CHAPTER II
CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

(A) CONCEPT OF AGGRESSION

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CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

"Research is the manipulation of things, concepts or symbols for the purpose of generalizing to extend, correct or verify knowledge whether that knowledge aid in the practice or in an art," (Encyclopedia of social sciences). Whenever a scientist has to give relational statement in research, he uses concepts or constructs. A concept expresses an abstraction formed by generalization of particulars.

The main two concepts used in this study are AGGRESSION and PARENTAL DERIVATION. The details and definition of these concepts are as follows -

(A) AGGRESSION - For the study of aggressive behaviour in children, the understanding of aggression concept is very necessary. What is aggression? what are the features and types of aggression? what are the causes of aggression? These are some questions, answers of which can help to get a better understanding of aggressive behaviour in children.


Most human beings come in daily contact of aggression, even in a highly civilized society. A baby of 2 or 3 years can also show aggression by occasionally and striking its arms and legs - and older children often fight furiously. A young adult may disguise his aggression in various forms such as irritation
rites, dormitory raids and property destruction, whereas, an older person is less likely to show his aggression directly rather he does it indirectly.

In children, aggression shows itself often in various forms such as destruction of objects or inflicting pain/injury on others. A child may act aggressively if he is in danger or when he has been stopped from obtaining a desired object or satisfying any particular desire. Thus aggression is often defined as an intentional attempt to harm or injure others. This harm can be either physical like using bodily violence or it can be psychological such as name calling, word-speak and verbal abuse etc. If harm occurs, then he who inflicts it, may be called aggressor and the action done is known as aggression. Aggression is not always manifested in overt movements but may exist as the contents of a fantasy, day-dream or even a well thought out plan of revenge. A assumption has been formed that people who have a physical or a verbal outlet for their aggressive behaviour, are better satisfied and happier than those who do not. The patterns and way of expression of aggression depends on learning, motivation and cultural factors. Some cultures inhibit and prohibit it and some permit and even reward it by social approval. Thus, aggression is not necessarily a negative emotion which produces only danger but it also provides pleasures to be enjoyed, if the person directs his aggressive energy towards abstract goals such as artistic - expressions and scientific - research.
A few of the definitions of aggression as given by renowned psychologists are:

ALBERT BANDURA (1973) defined "The aggression is a behaviour that has injurious consequences. It is the intentional attempt to injure others." Thus two factors are important for influencing an aggressive action - (i) the intention, motive or goal of the person who intends to harm, (ii) when harm occurs, to any person, then it will be called aggression.

BERNOWITZ, C.P. (1962) has considered aggression, "As behaviour whose goal response is the inflicting of injury on some object or person." The behaviour may be overt or may be implicit (in case of thoughts). Aggression, then, is distinguished from an emotional state (anger or general arousal) which may facilitate and perhaps even "energize" the aggressive responses.

BEVERLY & BRINGHAM (1950) also pointed out "The aggression is an action whose intention and goal is to inflict injury and harm to another person or persons." Thus the intentional attempt is very important for the aggression. This is the reason that an unsuccessful attempt to harm others also can be called an aggressive act.

ROBERT, R. SEARS (1941) theorized that aggression has the function of producing pain in others in order to remove their interference with goal-directed behaviour.
The above definitions emphasize an intentional attitude in aggression whereas, it is also an important and universal effect of frustration. This type of analysis is done by JOHN DOLLARD, LEONARD DOOB, NEIL MILLER and several of their colleagues in YALE in 1939, and eventually generated the famous "FRUSTRATION-AGGRESSION HYPOTHESIS". The focused approach of this hypothesis is that aggression is always a consequence of frustration and counterwise, the existence of frustration always leads to some form of aggression. They concluded that frustration produces a drive state and this drive is an arousal that eventually produces aggressive thoughts or actions. The strength of the aggression depends directly on the amount of Zx frustration.

SEWARD's (1959) reveals this fact that frustration leads to aggression only in a situation, where the individual has a habit of being aggressive. In subjective terms, a frustrated person feels more irritable than a non-frustrated one but this feeling can be modified by learning and training.

In conclusion, frustration is a necessary and significant condition for the arousal of aggression but it can not be said that all aggressions are the results of frustrations. Thus, various psychologists have tried to define aggression in various ways.

(A)(ii) Major Theories of Aggression

Many theories of aggression have been developed to
determine the causes of aggression, the time of the occurrence of aggression and the nature of aggression. Three main theories, in this context have been proposed by psychologists.

