REVIEW OF LITERATURE
The notion of relative deprivation is one potentially capable of explaining why actors within a group or society are dissatisfied with some or all aspects of it. The first empirical use of the concept was made in the well known study of Stouffer, Suchman, De vinney, Star and Williams (1949). They postulated that feelings of dissatisfaction depend, not on one's level of absolute deprivation, but on one's level of deprivation relative to people like oneself. Since Stouffer et al's study, the concept of relative deprivation has been used to explain a variety of phenomena. First, and perhaps, most important it has been widely used to account for the origins of urban violence in the United States (Pettigrew, 1964). Second, it has been used to explain why the leaders of social protest movements do not come from the most deprived social groups but rather from more affluent backgrounds (Caplan, 1970). Third, it has been applied to the field of mental health to explain one source of adjustment difficulties and even suicide (Parker and
Kleiner, 1966). Fourth, it has been used to explain why personal happiness does not necessarily result from increases in economic or social prosperity, and also to explain why decreases in absolute levels of prosperity can sometimes be associated with increases in happiness (Brickman and Campbell, 1971).

The adages about relative deprivation have intuitive appeal. More importantly, a growing empirical literature tends to confirm them.

Evidence shows that people do compare spontaneously with other people (Hyman, 1942, Maxwell et al. 1967, Messik and Thorngate, 1967 Morse and Gergen). Merton (1957) and Strauss (1968) have shown that individuals make dissimilar comparisons as well as similar comparisons. Recent research confirms that observers of a relationship mimic the responses of participants (See Baker, 1974). The proposition that individuals make advantageous comparisons come from several sources. Goodman (1974) in a study of pay evaluation by business managers, found indication that referents that threaten self-esteem are avoided. These
data are consistent with the findings of Haksellier (1966) that subjects who feel threatened are more likely to compare themselves with persons scoring lower on a task.

Turner's (1955) hypothesis that only those groups will be taken as points of comparison which are relevant to a particular aspect of self-appraisal is congruent to the similarity principle derived by Festinger (1954) as is Merton's hypothesis that some similarity in status attributes between the individual and the reference group must be perceived or imagined in order for the comparison to occur (Merton and Kitt, 1950 P.61).

The military example suggests that people often match themselves with others whom they see around them (Stouffer 1949). Runciman suggests that if people from the same social background compare themselves each other they will have low feelings of relative deprivation because people around them seem to have the same standard of living (Runciman 1966).
Individuals’ tendency to 'instrumentally' make disadvantageous comparisons has also been documented. In his classic study, Patchen (1961) found that workers who do not hold responsible for a low level of job attainment are more likely to make upwardly unfavourable comparisons.

The most widely accepted view of satisfaction assumes that the degree of affect experienced results from some comparisons between the individual's standard and the individual's perception of the extent to which the standard is met.

The amount of satisfaction that results is a function of the size of discrepancy between the standard and what is believed to be received from the job. (Vroom, 1964)

One issue with regard to comparison process is the specification of what is used as the standard to which the job is compared. Some have argued that the individual's needs serve as a standard (Morse, 1953, Porter, 1962, 1963). Locke (1976) believes that the individual’s values rather than needs, serve as a standard.
Smith, Kendell and Hulin (1969) considered the cognitive state of an individual's frame of reference as the standard to which the job is compared. The evidence seem to show that both values and frame of reference serve as standards more than needs.

Salanick and Pfeffer (1977) questioned comparison theories of job satisfaction and suggested that perhaps people decide how satisfied they are with their jobs not by processing all kinds of information about but by observing others' satisfaction on similar jobs and making inferences about others' satisfaction. In a similar view Weiss and Shah (1979) suggests that an individual simply infer a level of his or her own satisfaction from observing others. Research by White and Mitchell (1979) showed that people indeed are influenced by their perceptions of others satisfaction. People who perceive similar others as having a more favourable input outcome balance will be more dissatisfied with a given facet than people who perceive their own balance as similar to or better than that of others. (Lawler. 1973 P.77)
Personal evaluation of life situations are relative to the precise social locations which people occupy in society and the specific groups to which they commit their identities (Inkles 1960, Hyman, 1942, Merton and Rossi, 1957).

