

CHAPTER 2

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF PAST STUDIES

PART - I : STUDIES ON DEPRIVATION

Deprivation research is nearly three decades old; its history, therefore, is not very old. But within a short span of time it has grown to acquire a prominent status in the contemporary psychology. It has been accorded "priority" in Indian psychology, and has been so recognised by the Indian Council of Social Science Research. It has grown fast in all directions and has involved researchers from various disciplines. First originated in Canada, It has spread in almost all countries barring a few countries of the world. These researches were made known as "deprivation studies" toward the beginning of 1960 (Solomon et al 1961; Vernon, 1963; Schultz, 1965). Out of the three independent groups, only two Hebb and Harlow provided sound basis to the deprivation research for its expansion in several universities of United States, Canada, Japan, etc. European Universities, did not show much enthusiasm to deprivation research. India has joined this pursuit only in 1970's and has yet to cross take offstage. Deprivation research in India is much nearer to the third group as its bias is 'Socio-cultural' rather than 'bio-socio-psychological'.

In the last two decades there has been spectacular increase in the number of studies that demonstrate that variation in a variety of psychological processes, Such as learning, perception and motivation occur as function of individual's culture, social class, caste and socio-economic status (SES). Broota and Ganguli (1975) found evidence of cultural differences in perceptual selectivity. They compared perceptual organization of Hindu, Muslim and American children, and noted significant cultural differences in the three groups. Investigators have also shown that more complex cognitive processes are influenced by

cultural factors. Sitkei and Meyers(1969)found significant differences in cognitive semantics among various ethnic and status groups. Karp,silberman and Winter(1969)haves shown that cognitive functioning varies as a function of social class. Issac (1973) has reported that cognitive test performance of advantaged and disadvantaged white children showed no significant difference. However, black children were significantly poorer than white ones. Tabacs(1912) found that mental abilities of five years old Negro and white children of lower SES were different. In some studies results have been found to indicate cultural differences in intelligence and other abilities. Carothers(1953) as well as Haward and Roland(1954;1955)haves shown that abstraction capacity is influenced by culture. Wayne Dennis (1969) also found cultural differences on Good enough 's draw-man test performance. Knokhlov (1965) found that the phenomenon of cognitive consistency is not universal, Karon(1973)found that psychological adjustment of upper class status in American societal system is different from that of the lower class.

During the past three decades there has been tremendous spurt in psychological research on culturally deprived and impoverished communities and social groups in the United States of America and in Mexico. These studies have been initiated as a consequence of growing awareness that there is a pressing need for improving the lot of deprived people on one hand, and as an out come of growing curiosity among social scientists for understanding the effect of deprivational environment on behavioral and social processes.

Empirical evidence for such effects have been found in several studies. Jensen(1966)found that due to decreased exposure to varied stimulating environmental conditions disadvantaged children are found to be extremely under developed in perceptual discrimination. Jones(1966)observed that disadvantaged children's recognition ability,

vocabulary and sentence structure are significantly below norms. In such children developmental deficiency in language behaviour has also been reported (Bernstein 1960).

Personality development is also hampered due to socio-economic deprivation. It has been observed by Symmonds(1968) and Langmeier(1972) that deprivational conditions result in hardening of emotional feelings, insecurity and inferiority. Davis(1968) observed close connection between social deprivation and cognitive functioning in lower class children. Whiteman and Deutsch(1968) found that self-concept and verbal ability are significantly related to deprivation. Schooler(1972) has shown the psychological characteristics of adults can be explained in terms of early experiences. Cox(1969) has reported that perceptual skills and field articulation become impoverished in culturally deprived children. Deprivation though conceptualized in diverse ways, has also been shown to result in deficient learning and conceptualization. (Birren & Hess, 1968).