A(ii)(a) THE INSTINCTIVE THEORY OF AGGRESSION - This theory is also known as the "GENETIC & PHYSIOLOGICAL BASES OF AGGRESSION". This fact that aggression is an innate instinct, has been interpreted by FREUD SIGMUND (1933). According to him, "when the expression of aggression in acceptable ways, is blocked, the individual become destructive." Thus aggression is a basic, inborn drive that demands direct or indirect expression. Aggression is a natural response and is produced by instinctive energies. FREUD's early writings stated that there is one basic instinct called "EROS - The life instinct". This life-instinct revolves around the sexual drive and keeps the species alive. Later, he gave the concept of THANATOS - "the death instinct" which aims to destroy life. This instinct is manifested in two ways. If it is directed towards oneself, it may result in suicidal - tendencies, self injurious - tendencies etc. If it is directed outwards then, it manifests itself in the forms of violence, aggression, crime etc. Thus, it is clear that life and death are two opposite sets of instincts, mentioned by FREUD, which are the causes of all actions of human beings.

FREUD's view is that nothing can alter the basic nature of aggression and nothing can completely abolish the the discharge of aggressive energies. They exist and must be discharged periodically. Particular types of behaviours which reflect this discharge
can, however, be modified through social learning, by a better, more sophisticated and useful expression of the instinct of aggression. Thus, aggression is a part of human nature and nothing can be done to eliminate it.

The ethologist CONRAD LORENZ (1966) also accepted that the nature of aggression is a form of fighting instinct which is inherited and works as biological drive and which has to be discharged in one or another form of aggressive behaviour. Aggression usually occurs only when instinctive energies are triggered off or released by external cues.

According to Lorenz too, a basic energy exists in aggression and is just waiting to be released by appropriate environmental triggers. After it has being discharged once, this aggressive energy starts building up slowly, until, it has to be released once again. This aggression serves a useful biological function in the animal world. It operates to ensure the survival of the species.

Lorenz's views about human aggression were also very important. According to him, human beings are instinctively aggressive but show aggression only when it is triggered by appropriate environmental stimuli. Like Freud, he, too, believes that aggression is inevitable and should be encouraged in modified forms towards socially acceptable substitute targets.
in order to drain off the instinctual impulses.

In addition, several studies have tried to link genetic factors with human aggressive behaviour. The results have been ambiguous, there is no strong evidence that links human violence, criminality and aggressiveness, exclusively, to genetic factors. It means that genes are not the direct cause of aggressive behaviour. They lay the biological foundation and might affect behaviour indirectly but this genetic disposition is drastically modified by environmental influences.

Now, it is believed that aggression is not an instinctive part of human nature, nor is it affected by genetic factors alone, therefore, can be said that the controlling agent of this behaviour is the brain. Everyone knows that the brain controls and directs all complex behaviour. It has also been found that rage, violence and attack behaviour occurs when while the stimulation of other brain areas produces an opposite effect (cessing of aggressive action and the production of docility).

In conclusion, it can be said that the brain has the capacity to behave aggressively, however, whether this capacity will ever be exercised or not depends upon many other factors.

However, this theory of genetic and physiological bases of aggression has been soundly criticized by many social psychologists, because this view concerning man's nature have no scientific validity.
A:11) (b) PSYCHOLOGICAL Bases OF AGGRESSION

The psychological approach of aggression, developed by John Dollard, Leonard Doob, Neal Miller and several other colleagues (1959) is called "THE FRUSTRATION AGGRESSION MODEL". This is a group of those social psychologists who rejected the view that the aggressive energy is innate and that violence is inevitable. Dollard and Miller (1959) feel that there are some internal conditions which push individuals towards behaving aggressively or that the aggressive reactions are the "drive effects" to frustration. They assume a universally causal relationship between frustration and aggression.

As already mentioned, this drive-state is just like any other drive-state i.e. hunger, thirst etc., which are responsible for the arousal of aggression. They believed that though aggression is a natural response to frustration, yet often the aggressive drive cannot be expressed directly, either because of objective danger such as a chance of retaliation or anxiety due to prior punishment for aggressiveness or due to the conflict of individual experiences. To reduce this conflict, the individual may attempt to inhibit his aggressive impulses, but these impulses remain and press for release in two forms. One form of release may occur by "MEANS OF DISPLACEMENT". It is called "DISPLACED AGGRESSION". It is a redirection of the impulse towards a less threatening target. Because in many cases, it would be dangerous for an individual to show aggression against the person who was the cause of the original frustration. Thus, his aggression may be placed into
a weaker target, who may have little in common with the original cause of frustration. According to this theory, the more similar the substitute target, the more likely the choice for displacement of aggression. A second form that is socially acceptable is "CATHARSIS" - a verbal or imaginary expression of the aggressive impulse. The notion of Catharsis has been supported by FREUD AND LORENS' views who assumed that energies produced by aggressive instincts could be discharged through an aggressive action.

