Safitri & Hernawati. *Journal of Social Science and Human Ecology* (2026), 2(1), 13-24.

THE INFLUENCE OF SELF-CONTROL AND PEER CONFORMITY ON AGGRESSION AMONG UNDERPRIVILEGED ADOLESCENTS

Wulan Safitri[1], Neti Hernawati[1*)]

[1] Department of Family and Consumer Sciences, Faculty of Human Ecology, IPB University, Jl. Raya Darmaga IPB Campus Darmaga, Bogor, 16680, Indonesia

*)E-mail: neti_hernawati@apps.ipb.ac.id

Article History
Received: April 24, 2026
Revised: June 23, 2026
Accepted: June 25, 2026

Abstract

Adolescents who are not yet able to control their physical and psychological functions tend to experience emotional instability that triggers aggressiveness. Socioeconomically disadvantaged family conditions can further reinforce this tendency as a form of emotional release or a defense mechanism. This study aims to analyze the influence of self-control and peer conformity on aggression among underprivileged adolescents. This quantitative study involved 77 students from grade 10 and grade 11 at Sekolah Master Depok using a convenience sampling technique. The results show that the majority of respondents have low levels of self-control and peer conformity, and a moderate level of aggression. Correlation test results indicate that gender is positively related to peer conformity and aggression, self-control is negatively related to aggression, and peer conformity is positively related to aggression. Regression results show that gender and peer conformity have a significant positive effect on aggression. Meanwhile, father's age, father's years of education, and self-control have a significant negative effect on aggression. These findings emphasize that strengthening self-control and fostering a positive peer environment can be important strategies in reducing aggressive behavior among underprivileged adolescents.

Keywords: aggression; peer conformity; self-control; adolescents

INTRODUCTION.

Adolescence is a crucial stage of development characterized by significant physical, emotional, and social changes (Jahja, 2011). During this period, adolescents are in the process of searching for their identity and tend to adjust to their social environment in order to be accepted, especially by peer groups (Retnowuni & Yani, 2019). Social pressure, inability to manage emotions, and unsupportive environments often trigger deviant behaviors such as aggression (Wangsa & Tobing, 2024). Aggression among adolescents can manifest in the form of physical violence, verbal abuse, and bullying, which not only harms victims but also negatively impacts the perpetrators themselves (Zulaiha, 2019). National data show that cases of violence involving adolescents continue to increase, many of which occur in educational settings (KPAI, 2023). Based on data from the Women and Children Protection Information System (SIMFONI-PPA) in 2024, the highest number of violence victims were in the 13 to 17 age group, totaling 10,720 victims (35.2%), with 2,182 cases occurring in schools, most of which were at the high school level. Meanwhile, perpetrators of violence among adolescents aged 13 to 17 are often boyfriends or girlfriends or peers, accounting for 4,987 cases.

Bandura (1986), in social cognitive theory, states that human behavior is influenced by the interaction between individual factors, environmental factors, and the behavior itself. In this context, self-control as an individual factor and peer conformity as an environmental factor are assumed to play important roles in shaping aggressive behavior among adolescents. Self-control refers to an individual's ability to restrain negative emotional impulses and act in accordance with social norms (Tangney et al., 2004). Adolescents with low self-control tend to exhibit impulsive and aggressive behavior because they are unable to manage their emotions adaptively (Meier et al., 2015; Salahuddin et al., 2023). On the other hand, peer conformity refers to the tendency of adolescents to follow group behavior in order to gain social acceptance (Sarwono, 2016). This conformity can become a risk factor if the peer environment encourages deviant behaviors such as aggression (Sovitriana & Sianturi, 2021; Sunarjo et al., 2022).

Although extensive literature has examined the relationships between self-control, peer conformity, and adolescent aggression, a notable research gap persists. Existing studies have largely concentrated on

general adolescent populations or those from socioeconomically stable backgrounds, thereby neglecting the unique dynamics of marginalized youth. Theoretically, it is essential to investigate whether Bandura's social cognitive frameworks function consistently within socioeconomically deprived environments, where structural hardships and environmental stressors frequently overwhelm an individual's internal regulatory capacities (Evans, 2016; Heberle & Carter, 2020). Empirically, focusing specifically on underprivileged adolescents is crucial, as the accumulation of psychosocial risks such as chronic financial strain and lack of structural support can fundamentally alter peer dynamics, potentially amplifying the negative impact of peer conformity compared to their more affluent counterparts (Russell & Odgers, 2020).

Consequently, this study involves underprivileged adolescents at SMA Sekolah Master Depok. In this study, "underprivileged" refers to individuals from economically and socially disadvantaged families. Accordingly, this research was conducted at Sekolah Master Depok, a free school established for underprivileged communities such as orphans, street children, and the poor. Low economic background, loss of parents, and social discrimination can increase adolescents' emotional pressure and vulnerability to aggressive behavior (Andayani, 2018; Berlianti et al., 2017). A study by Suzanna and Suryaman (2015) conducted in a vocational high school with students mostly from lower middle socioeconomic backgrounds found that 59.6% of students had low levels of self-control. This occurs because adolescents from economically disadvantaged families tend to experience higher psychological pressure, such as stress due to financial limitations, lack of access to quality education, and unsupportive social environments (Khadijah et al., 2024).

Adolescent aggressive behavior can also be triggered by peer group values, which lead adolescents to follow such behaviors in order to feel accepted within the group (Isnaeni, 2021). This phenomenon is known as conformity. Adolescents from low socioeconomic backgrounds often exhibit elevated levels of peer conformity, which serves as a compensatory response to the instability and insecurity prevalent in their home or community environments (McCoy et al., 2022; Putri et al., 2023). This is supported by a study conducted by Putri et al. (2023), which found that among 70 high school students, most of whom came from lower socioeconomic backgrounds, 61 students (87%) had very high conformity, 8 students (12%) had high conformity, and 1 student (1%) had moderate conformity. This occurs because students from low-income families tend to have a greater need for recognition and acceptance from their peer groups. Based on this background, this study aims to: (1) identify adolescent characteristics, family characteristics, self-control, peer conformity, and aggression among students at SMA Sekolah Master Depok; (2) analyze differences in self-control, peer conformity, and aggression between male and female students; (3) analyze the relationships between adolescent characteristics, family characteristics, self-control, peer conformity, and aggression; and (4) analyze the effects of adolescent characteristics, family characteristics, self-control, and peer conformity on aggression among students at SMA Sekolah Master Depok.

