In the previous chapter the concept of socially disadvantaged and Psychological factors has been discussed. The present investigation is an attempt to study intelligence, creativity, vocational interest and academic achievement of the socially disadvantaged and socially advantaged.

Some investigators have studied the importance of the intellectual factors while others emphasise the influence of non-intellectual and environmental factors as responsible for difference in the performance of the socially advantaged and disadvantaged.

Whiteman and Deutsch 1968 have made a research on intelligence and language development of socially disadvantaged. They report that the deprivation index of them was reflected significantly for both Lorge Thorndike and vocabulary tests.

There was a tendency of decreasing I.Q. in the disadvantaged group with age for their socio-economic status was found positively and significantly correlated with orientation and reading test. They report that a child born in a family with a particular social background has a kind of experience which allow him to develop a certain
cognitive skills and therein true contribution to the subsequent learning. Except on him in school discontinuity and dissonance between school requirements and child's prior preparation and experience can be understood, partly in these terms. It may be noted that Socio-Economic Status differences in test performance were not only significantly related but impact was more on the deprived group.

Whiteman and Deutsch reports that if these things are left unchecked in early stages, it causes irreparable damage to the cognitive and intellectual development of the children.

Whiteman & Deutsch (1965) termed this condition as cumulative deficit phenomena. As a result, if the child remains in school despite equal facility available to him he falls behind in relation to the normal for his age and grade. Coleman et al. (1966) that is also true of general intelligence (Deutsch and Brown 1965).

Deutsch and Brown (1964) have shown that absence of father in the poor family lead to the difference of about eight point in I.Q.

Similarly Mischal (1958) (1961A) has pointed out the role of parental absence in the development of the capacity essential to achievement generally and to academic achievement in particular.

Some studies done in India have also thrown light on adverse
influence of poverty and different kind of deprivations on cognitive and perceptual competence.

Sinha and Shukla (1974) observed children from orphanages suffering from familial deprivation to be significantly lower than normal children of comparable age and intelligence on tasks requiring interpretation of pictorial depth cues. It was interesting to observe that through the pattern of emergence of this perceptual skill was similar in the two groups of children, they significantly differ on the level of their competence.

Das (1973) on the basis of a series of studies has reported independently enhance cognitive competence. In his paper, "Caste, Class and Cognitive Competence". (Das and Sinha, 1974) report that detrimental influence of both status and poverty on the performance of a series of cognitive tasks like Raven's Coloured Progressive Matrices, Graham-Kendall's memory, for Designs, cross-model coding, visual short-term memory, figure copying and stop word reading was analysed. Excepting on progressive Matrices and figures copying, the low caste children did poorly than the high caste. The rich Brahmin children were clearly superior to all other children. The results supported the hypothesis that "the least disadvantaged children performed best in majority of cognitive tasks". Besides poverty of the lower caste, social disadvantages suffered by them acted as a vital detrimental influence.
As Das and Sinha (1974) remarks, the socio-cultural atmosphere in which caste prevails is important. My own studies on the interpretation of certain pictorial cues, and sequential perception (Sinha, 1975) revealed that quality of schooling and caste status were significant factors in performance on these tasks. Performance of those from ordinary schools where children from economically inferior homes were significantly inferior to those from superior schools where mostly children from well-to-do middle class and upper middle class families were admitted.

Further, within the same type of schools, scheduled caste children tended to perform poorly in comparison to their non-scheduled caste counterparts on both the types of tasks requiring simple and complex perceptual skills. Besides, in superior Hindus live even though poor would be still superior to scheduled caste children of similar economic level.

"The Effect of Socio-Economic-Status on the scholastic Achievement", was undertaken by Curry. The author of the study draw the following conclusions.

(1) Socio-Economic status seems to have no effect upon the scholastic achievement of sixth grade students when the students had high intellectual ability. High intellectual ability offsets any deficiency which may be created by lower social economic conditions.
Social and economic factors had an effect upon language achievement in the medium intellectual ability group. Both the upper and middle socio-economic status groups achieved a greater amount than the lower socio-economic group.

Achievement in arithmetic seems to be relatively free from the influence of social and economic conditions since no significant differences were found within any of the intellectual ability groups.

Rath (1973, 1974) has also reported no differences among children of Brahmins, scheduled castes and scheduled tribes in basic intelligence (as measured by Raven's Progressive Matrices), but lower performance of the latter two on concept formation, comprehension of meaning, vocabulary and association of ideas. He concluded that factors that cause depression in cognitive growth as well as in motivation for education are present in children from poorer homes and in their environment.

Tripati and Misra (1975) found that on six tests of cognitive functions and mental ability, the low deprived group did significantly better than the high deprived. Caste-wise analysis did not reveal any differences.

Bronfenbrenner (1970) refers to "The absence of an educationally stimulating environment during the pre-school years" as one of the products of poverty.
Das and Singh (1974) have hinted at cognitive style or strategy, a habitual mode of processing information adopted by the lower caste and class groups.

Besides perceptual and general cognitive competence, reading ability and linguistic skills are important not only to scholastic performance, but in general interpersonal relationships in various life-situations, poverty has been found to have an adverse effect on these skills.