**EVIDENCES SUPPORTING THE FRUSTRATION - AGGRESSION MODEL** - This model has been supported by many interesting studies. If the theory is correct, one would expect to find that a condition which produces frustration should also increase aggression. One of the early studies was conducted by BANDURA & WALTERS (1973) on children. The experimental group of children was taken to a room filled with attractive toys and they were forbidden to enter. Therefore, they felt frustrated, standing outside and looking at the toys through a window. A second controlled group of children was shown the toys and was allowed to play with them immediately. A most interesting result has been obtained through this experiment. The frustrated children, finally, behaved in a distinctive manner, by throwing the toys against the walls and floor.

An important evidence has been provided by AZKIE, HUTCHINSON and BAKE (1966) pigeons were taught to peck at a key, by reinforcing them with food every time. They carried out the action, and after the key-pressing response was well established,
then the investigators suddenly stopped giving out food. If another pigeon was then placed in the cage, the thwarted birds would attack it furiously, to the extent of pulling out its feathers. This action of aggression by the pigeons was caused by frustration through not getting the food.

Research on young children also testified the aggressive consequences of some frustrations. In one study ELBERT & ULRICH (1966) ten years old youngsters given the task of stacking bottle-stoppers in order to earn money, exhibited sharp increase in aggression.

HALLIK & MACAMESS (1966) manipulated an experiment on 8 or 9 year old boys and girls by giving them a simple construction task in order to earn money. Various aggression measures were obtained in three investigations carried out by the researchers. For each of these measures, they concluded that the frustrated subjects exhibited stronger aggression than the non-frustrated ones.

Other studies included employed adult humans as subjects. In the experiment by Buss (1963) college students (both men and women) found that they were unable to teach a concept to a partner (by punishing him for mistakes) and therefore, they could not gain a reward. The result of it was that frustration led to intensified aggression. Buss also observed, however, that the level of aggression shown by the frustrated subjects, was not very great in relation to the level possible in the situation.
Evidence of Non Aggressive Frustration and Non Frustration Aggression

Evidence (Berkowitz - 1960) has also failed to support the frustration aggression theory. It is not necessary that frustration is the cause of aggression. Anthropologists have the idea that aggression can occur even without earlier frustration. Aggression would be displayed, eventually, if the instigation to the blocked responses persist. Some studies indicate that aggression will occur only when anticipatory goal responses are in operation and the progress of action is somehow not allowed to reach the goal then his expected efforts would be thwarted, so he would not anticipate getting to the goal and his goal striving might weaken or disappear altogether.

Where the Yale psychologists had mentioned that all aggression presupposes a frustration a defensive proposition has been made by Miller, N. (1941). Sometimes animals act aggressively even when there is no frustration. According to Lager Spitz and Murnik (1964), Mayer (1967) and Scott (1966) people learn aggression much the same as they learn to display any other type of behaviour. Thus, in conclusion, we can say that frustration is an important antecedent of aggression but frustration alone, is not the complete responsible factor of aggression.

Revision of Frustration Aggression Model - Though the frustration aggression model is too simple to account for a wide variety of human aggressive behaviour but Leonard Berkowitz (1964) and Green (1962) has modified it and added some unique elements to
explain aggression. Berkowitz feels that frustration does not always produce aggression, but it produces arousal and the readiness for aggression. Aggressive action will occur primarily when this readiness is followed by aggressive cues for example the sight of a gun, knife, blood and so on. Such a cue can either exist in an environment or be brought into play by one's thoughts.

This approach has some similarities to Lorentz's instinctive model of aggression. Both models propose that aggression is usually the result of some type of arousal or energy as an aggressive cue. Although there is a difference in both theories, Lorentz observes that both aggressive energy and aggressive cues are instinctive. Society has relatively little control over such instincts. However, Berkowitz proposes that arousal is the result of frustration, and that aggressive cues are learned through past association with aggressive actions. Aggression can be reduced either by changing social condition to minimizing number of cues associated with aggression. Berkowitz explains that none of the components of aggression mentioned above instinctive. Society has much more influence upon the control of aggression.

Thus, this theory of aggression has proved that frustration is a psychological base of aggression, but it is not only one and sole factor of aggression.

