

## 青少年の暴力予防

— 学校において実施するユニバーサル予防プログラムの開発 —

### PREVENTION OF YOUTH VIOLENCE: DEVELOPMENT OF A UNIVERSAL PREVENTION PROGRAM AT SCHOOL

山崎 勝之\*<sup>1)</sup>, 松村 亨\*\*

\*〒 772-8502 鳴門市鳴門町高島字中島 748 鳴門教育大学人間形成講座

\*\*〒 742-0021 柳井市新庄 2614 柳井市立新庄小学校

Katsuyuki Yamasaki\*<sup>1)</sup>, Toru Matsumura \*\*

\* Department of Human Development, Naruto University of Education

748 Nakashima, Takashima, Naruto, Tokushima, Japan 772-8502

\*\* Shinjo Elementary School

2614 Shinjo, Yamaguchi, Japan 742-0021

**抄録**：本論文の目的は、わが国の小学児童用に開発された暴力予防プログラムを紹介することである。論文ではまず、米国におけるこれまでの暴力予防プログラムを概説し、その際だった特徴を指摘した。そして、米国のプログラムをそのまま日本に適用することは、両国間の多くの相違要因のため困難をきわめるとの結論から、日本独自のプログラムである「自律性向上プログラム」を開発した。このプログラムは、小学児童を対象に、暴力の原因を取り除く、ユニバーサル・プログラムである。プログラムの大目標は、暴力予防をめざして、児童の自律性とセルフ・エスティームを向上させることである。この大目標のもとに、いくつかの構成目標が設定され、それぞれ、暴力予防にかかわる認知的、情動的、そして行動的要因を改善することをめざす。プログラムの方法は、ロール・プレイング、自己コントロール、リラクセーションなど多様な技法からなり、それらは、個人、小グループ、クラス全体に適用される。このプログラムの方法や目標は、攻撃性などの暴力をもたらす性格の発達ならびに攻撃的な児童の情報処理にかかわる実証的な科学データにもとづき、また、種々の心理学的理論や技法が利用される。

**キーワード**：暴力予防、自律性、セルフ・エスティーム、ユニバーサル予防プログラム、小学児童

**Abstract** : The purpose of this paper is to give an outline of a new violence prevention program developed for elementary-school children in Japan. This paper begins by giving a summary of previous violence prevention programs in the USA, indicating a number of their outstanding characteristics. After concluding that it is difficult to apply US programs to fit Japan because of many different factors, we finally developed our original program, "the Autonomy-Enhancement Program." The Autonomy-Enhancement Program is a universal program for dealing with the causes of violence in elementary-school children. The principal purpose is to enhance autonomy and self-esteem in children with the explicit aim of violence prevention. Under the principal purpose, this program has a few constituent purposes that attempt to improve cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components regarding violence prevention. The methods consist of various techniques such as role playing, self-control, relaxation, and so on, which are implemented individually, in small groups, and in the whole class. The methods and purposes of this program are largely based on empirical scientific data concerning the development of violence-prone personality such as aggressiveness and the information processing of aggressive children, along with various psychological theories and techniques.

**Keywords** : violence prevention, autonomy, self-esteem, universal prevention program, elementary school children

## Prevention programs in the USA

Schools have been confused with how to deal with a number of psychological and behavioral problems children often cause, such as bullying, school refusal, and various disruptive behaviors. Many of these problems are basically associated with human aggression or violence. In the USA, an increasing number of programs have been developed to prevent these problems.

Such prevention programs are different from each other in their targets for prevention. To streamline, the targets are modification of cognition leading to violence (e.g., BrainPower Program; Hudley, 1994), improvement of social skills (e.g., Earls court Social Skills Group Program; Pepler, King, & Byrd, 1991), improvement of social problem solving skills (e.g., Amish, Gesten, Smith, Clark, & Stark, 1988), control of emotions (no program exists targeting only this component, but a great number of programs include it as one of the key factors for violence prevention), and relaxation of physical and emotional tension (e.g., Fortman & Feldman, 1994).

Thus, we can see that violence prevention programs consist of various components to modify cognition, emotions, and behaviors, and then it is one of the most outstanding characteristics of the recent programs in the USA that one program attempts to modify all the aspects of cognition, emotions, and behaviors. Furthermore, several other features of the recent prevention programs in the USA are indicated. First, various methods, such as role playing, relaxation, self-control, discussion, debate, reinforcement, modeling, and so on, are integrated into one program. Second, programs are implemented for a longer period than before. Periods of 10 to 20 weeks are commonly found. Third, in the program evaluation, various evaluation methods are employed in one program, and moreover, reliable and valid methods, along with strict experimental designs and follow-up evaluations, are applied to the evaluation of the effectiveness of programs.

Fourth, more than one theory or technique are combined in developing programs.