Hyman (1953) in a well known study of value system of different classes shows by secondary analysis of public opinion data how different strata in American society modify their occupational goals in accordance with their social position and their corresponding view of the opportunities open to them. Stern and Keller (1953) analysis the spontaneous group references given by a small national sample in France. They found few references to outgroups and little evidence of status striving or class resentment and the entire study thus tentatively supports the hypothesis that in a society such as France, which is seen by its members as comparatively rigidly stratified, not many people feel explicitly relative deprivations although they may nevertheless be anxious to improve their absolute position.
Although there is a consensus about the rank of well known occupations, lower status persons are less knowledgeable of the entire structure and tend to evaluate job in simple economic terms. A study revealed that subgroups in a society respond differently to occupational structure and shows that occupational structure is not simply a hierarchy but a series of inter-related situses (Hatt 1950, P.533 - 43).

Davis (1952) advocates that knowledge about the complexities of the structure is differently distributed in the society.

Centers, Jones, Knupfer and others have indicated that manual workers do not share the strong belief in the realities of opportunities for upward mobility characteristic of white collar workers (Centers, 1949, Jones, 1941, Knupfer, 1947, Lynd 1937).

Davis (1946) further indicates that under privileged workers lack motivation for social climbing and thus tend to derive their satisfaction from their present
Rogoff (1953) Lipset and Bendix (1959) have demonstrated that changes in the occupational structure are as much responsible for social or occupational mobility as other factors. Their evidence further suggests that changes in social position force changes in aspirations rather than the reverse process. Thus changes in the opportunities and life situations foster changes in evaluations of life situations, aspirations and ideologies, not the other way around (ibid, 1959 P.61). There is some evidence that workers are quickly desocialised from the aspirational complex learned in school, for aspirations are related to reality soon after full time entry into the world of work (Miller and Form, 1951)

Professor Titmuss, in his essay on "Social Administration in a changing Society" has forcibly pointed out how important it is from a purely practical point of view to understand the effect of recent social and economic changes on the relative attitudes and deprivations of different social groups and their
consequent pattern of social needs (Titmuss 1958). Similarly an understanding of people's relative deprivations as members of a group or class is likely to be crucial to the explanation of political behaviour, but little had so far been done beyond the topic of self-educated social status in relation to party preference (Abrams and Rose, 1960:18).

Recent studies of the British class structure suggest that awareness of inequality particularly among manual workers is limited. Runciman (1966) found that only a small majority of manual workers perceived that there were other occupational groups better off than themselves. When they were aware of inequalities they made limited comparisons, they tended to mention either other groups of manual groups or individuals who could be compared with a specific aspect of their own personal situation.

Goldthorpe (1969) and his colleagues came to similar conclusions in their study of 'affluent' workers in Luton. They found that fifty four percent of a sample of manual workers conceived of the class structure in
terms of a 'money' model, with a large central class consisting of most manual and white collar workers, and one or more residual or elite 'classes', differentiated in terms of wealth, income and material living standards. They suggest that workers' perceptions of their position in the class structure were inconsistent with their roles in the productive process, roles characterised by deprivations in the spheres of decision-making, working conditions, fringe benefits and status differentials. They argue that these attitudes were derived from social roles outside the workplace and that there was little awareness of inequality as a structural and socially organised feature of society.

Adopting a somewhat broader perspective, Inkles (1961) has suggested that different industrial societies have not only similar institutional structure, but also relatively similar value systems, and there are other writers who have claimed that all industrial capital societies generate common ideologies and values which promote among workers 'false consciousness' and a restricted of their real position within society (Birnbawn, 1969, Miliband, 1969).
Scase (1970) exploring the attitudes of the workers towards inequality among the manual workers in England and Sweden, found that there was a greater frequency of relative deprivation among the Swedish workers than among English and this tended to be associated with heightened feelings of resentment.

Parkin (1971) has suggested that the awareness of inequality in capitalist society is closely related to relative influence of different ideologies.