Deutsch (1963) Hess (1964) and John (1963) have indicated that being socialised into the culture of poverty leads to the development and use of linguistic systems different from those of the culture of nonpoverty. It reflects the monotony of sensory inputs that characterize the poor.

Whiteman and Deutsch (1968) have found dilapidated housing conditions, familial composition and large family size, lower educational aspiration for children as desired by the parents, and less interaction and activities with parents and relatives as having detrimental impact on reading ability. All these are aspects of general socio-economic level. In fact, correlation between gross socio-economic status and Gates Reading Test was found to be .44, being significant at one percent level.
One of the consequences of poverty is the restriction of language and linguistic modes of communication. Bernstein's brilliant and extensive studies (Bernstein, 1960, 1962, 1964) have demonstrated interlacing of language with other forms of social behaviour and association of class differentials with linguistic skills. Language serves behaviour, and to the extent that the life of the lower working class is restricted and lacks opportunities for action and for selection among alternatives, its language has less need to be complex and differentiated.

There is wealth of evidence which show that the linguistic code developed by the poor is restricted, relatively undifferentiated, simplex, lacking in modifiers, implicit, and aimed at reinforcing and implementing the social structure rather than conveying information. In contrast, the linguistic code of middle and upper class strata is elaborated. These linguistic codes develop early and get stabilized through time, and come to play an important role in the intellectual, social and effective life of the child.

Rath (1974) has also discussed this problem when he points out that apart from absence of stimulating home environment, the language used by lower caste and tribal children at home, is quite different from that used and required in schools. Thus, such children come inadequately equipped to meet the linguistic demands of the school situations.
Rath (1973, P.11) referring to the work of Gray (1964) has pointed out that the energies of mothers of the poor children being largely devoted to substance activities, father's frequent absence from home and rather diffuse family structure are retarding influences on child's linguistic development. When he reaches what Piaget calls "What's that" stage, there is no one to tell him that is that and make him experience the delights of new discovery. As a result, the child learns concrete properties of objects, but not their interrelations and symbolic representations (John, 1963).

Thus with inadequacies of linguistic skills, and deficiencies on the level of perceptual and general cognitive functioning, the child of the poor, despite not being inferior in basic abilities, encounters difficulties in school, and meets with frustrations find failure. The total effect is that his condition is already bad due to poverty made worse, and he does not easily acquire such skills that would enable him to combat poverty.
CREATIVITY AND SOCIALLY ADVANTAGE & DISADVANTAGED.

Studies conducted in India and other countries amply indicate the fact that social disadvantagedness does not affect the growth of creativity. In the light of scanty data available on the relation of creativity to social disadvantagedness, the present investigation is focused to find out whether such differences exists in the present samples.

Rose L Mooney, Taher A Razik report that a culture fosters creativity to extend that its parent-child relationship, child rearing technique do or donot result in setting up of rigid boundaries, the inner personal regions. Does the culture tolerate deviation from the traditional status quo or does it insist upon conformity, whether in politics, science or at school. Does the culture permit the individual to seek new experience or do the bearer of culture "School feed the child so that they constantly find ready made solution available to them as they come upon a situation i.e. lacking in closure.

The stage of development of a culture obviously infer the means available to the individual for creative programme.

Acceptance of theory of creativity (wide variety for students.)
Cultural bias imply Giedon (1948) says how a mechanistic view of the universe has affected the work in many areas of inquiry. The extent to which program is made in the new pattern of application may well depend on the rigidity of the philosophical that is adopted and the manner in which it is interpreted and followed by those who accept it. For example a new materialism has caused Giedon to suggest that we have been developing humanism and he wishes lights the need for a man who continue in "equip".

Philosophy of alike undergo cyclic change as a result of a multitude of factors. Finally we come to a specific aspect of the culture—the audience with whom the creative persons communicate the critic, the patron, the followers and the population last angle.

The culture play very significant sociological role in determining what the larger population had available to it, as instances of creative. In considering the final stage of the creative product, it was suggested that the creative work must strike a chord or resonate in some manner with the groups that accept it. Creative work to confirm the norms of present society. Retreat against mechanical and instinctivism.

It is only in the recent years as a matter of fact that differentiation between creativity and intelligence has been clearly established. The main concern of the professional have been to find ways to present creativity, or atmost to release it from its shackles.
It is relevant to ask whether a certain set of circumstances early in the individual's life may not only sustain creativity but may actually "Create it".

A study on seven thousand public school children showed that expressiveness without dominance, acceptance.

Rossman's finding states (1931) that creative scientists and engineers are likely to come from middle class families. and are likely among the first-born (Roe, 1952) (Weisberg & Springer, 1961).

Roe, (1952) Loss of parent is also found to be a contributing factor in creativity.

Weisberg & Springer, (1961) The family of the more creative child is not a happy one. The marriage is likely to be poorly adjusted with much dissention in the home.

Goertzal and Goertzel (1962) made studies of the biographies of eminent and presumably mostly creative people. They found that there was high incidence of troubled homes and wretched childhoods in their lives.