One typical example that has the above program characteristics: Table 1 shows the program structure of the Aggression Replacement Training by Goldstein and colleagues (Goldstein, Glick, & Gibbs, 1998). The program consists of three parts: skillstreaming, moral reasoning training, and anger control training. It takes approximately ten weeks to complete each of the parts. Each of the components of behavioral, cognitive, and emotional or affective modification is included in this program. Ten social skills to learn are shown in the column of Skillstreaming, ten dilemma stories in Moral Reasoning Training, and various components to control anger in Anger Control Training.

Table 2 shows another example, the Second Step (Committee for Children, 1992; Frey, Hirschstein, & Guzo, 2000). The program consists of the sessions of empathy training, impulse control, and anger management. Also in this program, the three components for modification are included. Various components and skills to enhance empathy are shown in the column of Empathy Training, various skills to control anger impulse in Impulse Control, and various components and skills to manage anger in Anger Management.

## Prevention programs in Japan

### PHEECS and its violence prevention programs

Unlike the substantial program development in the USA, there has been almost no systematic violence prevention programs in Japan. So, if we develop violence prevention programs, the first attempt would be to apply programs developed in the USA to fit Japan. In such an attempt, the first candidate for the situation to implement programs would be schools, in which all of the children at school can be targeted for prevention. As for prevention, young children are ideal targets in terms of the fact that their violent

Table 1. The structure of the Aggression Replacement Training (adapted from Goldstein, Glick, & Gibbs, 1998)

Skillstreaming	Moral Reasoning Training	Anger Control Training
1. Making a complaint	1. Jim's problem situation	1. Introduction
2. Understanding the feelings of others	2. Jerry's problem situation	2. Triggers
3. Getting ready for a difficult conversation	3. Mark's problem situation	3. Cues and anger reducers 1, 2, and 3
4. Dealing with someone else's anger	4. George's problem situation	4. Reminders
5. Keeping out of fights	5. Leon's problem situation	5. Self-evaluation
6. Helping others	6. Sam's problem situation	6. Thinking ahead (anger reducer 4)
7. Dealing with an accusation	7. Reggie's problem situation	7. Angry behavior cycle
8. Dealing with group pressure	8. Alonzo's problem situation	8. Rehearsal of full sequence
9. Expressing affection	9. Juan's problem situation	9. Rehearsal of full sequence
10. Responding to failure	10. Antonio's problem situation	10. Overall review

Table 2. The structure of the Second Step (adapted from Committee for Children, 1992)

Empathy Training	Impulse Control	Anger Management
1. Introduction to empathy training	1. Introduction to interpersonal problem solving	1. Introduction to anger management
2. Identifying feelings	2. Recognizing impulses	2. Anger triggers
3. Feelings change	3. Identifying a problem	3. Calming down
4. Conflicting feelings	4. Choosing a solution	4. Self-talk
5. Similarities and differences	5. Step-by-step	5. Reflection
6. Preferences	6. Keeping a promise	6. Dealing with putdowns
7. Perceptions	7. Giving and receiving compliments	7. Dealing with criticism
8. Predicting feelings	8. Making conversation	8. Dealing with being left out.
9. Communicating feelings	9. Dealing with fear	9. Skill review
10. Skill Review	10. Taking responsibility to your actions	10. Dealing with frustration
11. Cause and effect	11. Skill review	11. Dealing with an accusation
12. Intentions	12. Resisting the impulse to lie	12. Accepting consequences
13. Fairness	13. Dealing with peer pressure	13. Keeping out of a fight
14. Active listening	14. Dealing with gossip	14. Making and responding to a complaint
15. Expressing concern	15. Resisting the temptation to cheat	
16. Accepting differences	16. Setting goals	

characteristics are not formed firmly even if they are already violent. However, the complete application of some US programs to Japanese schools is difficult because of differences in class size, severity of problems, flexibility in curriculums, and so on.

Thus, we have developed a group of new prevention programs named the Psychological Health Education in Elementary Classes by Schoolteachers (PHEECS) for school children in Japan. The PHEECS is not a name to indicate any specific program, but is a general term for education with several common characteristics (see Yamasaki & Fujii, 2005, for these characteristics). To date, we have developed nine programs in the PHEECS, including three programs regarding violence prevention. They are the Aggressiveness Reduction Program, the Dependent and Passivity Personality Modification Program, and the Autonomy-Enhancement Program. Because, of these three programs, the Autonomy-Enhancement Program is the most inclusive and newest one, the present paper elucidates this program in detail.