One small scale study in two companies suggested that, two-thirds who were aware that there were differences between manual employment conditions and non-manual workers, differences concentrated particularly on the market situation, security, the length of notice, guaranteed wages and sick pay and pension schemes. They were also conscious that staff had more money and shorter hours of work. (Dorothy Wedderburn, 1969). Craftsman in a company did compare themselves with staff and management in one hand and felt on the other hand that the unskilled workers who had a particularly bad
deal. (Wedderburn and Crompton 1969). This evidence further supports the view that most manual workers use a restricted frame of reference for judging their position. Indeed, the evidence is now overwhelming for seeing the response to employment as a process by which the worker's aspirations, high hopes and desires come to terms with the reality of working class life (Eldridge, 1972).

There is a considerable evidence that the ordering of expectations from work varies for different occupational groups. Manual workers look first to such market factors as the level of pay, security of employment and good working conditions. The higher up of the non-manual groups one goes, towards managerial and professional occupations the most emphasis is placed upon the interest of the work and prospects (Goldthorpe, Lockwood et al 1969).
As Ralph Miliband said:

"Moreover, classes, including the working classes do not only reproduce themselves physically, but mentally as well, and tend to instill in their children the consciousness, expectation and mental habits associated with their class of all socialisation which the family perform, there is none which more 'functional' than this one; for in the present context, it means that the working class family tends to attune its children into a multitude of ways to its own subordinate status" (Miliband, 1969)

In a study, subjects' level of aspiration varied as a function of the scores of similar others. (Chapman and Volkman, 1939, Festinger, 1942, Hilgard et al, 1940)

Men who were told they deserved more made more upward comparisons and more discrepant comparisons than did others (Patchen, 1961 a)
English blue collar workers, who perceived white collar workers as distinct group entitled to extra gains differed from Swedish blue collar workers in awareness of middle class gains and aspirations and in approval of middle class gains. (Scase, 1974).

Status lost is relative. This means that when status is lost the felt intensity of the loss is relative to the relationship as it was or as we anticipated it would be. The variables of status are mediated through an individual who acts selectively in his choice of reference group, who strives selectively for status, whose personal value affect the composition of status and the emotional commitments of a given status, whose conceptualization of a reference group may be different from its actual characters who is not affected by all aspects of the culture nor by all references in the environment. Lyld (1940) states that an understanding of institutions and social problems must be based upon analysis of what these institutions and social problems mean to specific, differently situated people how they look and feel these different people, and how they are used.
If an individual's social ranking on all status dimensions relevant to his overall social status is consistent (largely on the same level) it is likely that he will be evaluated and ranked in a similar manner in all social spheres, and his self-image seen, here as reflecting the evaluation of 'significant others' will be of free contradictions. If however, an individual's position on various status dimensions are inconsistent, he was and continually will likely be subject to conflicting evaluations by others and perhaps have inconsistent views of himself, depending on which status variable is made salient at the time. (cf Sampson, 1966, Malewski, 1966)

According to Gerhard Zenski's (1956) initial thesis, status inconsistency is stressful because it is more rewarding to be individual to consider himself in view of his higher status dimension(s) while it is more rewarding to others to confront him in terms of his lowest status dimensions (Lenski, 1956, 1957, Meyer and Hammond, 1971, Randall and Stasser, 1977 a)
Henry and Short (1954) on examining data for the period from 1900 to 1940, found that whites and blacks responded differently to economic ups and downs. Murders committed by whites tended to be most frequent when business conditions were bad, whereas black homicides typically decreased during depressions and were most common when business generally good.

High performance is commonly believed to be a means of acquiring social status, recognition and prestige in the social system outside the plant. Evidence accumulated indicates that factory workers were motivated towards status in the peer group within the plant (Warner and Sutt, 1941).

One study demonstrated a striking relationship between popularity and job satisfaction (Van Zelst, 1951). The most popular workers when compared with least popular ones, not only felt more satisfied with their jobs but also felt (a) more secure (b) considered their working condition better (c) felt their co-workers to be friendly (d) were more satisfied with their opportunities to communicate with management (e) had
more confidence in the ability of their supervisors (f) were more inclined to believe that the company was interested in their welfare (g) and had more confidence in good intentions and good sense of the management, making apparent that the workers view apart from other factors upon their status with other employees.