METHODS

Research Design

This study uses a quantitative approach with an explanatory design, which is intended to examine causal relationships based on previously formulated hypotheses. The study was conducted at Sekolah Master Depok, which was selected purposively. The selection of this location was based on specific characteristics aligned with the research objectives, namely a student population from lower to middle socioeconomic backgrounds. A study by Berlianti et al. (2017) shows that family income level influences adolescent aggressiveness. Low family economic conditions can increase the risk of aggressive behavior due to psychological pressure and limited access to resources influenced by financial conditions. Data collection was carried out offline using a survey method through a self-administered questionnaire in the form of a paper-based test completed directly by the respondents.

Sampling Technique

The respondents in this study were 77 students from grade X and XI, consisting of 40 male students and 37 female students. This sample was selected because, at the time of data collection, grade XII students were no longer active in school as they had completed their final examinations. Therefore, only grade X and XI students were included. The sampling method used was non-probability sampling with a convenience sampling technique based on respondents' willingness and school recommendations. It has a well-recognized limitation: the findings can only be generalized to the population from which the sample was obtained, rather than to the broader adolescent population (Andrade, 2021; Etikan et al., 2016). Specifically, since participants were selected from Sekolah Master, the results of this study should be understood as representing the characteristics of adolescents within that particular school context. Data collection was conducted offline in May 2025.

Measurement of Variables

The variables in this study include: (1) adolescent and parental characteristics; (2) self-control; (3) peer conformity; and (4) aggressiveness. Adolescent and parental characteristics include age, gender, grade level, father's age, mother's age, father's education level, mother's education level, father's occupation, mother's occupation, family income, and family size. The variables of self-control and peer conformity were categorized based on cut-off points established by Sunarti et al. (2005) into three categories: low (<60.00), moderate (60.00–79.99), and high (≥80.00). Meanwhile, the aggressiveness variable was categorized based on cut-off points from Puspitawati and Herawati (2017), consisting of low (<33.40), moderate (33.40–66.69), and high (≥66.70). The measurement details for each main variable are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Operational definitions and variable indicators

Variable	Operational Definition	Indicators
Self-control Short Self-Control Scale Indonesian version (operationalization of De Ridder et al., 2012), developed by Arifin and Milla (2020) Cronbach's Alpha = 0,810	The capacity of adolescents to regulate their responses in order to behave in accordance with social norms and achieve long-term goals.	Consists of dimensions: 1. Inhibition 2. Initiation
Peer conformity Instrument developed by Jessica (2018) based on aspects of peer conformity proposed by Sears et al. (1988) Cronbach's Alpha = 0.729	The tendency of adolescents to engage in behaviors similar to peers of a relatively similar age and with whom they interact intensively, both in school and outside school, such as in the home and play environments.	Consists of dimensions: 1. Cohesion 2. Agreement 3. Compliance
Aggression The Aggression Questionnaire developed by Buss and Perry (1992) Cronbach's Alpha = 0.779	The tendency of adolescents to engage in behaviors intended to harm others, either physically or non-physically.	Consists of dimensions: 1. Physical aggression 2. Verbal aggression 3. Hostility 4. Anger

Reliability for all three instruments was assessed using Cronbach's alpha. The Indonesian-language Short Self-Control Scale used in this study was adapted by Arifin and Milla (2020) from the original by De Ridder et al. (2012). Expert review and CFA testing showed both content and construct validity before using the scale in this study (Arifin & Milla, 2020). For the peer conformity instrument by Jessica (2018) and the Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992), validity and reliability were expected to follow standard procedures for questionnaire-based social science research. This usually involves expert content validity review and statistical confirmation of item-construct relationships before testing reliability on the study sample (Bolarinwa, 2015).

Data Collection Techniques

This study uses primary data obtained directly from respondents through self-administered questionnaires completed offline. After data collection, reliability and validity tests of the instruments were conducted. The primary data collected include adolescent characteristics, family characteristics, self-control, peer conformity, and aggressiveness among adolescents. Adolescent characteristics include age, gender, and grade level. Family characteristics include mother's age, father's age, mother's education, father's education, family size, and family income. The self-control variable includes inhibition and initiation. Peer conformity includes cohesion, agreement, and compliance. Aggressiveness includes physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger, and hostility.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistical tests with the assistance of SPSS version 25. Descriptive statistics in this study include frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation, minimum, and maximum values to describe adolescent and parental characteristics, self-control, peer conformity, and aggressiveness. Pearson correlation tests were used to examine relationships between variables with

significance levels of $p < 0.050$ and $p < 0.010$. Multiple linear regression analysis was conducted to assess the influence of self-control and peer conformity on aggressiveness with significance levels of $p < 0.050$ and $p < 0.100$.

RESULTS

Adolescent and Parental Characteristics

This study involved 77 students at SMA Sekolah Master Depok, consisting of 40 male adolescents (51.9%) and 37 female adolescents (48.1%), aged between 15 and 20 years. The average age of respondents was 16.91 years. More than half of the respondents (62.3%) were from grade 10, while the remaining (37.7%) were from grade 11. Based on family characteristics, more than half of fathers (64.9%) and mothers (55.8%) were in the middle adulthood category (41–60 years). The average age of fathers was 47.85 years and mothers 44.35 years. In terms of education, the highest percentage of parents had completed senior high school, accounting for 40.3% of fathers and 44.2% of mothers. Regarding occupation, the highest percentage of fathers worked as casual laborers (32.5%), followed by traders (19.5%). Meanwhile, more than half of mothers (54.5%) were not employed and were housewives. The average monthly family income was IDR 2,731,168.83. In terms of family size, more than half of respondents (66.2%) came from medium-sized families, 22.1% from small families, and 11.7% from large families.