### Backgrounds of the Autonomy-Enhancement Program

Our violence prevention programs such as the Autonomy-Enhancement Program have a number of basic characteristics. First, we emphasize personality such as aggressiveness as the fundamental cause of violence. When we call a concept personality, it needs to have the following two characteristics: (1) it needs to be stable over a long period of time; and (2) it needs to include all the aspects of cognition, emotions (affect), and behaviors. In other words, personality needs to be able to totally influence cognition, emotions, and behaviors (see Fig. 1).

Second, we try to grasp many aspects of personal problems

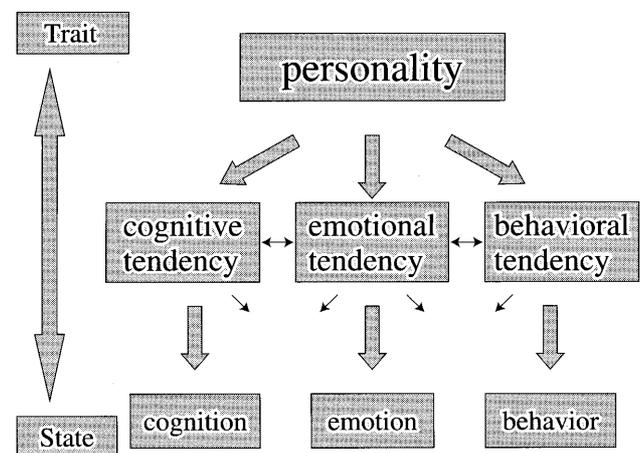


Fig. 1. Relationships among personality, cognition, emotions, and behaviors.

caused by violence or aggression. They include maladaptive behaviors (e.g., disruptive behaviors and bullying) and mental (e.g., depression) or physical (e.g., coronary heart disease) health problems. Furthermore, we consider these problems in terms of detrimental influences on both the people themselves who give aggression and those who receive aggression.

Lastly, we emphasize preventive attempts, especially primary or universal prevention, rather than remedial tertiary preventions. As for the importance of universal prevention, for instance, some longitudinal studies reveal that the children who show violence in elementary school years tend to show antisocial behaviors and severe violence in later years (e.g., Rivara & Farrington, 1995). Nonetheless, it seems likely that many teachers and administrators have not appreciated the importance of stopping low-level aggression before it escalates into more extreme violence.

## Factors affecting violence

Various factors causing violence and classification of aggressiveness

Because we employed some empirical data regarding aggressiveness or violence when developing the Autonomy-Enhancement Program, it is essential to present this data before moving on to the explanation of the program itself.

When we consider aggressiveness as one of the main causes of violence or adaptive, mental, and physical health problems, we should take into account various factors, as Fig. 2 shows. For past factors in a given child, it is essential to consider how aggressiveness was formed within the child. For present factors, various mediating variables are emphasized. They include a number of facilitating and inhibiting factors. Before explaining about these factors, it would be helpful to clarify concepts concerning the subtypes of aggressiveness.

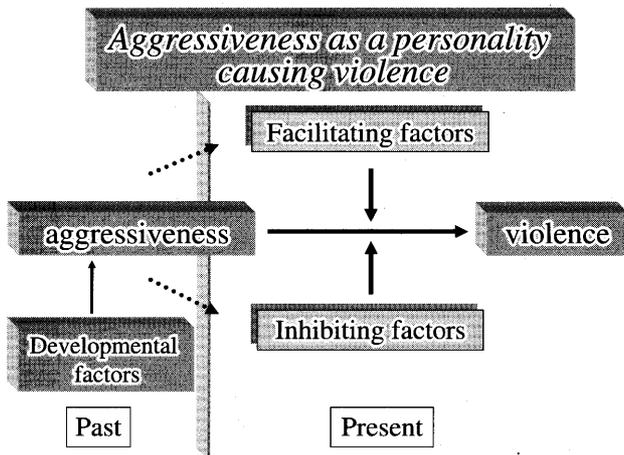


Fig. 2. Variables affecting violence.

In general, we show various responses to the stimuli that have a potential to evoke aggression or violence. They are aggressive responses, problem-solving responses, apathy, escape, avoidance and so on. Aggressive responses, which the present paper focuses on, are divided into two types of aggression, reactive aggression and proactive or instrumental aggression (e.g., Dodge & Coie, 1987). When designating personality underlying behaviors, it should be more precise to use "aggressiveness" rather than "aggression." Furthermore, reactive aggression is further divided into two subtypes, expressive aggression and inexpressive aggression (Yamasaki, Sakai, Soga, Shimai, & Otake, 2001). Expressive aggression means direct expression of anger such as verbal and physical aggression. Inexpressive aggression means conscious suppression of anger such as hostility. Meanwhile, proactive aggression is evoked to obtain a desired goal in which anger is not clear in some cases. Relational aggression, which is evoked to break

human relationship, for example, to circulate malicious rumors, falls under the category of proactive aggression (Sakai & Yamasaki, 2004b).

