

Social Processes

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INTRODUCTION

Organised social life exists among species far removed from the human species but human beings teach one another as no other species does and they create quite diverse solutions to the common human problems of living. Learning and interaction play a large part in human behaviour (Homans, G.C. 1974; McGinnies, E. 1970).

Human beings have language. Through symbolic communication, human social-interaction takes on a complexity and significance that is not found among other species. Human beings can consciously relate present behaviour to past experience and project into the future. They differ throughout the world in the forms of behaviour. But in spite of the differences between Western and Eastern societies, and between advanced and pre-literate societies, certain common kinds of social interactions are observed. These common forms of social interaction are called "social processes". The social processes involve cooperation, competition, conflict, accommodation and assimilation. The systematic treatment of social processes by sociologists goes back to the work of Park, R. and Burgess, E. (1921) who studied social processes with an ecological model borrowed from the fields of animal and plant ecology, (Faris, E. 1937).

During the last two decades applied social psychologists have increasingly studied the

social influence process and the social interactional processes. Research in this field has concentrated on helping behaviour (Berkowitz, L. 1973), prosocial behaviour (Wispe, L.G. 1978), interpersonal attraction (Duck, S. 1977), impression management (Goffman, E. 1955), and manipulative social behaviour (Pandey, J. 1986). Social processes are not new to those who study human behaviour (Jone, E.E. 1964). Even prehistoric and primitive people of different cultures were concerned about the management of social processes.

In the field of education, social processes have gained significance in the area of teacher-pupil interaction, socialisation experience, ecological influence on interactive behaviour, acquisition of social attitudes, person perception, behaviour development and adjustment processes. Essentially, the social process starts when two or more people interact and interaction starts in a particular context leading to certain consequences or some event or other; while processes have been studied within the differential conceptual framework of sociology, psychology and education, the basic thrust remains on the process of interaction and change, whether one conceptualises it as social influence, social interaction or social process.

SCOPE AND PLAN

In India, research on social processes started virtually after the 1960s, and hardly any review

of research, either in psychology, sociology or education, has given any special attention to this aspect except that in the *Third Review of Research in Psychology* a chapter was devoted to Social Influence Processes with specific objectives (Pandey, J., 1988). Pandey, J. (1988) concentrated upon altruism and prosocial behaviour, cooperation and competition, interpersonal attraction, ingratiation, machiavellianism, etc., under the broad framework of the social influence process.

The present review is based on doctoral and M.Phil. level research work in the social process drawn from education, psychology, sociology, home science and related interdisciplinary areas, completed during 1988-92. Published articles and independent projects have also found a place but only when they were considered relevant to the central theme.

The organisation of the trend report has focused on the social processes with particular emphasis on:

- (i) Socio-cultural influence, personality and the adjustment process.
- (ii) Cooperative behaviour and correlates of social integration.
- (iii) Family environment, behaviour development, and social competence.
- (iv) Child-rearing practices, and social processes.
- (v) Role-conflict, role-perception, and communication process. and
- (vi) Extension activities and social interactional change.

As would be seen, the organisation and content outline of the chapter are variegated reflecting the diversity and interdisciplinary nature of research in the field. Since social processes have been included for the first time in a review there might be some overlap among the sections of the present review but this has been inevitable. To the extent possible studies have been categorised in the area of their major concern. An attempt has been made to provide

a research perspective and also educational implications based on the findings of the studies.

Socio-cultural Influence, Personality and Adjustment

The role of the socio-cultural disadvantage in influencing cognitive, perceptual, and language development has become a fertile area of investigation in recent years. The facilitating effect of upper SES (Socio economic Status), bracket on competence and, conversely, the adverse consequence of low SES have been well documented (Saraswathi, T.S. and Dutta, R. 1988) but the effect of socio-cultural influence on personality and adjustment, which are the end products of the socialisation experience and interactions, have not been researched seriously (Panda, K.C. 1993) from the point of view of social processing.

Socialisation, personality development, evolution of identity and impact of social change on personality have received considerable attention during the 1980's but a good deal of research still follows the psychoanalytic orientation. The concerns of Western psychology are still the current interests of Indian psychologists and educational researchers (Asthana, H.S. 1988). In the area of adjustment, the definition of "adjustment" itself has been an artifact of measurement; the tools used in the studies are self-reports and the analyses are invariably correlational, thus limiting the use of findings for application (Saraswathi, T.S. and Dutta, R. 1988).