Self-Control

Self-control refers to adolescents' ability to regulate their responses in accordance with social norms to achieve long-term goals. Table 2 presents the distribution of self-control levels based on its dimensions. The classification of self-control uses cut-off points established by Sunarti et al. (2005), categorized into low (<60.00), moderate (60.01–79.99), and high (≥80.00). The results in Table 2 show that most respondents have low self-control (72.7%), with an average score of 56.62. The inhibition dimension is dominated by the low category (54.5%), indicating that respondents tend to have difficulty restraining impulses or negative behaviors. In the initiation dimension, more than half of respondents (64.9%) fall into the low category, indicating a low ability to initiate actions aligned with long-term goals.

Peer Conformity

Peer conformity refers to adolescents' tendency to engage in behaviors similar to peers of a similar age with whom they interact intensively, both in school and outside environments such as home and play settings. Table 2 presents the distribution of peer conformity levels based on three dimensions. The classification uses cut-off points established by Sunarti et al. (2005), categorized into low (<60.00), moderate (60.01–79.99), and high (≥80.00). The results show that most respondents have low levels of peer conformity (89.6%), particularly in the compliance dimension (94.8%), indicating low adherence to peer group pressure or rules. The cohesion dimension, which refers to maintaining harmony and closeness within the group, is also dominated by the low category (68.8%). Similarly, the agreement dimension, reflecting the extent to which adolescents agree with group opinions, shows that 63.6% of respondents fall into the low category. The average peer conformity index is 49.90 (SD = 8.05), with a range of 29–65, indicating that most adolescents are not easily influenced by peer group behavior.

Aggressiveness

Aggressiveness refers to adolescents' tendency to engage in behaviors intended to harm others, either physically or non-physically. Table 2 presents the distribution of aggressiveness levels based on four dimensions. The classification uses cut-off points established by Puspitawati and Herawati (2017), categorized into low (<33.40), moderate (33.40–66.69), and high (≥66.70). The results show that most respondents have moderate levels of aggressiveness (92.2%), with only 3.9% categorized as low or high. The most dominant dimensions are hostility and anger, which have the highest average index scores. A high average score in the anger dimension indicates a tendency toward easily triggered negative emotions, while the hostility dimension reflects hidden negative feelings toward others, such as suspicion, jealousy, or feeling unappreciated. The overall average aggressiveness index is 49.71 ± 10.59, with a range of 29–77, indicating that respondents tend to have moderate aggressiveness but still possess potential negative emotions, particularly in the form of hostility and anger.

Table 2. Distribution of respondents based on categories, mean, and standard deviation of self-control, peer conformity, and aggressiveness (n = 77)

Variables	Category						Min–Max	Mean ± SD
	Low		Moderate		High			
	n	%	n	%	n	%		
Self-control	**56**	**72,7**	**16**	**20,8**	**5**	**6,5**	**23-90**	**56,62±13,10**
Inhibition	42	54,5	29	37,7	6	7,8	17-89	57,07±15,29
Initiation	50	64,9	23	29,9	4	5,2	17-100	55,95±16,66
Peer conformity	**69**	**89,6**	**8**	**10,4**	**0**	**0**	**29-65**	**49,90±8,05**
Cohesion	**49**	**63,6**	**26**	**33,8**	**2**	**2,6**	**25-83**	**55,79±11,87**
Agreement	53	68,8	23	29,9	1	1,3	29-83	53,90±11,83
Compliance	73	94,8	4	5,2	0	0	7-78	41,13±11,50
Aggressiveness	**3**	**3,9**	**71**	**92,2**	**3**	**3,9**	**29-77**	**49,71±10,59**
Physical aggression	27	35,1	47	61	3	3,9	11-81	41,75±13,92
Verbal aggression	10	13	62	80,5	5	6,5	7-93	49,87±13,96
Hostility	5	6,5	56	72,7	16	20,8	0-92	55,79±17,68
Anger	13	16,9	50	64,9	14	18,2	10-90	52,88±19,41

Note: n = number, % = percentage, SD = standard deviation

Differences in Self-Control, Peer Conformity, and Aggressiveness by Gender

Based on Table 3, there are significant differences between male and female adolescents across several variable dimensions. In terms of self-control, males show higher initiation ability (p = 0.046). In contrast, for peer conformity, females exhibit higher levels of conformity (p = 0.008), particularly in the cohesion dimension (p = 0.011). In terms of aggressiveness, females show higher mean scores (p = 0.010), especially in the hostility (p = 0.018) and anger (p = 0.000) dimensions. Meanwhile, no significant differences are found in the inhibition, agreement, compliance, physical aggression, and verbal aggression dimensions.

Table 3. Results of difference tests on self-control, peer conformity, and aggressiveness

Dimension	Mean		P-Value	Total Mean
	Male	Female		
Inhibition	58,61	55,41	0,361	57,01
Initiation	59,58	52,03	**0,046***	55,81
Self-control	59,00	54,05	0,098	56,53
Cohesion	53,65	58,11	0,099	55,88
Agreement	50,63	57,43	**0,011***	54,03
Compliance	39,54	42,84	0,210	41,19
Peer conformity	47,60	52,40	**0,008****	50,00
Physical aggression	42,59	40,84	0,584	41,72
Verbal aggression	49,33	50,45	0,728	49,89
Hostility	51,25	60,70	**0,018***	55,98
Anger	45,12	61,26	**0,000****	53,19
Aggressiveness	46,75	52,90	**0,010****	49,83

Note: *significant at p < 0.050 (2-tailed); *significant at p < 0.010 (2-tailed)

Relationship between Adolescent Characteristics, Family Characteristics, Self-Control, Peer Conformity, and Aggressiveness