A (11)(c) THE SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY OF AGGRESSION

ALBERT BANDURA & WALTERS (1973), GREEN & MURRAY (1975)
FESIBACH (1956) and other social psychologists offer an explanation of aggression as socially learned behaviour. They believed that aggression is acquired and regulated by the same processes that give other forms of social behaviour. These processes are dependent upon matching, modeling and imitating the behaviour of others. Bandura and Walters have stressed that learning, particularly, observation - learning, is accounting for a wide variety of human behaviour. They pointed out the role of learning in modifying frustration reactions.

Aggression is seen as involving a general state of arousal whose meaning and consequences depend upon the person's cognitive appraisal and expectations in the particular situation. The same arousal state could lead to attack, cooperation or to some other response. Moreover, different people react differently when distressed by emotional arousal. Some people support it, others increase achievement strivings, still others show withdrawal and resignation. Some others anesthetize themselves against a miserable existence with drugs or "alcohol".

Both adults and children exit a behaviour-style based on what they observe. BANDURA AND WALTERS (1972) observed that the child imitated the adult's play, as adult represented his model of destructive and constructive behaviour with the toys and the child also played in the same manner with the toys.

As compared with children who observed the constructive model or children who observed no model at all, it was seen that the children who observed aggressive models displayed a great deal of aggression in playing with the toys, while the children to whom
the model, was not demonstrated displayed other forms of aggressive behaviour. Many factors determine that imitation will occur after aggressive models have been observed. The consequences of the model's behaviour played a vital role in determining whether aggression will be imitated. The consequences of the model are termed vicarious. If the model is rewarded for the behaviour, vicarious reinforcement occurs. If the model is punished for the behaviour, vicarious punishment inhibits modelling behaviour, while vicarious reward often increases it.

The characteristics of the models also affect whether aggression will be imitated. If an aggressive model has a high status and is respected and admired, he is considered to be an expert, attractive and powerful. Another important factor that affects modelling of aggression concerns with the label attached to the action. If the action is viewed by other observers as immoral, unethical by others and unjustified, it is less likely that an individual will initiate it. Such a label clearly indicates that an action is "bad" and socially disapproved and it is a form of vicarious punishment, associated with the action. On the other hand, if aggressive actions are labelled as "justified" and "ethical" becomes more likely. It becomes a socially accepted way of dealing with others.

Another experiment has been done by MORENO (1934) and other workers to judge group-aggression in children. They have studied this phenomenon in children through the use of sociometric technique. All the individuals in a group were asked to
make a list of the persons with whom they would most like to
take part in any activity and another list of those with whom
they would least like. The results of this test showed group
aggression in children.

The method to control undesirable aggression may be
the development of dominance - tendency, escalation etc. The
most important method is passive inhibition, which means the
habit of not fighting the aggression. In conclusion, it was
found that aggressive behaviour serves to reduce or end pain or
threat. If individual can successfully cope with the source of
harm or frustration by some means, then they do not behave
aggressively.

A(111) CONTRIBUTORY UNITS OF AGGRESSION

Though aggression is in itself an emotional state but
its degree may be increased or decreased, when it occurs in
combination with other emotional states. Numerous studies have
mentioned various components of aggressive behaviour. Some of
the commonly known components are ANGER, HOSTILITY, FRUSTRATION,
JEALOUSY, INHIBITION OF FEELINGS, DOMINANCE etc. The details of
some of these components are given below -

A(111)(a) ANGER - Anger is an emotional response with prominent
facial-expressions and autonomic components. It may be concep-
tualized as a drive state. Thus anger, like fear, is an instru-
ment for dealing with a threatening environment. In anger, a child
takes action against the threat, whereas in fears, he retreats from it.

Anger can be aroused in young children by forcible restraint, interference with movement, blocking activities etc. In a growing child, anger will occur if there is interference with his physical needs and activities. As he grows older, the conditions that cause anger will include anything which interferes with his possessions, plans, purposes, expectations and rights.

Anger is not only a response to what is present but usually has its roots in the past. GOOD ENOUGH (1932) concluded by his study that after effects of anger are more frequent and prolonged in children above the age of four than in children under it. Throughout childhood, however, there are great individual differences in the anger and violence of children. At times they show extreme anger by holding their breath, writhing or baring their heads against a hard-surface. Sometimes a child will frequently vary the nature of his outburst under different circumstances. He is more likely, for example, to cry in anger at home than at school (HICKETS 1934) and to hit and kick when angered by another child than when angered by an adult. Sometimes children direct their anger against themselves in a form of physical self punishment. Anger is usually influenced by factors of learning and motivation. As a child's capacities expand, learning plays an increasingly important role in determining how he will express his rage and what conditions will suit him.
Anger may be a sign of strength as well as of weakness. A child's anger is considered a sign of strength and nobility, if it occurs when he is abused or when one takes unfair advantage of him or violates his integrity. It is considered the sign of weakness when it is unsuited to the occasion and not directed towards the real source (Arthur, T. Jeremiah 1946).