Homan's (1954) view of status congruence is that persons strive toward a state where they are ranked uniformly in all respects because such a state is associated with the rewarding certainty that others will behave consistently toward them. One study supporting this view, shows that the degree of status congruence among the dimensions of income, occupation, education and ethnic position was determined by each individual in the group studied (Lenski. 1954). Persons having low status congruence were found to be politically liberal, a fact which suggests that they were dissatisfied with the present state of affairs, felt frustrated and sought social change. Person high in status congruence were less frustrated and more satisfied and they were more conservative in their policies. Another investigation indicated that where status congruence is lacking
interpersonal conflict is more likely to occur. (Exline and Ziller, 1959)

Wilmott and Young, studying the London Suburb of Woodford in 1959, concluded that a greater equivalence of incomes, houses and styles of life had the effect of reinforcing the endeavours of the middle class to preserve the status barrier between themselves and manual workers (Wilmott and Young, 1959).

Adam’s study (1953) indicated that status-congruent aircrews were more satisfied than status incongruent aircrews.

In Lenski’s classic formulation, he found that men in incongruent statuses along the dimensions of occupation, income, education and ethnicity, exhibited higher scores to certain indicators of ‘welfare liberalism’ than did those with better crystallized statuses. (Lenski, 1954).
Homans has suggested that reactions to social comparisons can be understood in terms of the principles of distributive justice and status congruence. A study by Homans (1954) provides an illustration how feelings of injustice arise when investments are not proportional to outcomes. Another investigation (Patchen 1961) of workers in an oil refinery also supports the principle of distributive justice. Thibaut and Kelley (1959) have noted several conditions under which status comparisons are likely to be made.

People are concerned with equity and do feel dissatisfied when their own internal codes are violated. A more elaborate and detailed conception of equity has appeared in recent writings. Equity and its opposite inequity are defined in relative rather than absolute terms. Inequity is assumed to result not from a discrepancy between rewards and investments made in one's job but from discrepancies in the relative magnitudes of rewards and investments of a person and those of other persons with whom he compares himself. An individual's perception of the rewards and the investments of others is thought to provide him with a
standard against which he judges the fairness and equity of rewards which he himself receives.

Workers report that feelings of equity influence job satisfaction (Homans, 1953; Morse, 1955). The authors of American solider (Stouffer, et al, 1949) noted that job satisfaction of non-combat soldiers overseas was much higher than expected. They suggest that this finding reflects the tendency of these soldiers to compare this situation with that of the combat troops. Jaques (1961) has provided a psychological basis for his assumption and states that a state of disequilibrium is created within a person whenever his actual level of payment deviates from the equitable level, regardless of the direction of the disparity.

Zalenik, Christensen and Rosthisberger (1958) studied the effects of wage inequity on worker satisfaction. They tried to infer what workers would regard as equitable pay from their age, seniority, education, ethnicity and sex and all which are assumed to indicate to the extent of the 'investment' in their jobs. They predicted that workers whose degree of reward was
unfavourable in comparison with their investments would express a greater degree of satisfaction than workers whose degree of reward was unfavourable in relation to their investments.

A major cause of pay dissatisfaction is perceived inequity. Employees judge their pay by making comparisons. The 'going rate' for employees in the same occupation is one influence on a person's belief about what he should be paid. The higher the level of education and professionalism, the more likely it is that an employee will make comparisons with persons outside the immediate organisation but in the same profession. (Goodman, 1974) An employee will also compare his salary to that of coworkers in the same organisation. One study of 228 managers found mixed results and showed that lower middle managers tended to compare their pay with people outside the company. Middle managers mainly compared theirs with people on a lower level within the company. Lower level managers (first line supervisors) were divided with regard to referent others. Thirty five percent selected a peer within the organisation, another thirtyfive percent
chose a referent other from outside of the company. (Andrews, 1963). It has also been discovered that pay dissatisfaction can be better understood by knowing the relative position. Highly paid workers in a low paying company reported more pay dissatisfaction than medium paid workers in a high paying company. According to researchers, a good relative position within a company did not compensate for an inadequate pay level taken within a border context (ibid 1963) when Hare and Gottsdanker (1951) pointed out workers take wages for granted if they at any acceptable level. In a study on Jute workers (Sinha, 1958) wages were less frequently mentioned as factor governing job satisfaction. Comparison with similar others earning created more dissatisfaction among a blue collar sample than did comparisons with dissimilar other (Pathchens, 1961 a)

Klass (1952) found support for the hypothesis that intrinsic job satisfaction is a function of the ratio of fulfilment job expectations to initial job expectations. Morse (1953) and Spector (1953) have presented evidence to support similar hypothesis essentially that the individual's satisfaction is
determined by the ratio what he gets and what he wants to get.