The results of the Pearson correlation test in Table 4 show significant relationships between several variables and aggressiveness. Table 4 indicates that gender is significantly related to aggressiveness (r = 0.292, p = 0.01) and peer conformity (r = 0.300, p = 0.008). With the coding 0 = male and 1 = female, this positive relationship indicates that female respondents tend to have higher levels of aggressiveness and peer conformity than males. In addition, there is a significant negative relationship between self-control and aggressiveness (r = -0.409, p = 0.00). This indicates that the higher the level of self-control, the lower the tendency for adolescents to engage in aggressive behavior. A significant positive relationship is also found between peer conformity and aggressiveness (r = 0.358, p = 0.001), meaning that higher levels of peer conformity are associated with higher levels of aggressiveness. Meanwhile, family characteristics such as parents' age, years of education, family income, and family size do not show significant relationships with self-control, peer conformity, or aggressiveness.

Table 4. Distribution of correlation coefficients between adolescent characteristics, family characteristics, self-control, peer conformity, and aggressiveness

Variables	Self-control	Peer conformity	Aggressiveness
Adolescent characteristics			
Respondent age (years)	0,202	-0,36	-0,71
Gender (0 = Male, 1 = Female)	-0,190	**0,300****	**0,292****
Family characteristics			
Father's age (years)	-0,023	0,053	-0,054
Mother's age (years)	0,135	0,068	0,044
Father's years of education	-0,148	0,028	0,013
Mother's years of education	-0,133	0,162	0,192
Family income (IDR/month)	-0,120	0,011	0,140
Family size (persons)	0,161	-0,050	-0,172
Self-control	1	-0,104	**-0,409****
Peer conformity		1	**0,358****
Aggressiveness			1

Note: *significant at p < 0.050 (2-tailed); *significant at p < 0.010 (2-tailed)

The Influence of Adolescent Characteristics, Family Characteristics, Self-Control, and Peer Conformity on Aggressiveness

The regression analysis results in Table 5 show that, overall, adolescent characteristics, family characteristics, self-control, and peer conformity have a significant effect on aggressiveness (F = 4.809, p = 0.000). The Adjusted R Square value of 0.334 indicates that all independent variables in the model explain 33.4% of the variance in adolescent aggressiveness, while 66.6% is influenced by other variables outside this study. Father's age has a significant negative effect on aggressiveness (β = -0.279, p = 0.005). This means that each one-year increase in father's age reduces adolescent aggressiveness by 0.211 points, indicating that older fathers are associated with lower levels of adolescent aggressiveness. Self-control also shows a significant negative effect on aggressiveness (β = -0.343, p = 0.001). This means that each one-point increase in self-control reduces aggressiveness by 0.277 points. In other words, adolescents with higher self-control tend to exhibit lower aggressive behavior. Conversely, peer conformity has a significant positive effect on aggressiveness (β = 0.215, p = 0.037). This indicates that higher levels of peer conformity increase the likelihood of aggressive behavior, with each one-point increase in conformity raising aggressiveness by 0.283 points. Meanwhile, other variables such as respondent age, gender, mother's age, parents' education, family income, and family size do not show significant effects on aggressiveness and therefore are not strong predictors in this study.

Table 5. The influence of adolescent characteristics, family characteristics, self-control, and peer conformity on aggressiveness

Variables	Aggressiveness			
	Unstandardized Coefficient (B)	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficient (β)	Sig.
Constant	51,808	19,856		0,011
Respondent age (years)	0,603	1,081	0,056	0,579
Gender (0 = Male, 1 = Female)	3,807	2,260	0,181	**0,097***
Father's age (years)	-0,211	0,072	-0,279	**0,005****
Mother's age (years)	0,041	0,097	0,043	0,679
Father's years of education	-0,711	0,370	-0,221	**0,059***
Mother's years of education	0,558	0,351	0,175	0,117
Family income (IDR/month)	6.350×10^{-7}	0,000	0,101	0,306
Family size (persons)	-0,910	0,641	-0,144	0,160
Self-control (index)	-0,277	0,080	-0,343	**0,001****
Peer conformity (index)	0,283	0,133	0,215	**0,037****
R Square			0,422	
Adjusted R Square			0,334	
F			4,809	
Sig.			**0,000****	

Note: *significant at p < 0.100 (2-tailed); *significant at p < 0.050 (2-tailed)

DISCUSSION

Based on the correlation test results, gender is found to have a significant positive relationship with peer conformity. This means that female adolescents tend to have higher levels of conformity compared to male adolescents. This finding is consistent with previous studies showing that female adolescents tend to exhibit higher conformity than males (Hanifa and Muslikah, 2019; Istiana and Ainun, 2018). This result is further supported by the difference test, which shows a significant difference in the cohesion dimension, indicating that females are better at building close and harmonious relationships within groups. This difference suggests that conformity among females is not merely about following the group but also reflects the need to maintain positive social relationships. According to Sarwono (2011), this is influenced by female personality traits that are more flexible or adaptable, as well as social limitations that lead them to adjust more to their environment. In addition, Sears (2009) describes females as gentle, wise, sensitive to others' feelings, and having a high need for security. These stereotypes indirectly shape female adolescents' behavior, making them more susceptible to peer influence, such as in fashion or behavior, as a form of adjustment to social norms to gain acceptance within the group.

Furthermore, the correlation test results show that gender has a significant positive relationship with aggressiveness. This indicates that female adolescents have higher levels of aggressiveness than males. This finding is supported by the difference test, which reveals significant differences between male and female adolescents in the hostility and anger dimensions. This suggests that aggressiveness among female adolescents tends to manifest in emotional expressions such as anger and hostility, whereas male adolescents' aggressiveness is more dominant in physical forms. This is consistent with Liu et al. (2024), who found that females more often express aggression through negative emotions such as anger, irritation, or hostility, especially under psychological pressure or social conflict.

