Review of Literature
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Research takes advantage of the 'knowledge which has accumulated in the past as a result of constant human endeavour. It can never be undertaken in isolation of the work that has already been done on the problems which are directly or indirectly related to a study proposed by a researcher. A careful review of the research journals, books, dissertations, theses and other sources of information on the problem to be investigated is one of the important steps in the planning of research study.

Review of the related literature, besides, allowing the researcher to acquaint himself with current knowledge in the field or area in which he is going to conduct the study, it also enables the researcher to define the limits of the field. The knowledge of related literature, brings the researcher up-to-date on the work which others have done and thus to state the objectives clearly and concisely.

By reviewing the related literature the researcher can avoid unfruitful and useless problem areas and can select those areas in which positive findings are very likely to result and can add to the knowledge in a meaningful way.

Through the review of literature, the researcher can understand about the research methodology which refers to the way the study is to be conducted. It also helps to know about the tools and instruments which proved to be useful and promising in the previous studies. It also helps to provide insight into the statistical methods through which validity of results is to be established.
Review of literature also provides a valuable guide to defining the problem, recognizing its significance, suggesting promising data gathering devices, appropriate study design, and sources of data.

The final and important specific reason for reviewing the related literature is to know about the recommendations of previous researchers listed in their studies for further research.

In the present chapter, various studies related to the topic have been arranged in a chronological order.

During the last 3 decades, the general trend in research literature suggests that certain types of socio-cultural environments are generally associated with lower level of intellectual functioning, poor school achievement, low level of aspiration, language deficiencies, and minimal occupational and social adjustment. Miller (1968) has identified that culturally disadvantaged children show deficits in performance on measures of cognitive, attentional, learning, and memory functions.

Sex difference has been a matter of inquiry since the early formulation of the theory of psychological differentiation. Studies carried out in non western cultural settings reveal less consistent sex differences in cognitive style, but studies done in India on Urban graduates (Pande, 1970a, 1970b).

Rath and Dash (1972) have studied intellectual and other cognitive manifestations of 3 groups of children in Orissa. The samples were selected from the student population belonging to 3 castes i.e., the Brahmin, the Scheduled tribes and the Scheduled caste children reading together in the same class. The broad hypothesis for the pairs of the research was that as the 3 groups of children belong to 3 distinct social class and caste groups having divergence in socio-cultural set-up and educational back ground, they would differ significantly in intellectual,
cognitive, and various kinds of academic achievement. The results indicated that, with regard to intelligence, Brahmin children were highest followed by schedule tribe and schedule caste children.

Cross-cultural comparison of American and Indian college students (Parlee and Rajgopal, 1974) have indicated clear sex differences on EFT scores.

Research evidence suggests that mathematics achievement has been found to be influenced by the socio-cultural matrix of the learners. Das and Singh (1975) suggested that belonging to higher caste and high SES facilitate better cognitive abilities. Rao (1976) reported that children belonging to higher SES groups achieve concept of mass, weight and volume at an earlier age as compared to those from low SES.

It may also be argued that rural India has a different set of cultural practices and social organization. There are indications from research that habitation is playing a determining role in academic achievement. For example, students in the Urban environment are found to be superior to the students from rural environment in terms of entry behaviours in human geography. The reverse was the case for the entry behaviours in physical geography (Okunretifa, 1976).

Beuf, Ann, H. (1977) discussed about the effects of interpersonal prejudice and institutional racism on 229 pre-schoolers from 3 native American tribes. The technique of doll-play and a projective story telling test revealed that, even on an isolated reservation where young children have little personal contact with whites, racism in the dominant American culture is in itself sufficient to impart status assumptions to a child. Findings seem to disprove earlier theories about how racial perceptions are formed within minority groups, and take into account the child's cognition and active role in his/her own education.
In the cognition sphere, the impact of socialization on psychological differentiation was investigated by Bist and D. Singha (1981). In joint families where the pressure was from members of a large group there was lesser psychological differentiation than among children from nuclear families.