Chopra (1969) related cultural deprivation and academic achievement; but by cultural deprivation he meant global socio-economic background not conceptualized in precise terms. Chatterjee (1966) has analyzed the effect of material deprivation on the development of child personality. Khatri (1965) has compared goals, interest and intelligence of orphanage-reared and family-reared children.

Sinha (1969) has also conducted a study on rural development and he must be given credit for initiating large scale study of villagers from psychological point of view.

Das, Jachuck and Panda (1970) conducted a study upon deprived children. The sample were drawn from the municipal school of the city of Bhubaneswar, Orissa. The four groups of children, consisted of rich

Brahmin, rich Harijan, poor Brahmin and poor Harijan. Poor children were those whose parents earned less than Rs. 200/- per month. They belonged to the age group of 9-12 Years. They were given Raven's progressive Matrices(RPM) test. A test of short term memory and a recognition test. The result showed that belonging to a low caste group appeared to account for the inferior performance of a child on some cognitive task. On the whole though there was a marked trend, all results did not support clear-cut differences in ability due to either caste or economic status.

Jachuck and Mohanty (1974) investigated the effects of low SES belongingness on non-verbal reasoning and verbal ability tasks. One hundred children were selected from high SES, and low SES. They belonged to two age groups i.e. 8 to 10 and 14 to 16 years. In both the groups the high SES subjects had better performance on each of the tests than low SES Subjects. The differences, however, were greater at the higher age level. The researchers concluded that the low SES children suffer from a cumulative deficit in their cognitive competence.

Rath and Dash (1972) have studied intellectual and other cognitive manifestations of three groups of children in Orissa. These groups consisted of sample taken from the student population belonging to three castes i.e. the Brahmin, the scheduled Tribe(ST) and the scheduled Caste(SC) children reading together in the same class. The broad hypothesis was that as the three groups of children belong to three distinct social class and caste groups having divergence in socio-cultural setup and educational background, they would differ significantly in intellectual, cognitive and various kind of academic achievement. The results indicated that with regard to intelligence, Brahmin children were highest, followed by ST and SC children, respectively. In regard to specific type of aspiration as well as achievement the ST children proved to be the best and the Brahmin and SC children were very similar

to each other. However the difference between Brahmin and ST children were not significant.

Das and Singh (1975) studied the effects of caste-status and income level on the performance on several tasks such as Raven's progressive Matrices (RPM coloured) Graham-Kendall's memory for design test, cross-model coding, visual short term memory, and figure copying etc., they found that rich Brahmin children were clearly superior to all other children and the least disadvantage children performed best on majority of the tasks. They did not find that birth in the Brahmin caste had an absolute advantage. Instead, they argued that a particular caste is also accompanied by some social advantages and disadvantages and the performance is also a function of these factors.

Sinha (1976), following the theoretical frame work proposed by Bronfenbrenner (1974), has considered sociocultural disadvantages as the surrounding or supporting layer of the ecology of the child belonging to SC group and tried to determine the effect of socio-cultural disadvantage on some perceptual skills. He hypothesized that social disadvantages suffered both due to caste status and inferior quality of schooling would produce a general detrimental influence on the development of the perceptual skills. The result supported this hypothesis. However the effect of disadvantage was much greater on the more complex task than the simple task. It was also found that effect of caste, status was significant. Its influence was comparatively less visible on schedule caste children from superior schools and on simpler perceptual task. Also with increase in age, the performance of schedule caste children became significantly and increasingly inferior to those of the higher castes. The results seemed to indicate that "the socio-economic and cultured disadvantages and discriminations suffered by scheduled castes for generations and overcenturies are far more important as

factors underlying lower perceptual competence than genetic-nutritional or any other factor (Sinha 1977).

Rao (1976) has reported that the children of higher SES perform better on tasks involving concepts of mass, weight, and volume than children of low SES. It was also found that the difference between children of low and high SES group is greatest in higher age group.