Yadav, P.L. (1989) investigated the role of socio-economic status (SES) and cultural variation on anxiety, frustration, and neuroticism among high school students. An anxiety scale (Srivastava and Tiwari); a frustration scale (Chauhan and Tiwari), a neuroticism scale (Wig and Verma) and an SES scale (Saxena and Singh) of Yadav, P.L. (1989) were used. Variance analysis revealed that students belonging to high SES experienced anxiety and neuroticism when their scholastic

achievement was low compared to the low and the middle SES groups. Rural students who did better in the High School Examination experienced greater anxiety than did urban students, whereas urban failures have shown more frustration scores. Interaction effect between SES and cultural setting was observed. But low achievers, in general, experienced more anxiety, neuroticism and frustration than did high achievers. Achievement-level rather than SES or cultural setting appeared to be a more potent variable for personality adjustment. The cultural setting (rural-urban) and achievement-level did interact, e.g., highly successful rural children felt more anxious than did urban ones. No second-order interaction was seen. The study confirmed that success experience in academic activities is more crucial for a healthy personality adjustment. SES appeared to be a significant determinant of the personality and adjustment processes.

SES is considered as a major factor influencing social processes and interaction (Verma, B.P. and Nayak, R.L. 1990). Alienation of adolescents from rural ecology has been viewed against the background of social stratification (Verma, B.P. and Naik, R.L. 1990) by analysing the alienation of adolescents who were studying in Classes XI and XII in rural institutions. The alienation scale of Sharma and the SES scale developed by Koul (Verma, B.P. and Nayak, R.L. 1990) were used to measure the variables: alienation, meaninglessness, self-estrangement and powerlessness and the total alienation scores. In none of these dimensions was the effect of SES seen, which is quite surprising. This further raises doubts on the validity of the SES scale used in the study.

Ecology, social disadvantage and competence are often related. Sharma, S. (1990) examined the effect of socio-cultural disadvantage and sex on intelligence and cognitive style. It is believed that social interactional processes mediated through social disadvantage do account for variation in cognitive functioning. A series of

tests were administered to a group of 400 children selected randomly from 5 rural and 4 urban schools. The Prolonged Deprivation Scale (Mishra and Tripathy, 1977), the Culture-Fair Intelligence Scale of Cattell (1971), the Group-Embedded Figure Test (Witkin et al. 1971), the Aberdeen Academic Motivation Scale, the Level of Aspiration Test (Dwivedi 1973), the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (Spielberger 1970), the Insecurity-Security Scale (Pati 1976) and Self-Concept (Das 1971) were used (cf. Sharma, S. 1990). Socio-cultural disadvantage has adversely affected intelligence, academic motivation, level of aspiration and security through parental behaviour. Sex differences were observed in IQ, academic motivation, insecurity and academic achievements. But one thing was clear: with increasing deprivation there is decreased cognitive and non-cognitive competence. There is thus a need for rewarding culture at home and in school.

The personality and adjustment of middle school students (CA. 11-14) among themselves were analysed by Rather, A.R. (1990) in relation to SES, the sociometric relationship and the social structure of the school. The California test of personality, a sociometric test, and Rural and Urban SES scales were used to categorise students. The findings indicate a positive relationship between sociometric status and personality adjustment and significant sex difference in adjustment, the boys being less well adjusted than girls. However, lack of any observable relationship among other variables and/or differences among subgroups could be largely due to the uncontrolled sampling procedure and under-analysis of data.

Social competence as a function of residential area and SES were examined in a subsequent study (Thakur, M. 1991). Education of parents, age and sex of preschool children were also analysed as correlates of social competence. The preschool children were drawn from the tribal, rural and urban areas of Chattisgarh belonging to CA 30-36 months and

48-54 months, representing boys and girls equally. The Rochester Adaptive Behaviour Inventory (RABI), Preschool Form revised by Jones, (1981) were used, having 12 different components: cooperation with family, cooperation with others, friendship patterns, timidity in the school setting, fearfulness, activity level, demand for getting mother's attention, bizarre, depression, imaginary play, persistence and whinny behaviour. The SES scale (Kulsrestha 1987, cf. Thakur 1991) was administered to determine SES. It was observed that residential area, particularly urban setting, age, and sex have significant effects on social competence. The higher age-group and high SES had displayed greater social competence than their counterparts in the lower SES strata. Education of parents contributed substantially to social competence of preschool children.