Blauner (1967) in 'work satisfaction and industrial trends in modern society' summerises a number of studies and show that high percentage of satisfied workers are usually found among professionals and businessmen. In a given plant, the proportion of satisfied is found high among clerical workers than among factory workers. Just as in general samples it is higher among middle class than among manual working class occupations. Within the manual working class, job satisfaction is highest among skilled workers, lowest among unskilled labourers and workers on assembly lines.

A study by Andrews and Henry (1963) revealed that, among managers satisfaction pay varied as an inverse function of anticipated payrises. Smith and Gumpert (1974) found that mobile respondents were more dissatisfied with
present life than were subjectively non mobile respondents. Subjects who had prior knowledge of discrepants rewards evaluated a task more highly when they were deprived relative to others. Subjects lacking prior knowledge did not (Cooper and Brehem 1971). Workers raised in the poor south of Italy were more satisfied with wages than where workers raised in the north (Ammassari, 1969). Subjects dissatisfaction and aggression varied as a function of their own rewards relative to a social standard (Ross and Mcmillien, 1973). As contact with whites increased, dissatisfaction among Bantu workers in South Africa increased. (Sherwood, cited inGurr, 1970). Patchen (1961a) discovered that dissatisfaction among workers was a positive function of having been told by others that they deserved more.

Dissatisfaction with present pay was greater for workers in a training program than for others. (ibid 1961a)

Adams and Rosenbaum (1962) found that persons will increase their productivity if they are paid more than they feel they desire relative to others.
Exline and Zillier, (1969) found that status congruent groups and status incongruent groups were equal in job satisfaction. Whereas Adams (1953) contradicted by saying status congruent groups were more satisfied than status incongruent aircrews.

Subjects in laboratory experiments have been so distressed by inequitable divisions of rewards that they have sacrificed optimal monetary gain in order to restore equity. (Maxwell, Ratcliffe and Schmitt, 1969; Pepitone, 1971; Schmitt and Marwell, 1972).

Rising expectations of the workers often form the ground for frustration. These mainly pertain to wages living condition or almost any aspect of his working life. What he wants of certainly depend upon the conditions prevailing in other factories and departments in the same factory. Studies on reward expectancy (Tinklepaugh, 1921; Cowler and Mission, 1937) show that when reward other than the expected is offered, it fails to satisfy and produces behaviour disruption.
Feelings of deprivation are not isomorphically related to objective status. It is sometimes true that the richer one becomes, the poorer one feels. Smith, Kenall and Hulin (1969) reported data on work satisfaction in factories throughout United States. In one deteriorating New England town, they interviewed workers in a dilapidated factory that ranked lower in their sample on absolute economic measures. They found that satisfaction there was not as low as would have been expected on an absolute basis. Smith et al (1969) also found that workers in the best paying factory were not as satisfied as expected.

Again it appeared that the constant exposure to the very high level which existed in this plant and community caused workers to shift the frame of reference against which they evaluated their (own) pay. Similarly Lawler and Porter (1963), in a survey of close to 2000 thousand managers discovered that first line supervisors earning between $12,000 and $15,000 a year were more satisfied with their salaries than were company presidents earning about $40,000 a year.
How absences were related to the feelings of fair treatment with regard to promotion, irrespective of how good employees saw their chances to be was demonstrated by Patchen (1960). Dissatisfaction about lack of promotion was higher when subjects were told promotions was likely (Spector, 1956). Another finding say that Army personnel in units where promotions granted, rapidly were found to be less satisfied with the promotion system than were personnel in slow moving units (Stouffer, Suchman, Devinney, Star and Williams, 1949).

Enquiry carried out at the Department of Applied Economics, Cambridge, into the differences in the terms and conditions of employment of manual and non-manual employees in manufacturing industry, documenting systematically inequalities in the relational aspects of work, indicated a vast area of inequality about the application of disciplinary procedures and promotion.