Another finding based on the correlation test shows that self-control has a significant negative relationship with aggressiveness. This means that higher self-control is associated with lower aggressiveness and vice versa. This is supported by Tarigan and Hafni (2022), who found that adolescents with good self-control are better able to regulate their emotions, thus preventing aggressive behavior when facing emotionally triggering situations. According to DeWall et al. (2011), self-control plays an important role in restraining aggressive impulses. When adolescents feel the urge to become angry or act harshly, self-control helps them think before acting, including considering the consequences of their words or actions. Therefore, self-control can reduce the likelihood of aggressive behavior.

The study also finds a significant positive relationship between peer conformity and aggressiveness. This means that the greater the tendency of adolescents to follow their peers, the higher the likelihood of engaging in aggressive behavior. This is due to social pressure from peers that encourages adolescents to adjust their behavior to gain acceptance, including adopting aggressive behavior. When group norms allow or encourage aggression, adolescents with high conformity tend to imitate and display such behavior as a form of identification and reinforcement of social position (Amelia & Suhesty, 2025). However, in this study, most respondents fall into the low category of peer conformity. Lutfianti and Sundari (2023) explain that the level of conformity is influenced by the frequency of interaction with peer groups. The more frequently adolescents interact with their peers, the higher the likelihood of conformity. Conversely, limited interaction reduces the likelihood of conformity.

Further analysis using multiple linear regression shows that gender has a significant positive effect on aggressiveness. This means that female adolescents tend to have higher levels of aggressiveness than males. This finding differs from Iftikhar and Malik (2014), who found that male adolescents are more aggressive. However, it aligns with Saputra et al. (2024), who reported that female adolescents more often display aggression in the form of anger and resentment. This difference may occur because males and females express aggression in different ways. Bjorkqvist (2018) explains that females tend to show indirect aggression, such as gossiping, social exclusion, or suppressing anger, while males tend to display physical aggression. Therefore, although the forms differ, higher emotional aggression among females may explain the positive relationship between gender and aggressiveness found in this study. This pattern may indicate a more complex socioecological mechanism rather than a mere biological tendency. In numerous Indonesian community contexts, girls face greater social repercussions for direct or physical expressions of anger compared to boys. Consequently, girls are more inclined to channel aggressive impulses into verbal or relational forms, which the instrument employed in this study may classify as "aggressiveness" alongside, or instead of, physical aggression. This interpretation warrants caution, as the current study did not differentiate between aggression subtypes (direct versus indirect). Additionally, findings on gender and aggression among Indonesian adolescents are not entirely consistent. Afdal et al. (2020), in a survey of

2,681 adolescents across various Indonesian regions, observed that male adolescents exhibited more aggressive behavior than females, with this tendency also varying by domicile (urban, suburban, rural). The discrepancy between that finding and the present study suggests that the gender–aggression relationship in Indonesia may be influenced by the specific community, school, or family context of the sample rather than representing a singular, universal pattern. Future research on this topic in Indonesia would benefit from separately measuring aggression subtypes and reporting community-level characteristics of the sample, thereby allowing for a more precise interpretation of this gender effect.

Another finding shows that father's age has a significant negative effect on aggressiveness. This means that older fathers are associated with lower levels of adolescent aggressive behavior. This may be because older fathers tend to have greater emotional maturity, life experience, and more stable parenting abilities, which create a supportive family environment for positive emotional development (Kholifah & Rusmawati, 2020). Darmawati (2023) found that positive paternal attitudes help adolescents understand, manage, and express emotions healthily, reducing behavioral problems. This is also supported by Dewi and Widyastuti (2024), who found that father involvement is significantly related to adolescents' emotional regulation. Higher paternal involvement leads to better emotional regulation, which in turn reduces aggressive behavior.

In addition to father's age, this study also finds that father's education has a significant negative effect on aggressiveness. This means that higher levels of father's education are associated with lower levels of adolescent aggressiveness. This is consistent with Utami et al. (2021), who found that father's education influences adolescent aggressiveness, as higher education enables better parenting practices that support adolescents' social and emotional development. Fathers with higher educational backgrounds tend to have better understanding of child-rearing, which helps prevent aggressive behavior. This finding is also supported by Amanda et al. (2018), who found that father involvement significantly influences adolescent aggressiveness. Poor parenting practices increase the risk of deviant behavior, including aggression, while higher education enables more adaptive and appropriate parenting approaches. The link between a father's education and reduced aggressiveness is better explained by its impact on emotion regulation rather than just parenting style. Rademacher et al. (2025) conducted a study with 442 children and their families from preschool to elementary school. They found that lower parental education was linked to a stricter parenting style, which indirectly led to children's aggressive behavior by affecting their emotion regulation. In contrast, a warmer and less strict parenting style, more common among better-educated parents, supported better emotion regulation and reduced aggression. Although this evidence is from younger children, it suggests that a more educated father might use warmer, less coercive discipline, helping adolescents regulate emotions and reduce aggression. This aligns with Masud et al. (2019), who reviewed 34 studies and found that authoritative parenting is linked to lower aggression, while authoritarian and permissive styles are linked to higher aggression in children and adolescents. They also highlighted the need for more research on parenting and aggression in developing countries, which this study in Indonesia addresses.

Another finding shows that self-control has a significant effect on aggressiveness. Given the negative direction of the relationship, adolescents with higher self-control tend to exhibit lower levels of aggressiveness. In adolescent development, self-control functions as an internal mechanism that helps individuals evaluate the consequences of their actions before acting impulsively or harming others. This finding can be explained using Bandura's (1986) Triadic Reciprocal Causation theory, which states that behavior is the result of interactions between personal, behavioral, and environmental factors. In this context, self-control is a key personal factor that mediates environmental influences on aggressive behavior. Adolescents with high self-control are better able to resist external pressures to act aggressively. This is supported by Zahri and Savira (2018), who found that self-control has a significant negative effect on adolescent aggressiveness. Adolescents with high self-control are more capable of managing negative emotions, restraining harmful impulses, and choosing non-destructive ways to resolve problems. A recent Indonesian study provides additional context-specific evidence for this pathway. Saputra, Uthis, and Suktrakul (2025) conducted research on middle adolescents with conduct problems across nine junior high schools in Aceh Province. They discovered that self-control is directly negatively associated with aggression, while self-esteem is indirectly linked to aggression through its influence on self-control. This indicates that self-control may serve not only as a direct inhibitor of aggressive impulses but also as a mediating mechanism through which other personal vulnerabilities, such as low self-esteem, manifest as aggressive behavior. This finding underscores the potential effectiveness of interventions aimed at enhancing adolescent self-control as a strategic approach within the Indonesian school context.