Thus it can be concluded that anger is an important component of aggression.

A(111)(b) hostility - Hostility is an attitudinal response that induces an implicit verbal response involving negative feelings, (ill-will for e.g. "I hate you") and negative evaluation of people and events. It is an emotional (internal) reaction or feeling of anger, enmity or resentment directed towards another person, situation or oneself. Hostility is expressed behaviourally (externally) in the form of aggression, an act which is intended to hurt someone else but sometimes oneself. Freedman, Kaplan and Sadock (1976) defined "Hostility is a constellation of specific thoughts, feelings and actions. It is mobilized because of an observation to a wish or need and its goal is to remove the obstruction in order to permit drive discharge." Thus hostility has been described as an activity which has an aim of destroying or inflicting pain upon the frustrating object or person. Such hostility response is neither instrumental nor automatic, but it is related to subjective feelings of hatred or resentment. It does not mean that hostility and aggression are identical responses. Aggression may have
hostile components in it. Just as anger may be a part of an aggressive response, hostility too, may be part of an aggressive response. Hostility is, usually not a verbalized response but typically it is implicit and a tendency of mental dissatisfaction. Such hostility and anger are enduring responses that build up slowly and change slowly. Thus hostility may lead to anger.

A(iii)(c) Frustration - Frustration is a feeling of helplessness and inadequacy which develops in a person when he fails to achieve his goals. The term "Frustration" has been variously defined by different psychologists. Generally referring either to the external instigating condition or to the organism's reaction to this condition, (DETT AND JANUS 1940), but the most acceptable definition has been given by PARKIN (1947) who defines "the condition of being thwarted in the satisfaction of a motive is called frustration." BUSS AND WINKEL (1961 - pp. 17-20) suggested that the blocking of any action, typically, leading to a reinforcer could be regarded as "frustration". The blocking could stem from external barriers such as completion of a change of instrumental responses, failure to obtain a reward, omission of the reward, internal conflicts between inexorable responses or prevention of the individual's appropriate consumatory response.

The Yale psychologists DOLLARD, MILLER, HOUWER et al (1939 pp. 7) defined frustration as "An interference with the occurrence of an instigated goal - response at its proper time in the behaviour sequence". Internal conflicts can also be produced by such interference.
Thus, frustration occurs when a sequence of goal directed behaviour is interrupted, so that its completion and the attainment of the desired goal is blocked or delayed, therefore, there is a threatening of expected goal attainment. A frustrating event increases the probability that the thwarted person will act aggressively. It is also a known fact that the premeditative reactions of frustration is aggressive behaviour, usually, accompanied by dislike towards the person or situation, which is based as the source of frustration or by a generalized hostility. Disease, physical handicap, low I.Q., lack of special talents, inadequate abilities (real or imagination) or lack of self-control and personal inequalities are the sources of frustration. Frustration may originate from lack of dissatisfying values, failures, guilt, discriminations and limitations also.

If the frustration is of a mild type, the defence mechanisms such as reaction formation, direct aggression, displaced aggression, teasing, destructiveness, apathy, regression, fantasy stem-typed and restlessness etc., help the individuals to rehabilitate themselves but sometimes the frustration is so strong that the person fails to defend himself and yields to the savagery of circumstances. It is a condition of helplessness which is the most dangerous for mental health and for achieving the goal of organizations (BERKOWITZ 1969).

A (iii)(d) JEALOUSY - Jealousy prevails when a child is resentful of the attention and affection which he desires for himself, are
diverted towards someone else. ARNHEM, T. JERSELD (1946) pointed out that complex feelings and impulses are usually involved in jealousy. GASSER (1939) describes the differences between anger as an intensive emotion including feelings of hatred and revenge whereas self-pity involves dejection, mortification, fear and anxiety.

Jealousy towards parents and younger siblings is frequently expressed in aggressive ways such as biting, fighting, behaving rudely or simply making noise. As they grow older, the jealous attitude of children may be modified or expressed.

A(iii)(c) INHIBITION OF FEELINGS - Inhibition of feelings means an interference in the fulfillment of a child's wishes or desires. Inhibition can also contribute to a low level of overt aggression which results from a feeling of punishment. A number of authors (e.g. PASTURE, 1952, COHEN, 1955) have concluded that people do not become aggressive if they believe that the interference in their goal-attainment is justified by acceptable rules. Only arbitrary - frustration leads to aggression. The strength of inhibition of any act of aggression varies positively with the amount of punishment that is anticipated to be a consequence of the act.