Regarding studies identifying referent others based upon educational level, one obvious trend is that people with higher levels of education are those likely
to choose a referent other from outside the company. Conversely the lower the education the more likely it is that an individual will make pay comparisons with a peer in the same company. (Andrews and Mildred, 1963). Chinoy (1955) did not find any relationship between education and job satisfaction. Among blacks, satisfaction with position of blacks was a negative function of education, but satisfaction with own position and education were not related. (McCord and Howard, 1968) Among blacks, education did not predict consumer dissatisfaction, it was curvilinearly related to dissatisfaction with policy (Murphy and Watson, 1970). When education and occupation were higher than social rank, the possibility of engaging in liberal politics increased. When the former were lower than the later, the probability of stress symptoms increased. (Jacksan, 1962). Black militancy was a function of number of newspapers and education (Marx, 1967). Willingness to use violence was a negative function of education. (Ransford, 1968). Caplan and Paige (1968) noted that rioters were better educated than non rioters.
Theories developed by American political scientists, sociologists, and social psychologists suggest that various collective phenomena referred to as social movements (Ables, 1976; Isaac, Mutran, and Stryker, 1980; Lawer, 1976; Morrison, 1973), collective violence (see Berkowitz, 1972; Crawford and Naditch, 1970; Crosby, 1976; Gurr, 1970) or even revolutions (see Davis, 1962; Morales, 1973; Salert, 1976) can be explained in major aspects by reference to the concept of relative deprivation.

The idea that people protest and rebel against this condition not when they are deprived in an absolute sense but when they 'feel' deprived relative to some comparative persons or groups is revealed by studies on racial riots (Caplan, 1970) and student protest movements (Keniaston, 1973; Sampson, 1967). Crosby (1976) after an extensive review of literature concludes that most of the empirical data coming from over ninety-five different investigations support the theory.
A number of authors have noted that frustration and dissatisfaction are relative concepts. In fact, individuals are not likely to evaluate them in absolute terms, but relative to possessions, privileges, and rights of others. Relative deprivation has been one of the central theoretical concepts in discussions of a social change (Merton, 1957; Pettigrew, 1964). Moore (1966) revealed not only the psychological reductionism implicit in the theories of revolution of rising expectations and of 'relative deprivation' which have become so prominent in recent years but also their failure as general explanation for why and when changes in the life of some part of a population lead to revolutionary manifestations in what form and to what political end. (cf Marx and Engels, 1961; Tocqueville, 1856; Runchiman, 1966; Gurr, 1970; Davis 1962; Tanter and Midlarsky, 1967).

Davis argues that relative deprivation sets off revolutionary activity. Other research supports this (Gurr, 1967; Fierabend, Fierabend and Nesvold, 1969). Faye Crosby argues that feelings of relative deprivation is just a beginning of the revolutionary process.
Rich farmers are more likely than poor farmers to engage in liberal or radical political activity designed to redress economic grievances (Morrison and Steeves, 1967). Black students indicate that resentment against everyday injustices motivates them to participate in civil right demonstrations (Searles and Williams, 1962). As satisfaction increased among respondents in twenty-one Latin American countries, the likelihood of internal war also increased. (Bwy, 1968) As black move up the economic and social scales they became more militant (Tomlinson, 1970) and more likely to take part in protest or riot activity (Caplan and Paige, 1968; Orbell, 1967). Willingness to use violence, among a sample of northern blacks, was a function of the perception that they were no better off than southern blacks. (Ransford, 1968) A greater percentage of black rioters than non-rioters in new area wanted a better job (Caplan and Paige, 1968). Discrepancy between present job and desired job was greater for riot participants in Watts than for others (Sears and McConnhay, 1970, 1973). Perception that life conditions would either improve or worsen predicted violence proneness among blacks. (Bowen et
Black residing in middle income were more violence prone than blacks residing poorer sections in Rochester (Schulman, 1968). Rioting was greater in areas where discrepancy between white and black incomes existed (Grindstaff, 1968).

Perceived discrepancy between actual achievement and desired achievements did not predict potential for political violence (Muller, 1962). Between 1913 to 1963, cities that experienced racial riots were less likely to show large occupational discrepancies between whites and blacks than were control cities (Lieberson and Silverman, 1970). McCarthy and Zald (1977), Mephail (1971), Oberchall, (1978), Snow, Zurcher and Ekland Olson (1980) noted various contradictory findings to argue that discontent or relative deprivation is not a major factor in the explanation of militant attitudes and protest behaviours.