Research on creativity reveals that they are multidimensional, involving analysis of creative process, product person, situation and examination of socio-cultural variables influencing the development
of creativity. Research conducted to study the relationship between creativity, birth order and number of siblings are very few. Dutta (1967-68), studied two different samples of 526 young scientists and 573 male adolescents and found that 1st born are not creative. Jawa (1971) reports no relation between birth order and creativity. Fillis, Clerk, Jone and Roe reports that a greater number of 1st born among eminest persons than those born on other ordinal positions.

Identification and measurement of creativity will lead not only to a greater understanding of a person, but would also provide a more adequate basis for forecasting something about his future (Heist, 1958) Getzels and Jackson reports positive correlation between conventional intelligent test and creativity.

J.Eindhoven and W.E. Vinacke found that artists have more control over their creative process than non-artists. M. Khinai studied creativity in Indian student and found out between high and low creative groups on measures of cognitive abilities, Personality traits, anxiety achievement and socio-economic status.

Research studies (Weisberg & Springer, 1961) Mackinnen,1962, Gotzel and Jackson, 1962) have demonstrated that highly creative children come from a special kind of home background which particularly facilitates the emergence of creative behaviour.

Rogers said 'This tendecy (to actualise himself, to become his potentialities).... exists in every individual and awaits only the proper conditions to be released and expressed'.
Doemaintained that this quality (or creative personality in person) should be taken for granted. The real problem is to discover what outside influences or forces prevent creativeness or prevent anyone from becoming a complete personality. Varying enumerated environmental facilitators and inhibitors of individual creativity, the propitious environment for 'Creativity' is the 'Open system'. He pointed out the fact that intelligence and creativity might not be closely related was suggested in psychological literature even before the emergence of the concept of I.Q. Dearborn (1898) studies the imaginative responses of Harvard students and faculty to a series of ink-bLOTS. On the basis of the results obtained he reported that the performance of the intellectual type of persons was poor.

Colvin and Mayer (1906) have repeated the original study with the same results "Logical power shows no pronounced relation to any type of imagination except the visual".

Laura Chassel made an attempt to study the relation between the two variables of intelligence and creativity by using a number of different tests ranging from tests of word building and coding to those requiring unusual and original responses to novel situations. He found relatively little relationship between the performance on the I.Q. tasks and the performance on the creativity tasks.

McCloy & Meier (1939) administered a test of recreative imagination to 79 school children and these responses were correlated with their I.Q. scores and the correlation obtained was 0.22. Welch (1946) administered a test requiring the construction of ideas into new and original patterns to 48 college students and their originality responses were correlated with their scores on the Wonderlic Intelligence Test. The correlation obtained was 0.27.

Research conducted by Getzels and Jackson suggest that some students may have high I.Q. scores but relatively low creative scores. This study attracted widespread national and international attention and was vigorously and widely criticized. This investigation showed clearly that creatively gifted children could not be equated with highly intelligent ones. But at the same time the study had certain limitations since the data were obtained from a single school, having a large number of gifted students and also the study did not indicate under what conditions their results could be anticipated. Torrance and his associates have undertaken 15 partial replications of the Gatsel-Jackson study, hoping to obtain some clues to answer this question. In 10 of the 15 studies Torrance obtained results similar to the original study and in the other five the same effect did not occur.

Flescher (1963) also found low but negative relationship between some measures of creativity and measures of intelligence.
Wallach and Kogan (1965) recognised creativity as an important dimension in the cognition domain. Kelchan and Kheiralba (1962) Yama moto (1964), Cincirelli (1964) obtained significant correlation between the scores on intelligence test and creativity tests. These correlations ranged from 0.33 to 0.39.

By using a battery of thirteen tests—six convergent and seven divergent A.J. Cropely has made an attempt to study the relationship between creativity and intelligence. The sample consisted of 320 children of the seventh grade. The correlation obtained between the battery and the normal tests of intelligence was 0.514.

Apart from the studies conducted in the foreign countries certain research works have been undertaken in India also. Pramila Phatak (1961) carried out an exploratory study of creativity and intelligence and scholastic achievement. With the help of Spearman Rank method she obtained the correlation of 0.43, between intelligence and creativity.

The studies conducted by A Simon, and Lionel O Ward's (1972) confirmed the finding that there was a relationship between intelligence and creativity. The relation depended on types of intelligence tests and creativity measures used.

Nijsee M (1975) found that there is no significant correlations between creativity and intelligence.
Rama (1968) observed a positive but not significant relationship between creativity and intelligence among VIII, IX and X class students. Here Minnesota verbal tasks of creativity and Jalota's Group Test of mental abilities were used.

The study conducted by Paramesh (1971) showed that the high, moderate and low creative groups did not significantly differ from each other as far as intelligence is concerned.

Phatima (1971) found a very low relationship between intelligence and creativity. Sharma (1972) conducted his study on X class students. He used Jalota's group test of mental abilities and Chauhan and Sharma's creativity test. The results indicated a positive and significant relationship between intelligence and creativity. Students scoring on the test of intelligence were also high scorers on creativity. But rise in intelligence at higher levels was not very much helpful to cause a significant rise in creative scores.

According to N.K. Dutt, Prem Bountra, and U.K. Sabhra (1973) the relationship between intelligence and creativity was curvilinear, positive and somewhat substantial. To a certain extent creativity and intelligence went together, but thereafter they took different directions. As such highly creative subjects were not necessarily highly intelligent as well.