## Social information processing of violent children

Fig. 3 shows the social information processing theory (Crick & Dodge, 1994) as an example for the present facilitating and inhibiting factors leading to violence. This theory postulates a six-step circular model including a database factor. Previous research has revealed that aggressive children have a few faults in each step of this model. For example, in the second step of "interpretation of cues," they are likely to show hostile attribution to the undesired outcomes occurred to them (e.g., Dodge & Frame, 1982; Dodge & Somberg, 1987). So, according to this model, programs to reduce aggressiveness or violence need to take into account these factors. In fact, a few previous programs in the USA have been taking into account these faults that are characteristic of aggressive children.

One of our recent studies (Sakai & Yamasaki, 2004b) provided the data concerning the characteristics of aggressive children in the fifth step (the response decision step) of the social information processing theory. Sakai et al. measured the degree of each of the three types of aggressiveness for elementary-school children using an original questionnaire named the Proactive-Reactive Aggression Questionnaire for Children (PRAQ-C; Sakai & Yamasaki, 2004a). The children were divided into expressive-aggressive, inexpressive-aggressive, relational-aggressive, and non-aggressive children based on their medians of the PRAQ-C. Then, they rated each of expressive-aggressive, inexpressive-aggressive, and relational-aggressive responses that were conducted by a child in fictitious provoking situations. The situations and stories were presented to participants using vignettes. Results showed

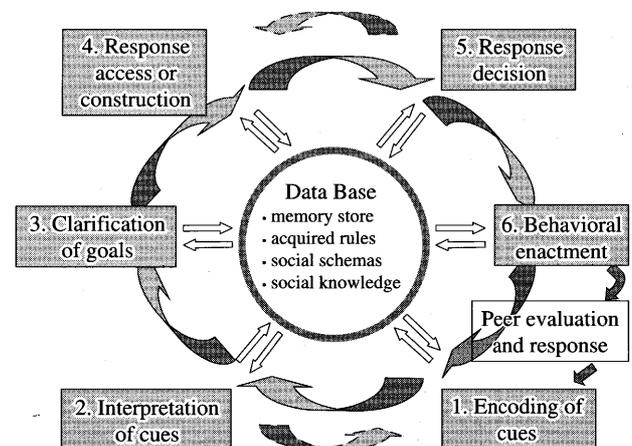


Fig. 3. Social information-processing model (adapted from Crick & Dodge, 1994).

that, as compared to non-aggressive children, expressively and relationally aggressive children evaluated expressively and relationally aggressive responses in positive ways, respectively. Especially, relationally aggressive children positively evaluated the relationally aggressive responses that they tend to show. That is, they regarded that their own response type produces better feelings and better outcomes, and that it is right to conduct this kind of response.

#### Developmental factors of violent children

As for the developmental formation process of aggressiveness, a great number of studies have been conducted before. Although genetic factors are reported to have approximately half of the power to determine aggressiveness (e.g., Smith, McGonigle, Turner, Ford, & Slattery, 1991), the remaining half comes from environmental factors.

Among the environmental factors, parental child-rearing attitudes have been emphasized. These attitudes are inconsistent parental disciplinary practice (e.g., Patterson & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1984), parental disharmony (e.g., Wadsworth, 1979), parental rejection (e.g., Olweus, 1980), harsh punishment (e.g., Andrew, 1981), and lack of parental supervision (e.g., Farrington, 1983). Additionally, father absence (e.g., Hoffman, 1971), parental modeling (e.g., Neapolitan, 1981), family history of antisocial behavior (e.g., Osborn & West, 1979) are indicated. It seems likely that these variables mainly concern expressive aggressiveness.

Although few studies have investigated factors to form the other types of aggressiveness, a number of studies have recently investigated the factors by each of the aggressiveness types. The main factors previous research clarified as the ones to form reactive aggression are abuse and rejection by parents (Dodge, 1991), rejection by peers in the early stage of development (Coie, Dodge, & Kupersmidt, 1990), and stressful life events in young childhood (Cornell, Benedek, & Benedek, 1987), while contact with aggressive role models (Dodge, Lochman, Harnish, Bates, & Pettit, 1997) is the most powerful factor to form proactive aggressiveness.

#### Program description of the Autonomy-Enhancement Program

The Autonomy-Enhancement Program was developed mainly based on previous research concerning the facilitating and inhibiting factors as well as the developmental factors. Furthermore, the purposes of this program are not limited to violence prevention, although it is the most important purpose. It is generally said that there are two kinds of distortion of personality which cause lack of autonomy. In this case, the

key factor is the relationship between children and parents. The distortions can be determined depending on the contact from mothers (or other intimate persons) to children in very early childhood, possibly during the first two years after birth. When the degree of the contact is very small, that is, when mothers do not necessarily satisfy their children's needs, even if the children show some sign of their physiological needs such as hunger and thirst, their personality tends to be aggressive. On the contrary, when the degree of the contact is very large, which means that the contact is frequently conducted by mothers' intervention independent of children's needs, their personality tends to be passive-dependent.