Singh (1976,1977) has reported a study on social disadvantage, intelligence and academic achievement. He found that the difference in intelligence and scholastic achievement between the socially advantaged and disadvantaged groups increases with the increase in degree of social disadvantage. The degree of disadvantage was based on four factors, namely income, caste/ethnicity, status, rural/urban residence and sex. The socially advantaged group had higher intelligence in rural sample and better scholastic achievement in both rural and urban samples. Even after matching the socially advantaged and disadvantaged group on intelligence, age, sex, and rural-urban residence, the former had significantly higher scholastic achievement.

Das and Panda (1977) have shown that with exception to basic intelligence, where group differences did not occur between castes, the low caste children did show deficit in personality, information processing modes and intellectual achievement. And the deficits also showed progressive or cumulative retardation in most of the measures. They concluded that in Indian cultural background, membership in low caste and low income family does predispose children to an impoverished environment and the consequences of this deprivation are cumulative over time.

In conclusion it can be said that prolonged deprivation refers to a number of environmental and organismic variables constituting the

basic source of experiences to the living organisms. As a hypothetical construct it may be viewed as having innumerable empirical referents.

PART-II : STUDIES ON LEARNING DIFFICULTIES

Learning difficulties is the newest of the categories in special education taking back to mid sixties. Yet, the term has generated the most controversy over such fundamental issues as an acceptable. It has widespread appeal for parents and teachers.

Today, the Indian educational scene is played by the twin problem of wastage and stagnation. Non-enrollment, wastage and stagnation loom large on the educational horizon in every major city. The alarmingly high rate of dropout, 60% between classes I and V and 75% between classes I and VIII has remained unchanged during the last thirty three years.

A deep rooted concern among educationists, educational planners and programmers has been the significantly high failure and dropout rate in early school years. This colossal wastage of human talent, its implication in terms of national wastage and that too during the primary years is indeed alarming. The situation is truly dichotomous. On the one hand we have as our national goal free and compulsory education for all on the other hand there is sheer wastage and neglect of potential.

It would be erroneous to assume that rate of failure is due to lack of cognitive competence. Various factors, intrinsic and extrinsic, influence, this failure phenomenon. In the other way two kinds of factors, biogenic and sociogenic obstruct, distort or prevent the development and learning of the child. The biogenic factors are within the child, the sociogenic factors are outside the child in the socio-economic conditions. The most

important of these factors can be summarized in two themes : poverty and prejudice (Singh 1980).

Education is the most most important vehicle of the social mobility which offers a possibility for the disadvantaged child. However, such a child's conditioning to failure is very apparent in his lack of academic achievement which is widely evidenced(Jaiswal and Singh, 1978, Singh 1979).

While several researches have pointed out that poor children when compared with middle class children are not less intelligent in early years of their childhood. They fail to compete and score as well as their middle class counterparts. Theses differences widen with each passing year as the cumulative deficiencies build up (Singh and Jaiswal 1980).

Various studies conducted in India on comparative performance of lower and middle class children on various school related learning task reiterate this fact (Murlidharan 1978; Rao 1979; Bevli, 1978, Kumar and murlidharan 1978;singh 1978; Mohite 1973). The evidence resulting from an extensive and intensive investigation reveals the intellectual depression, achievement lag and personality aberrations of the culturally and economically disadvantaged (Rath 1982).

In response to these findings, remedial measures for the total development of these children have been offered by educationists and psychologists. A commitment to educating all such children to the fullest of their abilities has been found not only in India but in the entire world in the second half of this century. Various intervention progarmmes at home or in school have been designed and implemented with significant gains(Murlidharn,1978,Mohite,1976 Murlidharan and Banerjee 1974, Desai, 1978; Verma and Mistry,1980). "In India the need of the time is to put special emphasis on offering well structured teaching programs

to the vast disadvantaged masses with a view to bringing them on par with the advantaged section of the society”(Rath,1982).