Certain generalisations can be made even though studies in the area under review are quite limited. Social interactional processes are mediating processes between certain antecedent variables such as personality, alienation, and adjustment. Success experience has contributed greatly to positive adjustment. Socioeconomic Status effect was equivocal which may be due to the measure used and/or conscious awareness and use of free facilities available in recent years, in the form of incentives by low SES groups. Ecology and behaviour have significant relationships.

Cooperative Behaviour and Correlates of Social Integration

Cooperation v/s competition is a primary human experience for those who view social life in terms of sharing and mutual helpfulness. Competition is basic for those who emphasise acquisitiveness and aggression. But these two exist as reciprocal aspects of the same experience. Both cooperation and competition occur at personal, group and organisational levels. There have been several investigations in the field of social influence processes which indicate cooperative

interactions (Pandey, J. 1988).

Cooperative behaviour was studied in India and Canada by Carment, D.W. and Hodkin, B. (1973) who demonstrated that competitive motivations facilitate performance. Indians have been quite indifferent and less responsible in such interactions in the presence of others.

In a study (Rani, S. 1989) investigated the cooperative behaviour of girls (CA. 13-15) as a function of self-esteem, social power, and game strategy. Raven's Advanced Progressive Matrices, Coopersmith's self-esteem scale and Prisoner's Dilemma Game (PDG) (cf. Rani, S. 1989) were used. The results using 2 (High - Low self-esteem) x 3 (Education: VIII, IX, X) x 3 age (13, 14, 15) followed by Tukey's Multiple Comparison Test revealed that self-esteem did not have any significant role in cooperative choices but social power and game strategy did influence significantly cooperative choices among girls. In spite of being language-free, highly reliable and readily subject to statistical treatment, PDG is unrealistic on account of the possible responses available to the subjects and the absence of direct communication. Steiner, K.I.V. (1970) doubts its predictive validity too. The observed findings of Rani, S. (1989) have to be seen against this backdrop.

Social maturity, another dimension of cooperative behaviour, was examined in the context of pupil's sex, stream, and IQ, at higher secondary level by Mulia, R.D. (1991). Two hundred students from the science, 150 from the commerce and 150 from the arts streams were selected from 50 higher secondary schools in Ahmedabad using stratified randomised sampling procedure. The Social Maturity Scale of Vora (cf. Mulia, R.D. 1991) was used. Sex and stream independently did not influence social maturity but IQ did. IQ and stream did interact but in the absence of the stream main effect no firm generalisation can be made. However, social maturity played an important role in the process of socialisation.

Nayal, S. (1990) examined the correlates of

social integration (SI) among adolescents: social responsibility, morality, self-concept, sex, dwelling, type of school, class and academic discipline. 734 adolescents from Classes XI-XII were selected by the stratified random sampling procedure. The Social Integration Scale and the Social Responsibility Scale developed by the author and Bisht, the Moral Development Scale of Bisht et al. and the Self-Concept Scale (Nayal, S. 1990) were administered. Self-concept, moral development and social responsibility were significantly related to social integration scores. Social integration was seen more among students of government schools than among students of private schools. Public school girls had shown better social integration. Science students were better socially integrated than arts students. Urban males were superior in SI to rural males. Regarding social responsibility, females were better than males and arts were better than commerce. There was no rural-urban difference. Public schools, followed by government schools, were better socially responsible than private and semi-government schools. Regarding morality, girls were superior to boys; arts and science students were superior to those of commerce. The trend of results is in line with the social integration process. The study is conceptually and methodologically sound.