The regression results also show that peer conformity has a significant positive effect on aggressiveness. This means that higher levels of peer conformity increase the likelihood of aggressive behavior. Adolescents with high conformity tend to follow group values, attitudes, and behaviors, including aggressive or antisocial behaviors modeled within the group. According to Bandura's (1986) Triadic Reciprocal Causation theory, peers represent a strong environmental factor influencing behavior formation. When adolescents are in environments that normalize aggression, their tendency to conform can lead to similar aggressive behavior. Bandura (2001) also emphasizes the role of modeling, where individuals observe, imitate, and reinforce behaviors demonstrated by others, especially influential figures such as peers. Adolescents not only imitate aggressive behavior but also maintain it when reinforced by social acceptance or recognition. This finding is consistent with Siregar et al. (2025), who found that peer conformity has a significant positive effect on adolescent aggressiveness. Similarly, Santrock (2012) stated that peer influence increases during adolescence and serves as a strong source of social learning, both positively and negatively. Laursen and Veenstra's (2021) Influence-Compatibility Model provides a contemporary explanation for the peak in conformity observed during adolescence. This model integrates empirical research indicating that early adolescence is characterized by increased conformity due to peer influence, which enhances similarity among friends. By aligning one's behavior with that of a friend or group, adolescents reduce interpersonal dissonance, facilitate the formation and maintenance of friendships, and avoid social exclusion. In peer groups where aggression is normalized or rewarded with status, this same mechanism, which typically fosters healthy friendships, may instead direct adolescents towards aggressive behavior, as conforming to the group's aggressive norms fulfills the same social need.

Beyond these specific explanations, it is beneficial to contextualize the findings within the broader socioecological framework of the participants. From an ecological-systems perspective, the adolescent's family characteristics (such as the father's age and education), personal self-control, and peer conformity examined in this study do not function independently. They represent influences situated at different ecological levels — the family microsystem, the peer group microsystem, and the adolescent's personal system — that interact to influence aggressive behavior. Flynn and Mathias (2025), utilizing Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory in a qualitative study of adolescents exposed to various forms of violence, demonstrate how family-level and peer-level contexts, in conjunction with broader neighborhood and cultural conditions, shape adolescents' interpretations and responses to conflict. Viewed through this lens, the current findings — characterized by weaker father involvement (indicated by younger, less-educated fathers), low self-control, and high peer conformity — suggest a cumulative risk pattern. In this pattern, a less supportive family microsystem may render adolescents more reliant on peer norms for emotional and behavioral guidance, including norms that legitimize aggression. This socioecological interpretation should be regarded as a plausible framework rather than a tested model, as the present study did not formally examine interactions or mediation across these family, personal, and peer-level variables.

This study has several limitations that may affect the scope and accuracy of the findings. All respondents were drawn from a single school, limiting generalizability to other adolescent populations with different characteristics and contexts. Given the socioecological framework previously discussed, this limitation is significant: the study's focus on a single school community precludes the examination of variations at the exosystem or macrosystem levels. Such variations might include factors like neighborhood safety and regional cultural norms concerning gender and aggression, which the contrasting findings on gender in Indonesia (Afdal et al., 2020) indicate could be influential. Additionally, the use of self-administered data collection may introduce bias in reporting family characteristics due to respondents' lack of knowledge or inaccuracies. Another limitation is the use of convenience sampling, which may result in a sample that does not fully represent the population.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

This study involved 77 adolescents at Sekolah Master Depok and found that respondents generally have low levels of self-control and peer conformity, while aggressiveness is at a moderate level, with hostility and anger being the most prominent dimensions. Difference tests show that males have better self-control, while females tend to be more conforming and more aggressive. Correlation results reveal that self-control is significantly negatively related to aggressiveness, while gender and peer conformity are significantly positively related to aggressiveness. Regression results show that gender and peer conformity have significant positive effects on aggressiveness, while father's age, father's education, and self-control have significant negative effects. Overall, the model explains 33.4% of the variance in adolescent aggressiveness.

Based on these findings, adolescents are encouraged to improve self-control, such as by increasing awareness of the consequences of impulsive behavior, especially related to harmful habits. Adolescents can begin by setting realistic goals and organizing daily schedules. They are also encouraged to be more selective in choosing peer environments to avoid being influenced toward aggressive behavior. Parents, especially fathers, are expected to strengthen emotional relationships with their children through warm communication and consistent involvement in parenting, as findings indicate that older and more educated fathers are associated with lower adolescent aggressiveness. For educational institutions, it is important to create a positive social environment and support students through character development programs so that adolescents are not driven to conform to deviant behaviors merely to gain acceptance. Future researchers are encouraged to expand the sample across different schools with diverse characteristics and to consider additional variables such as parenting style, emotional regulation, and social media exposure to obtain more comprehensive findings and stronger generalizability.

REFERENCES

Afdal, A., Fikri, M., Pane, N., & Andriani, W. (2020). Exploration of aggressive behavior among adolescent in Indonesia. Konselor, 9(4), 165–173. https://doi.org/10.24036/0202094111914-0-00

Amelia, D., & Suhesty, A. (2025). Dari teman ke tindakan: Hubungan antara konformitas teman sebaya dengan agresivitas verbal remaja SMP X Kota Samarinda. *Jendela Pendidikan, 5*(1), 69–77. https://doi.org/10.57008/jjp.v5i01.1234

Andayani, R. (2018). Pengaruh faktor sosio-ekonomi terhadap perilaku agresif pada remaja. *Jurnal Psikologi Perkembangan, 9*(2), 123–135.