Past studies relating the various components of relative deprivation, comparison, want, entitlement, feasibility and responsibility are rare as only one study by Michel Alain (1985) provided empirical support for Crossy's model of relative deprivation. Though the
available literature does not permit validating relative deprivation, it does permit examining how each of these components separately has an effect on anger-related responses. To achieve this, we need only review studies in which each of the components is or is not present, or in which the component varies considerably in strength.

Effect of Comparison Process

Most theories of egoistic relative deprivation specify comparison with another person as a necessary component of relative deprivation. Some of these theories, and also equity theory, claim that this comparison other can be an individual who is physically or psychologically close to the individual making the comparison, while others specify that an individual may compare himself with his own imagined past. Some of the studies showing the comparison process with others in present are given below:
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hoffman, Festinger and Lawrance (1954)</td>
<td>Subjects formed more coalitions against a peer who was doing well than against a superior who was doing well.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Patchen (1961)</td>
<td>Subjects enjoyed a moderately attractive task when others in room were doing the same task or an undesirable task than when others were doing a very attractive task.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Stephenson and White (1968)</td>
<td>Subjects who performed a dull-task while a similar person performed an existing task thought the task more unfair, were less desirous of playing with same partner, and cheated more on a post-task test than did subjects who performed a dull task while a dissimilar other performed an existing one.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Marwell, Ratcliffe and Schmitt (1969)</td>
<td>Subjects who were winning less than partner in a modified PDG sought to minimize others' profits more than did subjects who were on an equal par with or were better off than other.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Stouffer et al (1949)</td>
<td>Men in aircorps, where promotion was rapid, were less satisfied with promotional system than were men in military police, where promotion was slow.</td>
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<td>Form and Geschwender (1962)</td>
<td>Workers at same or lower occupational level as their brothers or fathers were more dissatisfied with job than were other workers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wilensky (1963)</td>
<td>Men at lower occupational level than their fathers more often moonlighted than men on higher level than their fathers.</td>
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<td>Marx (1967)</td>
<td>More black respondents who read one or more general interest magazines were militant than respondents who read no general interest magazines.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Morrison and Steeves (1967)</td>
<td>Estimates of average farm family income were lower and estimates of average off farm family incomes were higher when made by radical (less satisfied) farmers than by conservative farmers. Radical farmers had more off farm work and military experience than conservative farmers.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ransford (1968)</td>
<td>Blacks with low contact with whites were more willing to use violence than were blacks with high contact, controlling for neighbourhood and for education.</td>
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<td>Murphy and Watson</td>
<td>Amount of social contact with whites did not differentiate pre-riot and anti-riot blacks in Watts.</td>
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<td>Sherwood (in Gurr) (1970)</td>
<td>As contact with whites increased Bantu bank clerks in South Africa grew more dissatisfied with their jobs.</td>
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<td>Tomilinson (1970)</td>
<td>Blacks with a lot of social contact with whites were less militant than were blacks with little social contact.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Smith and Gumpert (1974)</td>
<td>Female workers who used supervisors as a comparison other were less satisfied with job than female workers who used equals as a comparison other.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Study 1</td>
<td>Whites whose friends were better</td>
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off than themselves were more dissatisfied with life than were whites whose friends were on same level.

Black with at least 12 years of education were more satisfied with life than were whites whose friends were on same level.

Respondents own standing in life relative to the best-off and worst-off of all the people they knew, was not related to a measure of aggressive political behaviour.

Occupation differentiation between blacks and whites was less marked in cities experiencing race riots between 1913 and 1963 than in matched control cities.

Perception of the gap between
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<tr>
<td>Ables (1972)</td>
<td>White outcomes and black outcomes was a negative function of contact with whites, among a black sample.</td>
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<td>Andrews and Henry (1963) study 1</td>
<td>Among a sample of managers, as education increased the range of comparison others increased.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Study 2</td>
<td>Both middle management and lower management employees compared their own earning with those of lower management employees. As education increased, the perceived differences between white gains and black gains decreased, among a black sample. But when education surpassed, among the sample, the perceived differences increased.</td>
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Men who were told that they desired more made upward comparisons and more discrepant comparisons than did others.