The most ideal condition about the contact is that mothers satisfy children's needs whenever they notice signals showing needs from the children. In this ideal condition, children tend to have autonomous and high-self-esteem personality. So our Autonomy-Enhancement Program attempts to modify aggressive or dependent-passive children into more autonomous ones. It is clear that aggressive children frequently show violence, but it should also be emphasized that dependent-passive children have high possibility that they suddenly show severe violence. This possibility would be understandable in terms of the fact that depression, often caused by this dependent-passive personality, is positively associated with aggression (e.g., Bridewell & Chang, 1997; Brummett, Babyak, Barefoot, Bosworth, Clap-Channing, Siegler, Williams, & Mark, 1998).

Moreover, it should be noted that the Autonomy-Enhancement Program does not take into consideration the three-type classification of aggressiveness at present. The main aggressiveness to target in the program is reactive aggressiveness. Thus, the development of programs to reduce relational aggressiveness is a future avenue, although the present program is partially related to the reduction of relational aggressiveness.

#### Purposes of the program

The purposes of the program are constructed hierarchically, as Table 3 shows. The principal purpose is to cultivate personality full of autonomy and self-esteem. The constituent purposes under the principal purpose consist of three aspects of cognition, emotions, and behaviors. The constituent purpose of the cognitive aspect is the modification of causal attributions leading to negative self value. The constituent purpose of the emotional aspect is the self-control of anger and depressive emotions. The constituent purpose of the behavioral aspect is the acquisition of social skills to respect oneself and others.

As we think that even these constituent purposes are too

Table 3. The hierarchical structure of the purposes in the Autonomy-Enhancement Program

Principal Purpose	Constituent Purpose	Operational Purpose
Personality full of autonomy and self-esteem	Cognitive aspect: Modification of causal attribution leading to negative self value	Improvement of ability and effort attribution in success situations Improvement of efforts attribution in failure situations, and modification of hostile attribution
	Emotional aspect: Self-control of anger and depressive emotions	Acquisition of control for feelings (relaxation, self-control skills)
	Behavioral aspect: Acquisition of social skills to respect oneself and others	Learning of concrete skills in interpersonal relationships (notice of others' good behaviors, reporting empathetic feeling to others, and using assertion)

vague to lead to concrete methods, we furthermore established the operational purposes under the constituent purposes. The cognitive operational purposes are the improvement of ability and effort attributions in success situations, the improvement of effort attributions in failure situations, and the modification of hostile attributions. The emotional operational purpose is the acquisition of control for feelings (emotions) by relaxation, self-control skills, and so on. The behavioral operational purpose is the learning of concrete skills in interpersonal relationships, such as notice of others' good behaviors, reporting empathetic feeling to others, and using assertion. Thus, many concrete methods are developed under each of the operational purposes.

**Program methods**

Before implementing the program, we attempt to establish the appropriate classroom environments (see Fig. 4). As the program is conducted mainly in the unit of small groups, the establishment of the groups is essential. Each group generally consists of four through seven children, including boys and girls. The members in a group are determined mainly depending on their scores of a self-esteem questionnaire (described in a later section) measured just before the program implementation. In a group, both of low-scored and high-scored children are mixed. Thus, we can expect the meaningful interaction between low and high self-esteem children in the group.

As for the methods to acquire emotional or affective control, the children learn how to relax themselves when they get angry or depressed. Table 4 shows the sessions for the acquisition of control for anger and depressive emotions in the operational purpose of emotions. To attain this purpose,

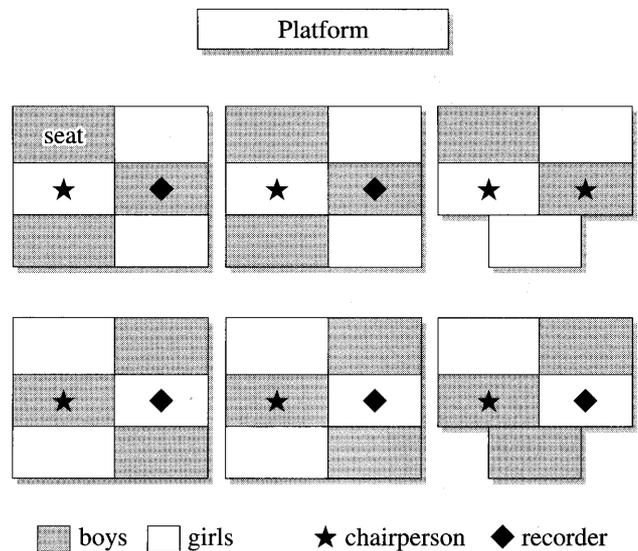


Fig. 4. Small groups and their members in the classroom for program implementation.