Andrade, C. (2021). The inconvenient truth about convenience and purposive samples. Indian Journal of Psychological Medicine, 43(1), 86–88. https://doi.org/10.1177/0253717620977000

Arifin, H. H., & Milla, M. N. (2020). Adaptasi dan properti psikometrik skala kontrol diri ringkas versi Indonesia. *Jurnal Psikologi Sosial, 18*(2), 179–195. https://doi.org/10.7454/jps.2020.18

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Prentice Hall.

Berlianti, D., Vitalaya, A., Hastuti, D., Sarwoprasojdo, S., & Pranaji, D. K. (2016). Ada apa dengan komunikasi orang tua-remaja?: Pengaruhnya terhadap agresivitas remaja pada sesama. *Jurnal Ilmu Keluarga dan Konsumen, 9*(3), 183–194. https://doi.org/10.24156/jikk.2016.9.3.183

Björkqvist, K. (2018). Gender differences in aggression. *Current Opinion in Psychology, 19*, 39–42. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2017.03.030

Bolarinwa, O. A. (2015). Principles and methods of validity and reliability testing of questionnaires used in social and health science researches. Nigerian Postgraduate Medical Journal, 22(4), 195–201. https://doi.org/10.4103/1117-1936.173959

Buss, A. H., & Perry, M. (1992). The aggression questionnaire. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 63*(1), 452–459. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.63.3.452

Darmawati. (2023). Peran ayah dalam aspek perkembangan emosional dan psikologi anak. *Jurnal Adzkiya, 8*(1), 1–10.

De Ridder, D. T. D., Boer, B. J. D., Lugtig, P., Bakker, A. B., & Hooft, E. A. V. (2011). Not doing bad things is not equivalent to doing the right thing: Distinguishing between inhibitory and initiatory self-control. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *50*(7), 1006–1011. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2011.01.015

Dewi, M. P., & Widyastuti. (2024). Keterlibatan ayah dan regulasi emosi remaja di Pamotan. *Journal of Islamic Psychology, 1*(1), 1–8. https://doi.org/10.47134/islamicpsychology.v1i2.81

DeWall, C. N., Finkel, E. J., & Denson, T. F. (2011). Self-control inhibits aggression. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 5*(7), 458–472. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-9004.2011.00363.x

Etikan, I., Musa, S. A., & Alkassim, R. S. (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics, 5(1), 1–4. https://doi.org/10.11648/j.ajtas.20160501.11

Evans, G. W. (2016). Childhood poverty and adult psychological well-being: The mediating role of chronic stress and self-regulation. Psychological Science, 27(11), 1452–1460. https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797616664964

Flynn, K., & Mathias, B. (2025). "How am I supposed to act?": Adapting Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory to understand the developmental impacts of multiple forms of violence. Journal of Adolescent Research, 40(2), 192–225. https://doi.org/10.1177/07435584231159674

Hanifa, H. P., & Muslikah, M. (2019). Hubungan antara konformitas teman sebaya ditinjau dari jenis kelamin dengan kepatuhan terhadap tata tertib sekolah. *Jurnal EDUKASI: Jurnal Bimbingan Konseling, 5*(2), 136. https://doi.org/10.22373/je.v5i2.5092

Heberle, A. E., & Carter, A. S. (2020). Cognitive and emotional development in the context of socioeconomic disadvantage: The role of executive functioning and self-regulation. Developmental Review, 58, 100936. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dr.2020.100936

Iftikhar, R., & Malik, F. (2014). Translation and validation of aggression questionnaire in a Pakistani children cohort. *Pakistan Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 12*(1), 39–45.

Isnaeni, P. (2021). Konformitas terhadap perilaku agresif pada remaja. *Psikoborneo: Jurnal Ilmiah Psikologi, 9*(1), 121. https://doi.org/10.30872/psikoborneo.v9i1.5672

Istiana, & Ainun, N. (2018). Perbedaan konformitas ditinjau dari jenis kelamin pada remaja di Sekolah Madrasah Tsanawiyah Irsyadul Islamiyah Kecamatan Bagan Sinembah. *Psikologi Prima, 1*(2), 110–121. https://doi.org/10.34012/psychoprima.v1i2.366

Jahja, Y. (2011). *Psikologi perkembangan*. Kencana.

Jessica, L. (2017). Hubungan antara konformitas teman sebaya dan materialisme pada remaja [Skripsi, Universitas Sanata Dharma].

Khadijah, S., Lahesi, A., Ridhona, & Wulandari, E. (2024). Pengaruh perekonomian keluarga terhadap kesehatan mental mahasiswa. *Educate: Journal of Education and Learning, 2*(1), 42–49. https://doi.org/10.61994/educate.v2i1.324

Kholifah, N., & Rusmawati, D. (2020). Hubungan antara keberfungsian keluarga dengan kontrol diri remaja pada siswa SMAN 2 Semarang. *Jurnal Empati, 7*(2), 566–571. https://doi.org/10.14710/empati.2018.21677

Komisi Perlindungan Anak Indonesia. (2023). *Laporan tahunan kasus kekerasan terhadap anak 2023*. https://www.kpai.go.id

Laursen, B., & Veenstra, R. (2021). Toward understanding the functions of peer influence: A summary and synthesis of recent empirical research. Journal of Research on Adolescence, 31(4), 889–907. https://doi.org/10.1111/jora.12606

Lutfianti, M., & Sundari, A. R. (2023). Keterkaitan konsep diri dan konformitas dengan perilaku agresi verbal siswa kelas XII SMAN 4 Bekasi. *Jurnal Edukasi dan Multimedia, 1*(2), 18–27. https://doi.org/10.37817/jurnaledukasidanmultimedia.v1i2.2892