Studies showing the effects of entitlement are reviewed here. Stephenson and White (1970) manipulated entitlement in a situation in which children desired outcome than similar others had. They found that feeling entitled to such an outcome led to satisfaction and unfairness.

Experiments that indicate that subjects exhibit more anger like responses when they feel entitled to an outcome than when they do not is supported by studies. Pepitone (1971) revealed that subjects who were deprived of bonus, which partner received, behaved more competitively toward partner when the differential output were unjustified than when they were justified.
Ross, Thibaut and Evenbeck (1971) found that boys who thought they deserved a prize showed more hostility when denied the prize than did boys who do not think that they deserved the prize. The former found the game less fair than the latter.

Patchen (1961) says that workers who perceived the gap between themselves and better off other as being unjustified by job related attributes were dissatisfied with their jobs.

Lawler and Poter (1963) claim that as gap between actual pay and deserved pay decreased job satisfaction decreased.

Tomilson (1970) - more militant blacks than conservative blacks see themselves as superior to whites or same attributes.

Muller (1975) - respondents perceiving that they were deprived of their 'just deserts' scored higher on an index of aggression political behaviour than respondents who did not feel deprived of their 'just deserts'.
Studies depicting the effects of current or past estimates of future possibleity are as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Diggory, Klein and Cohen (1964)</td>
<td>Subjects who thought it possible to reach criterion had greater muscle potential in arms than subjects who thought goal attainment infeasible.</td>
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<tr>
<td>E.Fishbein (1963)</td>
<td>Subjects' level of aspiration was influenced by own past scores and by group norms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.Diggory et al (1964)</td>
<td>Subjects' perception that a goal was feasible varied as a function of the feed back they were given.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The likelihood of workers quitting the jobs was a cubic function of</td>
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<td>Author</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coch and French</td>
<td>their nearness to reaching 'bonus level' of output. When workers were very far from bonus level and when they were moderately close to bonus level likelihood of quitting was low. At all level of nearness to bonus level, workers who had previously obtained bonus in another department were more likely to quit than workers who had never reached bonus level.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patchen (1958)</td>
<td>Men in training program for advancement were more satisfied with present pay than were others. Men who had got promotion possibilities outside company were more dissatisfied with contrasts between own pay and others' pay.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andrews and Henry</td>
<td>Dissatisfaction with pay was greater for workers who expected increases than for those who did</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Greater percentages of blacks who saw themselves as upwardly mobile than blacks who saw themselves as non mobile had high protest orientation.

Anticipated gains in life satisfaction, assessed through Cantril's ladder, were unrelated to militancy in a black sample.

More politically radical farmers than conservative farmers though off-farm advancement was feasible.

Blacks who were optimistic about chances for further education had been more active in Watts riots than blacks who were pessimistic.
Orbell (1967)

Greater percentage of black students who believed they could live where they wished than of students who did not believe this participated in civil rights movement.

Ables (1976)

Anticipated gains in life satisfaction, assessed through Cantril's ladder, were curvilinearly related to black militancy scores. Respondents anticipating moderate gains were most militant.

Miami

With regard to the effects of personal responsibility for not having what one wants, Cooper and Brehm (1971) conducted, dealing explicitly with personal responsibility and egoistic relative deprivation. In the study, students were led to believe that they either had or had not 'freely' chosen to perform a task for which
others like themselves were to be paid more than themselves. The respondents who were to be under rewarded felt more dissatisfied when they perceived that they had freely chosen to be under rewarded.

Taking no responsibility for not having something may imply that some other person or persons or a system is responsible. The option of blaming the system has been considered important by other researches, notably Muller (1975) who found that system blame for deprivation of 'just deserts' was correlated with a measure of aggressive political behaviour.

It is quite obvious that studies have accumulated since Stouffer et al's study of American Soldier in 1949. Unfortunately few attempts have been made to bridge the gap between theory and empirical data. One way to evaluate relative deprivation model in an applied setting would be to question people directly about their jobs. Applying the relative deprivation in a working environment, we could provide a more externally valid test of the concept and also some of the crucial factors associated.