Hasan Qamar and Khan Shamsur (1976) examined the relationship by correlating Raven's progressive Matrices scores with the three
creative scores—fluency, flexibility and originality. It was found that the inter correlations among these three creativity scores were relatively higher than the correlation of any one of them with intelligence.

Hegadi (1977) attempted to find out the relationship between creativity and intelligences. He used Mehadis Verbal and Non-verbal tests of creativity as a measure of creativity and Mohsin's group test of General Intelligence, and Raven's Standard Progressive Matrices for measuring intelligence for the VII and VIII Class students. In the urban sample the results indicated a slight negative relationship. While it was found positive and significant in the case of rural sample.

Sharma (1974) again with the help of the studies observed that, for the better creative functioning high intelligence was a must. But Bedi could not find any significant relationship between creativity and intelligence among high school students. In this study the investigator has used Jalota's group test of mental abilities for the measurement of intelligence, and Torrance Test of creativity for the creativity measurement. Dhaliwal and Saini (1976) with the help of the same tests found a significant relationship between creativity and intelligence among high school students. The different components of creativity were significantly related to their intelligence.
A study was made by Singh, Tripathi and Jyotar (1978) to find the relationship between intelligence and creativity. The study was conducted on a sample of 200 students. Mehadi’s Verbal Test of Creative thinking and Joshi’s H.G.T.G. M.A. were used as measures of creativity test were scored into three categories as fluency, flexibility and originality and also a composite total score. Correlatons were calculated separately for all these four scores. The correlation between composite scores and intelligence was 0.188; between fluency and intelligence was 0.138 between flexibility and intelligence was 0.236 and finally between originality and intelligence was 0.80. They also concluded that beyond the I.Q. of an increase in intelligence contributes little to creativity.

G. Singh, J. Ashwani, and Sharma (1980) studies interactional effects of intelligence and grade levels on creativity and its components. The findings showed that there was a significant effect of the different levels of intelligence on some of the components of creativity.
As a result of various studies mentioned above there is no longer any confusion existing about the relationship between intelligence and creativity. Now it is generally accepted that the persons who are highly intelligent are not necessarily highly creative also. A minimum level of intelligence for a person is considered essential for being creative. But this alone is not enough. There are other factors present in the individual that contribute to a high creative performance beyond that level. As Guilford (1957) has observed "High I.Q. is not a sufficient condition for high divergent production but an above average I.Q. is almost necessary condition." This means that there exists a curvilinear rather than a linear relationship between intelligence and creativity.

A number of studies have been made on Vocational Interest of elementary and high school students using different methods. The Research findings have shown that all persons at all ages of both sexes prefer professional technical occupations.

Around the dawn of this century there had been clear cut difference in the type of occupation preferred by advantaged and socially disadvantaged—Scientific, legal technical, medical occupations were considered to be privileges of the socially advantaged. But, since, independence due to a series of legislation government made an attempt for the developments of socially disadvantaged and thereby today socially disadvantaged evidenced great interest in occupations hitherto fore considered right of advantaged.

Dresden feels that the Vocational goals most likely to the closer to the students abilities that they are willing to record on a questionnaires, she points out upper level occupations parents at lower occupational levels generally did not go to high school themselves, so that if the children go, they and these parents are probably aiming higher this may account for some discrepancies reported between vocational aims and number of jobs available.

Lehman and witty tested School children whose age ranges between 8.5 to 18.5 there finding show that the students reported the three occupations they would like best to follow. The three
they believed would require the least effort: Physician, banker, and Ministers were indicated in that order as the most respected occupations both sexes and all ages made these choice for the following reasons in order: Money, Social approval, and easy life. There were marked sex differences in kinds of preferences. Tyler found the organization of interest in first grade children they are the following.

A) Active outdoor play.
B) Indoor play with toys.
C) Paper-pencil-crayon activity.
D) Helping adults with work.

Interest A B and C

Interests A, B, and C were relatively independent for both boys and girls, and all correlated negatively with D. D has a high negative correlation with masculinity, even at this age helping around the house is a feminine activity. Interests and primary mental abilities were significantly correlated for boys, but not for girls. This suggested to her a role theory of the patterning of interests.

Since the difference better the sexes is one of the earliest differences to become apparent to children, one might expect their attitudes about what things are appropriate for them to do might be related to these differences before other role factors such as class concepts and occupational stereotypes begin to influence interests. The fact that special abilities correlates with interests in boys but not in girls, could be evidence that even at this age boys are beginning to formulate differentiated roles in accordance with the differentiated position they must look forward to occupying, whereas for the little
girl who sees her future in terms of her mother's life, distinctions on the basis of mental abilities would be irrelevant.

Lehman and Witty studied vocational attitudes of 26,878 boys and girls from 8.5 to 18.5 years old. They found that girls tended to prefer occupations described as sedentary, aesthetic, involving personal service, teaching, whereas boys showed more preference for occupations involving travel, movement, physical activity, giving order. They also noted that vocational attitudes of boys change more with age than do those of girls.