In another study, D. Singha (1981) found children from a tribal group showed less differentiation than those from an urban acculturated group. The latter group also showed sex differences in differentiation. Singha was surprised to observe no difference in the cognition style between the sexes in the tribal group. It should not be, however, so unexpected if we recall that there was lesser role and varied task differentiation between the two sexes in a tribal community than in an urban group where stratification, varied task presentation and role enactment where prevalent.

Sen and Goel (1982) found that public school students performed better than municipality school children on tests of field dependence, school environment was found to be more important in performance than socio-economic back ground of the child.

The Researcher Posner, J.K. (1982) investigated the development of mathematical concepts among children from 2 groups in west Africa: An agricultural tribe (Baoule) and a merchant society (Dioula). 240 Baoule and Dioula children at 3 age levels participated: 5-6 year old preschoolers (Exp.I), 7-8 years olds with 1 year of school (Exp.II), and schooled and unschooled, 9-10 years old (Exp.I & II). Experimental tasks covered several systems of mathematical thought, from the perception of relative quantity and the identification of static equivalence to the ability to solve practical addition problems.

Results provide evidence that the ability to judge numerosity rapidly may be a Universal capacity. All SS. by middle child-hood, performed equally well on
this task. On the latter 2 tasks, which required the activation of other than perceptual strategies, schooling improved performance significantly among Baoule SS., while there were no reliable differences between schooled and unschooled Dioulas. The advancement of quantitative understanding appears to be dependent on certain types of experiences that both schooling and a merchant culture afford.

Sarma, R.G. (1984) carried out a study on the effects of social disadvantage on the mental growth and mental health of 40 advantaged and 40 disadvantaged boys (aged 6-12 years) SS. were interviewed, examined, and administered the Seguin-Goddard form Board Test of intelligence. Results showed that there was a significant difference in the intelligence scores of advantaged and disadvantaged SS. socially advantaged SS. scored higher than disadvantaged tribal children. Disadvantaged SS. showed greater psychiatric morbidity, particularly for neuroses and behavioural disturbances. The rate of epilepsy and child-hood psychosis was higher among disadvantaged SS., whereas advantaged SS. had higher rates of neuroses.

Poor quality child rearing puts children's development at risk for poorer language and cognitive scores and lesser ratings of social and emotional adjustment. Studies that provide data on family background variables and child outcomes find that overall quality affects language and cognitive development, (M.C. Cartney 1984), social competence and social adjustments. (Philips etal., 1987), Wasik etal (1991).

When Bentley, A.M. & Deregowski, J.B. (1987) carried out a pioneering study on the effects of distinctive feature/pictorial experience as a factor in the recognition of incomplete picture, they studied 3 cultural groups of a total of 128 pre-school children. Kxoe Bushman SS. (age 1-6 years) were superior to both Zulu SS. (age 5-9 years) and white English speaking south African SS. (age 5-6 years) in recognizing TPs. Neither familiarity with pictorial materials nor exposure
to a western cultural milieu were significant in identification of TPs. Data suggest that children's reconstruction strategies are mediated by learned, culturally appropriate modes of interaction and that both the nature of the stimulus and the social context of its presentation must be considered.

Mohanty, A.K. & Das, S.P. (1987) examined the impact of bilingualism on cognitive and metalinguistic abilities and the relationship between the 2 abilities among Indian tribal (Kond) children, 20 unilinguals and 20 bilinguals in each of 2 groups. One composed of 7 years olds and the other of 9 year olds, were administered metalinguistic tasks, Piagetian conservation tasks, and the Raven coloured progressive matrices. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed significant effects of bilingualism and age on Raven scores, but not on conservation scores. The effect of bilingualism on metalinguistic ability was not significant. Findings support the claim that metalinguistic ability is school related and that bilingualism, alone, does not promote it.

Mishra, R.C. (1988) studied the gaze behaviors and the recognition of tribal and non tribal faces in 73 male adolescents (aged 14-18 years) of the Oraon tribe in Bihar, using 2 measures of field dependence- independence. The recognition of tribal faces was positively related to field dependence, whereas the recognition of non-tribal faces showed a weak relationship to field dependence. The gaze behavior was almost unrelated to field dependence.