A(iii)(f) DOMINANCE - Manifestation of fantasy aggression is often expressed in the form of dominating behavior manifestations; this type of behavior is much more obvious among animals.
There are certain mental and psychological situations, which may work at the roots, to make a person behave aggressively in an overt fashion. A few of such temperamental or temporary feelings may be "ABSENCE" or "REJECTION", a relative stable situation of "CONFLICTS" and a tendency of REJECTION (not accepting the needed help from others).

The above mentioned feelings, tendencies and conflicts may or may not be mutually exclusive, but the end result of this, is either the emotionally overt or the covert expressions of aggression.

A(iv) TYPES OF AGGRESSION - According to HENRY, A. MURRAY (1940) aggression may be of four types -

(a) Emotional and Verbal Aggression includes - to hate (whether or not the feeling is expressed in words), to get angry, to engage in a verbal quarrel, to curse, criticize, belittle, reprove, blame, ridicule or to excite aggression against another person by public criticism.

(b) Physical, Social Aggression includes - to fight or to kill in self-defense or in defense of a loved object; to avenge an unprovoked insult; to fight for a good cause; to punish or offenses; to pursue, catch or imprison a criminal or enemy.
(c) **Physical, Unsocial Aggression includes** — to hold up, attack, injure to, kill a human being unlawfully; to initiate a fight without due cause; to avenge an injury with excess brutality; to fight against legally constituted authorities; to fight against his own country; sadism.

(d) **Destruction Aggression Includes** — To attack or kill an animal, to break, smash, burn or destroy any object.

BERKOWITZ (1965), a social psychologist, has attempted to discriminate between two types of aggression that have different aims —

(I) **Instrumental Aggression** — The aim of instrumental aggression is the realization of goals, gains and benefits, rather than to make the victim suffer. This type of aggression is primarily oriented towards the attainment of some goal rather than towards injuring others.

(II) **Hostile Aggression** — Hostile aggression has its aim in the deliberate infliction of injury or suffering upon others. This type of aggression can be seen in two ways — (a) **Fantasy Aggression** — This is covert aggression which can not be observed directly, but people express their feelings of aggression by images,
day-dreams and wishes, *(ii) Overt Aggression* - It is manifested aggression which can be observed directly such as fighting, beating, quarrelling etc.

Some other types of aggression considered commonly by psychologists and physiologists are as follows -

1. **Predatory Aggressive Behaviour** - This behaviour occurs in response to a basic need for e.g. hunger and thirst and usually carries with it no effective components.

2. **Competitive Aggressive** - If two people are occupying the same space and acquiring the same impulses and motivation then they direct them towards the same objects or results. The consequence will be competitive aggression between the two individuals for the possession of the desired object.

3. **Defensive Aggression** - The defensive aggression occurs in the presence of a noxious or painful stimulus where neither escape nor evasion is possible, but destruction of the noxious agent can be accomplished by means of combat. This is an innate behaviour pattern. It will become a learned behaviour pattern only if it is rewarded.

4. **Anxiety or Irritability Aggression** - When satisfaction is not obtained and when flight and
confrontation both prove ineffective against aggression, a behaviour pattern of motor inhibition is the outcome. This is called anxiety or irritability aggression.

The proposed research is concerned mainly with two types of aggression i.e. overt and covert.

A(v) THE CONCEPT OF AGGRESSION AS USED IN THE RESEARCH

In the present study the aggression has been considered operationally, as measured by projective and non-projective devices. The investigator has taken the meaning of aggression in the same way as Berenice, "Aggression is a concept whose goal response is the inflicting of injury to same object or person". The aggressive behaviour may be both overt and implicit. The investigator has included particular concepts in the form of certain overt behaviours such as physical attack, bragging, threatening, teasing, saucy impertinence, insulting, name-calling, ridiculing, bullying, verbal castigation, gossiping maliciously, destructiveness and temper tantrums (as mentioned in the "IBR inventory" by the teacher). Implicit behaviour is a form of fantasy aggression in which the child is unaware of aggression but this feeling through some imaginary ideas or day-dreams.

The investigator is not in a position to give proof of affirmation or negation of "AROUSAL THEORY" through the anticipated results of this particular investigation, but, she is fairly confident that an arousal concept of aggression can
neither denied nor deleted from the natural and experimental emission of such a behaviour. The investigator states that the psychological and sociological theory of aggression is included and analyzed in this investigation.

