Prentky, Knight, & Rosenberg, 1988). Malamuth (1997) has also found hostility toward women to have predictive validity for understanding sexual aggression in nonclinical samples of young men. The initiation of aggressive behavior is closely related to impulsivity, as a trait-characteristic (Cervantes and Delville, 2007; Rudebeck et al., 2007; García-Forero et al., 2009). High levels of impulsivity are related to high levels of aggression, whereas low aggressives are less impulsive (David et al., 2004; Cervantes and Delville, 2007). Dolan and Fullum (2004) reported that individuals with high scores on measures of impulsivity had significantly higher aggression scores. Impulsivity was found to be associated with dysfunctional interpersonal behavior and perceived social support, such that low impulsivity was associated with more dysfunctional interpersonal behavior and less perceived social support. Low impulsivity was also positively associated with each of the other proposed underlying factors of dysfunctional interpersonal behavior including emotion dysregulation, rejection sensitivity, and compulsivity. (Reel, 2011).

Secondly, it was hypothesized that there will be a significant relationship between the dependent variables. From the result of the present study, we can conclude that significant correlation was found between the scales/subscales of Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Anger, Hostility, Attentional Impulsiveness, Motor Impulsiveness, Non-Planning and Interpersonal Problems.

Interpersonal Problem shows significant positive correlation with Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Anger, Hostility, Attentional Impulsiveness, Motor Impulsiveness and Non-Planning. Highest positive correlation was found between Interpersonal Problem and Physical Aggression. This shows that the increase in Interpersonal Problem highly correlates with increase in Physical Aggression.

Physical Aggression has a significant negative correlation with Verbal aggression, Motor Impulsiveness and Non-Planning, depicting that when Physical Aggression increases, Verbal Aggression and Non-planning decreases. The Physical Aggression scale also shows a positive correlation with Anger, Hostility and Attentional Impulsiveness.

Verbal Aggression shows a positive significant relationship with Anger, Hostility and Attentional Impulsiveness whereas it shows a significant negative relationship with Non-Planning. Anger shows a significant negative relationship with Hostility. Hostility shows a greater negative significant relationship with Attentional Impulsiveness while it shows a positive relationship with Non-Planning. Attentional Impulsiveness shows a significant positive correlation with Motor Impulsiveness and Non-Planning, whereas Non-Planning has a significant negative correlation with Motor-Impulsiveness.

Berkowitz's integrative model (Berkowitz, 1992, 1994) conceptualized factors of perpetrator and victim socialization, personality, situational characteristics, and misperceptions as increasing the likelihood of sexual assault. Berkowitz suggests that rape-supportive attitudes and beliefs create the potential to rape that is reinforced by personality factors and early sexual experiences. Barth and Kinder (1987) agreed that the habitual sexual behaviour is a disorder of impulsivity and suggested the diagnosis of "atypical impulse control disorder." Studies show that lifestyle impulsivity may be a predictor of sexual aggression (Prentky & Knight, 1991). Having poor social and interpersonal skills can also be a predictor of sexual aggression. Malamuth (1997) has also found hostility toward women to have predictive validity for understanding sexual aggression in nonclinical samples of young men. Violence levels were higher for rapists classified as power-assertive or anger rapists, as opposed to power-reassurance rapists. These results were believed to indicate that increasing violence is associated with better offender planning and impulse control and with offenders who are more emotionally detached. (Warren, Reboussin, Hazelwood, and Wright, 1991).

Thirdly, it was hypothesized that that independent variables would show significant effect on dependent variables. The results of the present study indicated that Rapist showed significant independent effects on the Interpersonal Problem; Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Anger and Hostility, from the subscales of Aggression Questionnaire; Attentional Impulsiveness, Motor Impulsiveness and Non-Planning, from the subscales of Barratt Impulsiveness Scales. The largest effect-size was found to be on Non-Planning from the subscales of Barratt Impulsiveness Scales. Anger as a predictor explained 44% of variances, Verbal Aggression explained 22%, Physical Aggression explained 6% and Hostility explained 26% on Rape. Aggression as a whole as predictor explained 61% of variances on Rape. Attentional Impulsiveness as a predictor explained 32% of variances, Motor Impulsiveness explained 10% and Non-Planning explained 57% on Rape. Impulsivity as a whole as predictor explained 64% of variances on Rape. Interpersonal Problems as a predictor explained 26% of variances on Rape.