Habu, Yoshimasa (1988) examined against the argument of G.R. Davidson and P.R. Freebody's conclusion that the cultural and socio-economic background of beginning readers determines their reading ability by way of acquisition of cognitive and metacognitive knowledge about reading. It is suggested that the level of metacognitive knowledge indicates rather than affects the level of practice of reading.
The study conducted by Gupta, A. and Jahan, O. (1989) revealed that the cognitive capacity of nontribal Ss were superior to tribal Ss in their mean intelligence scores. A Hindi version of the General Mental Ability Test of intelligence by A. Singh (1967) was used to investigate differences in cognitive capacity among 200 tribal and 200 non-tribal 9th graders.

Baldwin, John. D. and Baldwin, Janice, I. (1989) studied on the Sambia, a tribe living in Papua New Guinea, to show how Sambia males develop a homosexual orientation in boyhood and adolescence, then switch to become heterosexuals in adulthood. Social learning theory is used to explain how sexual orientation in the Sambia change from homo to heterosexual during the transition to adulthood. While including Pavlovian and operant conditioning, which is stressed in many learning analyses of sexual learning, this analysis also includes detail on the social and cognitive learning principles that are important in understanding the learning of sexual orientation and behavior.

Nah (1990) has reported significant differences in cognitive styles of rural and urban children. He found that urban students were more field independent, more proficient in cognitive differentiation task and less sensitive to external environment.

Rath, Sudhakar (1990) examined the differential performance characteristics of 50 schooled (Grade, 2) Vs 50 non-schooled tribal (Santal) children in problem solving tasks involving differential processing strategies (rather than ability) when the mediational role of linguistic competence factor was at a minimum level. Ss were administered tests of reflection impulsivity, simultaneous, and successive processing. Schooled Ss out performed their non schooled counterparts in reflective and simultaneous processing. No significant difference was found in successive processing. More schooled Ss were reflective processors compared to their non
schooled counterparts, who were primarily impulsive processors. Even the most primitive form of schooling accelerated the growth of reflective and simultaneous cognitive information processing in tribal children independence of IQ.

Study conducted by Hyde, Fennema and Lamon (1990) found specific nature and magnitude of sex differences in mathematical performance. Psychologist Janet Shibley Hyde and colleagues examined mathematical performance of males and females, collected during the course of conducting 100 separate studies, encompassing some 4 million subjects. Contrary to traditional wisdom, females actually out performed males in maths in elementary and middle schools, although by only a tiny amount. By high school, the finding was reversed; Males scored higher than females in mathematical problem solving. At all ages, however, the differences were quite small and they became even smaller when studies of the general adult population were considered. In sum, the differences in mathematical performance between men and women are relatively in significant.

Stevenson (1992); and Stevenson, Chen & Lee (1992) conducted studies on school performance of Asian- American students as a group reflects superior performance. It was examined that Asian- American students in the San Diego area have higher grades than other students, and Asian American students typically take more advanced classes than their classmates. The factor which is behind the success of Asian children is that they face greater cultural pressure to achieve in school. For instance, Asian mothers spend a great deal of time helping their children with school work, and they stress that academic success is their children's most important task like Japanese and Korean parents.

Another reason for superior Asian performance based on differences in how parents attribute their child's school success. Asian parents stress the importance of effort, hard work and perseverance in school. But American parents take a
quite different view: They emphasize the importance of inborn ability, believing that children vary considerably in their abilities and that ability plays a primary role in school performance. At the same time, American parents downplay the role of effort in producing school success.

When students do not do well in school, parents in the United States may conclude that their children simply don't have sufficient ability. As a result, they do not push their children to work harder. In contrast, Asian children who perform poorly are typically encouraged to work harder, because greater effort is seen as a means to overcome their academic difficulties.