(B) THE CONCEPT OF PARENTAL-DEPRIVATION

"Deprivation", in general, means the dearth of something in life for a fairly long period. These shortages may have to be of different types in different people. Some people have "SOCIAL DEPRIVATIONS" which means that they do not get as much social-prestige, social status and social-relationship as they want, in their lives. The "ECONOMICAL DEPRIVATION" is very common in India which means that people do not have a sufficiently financial status. However, the "DEPRIVATION OF PARENTS" is different from other deprivations. It can affect a child in his growing stage which, in turn, can make him develop a disorganized personality. This can have a long-lasting effect on a child's personality.

Parental deprivation may be found in two forms—(i) the physical deprivation of parents and (ii) the psychological deprivation of parents.

B (i) PHYSICAL DEPRIVATION OF THE PARENTS — The absence of one or both parents is called "Physical deprivation of parents". The causes of the absence of parents may be divorce, death and separation (accidently or naturally). It is presumed to be a stressful condition for the children. If both parents are absent
then child feels like an "orphan" in many ways. The absence of one parent is not so dangerous, though - the child may feel deprived of a supporter and protector. Thus the effect of deprivation of one or both parents is obviously different.

A number of earlier studies (BASIL, L.G. 1949, RUTTER 1965, BENES and OBER 1950 and LIPTON 1962) reported that parental deprivation may be associated with the development of many different types of psychiatric disorders such as a general impairment in their relationship with others, lack of strong attachment to any person, marked retardation of speech and language development, emotional apathy, mental retardation, repetitive play activities etc. This is so, because due to absence of parents, the child feels insecure and lonely. A child is born with some biological and psychological needs, but if these needs are not fulfilled adequately, he develops a deviated behaviour.

COLEMAN (1949) reported that the actual nature and extent of the damage, resulting from parental deprivation, appear to depend on (1) the age at which deprivation first occurs, (ii) the extent and duration of such a deprivation, (iii) the physical make up of the infant, (iv) the substitute care. If any one of these is provided (for e.g. mother substitutes or nursery school may provide the needed affection and loving care). These harmful effects, which are responsible for impairment of personality, can be prevented.
It is commonly recognized that if satisfactory development is to take place, the infant and the young child require a constant and continuous relationship with a mother-figure. Interference with such a relationship may result in a disordered personality. Several studies (Bowlby 1973, S. Møby 1952, Roudinesco and Jenny 1952) indicate that the trauma of losing a parent, specially mother, is very dangerous because the mother has an important role in the security and personality development of a child. Pappenheim and Else (1952) stated that mother—separation in young children meant abandonment and possibly death. Roudinesco and Jenny (1952) suggests (according to their research of the study of children under 3 years of age who had been separated from their mothers before the age of 8 months), very damaging effects in personality development had resulted in the forms of apathy, passivity, lack of interest in people, prolonged immobility, preservation of attitudes, refusal of all contacts— with adults, stereotyped movements etc.

Like the absence of mothers impairs the child's personality, so also the absence of a father produces a severe stress situation in the child's life, this is because a father has an indirect role in making the child independent of its symbolic ties with its mother. A child's relationship with its father determines the nature of the initial transference as well as later trial relationship (Meerloo and Joost A.M., 1956). Due to father—absence, a child experiences difficulty in establishing satisfactory social relationship with other
children. The child seems in a conflict about expressing his feelings and desires to other people. He has a tendency or feeling of hostility that is greater than that of those children who live with their fathers (STOELZ and COLLABORATES, 1975).

SEARS and FINTER (1946) pointed out that fatherless children may develop a number of problems such as excessive dependence upon mothers and attention attracting tendencies. Sometimes they develop antisocial behaviours and delinquent tendencies due to absence of dominance of father, and thus they become difficult for the mother to control.

Thus, it can be concluded that if one of the parents is absent in the early life, a child may get too attached to the mother parent. If the surviving parent gives attention to the child, the attachment may become very strong. The result of this is, that the child does not have any guilt and hostile feelings towards the other parent or either in his conscious or unconscious personality, thus the development of the child is not impaired in any way.