Socio-Economic Differences:

The identifiability of patterns of interests was virtually a treatment of research which has been carried out on socio-economic differences in occupational interests, at least in so far as methodology is concerned. There still remains the task, however, of describing the differences in interests which characterize the various occupational levels and the evident effects of status on interests. It has been shown in several studies that socio-economic status is related to the development and manifestation of interests.

Using the strong, McArthus and Stevens (1955) found that inventoried interests are better predictors of regular adult occupation than are expressed preferences when the subjects are mobile middle-class young men, but that preferences are better predictors of the adult occupation in the case of young men of upper-class status.
Jordan (1949) found that mechanically gifted boys tend to have the expected scientific and technical interests except when their fathers are executives.

Layman (1956) found that, although Kuder-inventories interests are not related to social status when considered alone, they are related when intelligence is taken into account for example, social service interests tend to be high in bright boys of upper middle-class status, but low in equally bright boys of middle-class backgrounds. One would infer from these findings that certain social environments encourage the development or manifestation of others.

The basic work of the measurement of socio-economic differences in interests was done by Strong (1943, Ch.10), in connection with his scale for measuring occupational interest level, or the socio-economic level at which an individual would be placed on the basis of similarity of interests. Men who are successfully employed in the higher level occupations tend to have more interest in literary and legal activities and in business contact work, and less social welfare and sub-professional technical interest, than men in lower level occupations. Men in legal and literary occupations, salesmen, and scientists tend to make high occupational level scores, although there is no relationship between the scientific and occupational level scales on Strong's Blank. Senior public administrators score higher on occupational level than do junior public administrators (Strong, 1946). Strong suggests that the scale measures managerial ability.
It has been suggested by Darley (1941, pp. 60 and 66) and by Darley and Hagenah (1955) that occupational interest level is indicative of aspiration level, that it "Represents the degree to which the individual's total background has prepared him to seek the prestige and discharge the social responsibilities growing out of high income, professional status, and recognition of leadership in the community; at the lower end of the scale, the individual's background has prepared him for the anonymity, the mundane round of activities and the followership status of a great majority of the population." Darley suggests, that those who are characterized by a low level of occupational interest are likely to lack the motivation which results in staying power in college.

Kendall (1947) attempted to validate this hypothesis with three groups of 100 men each at Syracuse University, selected from the entering freshman class on the basis of high, average, and low occupational level scores on Strong's Blank. These three differing occupational level groups were found to differ also in mental ability as measured by the Ohio State Psychological Examination. Those who were high on these measures made higher hour-point ratios during the first semester. When intelligence was held constant the academic achievement of the three occupational level groups was again found to differ, the differences being significant at between the one percent and the 5 percent levels. The differences are therefore not completely clear cut, but they do suggest that those with extremely low occupation interest levels are likely to find college work foreign to their taste, whereas it will be congenial to those who are characterized by high occupational interest levels.
However, the results of a number of studies, discussed by Barnett, Handelsman, Stewar, and Super (1952), by Darley and Hagenah (1955), and by Strong's (1955, Ch. 12) are conflicting.

Morgan (1952) unlike Kendall, found no differences in the occupational level scores of achieving and under achieving students.

Gustad (1954) found no relationship between OL scores and actual or desired socioeconomic status among college students.

Terman and Oden (1948) reported that the most successful gifted men in their study made significantly higher OL scores than did the least successful when tested at age 30 and

Barnett (1952) found that OL scores had as high negative correlation with satisfaction with being unemployed in a period of prosperity. As interpreted by Barnett and associates in their monograph (1952) the results of these studies suggest that only the most parsimonious interpretation of occupational interest level is justifiable, a high OL score indicates that a person's interests are like those of people at high socio-economic levels, and are therefore most likely to find appropriate outlets in high-level occupations. But whether
this means that he has the drive to seek these outlets is apparently not shown by having this type of interest.

Strong and Darley, however, reject this interpretation and continue to equate occupational interest level with driver. Strong because people tend to seek appropriate outlets for their interests (better demonstrated for field than for level). Darley because he prefers his own interpretation of the relevant studies.

Sex Differences:

Popular stereotypes as to the masculinity and femininity of interests are widespread, and it is natural to ask what research in the Psychology of interests found in this area. Studies made by Terman and Miles (1936), Carter and Strong (1933), Yum (1942), Strong (1943, Ch. II) and Traxler and McCall (1944), all agree that men tend to be more interested in Physical activity, mechanical and Scientific matters, politics and selling. Interest in art, music, literature, people, clerical work, teaching, and social work is more characteristic of women. It is empirically worthy of note that masculinity and femininity are scaled traits rather than dichotomies, people are not masculine or feminine in their interests, but more or less masculine or feminine. It is interesting to speculate as to whether the higher incidence of cultural (artistic, literary, musical, and social) interests in women means that they are constitutionally the carriers of culture, or whether they have simply taken on that
role because nature forced men, as the stouter animals, to take on the competitive, constructional, and provisioning roles. Anthropological studies suggest the latter, since there are a few societies in which men are the domestics and women the providers. But physical constitution seems to pay a part, as shown by the preponderance of active-male societies. A good illustration is Miles' (1942) case study of boy raised for 17 years as a girl, despite the seemingly overwhelming feminine influences to which he was subjected, he made definitely masculine scores on the Terman-Miles Masculinity-Femininity Test and on Strong's Vocational Interest Blank (scored for masculinity-femininity of interests).