Mohanty (1992) examined the cognitive consequences of schooling in a tribal population in Orissa. Schooled and unschooled children were contrasted in the age groups of 6-8 and 10-12 years on a variety of classificatory, memory and reasoning tasks, which intended to assess their skills at different levels of cognitive representation. Schooling did not have an equal influence performance on all tasks. The use of taxonomic principles in simpler classification tasks was influenced by chronological age, but schooling played a prominent role in taxonomic classification only when the task structure was more complex, abstract or constrained. Schooling had a positive influence on the development of subjects overall memory proficiency and their abstract and verbal logical reasoning.

Finally, education related effects were more prominent for tasks which were abstract, required alternative strategies of solution, demanded responses within a given task structure or involved higher order cognitive processing of information. Maturation was a necessary but not a sufficient condition for the development of these skills.

Dunn (1993); NICHD Early child care Research Network, in press; peisner-Feinberg and Burchinal (1997) concluded that there is a considerable evidence
links between the child care quality and cognitive development among pre-schoolers. Child care quality has been positively related, to pre-school age children's cognitive development and social competence in a wide variety of studies that controlled for family background characteristics such as socio-economic status, maternal education, or family structures.

In 1993, Rani, Mina, K. assessed the differences in academic performance of 400 4th grade boys on reading, achievement, and cognitive measures. 200 Ss were tribal and 200 were non tribal. Non-tribal Ss. out performed the tribal Ss. On the traditional tests, but the tribal Ss. did not differ in their performance on those basis that are ecologically valid for them. It is concluded that the performance of tribal Ss was inferior to that of nontribal Ss. not because of inherent inferiority in cognitive ability, but due to lack of proper reading stimulation at home, development delay, and to production deficiency.

Sameroff, Seifer, Baldwin and Baldwin, (1993) studied the relation of family characteristics and the cognition. The studies have shown that family characteristics, especially indicators of environmental risk such as maternal education and ethnicity, are consistent predictors of children's cognitive development over time.


Howes, Kontos, and Shinn (1994); Howes, Smith, and Galinsky (1995); Burchinal, Roberts, Nabors, and Bryant, (1996) studied the relation of child care quality in the infant and toddler years to cognitive and language development in two ways: naturalistic, correlational investigations of existing child care setting and experimental studies of planned interventions. In the naturalistic investigation
high quality care during the infant and toddler years is generally associated with better cognitive functioning, complex play, and language development when both are measured at the same age.

Chin-Quee and Scarr, (1994); Deater-Deckard et al, (1996); NICHD-ECRN, (1998 a 2000) studied the comparisons with the influence of family characteristics indicate the relative contribution of child care quality to different aspect of children's development. This study found stronger relationship with child outcomes for family characteristics such as maternal education than for child care quality. It is to be expected that characteristics of the home would significantly predict children's development, as the family provides the primary environment for the child as well as the one consistent environment overtime.

Caughy, etal, (1994); Desai, Chase-Lansdale and Michael, (1989), Lamb, (1997) studied the relation between infant care and intellectual development appears to depend partly that the amount of infant care was positively related to reading skill at ages 5 and 6 for children from low income families but negatively related for children from middle-income families or more advantaged families. This pattern is consistent with the "compensatory education" notion, that children from home environments with limited opportunities for cognitive stimulation will obtain more benefits from high quality care than will children from more advantaged family environments. However, some recent studies with pre-school age children failed to find evidence for compensatory child care effects under conditions of lower parent education, (Stipek, Feiler, Daniels & Milburn, 1995), poverty of developmental risk due to gender (Burchinal, Peisner-Feinberg, Bryant, and Clifford, 2000).

Study conducted by Fox. A. Robert and Camara, S. Pedro (1995) compared Latino mothers of very young children living in Mexico with Caucasian mothers
from the United States by using the parent Behaviour Check list (PBC) which had been successfully tested with both cultures.

When the level of maternal education was controlled; they found no significant difference in developmental expectations, discipline, or nurturing practices between these two groups. There were significant differences between lower and higher SES families.