Special compensatory programs have been suggested to equip the disadvantaged children with an enriched cognitive background comparable to that of other advantaged children. Disadvantaged children need greater help, especially in subjects like language and arithmetic (Rath 1982). They especially need greater help in language since their verbal environment is restrictive (Bernstein 1971).

To state that an average Indian child is a disadvantaged child is to state an obvious fact. According to Verma (1982).”The child in India essentially means the children of the large masses of people who live below poverty line, residing mainly in the rural area and over crowded urban slums and who are woefully deprived of education and other basic amenities of life”.

The child population in India has grown even faster than the total population of the country and its share in the country’s population has increased considerably from over 38 percent in 1901 to 42.02 percent in 1971 (International year of the child, publication of the international Institute for population studies, Bombay,1979). Three out of four children are deficient in calories and protein and manifest some deficiency symptoms either in terms of retarded growth or other pathological conditions. About 20 percent of Indian children face the risk of losing one percent before the age of ten (Times Of India,1980).

Davis(1948) showed that social class has important effect on learning. He took the position that culture of a particular social class guides its mental activities. Felsetal(1951) have related intelligence to culture. Differences in spoken and written forms of language have also been found to be related to social class by Bernstein(1960).

Jensen(1968)has demonstrated the effects of social class on verbal learning. Das et al (1970) found that the rich children from both high and low castes were superior in word reading. This was believed to be due to the sharper rich-poor difference in income. In one verbal conditioning task (high-press test) rich group,irrespective of caste,was superior to the poor in trials to learn and reverse on the latency of responses, i.e. the high caste children were faster than the low caste. On the other task (adjective test) the high-caste children, irrespective of income were superior to the low caste children in trials to learn and reverse. This inconsistency in performance has been explained on two grounds. Superior performance by the high caste children in verbal task rests upon their advantage in having had a stimulating verbal milieu at home. In the non-verbal task possibly the poor children required more prompting to reach criterion level.

One of the most controversial issues during the past two decades regarding the education of disadvantaged children concerns their language competence. Result of various researches in the west as well as in India on language and scholastic development of disadvantaged children have been summarized below.

Bereiter and Engelman(1966) claim that the speech of Black Ghetto children lacks substance, logic and breadth. Ausubel and sullivan (1970)contend that children living in substandard environment suffer from languagedeficits,particularly with respect to the abstract dimension of various functioning.

Kunty and Mayer(cited in Wilson and Rohecks 1973)found some differences in the knowledge of words selected from the crates word list between economically disadvantaged and advantaged children. However,when word from a familiar background were the stimuli,the

sentences used were equally long for the disadvantaged and the advantaged groups.

On the basis of an intensive review of intercultural language differences, Cazden(1966)concluded that economically disadvantaged children show retardation in language development.

A study by Thomas(1963)on oral language sentence structure and vocabulary of fifty white and fifty Negro kindergarten children living in the low socio-economic urban areas demonstrated the deficient language performance of negro children as compared to white children.

In a study of social class differences in the use of language as a goal for learning in two year old children,Golden,Bridger and Montarc (1975)concluded that where there were no significant SES differences in learning ability on the non-verbal or sensory motor level,the higher class children did significantly better than the lower class children on the verbal level.

In state of Orissa,Bihar and Uttar Pradesh some of the pioneering studies among socially disadvantaged children have been reported. Singh(1980)has attempted to relate in Bihar social disadvantage with academic achievement. Dutta and Das(1981)have reported in Orrissa,non-cognitive correlates of malnutrition among rural and urban Harijan's of short and tall stature. Mishra and Tripathi(1980) have eloquently summed the psychological consequences of prolonged deprivation among Uttar Pradesh children.

Three studies conducted by the Department of child Development(Mohite,1973;Basu 1976;Patel 1976)revealed that children from low socio-economic class were inferior to their middle class

counter-parts in vocabulary, comprehension, intonation, articulation, and general language readiness.