It is true, as Ginzberg and his associates have emphasized, that there are irreversible elements; one type of education cannot be exchanged for another in retrospect; time spent on one job means that there is that much less time to spend on another, and so on. Nevertheless both individuals and society are more flexible than Ginzberg seems to consider them. Individual occupational histories show shifts. Some of these may seem minor at the time, but they may mean personally significant changes, even within the framework of a superficially similar job, that lead to more congenial activities.

The same job is rarely done in the same way by two different persons, and most jobs other than fully routinized assembly line or clerical ones, can be approached in different ways, or organized somewhat differently in accordance with individual peculiarities. They not only can be, they inevitably will be.
Sometimes this is satisfactory all around; sometimes the worker finds that it is impossible to find satisfaction in one job, however he alters it, and will if he can, find another. Sometimes, of course, he will be fired. People are not static, and Super's emphasis on the importance of the career pattern as a whole for understanding the vocational life or any one individual is a very important one. Forer has pointed out the role of unconscious elements in occupational choice.

Sex differences in interests

That there are sex differences in interest is a matter of common observation as well as of test. Indeed, several masculinity femininity scales have been constructed on this basis. In this sense masculinity and femininity are a continuous variable, and cannot be dichotomized. The various studies of differences in interests corresponding to physical sex differentiation have been in close agreement (for example, Terman and Miles, Carter and Strong, Yum, Kuder, Tryaler and McCall Strong, 1943) Finch and O'Connor). In summary, men are more interested in scientific activities, mechanics, physical activity, politics, and sales activities than women.

Women show greater interest than men do in people, social and clerical work, teaching, literature, art, and music. That these differences are of importance for vocational choice is obvious.
Boys more often preferred occupations involving giving commands, and their attitudes changed more with age than did those of girls.

Boynton, studying 797 girls and 765 boys in grades 1-6 (ages 6-16).

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<tr>
<th>Nature of Occupation</th>
<th>Percentage Preference:</th>
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<td></td>
<td>Boys</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sedentary</td>
<td>90</td>
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<tr>
<td>Travel or movement.</td>
<td>45</td>
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<tr>
<td>Aesthetic</td>
<td>15</td>
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<td>Personal service.</td>
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<td>Teaching</td>
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with an open-ended questionnaire, stated that generally children's occupational interests do not grow or develop or systematically change within the years studied, that economic security or insecurity is not casually related to their occupational preferences, that educational maturity has a very equivocal relationship with professional interests; and that the apparent sex differences are artifacts of a system of social training.

Menger studied 9,425 boys and 0,374 girls in grades 3-16 in various eastern schools, in both urban and rural communities. He found some regular trends in the answers to: 'When you finish
school, what vocation do you expect to follow? The boys in both elementary and high schools mentioned 70 occupations, but in college only 37 were named. For girls the figures were 35, 39, and 40, which he interpreted as meaning that education to some extent widened vocational horizons for girls but not for boys. There was little difference between rural and urban groups except for a higher frequency of farming and nursing in the rural. Excessive numbers choosing professions were reported as usual.
Corraborative evidence was provided by Warner, Havighust and Loeli (1944) in comparisons made between sub-groups of higher and lower socio-economic status. This was based on a survey of pupils with IQ's of 110 as above. In the upper social groups 93% graduated from high school and 13% attended college, in the lower, 72% graduated from high school and 13% attended college. They concluded thus; "These studies clearly show that high status children are taught to respond favourably to the situations represented by academic challenges and that they are more strongly motivated for academic advancement".

Lafferty (1948) made a comparison of the twelve most frequently mentioned reasons for failure in sixteen studies reported between 1925 and 1935 and eleven studies reported between 1935 and 1945. The most frequently listed reasons in the latter studies were poor health and physical defects, poor efforts, poor home conditions, poor foundation, outside work, incomplete work, outside interest, laziness and failure of interest.

In another study made by them, comparison of the high school records of the two schools, one predominatly lower class and the other predominantly upper middle class showed that no student from the lower class had made A's. Conversely, no student from the upper class made 'F' during the same period while 44 percent of the lower class made 'F's.
Coleman (1940) found the correlation of .30 between SES and academic achievement of junior high school students (VIII grade) and 0.353 for IX grade students. However, when IQ was held constant, the correlation was sharply reduced.

A student on reading readiness by Frahm (1946) in Iowa indicated that children from lower class or under privileged homes tended to be less ready for reading in the first grade than more fortunate pupils.

That a child handicapped by the poverty of his environment is likely to perform on a level somewhat below his potential cannot be denied. Carefully controlled studies by Hollingshead and others (1949) showed that students' grades were correlated positively with social class position. It was found that children from the upper level of society received a disproportionate share of the high grades, while those from the lower strata, conversely, received more than their share of the low grades. Environmental factors that influence students' motivation probably account for some of these observed discrepancies.

Kemp (1955) found that the greatest single factor determining the level of attainment was intelligence even when schools were considered as units, rather individual children. However, SES correlated very significantly with both intelligence (.52) and attainment (.56). When the former was partialled out, the correlation between SES and attainment dropped to .30.
"Despite the massive importance of intelligence, a considerable portion of the differences among individuals has to be accounted for in other terms. Part of the remaining variation is taken up by socio-economic status; the higher the occupation of the breadwinner in the students' family, the greater his level of achievement".