Caughey, Dipietro, and strobino, (1994); Schlecker etal, (1991); vandell and corasaniti, (1990), demonstrated that family and child characteristics such as SES, ethnicity (Burchinal etal, (1995) or mother's education (Peisner-Feinberg and Burchinal, 1997), moderate the relation between child care experiences and child development. It has been hypothesized that child care experiences of high quantity or quality, or in a particular setting will be more strongly related to children's development for children experiencing lower quality family environments or other social risk factors, thereby suffering the child from some of the negative impact of these risk factors (Lamb, 1997)

Turiel, E. (1999) examined the relation between culture and individual's cognitive and social development. The research discussed extends both cultural and developmental analyses through explanations of change in individuals and collectivities. One goal of this volume is to examine change through historical period and within culture. The issues addressed include whether there are progressive and reprogressive shift, and how change in economic system influences mathematical and technological knowledge. A 2nd goal is to examine variability and conflict within culture. Heterogeniety in cultures is examined by looking at differing pedagogical philosophies and different perspectives of those in varying positions in the social heirarchy.
Study conducted by Mohanty, N. (2000) on role of school type in determining psychological differentiation and academic achievement of 300 tribal and 300 non tribal students in the context of primary education. Psychological differentiation was assessed using the story picture Embedded Figures Test, while exam scores served as an indication of academic achievement. The results show that psychological differentiation and academic achievement were positively related. Academic achievement of non tribal students was higher than the tribals and both groups were comparable on psychological differentiation. Mixed school setting was neither conducive for tribals nor for non tribals for both psychological differentiation and academic achievement. Policy implications of the findings are highlighted.

Larivee, Normandeau and parent (2000) demonstrate that one can explain individual differences in cognitive development while remaining loyal to Piaget's ideas about the general nature of development and that a number of Francophone scholars have done just that. The reviewers present the work of French and Swiss researchers who have elaborated a "Pluralistic and multidimensional model" of cognitive development that parallels the models of English speaking neo-Piagetians such as Kurt Fischer and Robbie case in its goal of describing multiple developmental pathways. The Francophone model attributes variability in cognitive task performance to various sources such as the situation and task context and the particular processing modes preferred by each subject, given a particular task.

STUDIES RELATED TO CHILD REARING PRACTICES

The studies of child life and child rearing that have been conducted by anthropologists, Psychologists, social workers and socialists in a societies allover the world suggest a wide range of variations in child rearing practices. There are number of parameters natural as well as social which have profound effects on
child rearing. This brings about variations in child rearing practices in different groups within the same cultures. There are individuals variations too among parents of given society because of certain variable such as education's level, economic condition, caste, religion etc.

Mathayya (1974) conducted a study on child rearing practices. The study revealed that rural parents of high socio-economic status group maintained a more favourable attitude towards child rearing practices than those who belonged to lesser level on this variable. It was found consequently that males in the age group of above thirty years maintained a more favourable attitude towards child rearing practices than those below thirty years.

Singh and Sharma (1976) compared working and non working women of Patna (Bihar) for their child rearing practices. It was revealed that more educated working and non working women display higher degree of acceptance, independence and reward, whereas less educated women expressed dependence and punishment to a greater degree. Working and non working women differed significantly or reward punishment dimension. However, working and nonworking women of all categories were found to be similar with respect to dimensions of acceptance-rejection and independence-dependence.

The process of child-rearing and socialization relative to various socio-economic levels and among different groups have been investigated (Bhogle, 1977; Joshi & Dhaliwal, 1977; Joshi & Tiwari, 1977; Shah & Kulshrestha, 1977; Miniturn, Boyd & Kapoor, 1978). Swaminathan (1979) observed that under conditions of equivalent poverty, measured purely in economic terms, the urban child might be much worse off than the rural child chiefly because of the family system and the rural working environment. The development of underprivileged children, according to De Souza (1979), was altered by the fact that as women constitute a
sizable proportion of the labour force either at home or outside, for purely economic reasons, children not only helped the mother but they also constituted a part of the labour force.