Leisure and leisure-time activities can contribute to cooperative social activities among school-children (CA. 12-14). Vora, D.P. (1990) investigated the facilities available for such activities in the school, family, and neighbourhood, and their efficacy. Data were collected from 500 schoolgoing children in Bombay with 10% guardians and the head of the school where children were studying. The concept of leisure was viewed in terms of relaxation, enjoyment and 'do nothing' or a 'blank period in school' or 'outside schoolroom activity' by students, teachers and guardians, respectively. A few, largely girls, who follow a regularly planned activity usually come from educated families but the activities are due to parental forces, peer group and sex-linked

characteristics. Schools do offer a variety of activities but they are not leisure activities as viewed by the students. Such activities should be coordinated if at all leisure can contribute to social adjustments.

Social power emerged as a potent variable in influencing cooperative choice and behaviour. Social maturity played an important role in socialisation, urbanisation, public schools, a feeling of social responsibility, moral development and self-concept were found to be correlates of the social integration process. There is a need to plan well-designed activities to enhance social adjustment among school-children during leisure.

Family Environment, Behaviour Development and Social Competence

Family environment refers to the climate prevailing in the home, which varies from culture to culture, society to society, family to family (Moos, R.H. and Moos, B.S. 1986). Studies on family environment have been done in terms of interpersonal relationship, personal growth, and system maintenance. Evidence indicates that family environment may be independence oriented, achievement oriented, moral-religious oriented, intellectual-cultural oriented, support oriented, conflict oriented, and disorganised families. All these have significant influence on the behaviour development and social competence of children. This is more or less a hidden curriculum that transmits a pattern of development through parent-child and child-child interactions in any culture (Moos R.H. and Moos, B.S. 1986). Indian studies reveal a relationship between the home environment and acquisition of social competence among children as well as desirable traits (Anandalakshmy, S. 1973). Social competence has been described in such studies in terms of assuming responsibility, self-reliance and achievement in an interacting situation. Social influences are transmitted in the family through diverse social realities which press upon

the child to decide his own preferences, traits and membership in groups.

Sharma, M. (1988) investigated the effect of the home environment of working and non-working mothers on the self-concept and several adjustment processes of children in Agra. Several tests such as: feeling of security test, youth problem inventory, parental acceptance-rejection test, socio-economic status scale, adjustment inventory (cf. Sharma, M. 1988) were used on 600 children. Children of working mothers have a greater feeling of rejection, more adjustment problems, health problems, and school adjustment, than children of non-working mothers. As regards feeling, family climate has a significant effect on home adjustment of adolescents.

Shah, B. (1989) assessed reliably the relationship between family climate and home adjustment in a more contrived situation by controlling SES, intelligence, age, sex and locality. The students (CA 14-17) were all of average intelligence and were matched for SES. The sample was drawn by using the multi-stage random sampling procedure. The Family Climate Scale, the SES scale and the Adjustment Inventory prepared by the author and the Intelligence Test prepared by Ahuja (cf. Shah, B., 1989) were used. The findings revealed that highly satisfactory home climate contributed to significantly better home adjustment of adolescents even after controlling intelligence and SES. But when sex-wise analysis was made, family climate failed to show any favourable influence on girls. For urban adolescents, family climate had a positive significant influence in home adjustments, particularly boys, but this was not so as regards their rural counterparts, both for boys and girls. When locality was controlled, urban boys profited more in adjustment due to favourable family climate than did rural boys and girls. Hence, family climate is a potent variable influencing adjustment processes at home, particularly for urban adolescents, irrespective of intelligence and SES.

The study conducted by Padhi, J. (1989) centered upon the problem of home environment, parent-child relationship and children's competence during adolescence. Analysis of 100 completed case studies revealed that the relationship of home environment, socio-economic status, socio-cultural stimulation and socio-psychological atmosphere at home had significant effect on mental development. Mothers more than fathers contributed significantly to the mental development of children. In disadvantaged homes, children experienced more parental rejection and withdrawal, and less parent-child adjustment. The positive self-concept of children was due to positive self-concept of peers and teachers. Extreme permissiveness did not promote development of competence in children. The findings are quite viable in terms of analysis.