they learn a number of relaxation techniques such as brief progressive relaxation methods. The techniques also include components using respiration and images. Thereafter, the children make smiling images by themselves to prevent anger or depressive emotions. In addition, they make messages by themselves to stop anger (we call this message "Brake Message") and to stop depressive emotions ("Cheer-up Message"). They are the messages that are given to themselves. Fig. 5 shows examples for a smiling image, a brake message, and a cheer-up message. The children are given homework to apply their own methods to stop angry or depressed emotions whenever they feel such feelings (emotions) in their daily life. Their methods consist of the combinations of relaxation techniques, smiling images, and inward messages. Fig. 6 shows the sheet to record when and



Table 5. Sessions for the learning of interpersonal skills in the operational purpose of behaviors

<i>Theme 1: Let's be an expert to use verbal messages (1).</i>	
Session 1	Let's learn messages leading to pleasant and comfortable feelings.
Session 2	Let's practice using <i>heartwarming messages</i> .
Session 3	Let's practice role playing using heartwarming message scenarios.
Session 4	Let's practice using <i>assertive messages</i> .
Session 5	Let's practice role playing using assertive message scenarios.
<i>Theme 2: Let's be an expert to use verbal messages (2).</i>	
Session 1	Let's make scenarios in groups.
Session 2	Let's practice role playing.
Session 3	Let's present the role playing to the class (1).
Session 4	Let's present the role playing to the class (2).

\*The words and sentences in this table are the ones that are actually shown to children.

techniques. For role playing, before playing, they make scenarios. The process to make scenarios is important to understand what those messages are and how to use them in their daily life. The role playing is practiced in the small group, and then presented to the whole class. After the role playing, they discuss their plays, sharing their feelings during the play by using a sharing sheet.

As for the modification of cognition, we attempt to modify attribution styles to the causes of the bad and good happenings that occur to children. In modifying attribution styles, we use reflection sheets (see Fig. 7). The sheet required the children to guess the concrete causes when they encounter happy and unhappy events in their daily life. In the sheet, the children write a happy or good event and an unhappy one, and then they guess their causes. Lastly in the sheet, program practitioners make comments to modify children's attribution styles that tend to lead to aggression or depression.

Program implementation and evaluation of its effectiveness

Thus, while implementing the cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components of the methods in parallel, the program