Champman (1960) found in a comparison of 112 achievers and 112 under-achievers in grades 10 and 11, some statistically significant differences in the direction of the achievers were as follows. More girls, younger, fewer previous failures, some academic interests, better study habits, less time on hobbies, more private lessons, parents have more schooling and more often professional or owners of business.

The results of the study indicated that the fathers of low-achievers were engaged in low ranking occupations whereas the fathers of high-achievers enjoyed good job positions. Mothers of some low-achievers came from homes broken by death or divorce. The physical health problems were many among the low-achievers which contributed to the failure of the low-achievers in their school work.

Pulu (1976) studied the effects of selected variables on the academic achievement of sixth grade students in some rural Alaskan schools. Results of the regression analysis were used to develop predication equations for each of the sub-tests of academic achievement were found to be empirical socio-economic status and the interaction of home environment with ethnicity.
A research (1959-60) was conducted by Vidyalaya Teachers College on "socio-economic conditions of high school pupils in Coimbatore district". It was found a slight but positive correlation between educational status of the family and pupils' achievement for urban area. The corresponding correlation ratio for rural area was less than that of urban areas. Apart from educational achievement, the financial position of the family affected the child's schooling itself. Lack of finance was reported to be the most frequent obstacle faced by pupils. Several pupils attributed the low marks obtained by them to want of facilities and other financial handicaps.

Thaker Jyotsna (1962) studied the relationship between home environment and failure in examination and concluded that the parents of failed students had low income and low standard of education. She further observed that these parents rarely visited the schools, and in general, showed indifference towards their failure in the examination.

Jumuar (1963) studied achievement in relation to some background factors. A study of two groups of 29 students showed achievement being positively related with father's occupation, hobbies, future educational plans of students, and being highly related to ego.

Pillai (1965) investigated into factors affecting schools of Trivandrum district, selecting equal number of government, private, rural and urban schools. He concluded that the performance of pupils depended more on the environmental factors and school average was influenced by the number of qualified teachers, income of the family educational status of parents... etc.
Pillai (1965) investigated into factors affecting schools of Trivandrum district, selecting equal number of government, private, rural and urban schools. He concluded that the performance of pupils depended more on the environmental factors and school average influenced by the number of qualified teachers, income of the family, educational status of parents... etc. The percentage of passes in various income classes showed that SES helped a lot for the education of children.

Gupta (1968) undertook a study on 'Intelligence, economic status, sex and academic success of 50 boys and 50 girls of 9th class in higher secondary schools of Patiala. Results indicated that the pupils of higher economic status and intelligence level were significantly better in academic achievement. Academic achievement correlated +0.29 with intelligence and .34 with economic status which were significant at 0.01 level.

Ahluwalia and Gupta (1968) investigated into the relationship between some environmental factors and academic achievement. The environmental factors included parents' education, their occupation status, socio-economic level and caste status. They found a significant relationship between father's occupation and education and academic achievement of boys. The provision for study facilities at home proved to be an important factor in the school performance.
The concept of socially disadvantaged, psychological factors affecting academic achievement and importance of the study are discussed in the previous chapter.

Irrespective of the stage of the education, though the present investigation is concerned with the high school pupils, the common goal for educational system is academic achievement so review of related literature is not restricted to any stage.

Some emphasize the influence of non-intellectual and environmental factors on academic achievement, while other investigators stress the importance on intellectual factors.

Many studies have also found social disadvantage the most important factor causing low or poor school achievement among socially disadvantaged. Students, investigators refuse to conclude that social disadvantage is an important single factor responsible for academic achievement.

The serious and urgent problem to be solved in India is the upliftment of socially disadvantaged because they are exploited by many countries many studies regarding the socially disadvantaged are formed in the minority groups in the United States of America envolving around the negro population.
Das, J.P. (1973) Rath R. (1974) Singh, A.K. (1977) and many others have focussed their attention on academic achievement and caste differences. And found out that High caste pupils could achieve better than the low caste and tribe people. High caste pupils are considered intellectually superiors then low caste population.

Many studies have derived the environment of the socially disadvantage as in negative terms. Mass.M.S. (1961) found out lower class home. Environment to be much less verbal then the upper class and Keller.S. (1963) described it as over crowded.

Strod beck. F.L. (1964) Henry J. (1963) and Deutsch. M (1963) came to a conclusion that the lower class lacks the middle class "Hidden curriculum" and systematic stimulation.

ELKINs. D. and Taba M. (1966) Miller. J.C. (1968) and Vernon P.E. (1972) found the conditions of life in rural and slums areas isolated and dismal with meagre means of poverty, poor nutrition and Health, over-crowding, lack of intellectual stimulation, lack of parental interest in education, inferior language background., insecure economic future and poor schooling, etc., to disrupt largely in the children's developmental background adversely affecting the stimulation level, compared to conditions available to advantaged children.