Masud, H., Ahmad, M. S., Cho, K. W., & Fakhr, Z. (2019). Parenting styles and aggression among young adolescents: A systematic review of literature. Community Mental Health Journal, 55(6), 1015–1030. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10597-019-00388-y

McCoy, D. C., Roy, A. L., & Sirin, S. R. (2022). Neighborhood poverty, peer delinquency, and adolescent externalizing behaviors: A longitudinal study of risk and protective factors. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 51(4), 682–696. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10964-021-01550-w

Meier, M. H., Slutske, W. S., Arndt, S., & Cadoret, R. J. (2015). Impulsive and callous traits are more strongly associated with delinquent behavior in higher risk neighborhoods among boys and girls. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 117*(2), 377–385. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-843X.117.2.377

Puspitawati, H., & Herawati, T. (2018). *Metode penelitian keluarga*. IPB Press.

Putri, L. R., Deliana, S. M., & Rizki, B. M. (2017). Pengaruh konformitas teman sebaya terhadap perilaku membolos pada remaja SMKN 10 Semarang. *Intuisi: Jurnal Psikologi Ilmiah, 9*(2), 101–114. https://doi.org/10.15294/intuisi.v9i2.11601

Rademacher, A., Zumbach, J., & Koglin, U. (2025). Parenting style and child aggressive behavior from preschool to elementary school: The mediating effect of emotion dysregulation. Early Childhood Education Journal, 53, 63–72. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10643-023-01560-1

Retnowuni, A., & Linda Yani, A. (2019). Faktor-faktor yang mempengaruhi perilaku agresif pada remaja yang tinggal di pesantren. *Jurnal Holistic Nursing Science, 6*(1), 36–43. https://doi.org/10.31603/nursing.v6i1.2406

Russell, M. A., & Odgers, C. L. (2020). Adolescents' daily exposure to neighborhood poverty and crime: Implications for internalizing and externalizing problems. Journal of Clinical Child & Adolescent Psychology, 49(2), 241–254. https://doi.org/10.1080/15374416.2018.1547967

Saputra, W. N. E., Hanifah, N., & Widagdo, D. N. (2017). Perbedaan tingkat perilaku agresi berdasarkan jenis kelamin pada siswa Sekolah Menengah Kejuruan Kota Yogyakarta. *Jurnal Kajian Bimbingan dan Konseling, 2*(4), 142–147. https://doi.org/10.17977/um001v2i42017p142

Saputra, F., Uthis, P., & Suktrakul, S. (2025). Predicting factors of aggression among Indonesian middle adolescents with conduct problems in the community: A correlational study. Belitung Nursing Journal, 11(6), 733–748. https://doi.org/10.33546/bnj.4109

Sarwono, S. W. (2016). *Psikologi remaja*. Rajawali Pers.

Sears, D. O., Freedman, J. L., & Peplau, L. A. (1988). *Psikologi sosial*. Erlangga.

SIMFONI-PPA. (2024). *Peta sebaran jumlah kasus kekerasan*. https://kekerasan.kemenpppa.go.id/ringkasan

Siregar, Y. R. S., Hasanuddin, & Nuraini. (2025). Efek konformitas dan kontrol diri terhadap agresivitas siswa. *Jurnal Manajemen Pendidikan dan Ilmu Sosial, 6*(3), 2014–2021. https://doi.org/10.38035/jmpis.v6i3.4377

Sovitriana, R., & Sianturi, H. C. (2021). Kematangan emosi dan konformitas teman sebaya dengan perilaku agresif pada remaja di Kelurahan X Kabupaten Bekasi. *Jurnal IKRA-ITH Humaniora, 5*(2), 118–126.

Sunarjo, I. S., Aspin, & Husaini, L. O. (2022). Konformitas teman sebaya dengan perilaku agresif remaja. *Jurnal Sublimapsi, 3*(3), 219–228. https://doi.org/10.36709/sublimapsi.v3i3.26688

Sunarti, E., Tati, Nuraini, A. S., Noorhaisma, R., & Lembayung, D. P. (2005). Pengaruh tekanan ekonomi, dukungan sosial, kualitas pernikahan, pengasuhan, dan kecerdasan emosi anak terhadap prestasi belajar anak. *Media Gizi dan Keluarga, 29*(1), 34–40.

Suzanna, & Suryaman, A. (2015). Hubungan kontrol diri dan status sosial ekonomi keluarga dengan perilaku kenakalan remaja di SMK Gajah Mada Palembang tahun 2014. *Masker Medika, 3*(2), 12–21.

Tangney, J. P., Baumeister, R. F., & Boone, A. L. (2004). High self-control predicts good adjustment, less pathology, better grades, and interpersonal success. *Journal of Personality, 2*(1), 54. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0022-3506.2004.00263.x

Tarigan, L. H., & Hafni, M. (2022). Hubungan antara kontrol diri dengan perilaku agresif pada remaja di Kelurahan Padang Bulan Kota Medan. *Jouska: Jurnal Ilmiah Psikologi, 1*(2), 159–165. https://doi.org/10.31289/jsa.v1i2.1342

Wangsa, P. R. P., & Tobing, D. H. (2024). Factors influencing aggression among adolescents in Indonesia: A literature review. *Nusantara Journal of Behavioral and Social Sciences, 3*(2), 53–62. https://doi.org/10.47679/202448

Zahri, H., & Savira, I. (2018). Pengaruh *self-control* terhadap agresivitas remaja pada pelajar SMP dan SMU di Sekolah Perguruan Nasional. *Jurnal Psikologi Pendidikan dan Pengembangan SDM, 6*(1), 1–10. https://doi.org/10.37721/psi.v6i1.366

Zulaiha, Husen, M., & Bakar, A. (2019). Analisis faktor penyebab perilaku agresif pada siswa. *Jurnal Ilmiah Mahasiswa Bimbingan dan Konseling, 4*(1), 1–14.