Anandalakshmy and Bajaj (1981) found little anxiety attending upon child-rearing (weaning, feeding and toilet training). The investigators had hoped to find that the competencies valued by a culture would be emphasized in its socialization processes. But they failed to find any direct relationship between the parent's efforts to train and the acquisition of competencies by children.

Bhogle (1981) investigated child rearing among caste-Hindus, backward Hindus and Muslims in the south. Contrary to other findings, inspite of variations, she found that irrespective of maternal attitudes like acceptance and dominance, certain behaviour or patterns could still be exhibited by the child, specially social behavior. However, certain effects of parental nurturance could be observed when mothers were either pure acceptant or acceptant and dominant together. Non-acceptant mothers, she found, had a greater chance of having non social children.

Researchers who have examined the correlates of authoritative parenting at older ages also report that it is linked to many aspects of competence. These include high self esteem, social and moral maturity, involvement in school learning, and academic achievement in high school. (Dornbusch et al, 1987; Jaiswal, 1988; Steinberg, Elman, & Mounts, 1989; Lamborn et al, 1991; Steinberg et al, 1992).

Children's development is influenced by poor, abusive, neglectful and inappropriate care, whether by parents or by others, parental psychology, especially maternal depression (Strickland Ascher, 1992) can disturb children's normal social development.
Tripathi (1991) conducted a study and conclude that the eco-cultural perspective led to a comparison of scheduled caste and scheduled tribe children with those of non scheduled caste and non tribal children belonging to different levels of socio-economic status. On the otherhand, ethnic group comparisons, where contrast in socialization and socio-cultural experiences (which form the basis of higher or lower level of differentiation) seen to be quite evident, have not been undertaken except in one or two small studies.

The European American parents are more likely to encourage a child to develop a self that is more autonomous from the family and reflects the child's uniquenesses, whereas Chinese parents are more likely to encourage children to view themselves as part of the integrated wholes of their family, community and society, and not to emphasize their differences from others. (Markus and Kitayana, 1991).

Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbuch and Darling (1992) carried out a larger, longitudinal study, of 6, 400 adolescents aged 14 to 18. They also asked the adolescents to report on parental involvement in their schooling, and obtained their school grades for achievement. They found that authoritative parenting was related to better school performance. Interestingly, there was a mediating effect of parental involvement, usually thought of as helpful in this context. The parent's involvement in the adolescent's school work was especially helpful when it came from authoritative parents, but not so much when it came from authoritarian parents may be the latter can be too critical and not so supportive as authoritative parents can be.

Steinberg et. al characterized authoritative parenting in their study as having 3 components-parental acceptance and warmth, behavioural supervision and strictness, and psychological autonomy granting or democracy.
Current child care research is conducted within the context of a general systems model that considers both the child's home and child care environments (Scarr & Eisenberg, 1993). General systems models view children's development as being influenced by multiple inter-related systems ranging from those most proximal to the child, such as the family, to those most distal, such as the community. Such contextual analyses are necessary when relating child care experiences to child outcomes because family and child characteristics related to child outcomes are also related to family choices about child care (e.g. Belsky & Eggebeen, 1991; Burchinal Ramey, Reid & Jaccard, 1995; MC Cartney et al, 1997). Children in higher quality care are more likely to have better educated families with higher incomes and more progressive attitudes about child-rearing. (Lamb, 1997).

In 1994 chase Lansdale, Brooks - Gunn, and Zamsky conducted a study on various patterns of parenting and selected the sample of 193 low income African American single mothers with pre-school age children. Factor analyses yielded 3 dimensions: Aggravation, nurturance, and cognitive stimulation. Cluster analysis yielded four patterns of parenting: Aggravated but Nurturant; cognitively stimulating; patient and Nurturant; and low Nurturance. Two composite functions emerged the first representing maternal well being (Locus of control, depressive symptoms), the second representing socio demographic characteristics (maternal education, duration on welfare, age at first birth), accounting for 93% of between groups variability. Children's scores on measures of cognitive school readiness and personal maturity were significantly related to parenting pattern, even after controlling for significant predictors of parenting pattern; children's verbal ability was no longer related to parenting pattern once significant maternal characteristics were controlled. Identifying predictors of different patterns of parenting is central to an individual differences approach. Models of the 'determinants of parenting'
have been proposed (conger & Elder, 1994) and research has begun to identify predictors of individual differences in parenting practices samples of low income African American single mothers.