Two studies (Sheldon and Converillo, 1952; Carrillo, 1976) on the relation between environmental differences and reading problems concluded that (i) home environment is important in the genesis of reading ability (ii) retarded readers seem to share a background of slow development of verbal skills, speech defects and slower motor development, (iii) the emotional histories of poor readers revealed a lack of adjustment to change, friends and independence.

Barnett (1972) found that disabled readers in his sample of eight years old were hostile to adults and children in the educational environment. He concluded that their hostility grew as a result of reading failure. In this context Kashinath (1980) observes that when the youngster feels he is getting nowhere, he just drops out. Actually dissatisfaction with the school is generally part of the larger picture namely, psychological discontent embarrassing the student.

A longitudinal study (Lesgold and Resnick, 1981) was designed specifically not to investigate reading disabilities, but rather as an extension of recent cognitive psychological research on the problem some children have in learning to read. It concluded that lack of word processing efficiency may lie at the heart of reading disability. The obvious suggestion for instruction that emerges from these findings is that more emphatic and systematic attention to word recognition skills might reduce or eliminate the number of children with learning difficulties.

Vogel (1975) found that even in comparison with other poor readers, the learning disabled children had poorer language. Merrill, Perher and McCanley (1980) studied the effect of context on word identification in

good and poor readers. Findings suggest that differences between good and poor readers in word recording skills are not necessarily related to differences in the ability to extract and utilize the semantic content of written materials, whereas a study by Kleien (1977) demonstrated more efficient use of context by good readers.

Sinha's(1977) study on relationship between social disadvantages and perceptual skills concluded that disadvantage was detrimental to perceptual skills and the quality of schooling was a powerful factor as children's performance was higher in superior schools. Wedge and Prosser(1973) found that there are more poor readers in the disadvantaged group than in the control group which was not disadvantaged.

Part-III : STUDIES ON ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

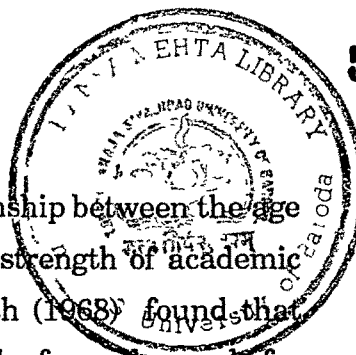
Since academic achievement is learned disposition the manner through which it is learned is largely determined by society in which one grows up. Therefore the attempts at studying the factors governing origin and growth of achievement have been focussed at identifying environmental factors which are empirically related to variation in academic achievement orientation . The present section is a review of these attempts.

McClelland (1961) has made a large scale study of the growth pattern of academic achievement motive across a large number of countries and cultures. He has tried to determine the conditions which cause academic achievement. He has distinguished between factors essential to development of academic achievement . He has concluded that race and environment as such, are not essential factors for growth of achievement motive . However , degree of environmental challenge can be considered as an essential factor. Dealing with child rearing practices he says that

early training of children to be independent and to master certain skills, promotes high academic achievement, if that training does not indicate rejection of the child by the parents.

In an attempt to delineate the origin of academic achievement McClelland and Friedman (1952) observed that the degree of independence training is positively related to achievement imagery in folk literature. The number of experience in mastery (ate) characterized as an important antecedent of achievement. Winterbottom (1958) has found that early parental demands for mastery and independence are positively related to development of high academic achievement. Rosen and Andre (1959) have reported that it was achievement training which determined growth of academic achievement. Cross-cultural result reported by Child, Storm and Veroff (1965) and Moss and Kayan (1963) also share similar views.