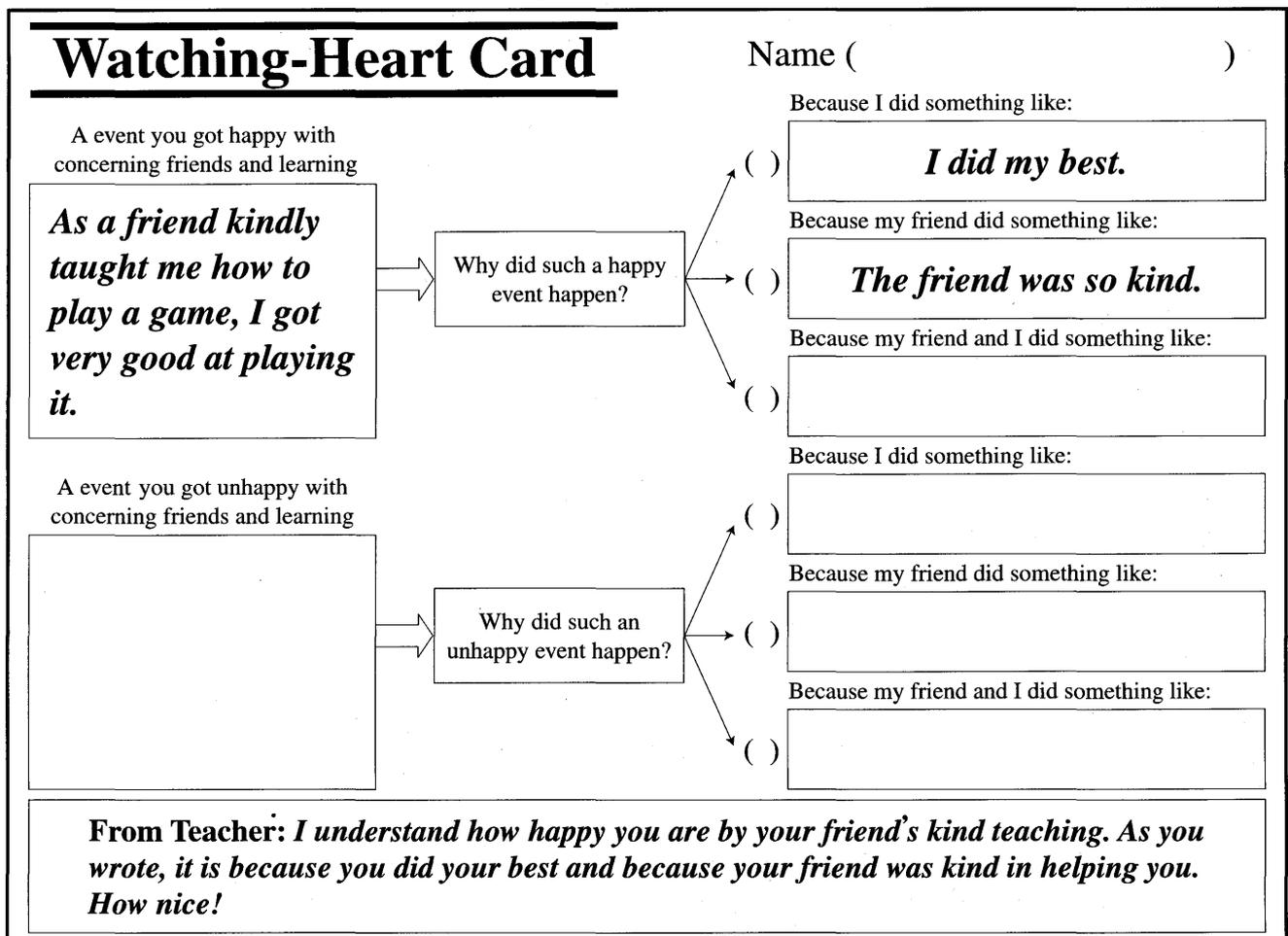


Fig. 7. A Watching-Heart Card to control cognition (adapted from the real sheet written by a Japanese child).

usually lasts for approximately three months. However, it should be noted that each component can be implemented alone independent of the other components, because the complete implementation of the program is at times overloaded for schoolteachers.

As for the evaluation of the effectiveness of the program, a number of measures are employed just before and after program implementation and at the follow-up. Using these measures (one questionnaire and seven peer ratings), the effectiveness of the program is tested for the principal purpose and each of the constituent purposes. For the principal purpose, our original Interpersonal Self-esteem Questionnaire for Children (ISQ-C) and the peer rating for self-esteem are administered to the children. For the constituent purpose, the following peer ratings are used. For the cognitive constituent purpose, the peer ratings for effort attribution and hostile-intention attribution are employed. For the emotional constituent purposes, the peer ratings for anger and depressive emotion control are used, and for behavioral or skill constituent purpose, the peer ratings for interpersonal skills and assertive skills are used. The peer ratings for each of the children were expressed by the average scores calculated from the other same-gender classmates' ratings of a given child. To date, a number of studies using quasi-randomized designs have been conducted, which shows the effectiveness of this program.

#### Footnote

1) Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Katsuyuki Yamasaki, Department of Human Development, Naruto University of Education, 748 Nakashima, Takashima, Naruto-cho, Naruto-shi, Tokushima 772-8502 JAPAN, or via e-mail at: ky341349@naruto-u.ac.jp.

The authors wish to thank Mr. William Estes Dotani for his helpful comments on this article.