The effects of long term or permanent separation from one or both parents are complex. Many studies (BULLARD 1965, HARLOW 1970) indicate that when the separation occurs as early as three months after birth, the infant may seem emotionally upset but he usually adopts readily to a surrogate substitute mother. If, on the other hand, an attachment behaviour has
developed, the emotional hurt of separation may be deeper and more substantial and the child may go through a period of bereavement. Thus the age of three months to three years is most important for this long term separation or loss. The loss of long term separation, depends not only on the time of its occurrence, but also on his previous relationship with the parent and quality of subsequent parental care. Thus physical deprivation of parents may produce a harmful effect on the child and develop various negative aspects in his personality. As BENES and OBER (1950) found in their study of 38 adolescents who had been institutionalized between the ages of 6 to 18 years, after discharge from the orphanage, they found that 4 were diagnosed as psychotics, 21 had a character disorder, 4 were mentally retarded and 2 were neurotic. Only 7 were judged to have achieved a satisfactory personality adjustment. Therefore, the presence of parents is very necessary during the growing age of a child. This is because the family unit remains the most crucial guiding influence in a child's personality development.

B (11) PSYCHOLOGICAL DEPRIVATION OF PARENTS

The psychological deprivation of parents means a situation in which the children are deprived of proper parental attention even when the parents are alive. In such a condition, the parents have no time to understand the problems of their children. Thus, negligence by the parents is the factor responsible for making a child maladjusted. Due to the indifference
of the parents, the child feels disinterested in the family and resorts to bad company which gives him some consolation and they satisfy their feeling of getting love/affection through them. Parental rejection may be shown in various ways such as physical neglect, denial of love and affection, lack of interest in child's activities unjustified punishment, lack of respect for child and discouragement of achievement. This parental rejection may be either partial, complete, passive or active.

However, severe and sustained psychological deprivation can seriously retard intellectual, emotional, social and even physical development of the child because the parents do not provide a proper model for healthy identification. A few studies have been given to support this fact. Bullard (1965) conducted a follow up study on hospitalized children 8 months to 9 years of age. He found that almost 2/3 of the subjects showed evidence of confirmed growth failure, emotional disorder and mental retardation or some combination of these effects.

A study (Ribble 1944) has been done who suffered from inadequate or distorted maternal care. These mothers neglected their children and generally had a rejecting attitude towards the child. Ribble cited that rejecting and indifferent mothers may cause the development of tension, dissatisfaction and negative behaviours in children.
An another study (SEARS, MACCOBY & LEVIN, 1956) has been done on 379 mothers of 5 years old children and found that rejecting mothers reported a background of feeding problem, persistent bed-wetting, aggressiveness etc. in children. Besides, parental rejection is a major reason for adolescents running away from home (STERLING, 1973). LANGER et al (1974) indicated by their study that parental rejection tends to foster low self-esteem, feelings of insecurity, inadequacy of thoughts, retarded unconsciousness, general intellectual development, increased aggression, loneliness and inability to give and receive love.

Most recent studies have been supported these earlier findings. In a ten years study of 427 children, LEFKOWITZ HUESMANN WALDEN and ERON (1963) found that parental rejection is a key prediction of aggressiveness in young children. HENRIQUES (1949) concluded, by his study, that the main cause of delinquency is a broken home or poor and inconsistent home training.

The assumption, that men and women are not equal but complementary, is discussed by the study of IRWIN, M. (1956). He suggests that the father’s role in a home should be a distinctively masculine one, thus the role of the father and the mother are different in family life. These roles affects the child’s behaviour and develops an integrated personality in the child.

In conclusion, it can be said that parental deprivation may create many typical effects in children. 60% of the sample of
psychopaths had experienced the deprivation of parents (Physically or Psychologically) during childhood. Thus, high degree of severe traumatic effects are developed by parental deprivation.

B(iii) CONCEPT OF PARENTAL DEPRIVATION AS USED IN THE RESEARCH

This research is concerned only with the physical deprivation of parents, specially, the absence of both parents. Therefore, orphans are included in the sample of "deprived children". It is assumed that "parental deprivation" is a stress condition and it creates a permanent frustration in children. Many behavioural disorders may be developed by this frustration.

It has also been made clear, by previous description that the absence of one parent is not more dangerous than that of both parents. After the death, divorce or separation of one parent, the child lives in a family with the other parent and with the other members so he has a substitute parent. When one of the parents separates, the other parent gives more attention and affection to the child, therefore, it is not necessary that the child may feel deprived.

The physical deprivation of both parents has serious effects on the child. Children who have lost both their parents, feel lonely and insecure in this world. As is seen by previous studies, these children develop many problems and behavioural
disorders in their personality. This research is also based on the assumption that these physically deprived children have no discipline of family and they have no interference and no boundaries to express their emotions, feelings and tendencies so they will be more aggressive, and having tendencies of anti-social behaviours, but whether this assumption is right or not, will only be known after this research has been conducted.