In a number of studies evidence has been accumulated from different cultures and countries i.e. U.S.A. (Rosen, 1962) India (Srivastava and Tivari, 1967) Brazil (Angeline, et al, 1970) and Africa (Morsbach, 1969) to the effect that subjects coming from low socio-economic stratum of society show low level of academic achievement. On the other hand some studies (e.g. Uhr et al 1969, Nygard 1969) have demonstrated an increase in academic achievement score as the socio-economic status increases. Soares and Soares (1971) have found that disadvantaged children have greater discrepancy between learning and achievement. The absence of one or both parents has been found to be significantly associated with low achievement tendency (Santrock and Wohlford 1970). Lott and Lott (1963) have reported that Whites have reliably stronger academic achievement than the Negroes. They have explained this discrepancy on the basis of background factors i.e. socio-economic and cultural factors.



McClelland (1961) has proposed that the relationship between the age at which parental demands are made and the strength of academic achievement is curvilinear. Bartlett and Smith (1968) found that mothers of high academic achievement boys make fewer demands for achievement and independence. The age at which demands are made was not related to the strength of academic achievement pattern of reward training has also been observed to be related to academic achievement (Davids and Hainsworth 1967, Epps, 1970). However, Hayashi and Yamauchi (1964) failed to corroborate Winterbottom's results in Japan. They found a reverse relationship. Japanese mothers expected self-reliance from their children much earlier than American and German mother. It may be that Japanese mother demand too much of their children too early. Regarded this way, it is no longer a paradox that very early independence training result in low achievement motivation. Veroff (1965) has presented theoretical considerations about the consequence of parental demands that miss the optimal development stage by coming either too early too late.

In this connection the study by Rosen and Andre (1959) of parents behaviour in their homes in reaction to problem solving activities of their sons revealed that the pattern of maternal reinforcement contingent on the son's performance is more important than independence training. Mothers of high academic achievement boys react with warmth to succeeding endeavors and with rejection to failures of their sons; and they do so much more frequently than the fathers. In the case of low academic achievement boys, the parental behaviour follows on opposite trend there is little warmth. The mother is aloof and permissive. It was also found that high academic achievement boys had parents with higher expression of long term achievement related goals in child-rearing.

Several other studies support the findings of Rosen and Andre. Winter

bottom (1958) has shown differences in independence training as well as in rewarding patterns. She found that members of high academic achievement boys reacted more affectionately to their son's accomplishments. According to Crandall, Preston and Rabson (1960) children who are comparatively active and productive in nursery school free play, often have mothers who frequently reward achievement oriented efforts in home. McGhee and Teevan (1965) have studied development of fear of failure. Children whose mothers were neutral following satisfactory behaviour and punishing following unsatisfactory behaviour had higher fear of failure than those whose mother were rewarding and neutral respectively. Kahl (1965) found that the relation between academic achievement and grades in school holds only for those students who perceive that grades are instrumental for future career success (Raynod 1970).

McClelland (1961) found that the young entrepreneurs had higher academic achievement than the old ones. Rosen (1959) has noted that subjects having low education had lowest academic achievement and subjects with middle class education had highest academic achievement. The subjects with highest education had some what less academic achievement on the average than subjects with middle class education. In Indian setting Mehta P. (1967) has reported a curvilinear relationship between boy's achievement motivation and their father's education. It was also found that boys of fathers with high education and of fathers with low education showed higher level of academic achievement than boys of fathers with secondary school education.

Several studies have shown that the socio-economic status is an important determinant of motivational level (Rosen, 1959; Leshan 1952; Mischel, 1960; Douvan 1956; McClelland, 1961; Fraser E., 1959; Mehta 1966a). In general, middle class children are found significantly higher in academic achievement than lower class children.

Family structure varies from country to country and a number of variables like order of birth, presence of father etc. influence academic achievement.

There are several investigations which indicate an inverse relationship between achievement and learning (Wertheim & Metnick, 1958; McClelland & Friedman 1952). Some researches have identified other variables in achievement orientation such as competence, curiosity, positive social reinforcement, mastery and independence (e.g. Crandall, 1963; Kegan, 1967; Nessen, 1964; Corles & Gath 1966).