#### References

- Amish, P.L., Gesten, E.L., Smith, J.K., Clark, H. B., & Stark, C. (1998). Social problem-solving training for severely emotionally and behaviorally disturbed children. *Behavioral Disorders, 13*, 175-186.
- Andrew, J.M. (1981). Delinquency: Correlating variables. *Journal of Clinical Child Psychology, 10*, 136-140.
- Bridewell, W.B., & Chang, E.C. (1997). Distinguishing between anxiety and hostility: Relations to anger-in, anger-out, and anger control. *Personality and Individual Differences, 22*, 587-590.
- Brummett, B.H., Babyak, M.A., Barefoot, J.C., Bosworth, H.B., Clapp-Channing, N.E., Sigler, L.C., Williams, R.B., & Mark, D.B. (1998). Social support and hostility as predictors of depressive symptoms in cardiac patients one month after hospitalization: A prospective study. *Psychosomatic Medicine, 60*, 707-713.
- Coie, J.D., Dodge, J.A., & Kupersmidt, J. (1990). Group behavior and social status. In S.R. Asher & J.D. Coie (Eds.), *Peer rejection in childhood: Origins, consequences, and intervention* (pp.17-59). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Committee for Children (1992). *Second step: A violence prevention curriculum*. Seattel, WA: Author.
- Cornell, D.G., Benedek, E.P., & Benedek, D.M. (1987). Juvenile homicide: Prior adjustment and a proposed topology. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 53*, 383-393.
- Crick, N.R., & Dodge, K.A. (1994). A review and reformulation of social information processing mechanisms in children's adjustment. *Psychological Bulletin, 115*, 74-101.
- Dodge, K.A. (2001). The structure and function of reactive and proactive aggression. In D.J. Pepler & K.H. Rubin (Eds.), *The development and treatment of childhood* (pp.201-218). NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Dodge, K.A., & Coie, J.D. (1987). Social-information-processing factors in reactive and proactive aggression in children's peer groups. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 53*, 257-272.
- Dodge, K.A., & Frame, C.L. (1982). Social cognitive biases and deficits in aggressive boys. *Child Development, 53*, 623-635.
- Dodge, K.A., Lochman, J.E., Harnish, J.D., Bates, J.E., & Pettit, G.S. (1997). Reactive and proactive aggression in school children and psychiatrically impaired chronically assaultive youth. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 106*, 37-51.
- Dodge, K.A., & Somberg, D.R. (1987). Hostile attributional biases among aggressive boys are exacerbated under conditions of threats to the self. *Child Development, 58*, 213-224.
- Farrington, D. (1983). Offending from 10 to 25 years. In K.T. Von Desen & S.A. Mednick (Eds.), *Prospective studies of crime and delinquency* (pp.17-37). Boston: Kluwer-Nijhoff.
- Fortman, J., & Feldman, M. (1994). Controlling impulsive expression of anger and aggression. In M. J. Furlong & D.C. Smith (Eds.), *Anger, hostility and aggression: Assessment, prevention and intervention strategies for youth* (pp.473-507). Brandon: Clinical Psychology Publishing.
- Frey, K.S., Hirschstein, M.K., & Guzzo, B.A. (2000). Second

- Step: Preventing aggression by promoting social competence. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, 8, 102-112.
- Goldstein, A.P., Glick, B., & Gibbs, J.C. (1988). *Aggression replacement training: A comprehensive intervention for aggressive youth*. Champaign, Ill.: Research Press, 1988.
- Hoffman, M.L. (1971). Father absence and conscience development. *Developmental Psychology*, 4, 400-406.
- Hudley, C.A. (1994). The reduction of childhood aggression with the BrainPower program. In M.J. Furlong & D.C. Smith(Eds.), *Anger, hostility and aggression: Assessment, prevention and intervention strategies for youth* (pp.313-344). Brandon: Clinical Psychology Publishing.
- Neapolitan, J. (1981). Parental influences of aggressive behavior: A social learning approach. *Adolescence*, 16, 831-840.
- Olweus, D. (1980). Familial and temperamental determinants of aggressive behavior in adolescent boys: A causal analysis. *Developmental Psychology*, 16, 644-660.
- Osborn, S.G., & West, D.J. (1979). Conviction records of fathers and sons compared. *British Journal of Criminology*, 19, 120-123.
- Patterson, G.R., & Stouthamer-Loeber, M. (1984). The correlation of family management practices and delinquency. *Child Development*, 55, 1299-1307.
- Pepler, D.J., King, G., & Byrd, W. (1991). A social-cognitively based social skills training program for aggressive children. In D.J. Pepler & K. Rubin (Eds.), *The development and treatment of childhood aggression* (pp.361-388). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Rivara, F.P., & Farrington, D.P. (1995). Prevention of violence. Role of the pediatrician. *Archives of Pediatrics & Adolescent Medicine*, 149, 421-429.
- Sakai, A., & Yamasaki, K. (2004a). Development of the Proactive and Reactive Aggression Questionnaire for elementary school children. *Japanese Journal of Psychology*, 75, 254-261. (In Japanese with English summary)
- Sakai, A., & Yamasaki, K. (2004b). Children's evaluations and outcome expectations for aggressive responses and types of aggressiveness. *Japanese Journal of Educational Psychology*, 52, 298-309. (In Japanese with English summary)
- Smith, T.W., McGonigle, M., Turner, C.W., Ford, M.H., & Slattery, M.L. (1991). Cynical hostility in adult male twins. *Psychosomatic Medicine*, 53, 684-692.
- Wadsworth, M. (1979). *Roots of delinquency: Infancy, adolescence, and crime*. New York: Harper and Row.
- Yamasaki, K. (Ed.) (2000). *Psychological health education*. Tokyo: Seiwashoten (In Japanese).
- Yamasaki, K., & Fujii, S. (2006). Health intervention protocols for lifestyle disease prevention in Japanese elementary school children. *Research Bulletin of Educational Sciences*, 21 (in press).
- Yamasaki, K., Sakai, A., Soga, S., Oashi, O., Shimai, S., & Otake, K. (2001). Reconstruction of subscales in the Hostility-Aggression Questionnaire for Children (HAQ-C) and considerations of aggressiveness construct. *Research Bulletin of Educational Sciences*, 16, 1-10. (In Japanese with English summary)

2005年9月8日受理