Studies of Chinese (Pan, 1994; Uba, 1994; X. Chen, Rubin & Li, 1995) and studies comparing Chinese, Chinese American, and/or European American child-rearing practices (Crystal and Stevenson, 1995; Huntsinger and Jose, 1995) have identified certain characteristics of the Chinese culture stemming from Confucian principles that influence the process of parenting. One of the most widely identified characteristics is the emphasis that Chinese parents place upon their child's acquisition of academic skills. (e.g. Wu, 1996; Huntsinger, Jose, Liaw, and Ching, 1997).

Chao, (1994) identified Chinese cultural values include human malleability, persistence, self improvement, restraint of emotion, difference to the group, parental authority, filial piety, and parental training of children.

There has been a great deal of debate recently about how best to describe parenting in different cultural contexts. Although much research has demonstrated that authoritative parenting leads to better adolescent adjustment among European American families (Holmbeck, Paikoff, and Brooks - Gunn, 1995), the meaning of these findings and their relevance for African American families has been debated. (Garcia Coll, Meyer, and Brillon, 1995). African American families have been described as more authoritarian and as engaging in harsher disciplinary practices than other families (Garcia coll et al., 1995). Furthermore, authoritarian parenting has been linked to better outcomes for African American adolescents, as compared with other ethnic groups. (Lamborn, Dornbusch, and steinberg, 1996).
CROSS CULTURAL STUDY

In 1981 Rogoff, B. had examined on cognitive skills of schooled versus non schooled individuals, and came into conclusion that there appear to be local relationships between school practices and specific cognitive activities. Schooled individuals show a variety of cognitive skills that bear a relationship to the activities of schooling. Schooling seems to foster perceptual skills in the use of graphic conventions to represent depth in two dimensional stimuli and in analysis of two dimensional pattern.

The study conducted by Stoller, R.J., Herdt, Gilbert, H. (1985) presented data from an anthropological study of an isolated Eastern Highlands New Guinea tribe, the Sambia, to test the behaviorist hypothesis that repeated pleasurable homoerotic experiences cause homo sexuality. Although prepubertal Sambia boys and youths are coercively required to indulge in exclusively homosexual, homosocial and homoerotic activities. Sambia men are almost always heterosexual. The case history of a Sambia man who was not heterosexual is presented to show that analytic theory, not learning theory, accounts for his homosexuality.

Davidson, G., Freebody, P. (1986) examined on genetic and cognitive competence approaches to study psychological development cross culturally, particularly in relation to the comparison of child and adult performance. Results of a cross cultural interview study of children's and Aboriginal teacher trainees, metacognitive knowledge of reading and other aspects of school learning are presented. Aboriginal trainees knowledge about reading is compared with their knowledge about the skills involved in indigenous story telling. The distinction between novice and expert within the cognitive competence frame work is used to explain qualitative differences in the Aboriginal trainees knowledge about the two types of cognitive skill.
In another study conducted by Davidson, Graham, R. & Freebody, Peter, R. (1988) discussed cross cultural research on metacognitive knowledge (MK). In the study MK about reading was assessed in 200 Australian children from Anglo-celtic urban Aboriginal, Southern European, and Asian family backgrounds. MK about school learning, particularly reading, increased with age and father's occupational status and was present more frequently in Anglo-celtic Australians than in the other groups. Pre-reading variables of listening comprehension, letter knowledge, and concepts about print were also significantly related to Mk about reading. Structured and unstructured interviews conducted by Davidson and Freebody with 21 Aboriginal trainee teachers indicate that school based MK was less sophisticated than MK about indigenous cultural skills like story telling. Sources of developmental differences in MK are explored.