McClelland and Winler (1979) have found that the origin of these motives lies in certain parental values and interaction pattern in the family. He has stressed the role of the family as the main shaping agent. A child can learn and acquire the motive as a result of the way parents have raised him.

Sinha (1968) has reported positive relationship between education and achievement and achievement and deprivation on the sample drawn from developed villages. But in undeveloped villages, he did not find any significant relationship between education and achievement. Sinha (1969) found no fundamental difference in the pattern of deprivation and achievement among developed and undeveloped villages. According to him deprivation largely centered on immediate problems of subsistence and daily living.

McClelland and Winter (1969) have pointed out that pace of progress in India is slow because people in India are not equipped with achievement motive. Chanlie (1974) investigated achievement among villagers. He found that younger subjects from developed villages under-estimated their chances of success on the tasks more frequently than their chances

of success on the tasks more frequently than their counterparts from poorly developed villages. In this respect the type of task appeared an important factor. The younger subjects assigned higher probabilities of success to the alternative of the tasks than the older subjects. The economic development of villager was found closely related. But no such result was observed in the other group.

Srivastava and Tiwari(1967) demonstrated that highest need achievement score was present in the middle class, second in the upper class and the the lowest in the lower class. The difference between the means was not significant between middle and lower class subjects.

Sinha and Chaube (1972) showed that age alone does not seem to have strong effect on the academic achievement, compared, to the subjects of underdeveloped villages. The subjects of developed villages were found to have significantly high mean achievement score.

The relationship between social class and academic achievement and learning have been examined by various Indian researchers. Gokulnathan(1971) and Gokulnath and Mehta(1972) have reported higher need for achievement in-tribal than non-tribal students and in girls than boys. One would have expected a lower level of need for achievement in tribal boys as they belong to the socially disadvantaged group. Perhaps the explanation is in the social nature of the sample. "The tribal boys who had migrated from a village to some urban areas and were studying in some urban based school, showed significantly greater need for achievement than their non-tribal counterparts". Desai and Trivedis(1972) study, didn't show any relationship between fathers socio-economic status and children's need for achievement. Chaudhary(1971) found opposite relationship between need for achievement and social class. Mehta and Mehta(1974) have noted that

the results on the relationship between social class and need for achievement 'are not very conclusive'. However, there seems to be a tendency in favour of a positive relationship between social and economic propriety and academic achievement. Jain and Shah (1974) reported a positive relationship between education and occupation.

Sinha (1974) has associated lower level of achievement with the academic backwardness of the village. Sinha (1968) had demonstrated that high need for achievement leads to maximum group output only when resources are unlimited. When resources are limited persons with higher need for co-operation are better performers. High need for achievement under limited resource conditions result in lesser linking for the group and the task and in more negative evaluation of the self and the partners.

From the above findings it is evident that the academic achievement is an acquired motive and grows under the effective control of individuals experiences in certain realms of social interaction. The cross cultural differences in achievement provide considerable data to this effect. Cultures are distinguishable in terms of the extent to which they nourish different personality dispositions.

CONCLUSION

Reviewing the studies, one finds that majority of the studies have used 't' test or one way analysis of variance (F test). The 't' test indirectly indicates the relationship between dependent and independent variables. But unlike correlation technique it does not enable to know the exact degree of relationship between the dependent and independent variables. On the other hand correlational studies provide exact degree of relationship between the dependent and independent variable in the form of co-efficient correlation. On the basis of co-efficient correlation

one can even know the magnitude of relationship in the form of percentage. The studies under review show that a very few researchers have used correlation techniques and a very negligible number have applied factorial designs.

With respect to the samples involved in the above studies one can easily observe that majority of the samples consist of male sex. This implies that sex as an important variable has not been studied with respect to deprivation, learning difficulties, as well as academic achievement. The author does not say that there are no studies involving sex variable. However, the contention is that there are very few studies involving sex specially the studies consisting of female sex, which is an important variable in any psychological research.