Deutsch. M. (1964) focussed that socially disadvantaged children born and living in a noisy environment, fail to distinguish and recognize the speech sound. The later affects linguistic competencies.
Carsou, A.S. & Rabin, A.I. (1960) and Riessman, F. (1962) have said that the disadvantaged children comprehend more than what they are unusually able to communicate. Investigations say that the children use adjectives more than verbs, and understand more language and use and express themselves more spontaneously in unstructured situations which demand a free flow of languages.


Riessman, F. (1963) shows more attention to positive aspects of lower class home environments, also including co-operativeness and mutual aid of the extended families. Individualism and equalitarianism, lack of strain accompanying competition lessened sibling rivalry and the security of large family.


Riessman, F. (1962) says causes of verbal underdevelopment of the disadvantaged children depend mostly on overemphasis on physical & motor ability. Keller S. (1963) suggests that this is due to lack of identification & less interaction with adults. Deficiency in auditory learning is owing or caused by exposure to monotonous


symbolic rewards. The studies also show that the disadvantaged children are more oriented to the present & have a vague and indefinite notions about the future & very little sense of pattern & regularity. Leshav L.L. (1952) says that the immediate rewards for the lower class training features are based on motor activities and physical gratification and punishment leading to the orientation toward quick sequence of tension & relief, & a strong orientation towards the present rather than the future.


In 1935 Burt, C.L. stated that Scholastic backwardness or low achievement is caused by multiplicity of many factors usually a combination of Psychological, genetic personality & educational factors.

Deutsch. M. (1960) Explains that the poor academic performance of the socially disadvantaged children is the cumulative results or a number of factor such as their personalities and interfering obstructing and handicapping factors in their school, house and the society. Rath. R. (1974) & Bernstein. B. (1961) proves that it is the lack of appropriate language skills on the part of these disadvantaged children that hinders their school success. Kapur. R.L. (1968) said that lack of relative response tendency is related to the failure of the disadvantaged children in learning situations. Bernstein Brenner U. (1958) suggest that academic competitiveness is a function of middle class up bringing but not of lower class upbringing.

Rao. S.N. (1963) maintains that academic achievement is a very important value cherished by the middle class. All this does not draw the attention of the lower class parents for there is no sufficient time and minimum orientations in this direction on the part played by the parents themselves. Studies made by Shaw. M.C. (1960) McCuen. J.R. (1960) Torrance. H.P. (1965) Coleman et.al (1966) & Vane J.R. (1966) & many others support the conditions that the pattern of academic achievement is set early.
Explaining and examining the main reasons for the failure of the disadvantaged pupils at school, Schreiber (1964), says that children from the disadvantage families have learning skills that have a quite different form from those required in the school.

Ausubel, D.P. (1967) elaborates that once the children were out of the step with their contemporaries they tended to lag behind.

Diryder, B. & Thomas K. (1972) tested the scholastic performance of children in a disadvantaged area. The sample consisted of 30 female and 30 male, and 8 to 9 years old children. They were administered a series of measures of cognitive ability and scholastic performance, when comparison were made with their non-disadvantaged counterparts which showed obviously poor performance achievement of the disadvantaged subjects of facts with a high verbal content.

Miller, K.S. & Dregree R.M. (1960) compared school achievement levels of the Negro & white in the United States and reported a generally lower level of achievement among negroes. Boykin L.L. (1965) Bullock H.A. (1950) they adjudicated that the typical Negro student fail to achieve unlike his white counterpart.

Lessigns (1969) study also supports the hypothesis that Negro children have lower levels of academic achievement than whites. And concludes that Negro children's intellectual and psychological handicapped interacts with each other and tend to increase the amount of deficit.
Farguben W.W. & Green R.L. (1965) experimented 748 Negro & Caucasian High School children in 11th grade of the verbal aptitude, academic motivation & academic achievement. They found out that except for the Negro Males the samples showed significant correlation between achievement and verbal aptitude. Negro males showed so such relationship. But, academic motivation tests correlated significantly with achievement for all the groups.

Rath. R. (1974) states that the disadvantaged pupils exhibit three general characteristics during their school career.

1) Progressive decline in intellectual functioning (2) cumulative academic achievement deficit and (3) Premature school termination or higher drop out rate. Miller J.C. (1968) identified 4 major classes of variables, namely personal style & Physical, cognitive, & motivational, are which disadvantaged children showed deficits in school performance when compared to children from the other groups.

When the socially disadvantaged & non-socially disadvantaged are compared, Singh. A.K. (1977) found socially disadvantaged groups was superior in academic achievement.

Allen V.L. (1970) Deutsch. M. (1960) found out that the academic achievement is found on the part of the socially/economically disadvantaged groups despite all efforts to provide them with equals, if not better facilities.
Usha Shree S. (1980) investigated on the various patterns of academic adjustment and corresponding scholastic achievement levels of the socially disadvantaged pupils, socially non-disadvantaged pupils were also examined to make the investigation more meaningful. A random samples of 300 socially disadvantaged (S.D.) and 300 socially nondisadvantaged (SND) boys enrolled in Xth class of several secondary schools in the four districts of Andhra Pradesh were used for the study. She found out that while there is no difference between the two groups in their mental abilities, the socially disadvantaged group was inferior in scholastic achievement and academic adjustment. Academic adjustment significantly influenced Scholastic achievement.

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