Keats, D.M.; Munro, D. and Mann, L. (1989) presented in his volume of papers at New castle. Australia one again sees vitality in cross-cultural psychology and progress in several key areas. The emergence of individualism collectivism and of indigenous psychologies as vigorous new areas is clearly discernible. The papers are grouped into five major sections. Papers in part-I address conceptual issues and theoretical orientations in cross cultural psychology. The individualism collectivism contrast, and the indigenisation of psychology are dealt within this part. Part-II introduces a major theme of the congress, the sense of cultural identity, a problem of particular interest in newly formed nations and countries which have been enriched by immigrants, Australia and New Zealand among many. The papers in part-III are concerned with culturally related differences in cognitive performance and their measurement. The psychological effect of cultural variation in socialisation practices is the major theme of part-IV. The papers in part-V deal with issues of social role and behaviour in the adult world. Two sets of papers appear in this section. One on gender roles the other on behaviour in the world of work.
Iwawaki, S., Kashima, Y. & Leung, K. (1992) had studied about the innovations in cross-cultural psychology. In Part-I addresses conceptual issues, in which the key question is whither indigenous psychology? Papers in this section form a collage of interests in and concerns for indigenous psychology, a trend clearly seen in the conference. Some are position papers about indigenous psychology: Others realize indigenous psychology in research: and still another examines its impact on psychological research. Whether one agrees with or criticizes indigenization of psychology as an approach, it appears that cross-cultural psychology and possibly psychology at large, has to come to terms with the trend. Parts-II through IV collect papers in three general areas of social and organizational psychology, cognitive processes, and values, self and personality. Clearly active research is being conducted around the world in these traditionally strong areas of cross-cultural psychology. Three discernible trends are (1) an emphasis on communication processes (2) a continuing research program on values, and (3) an emergence of interests in self processes. The concepts of individualism and collectivism, however, continue to provide underlying themes for many of the papers. Parts V and VI are devoted to more specific areas of cross-cultural research: culture and health and culture and schooling.

Bosquet, Michelle, Egeland, Byron (2000) examines the relation between scores on the antisocial practices (ASP) content scale of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory-2 (MMPI-2) and parenting behaviors in a sample of low-income women. During pregnancy, 141 women (mean age 20-47 Yrs.) were administered the MMPI-2 and then placed into 1 of 3 groups: an anti-social, nonclinical, or clinical control group. When their children were 13 and 24 month old, anti-social mothers were observed to be less understanding and more hostile and harsh in their parenting styles than mothers in the other groups. The nonclinical and clinical control groups did not differ on any measures. Other MMPI-2 measures of antisocial behavior were not predictive of harsh parenting styles.
In the current study conducted by Colder, C.R. Mott; J., Levy, S. & Flay. B. (2000) examined 2 mediational mechanisms, parenting practices and children's beliefs about aggression, were hypothesized to account for the relationship between perceived neighbourhood danger and childhood aggression. Using structural equation modeling, data were analysed from an inner-city school based sample of 732 predominantly African American 5th graders. Results suggested that perceived neighbourhood danger was associated with strong positive beliefs about aggression, which in turn was associated with high levels of aggression. The hypothesized mediation role of parenting practices (restrictive discipline, parental monitoring, and parental involvement) on the relation between perceived neighbourhood danger and child aggression was not supported. However, the current findings suggest that children's positive beliefs about aggression mediated the relationship between restrictive discipline and aggression.

Daggett, J.O.; Brien, Marion; & et al (2000) examined relations among parents' perceptions of their childhood, attitudes about life, expectations for child behavior, attitudes about their child's behavior and the child-rearing environment parents provide. 80 mothers of 1-5 years old were interviewed about perceptions of receiving harsh parenting as children, current attitudes about life, developmental expectations, and views of intentionality and severity of their child's misbehavior. The home environment was measured using the Home observation for Measurement of the Environment (R.H. Bradly & B. Caldwell, 1979) scale. Mothers who reported harsh parenting as children, negative attitudes about life and unrealistic developmental expectations had negative attitudes about their own child. These attitudes were related to provision of lower quality home environments. Results support a constructivist approach to understanding parental social cognition and behavior.