Rapists comprise an extremely heterogeneous population that cannot be characterized by single motivational or etiological factors' (Miller and Schwartz, 1995). No two rapists are alike, however, they often exhibit some similar characteristics. Previous studies conducted by other researchers also suggested that the average age of rapists at arrest is 31, of which twenty-two percent of imprisoned rapists report that they are married. (Bureau of Justice Statistics, 2012). Many defense attorneys will talk about whether their client, the alleged assailant, either fits the profile of a rapist or doesn't. This is an invalid argument because there is no typical profile of a rapist. This is why it is good to focus on that person's behaviour instead of who they are in their community (Maas, 2007).

The final hypothesis was that demographic variables would play a significant role in sexual coercion. The result of the present study results showed that the Rapist showed lower educational qualification than the Non-Rapist (Control group). The results revealed that church participation and societal participation showed significant effect on rape. The bivariate correlation coefficients of demographic variables under study provided sufficient evidences to show predictability of church involvement was stand out among the demographic variables.

Limitations: The present study taken care the methodological confinement conducted as far as possible was not free from limitations. The selected Rapist samples were collected from Central Jail, Aizawl and could not include those rapist who were outside the central jail due to time limitation, and that may leave vacuum for not getting complete information though they were from different part of Mizoram. Only three psychological variables were used to tap psychological functions of Rapist while many other variables were left out limiting the causes of raping behaviour. The sample size may be too small as there may be many hidden rapists present in the population which could not be included in sample size estimation in this study. Qualitative study including more demographic variables should be incorporated to strengthen the quantitative study like the present study. Longitudinal study would provide the details psychological functions which could not be observed with cross sectional methods.

Suggestion for further study: Based on the experience of the present study, larger sample size was suggested to get more information about the psychological foundations of rapist; inclusion of more psychological variables would provide more information like parenting, personality, clinical conditions, socioeconomic status and so on; longitudinal / case study of Rapist would provide specific problems with on set, situation, etc.; qualitative methods could provide unforeseen problems which were not envision in the objectives.

Significant of the Study: Like other research, the present study could not cover the whole psychological functions of Rapist but it does provide clearly the role of aggression, impulsivity and interpersonal problems among Rapist comparing with Non-Rapists Adult Male samples. The present study revealed that Rapist exhibited higher scores on Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Motor Impulsiveness, Non-Planning and Interpersonal Problems than the control group. Control group showed higher scores on Anger, Hostility and Attentional Impulsiveness. There was significant positive correlation with Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Anger, Hostility, Attentional Impulsiveness, Motor Impulsiveness and Non-Planning. Highest positive correlation was found between Interpersonal Problem and Physical Aggression. Physical Aggression has a significant negative correlation with Verbal aggression, Motor Impulsiveness and Non-Planning, depicting that when Physical Aggression increases, Verbal Aggression and Non-planning decreases. The Physical Aggression scale also shows a positive correlation with Anger, Hostility and Attentional Impulsiveness. Verbal Aggression shows a positive significant relationship with Anger, Hostility and Attentional Impulsiveness whereas it shows a

significant negative relationship with Non-Planning. Anger shows a significant negative relationship with Hostility. Hostility shows a greater negative significant relationship with Attentional Impulsiveness while it shows a positive relationship with Non-Planning. Attentional Impulsiveness shows a significant positive correlation with Motor Impulsiveness and Non-Planning, whereas Non-Planning has a significant negative correlation with Motor-Impulsiveness.

Results showed significant independent effects of Rape on the Interpersonal Problem; Physical Aggression, Verbal Aggression, Anger and Hostility, from the subscales of Aggression Questionnaire; Attentional Impulsiveness, Motor Impulsiveness and Non-Planning, from the subscales of Barratt Impulsiveness Scales. The largest effect-size was found to be on Non-Planning from the subscales of Barratt Impulsiveness Scales.

The results revealed that church participation and societal participation showed significant effect on rape. The bivariate correlation coefficients of demographic variables under study provided sufficient evidences to show predictability of church involvement was stand out among the demographic variables. Demographic variables provided that highest prevalence of rapist were found in 20-40 years age group and in lower educational level; and also having lower church involvement and societal participation compare to non-rapist.

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