Shukla, K. (1992) studied social competence of children as a function of parental behaviour and peer interaction among different cultural groups. 150 families from high SES and 150 families from low SES were selected, with both parents living and each family having at least one son and one daughter. Thirty orphans were also included in the study. Social competence, parental acceptability, parental authority, peer interaction, and SES were measured using self-developed as well as standardised scales (cf. Shukla, K. 1992). The major findings of this study were: parental authority, peer interaction and SES have a significant effect on the social competence of children but parental acceptability and sex main effects were not significant. This was true for both boys and girls of the higher SES group compared to the lower SES groups. Pro-social attitudes, social competition, social tolerance, social leadership, and social maturity are the major components of social competence. Parental acceptance has been estimated to be the most significant predicting factor of social competence in the multiple regression analysis. Next is parental authority. These findings only corroborate those of Western studies (Moos, R.H. and Moos, B.S. 1986).

Desai, M. (1991) analysed the traditional and changing norms of the institution of family with reference to social ecology, family norms, socialisation and protecting individual rights, and through the workshop method arrived at a curriculum on family and social ecology in India, with detailed curriculum content and method of teaching and evaluation. In two subsequent workshops, Desai, M. (1991b) a curriculum design on family, ecology and policies in India with details of content were developed about family and interventions (Desai, M. 1991c). These documents advocated ecological principles in family intervention, family ecology, family dynamics, family counselling, family therapy, violence, marital adjustment, family conflict and several aspects of family-life education. This is unique in its approach as regard curriculum development in family-life education.

Studies in this section pointed out that a highly satisfactory home environment is conducive to social adjustment among adolescents even after controlling the factors of SES and IQ. Rural/Urban differences were also observed, particularly in urban boys being better adjusted in satisfactory home environment. Correlates of social competence were also identified. Save for certain differences specific to Indian culture, the rest of the observations are confirmatory of family-environment research conducted in the West. A significant departure of findings in this section from traditional reporting is the development of family-life education curriculum which has greater relevance for our culture.

Child-rearing Practices and Socialisation Process

The study of child-rearing practices and their consequences on personality development has concentrated also on social class and rural-urban differences in relation to certain selected behaviour development variables or stable personality dispositions. Theorising has remained essentially within the psychoanalytic

framework instead of the social learning and the social process framework.

An examination of the studies available in the area indicate the role of educated mothers and working mothers on child-rearing. Educated mothers encouraged vocalisation and suppressed aggression; permitted more independence and indicated greater use of systematic reward and punishment (Rai, G.C. 1979); interacted more with their children in rural and urban areas (Singh, M.B. and Kaur, S. 1981); and working mothers from upper middle-class families showed more approval of comradeship and sharing with their children. Firm and consistent discipline, both at home and at school, seems to be promoting social competence and behaviour patterns in school-age children (Sharma, P.; Saraswathi, T.S. and Gir, S. 1981).

Ronald, A. (1980) stated that in contrast to the Western emphasis on individualism and personal authority, the Indian culture stresses symbiotic modes of relating, but Ronald ignores the inner processes central to psychic conflict and the development of object relations central to the psychosexual development framework.

Child-rearing practices vary in ethnic groups and in different ecological settings. In the study done by Mathew, A. (1988), such practices adopted by Hindu fathers remaining in rural and urban set-up were examined. It seems that the author has studied several tangential aspects of family life such as: age at marriage, consanguineous marriages, early marriage, celebration of menarche, etc., not quite related to child-rearing practices. In certain cases, however, it was found that weaning takes longer in the case of rural mothers; supplementary feeding of their children differs between rural and urban mothers; and urban mothers control their children more than do rural mothers. Language training, independence training, and exploratory behaviour receive little importance. Educated mothers have higher ambitions for their children. The conclusions could have been

more clear-cut had the author concentrated on child-rearing practices than on independent variables.

Child-rearing practices prevalent in a southern state were the focus in the study by Kusuma, A. (1988) in relation to: (a) sub-cultural groups, i.e., traditional and transitional *Sugalis*, (b) the economic status and education of the mother and age of child in both the subcultural groups. Fifty families from each of the groups were interviewed, each family having children in the 0-5 age-group, on general background, marriage and family and child-rearing practices. The findings of the study did establish subcultural variations in child-rearing practices, e.g., cleaning teeth, toilet training, bathing, combing hair and aspiration levels. Transitional *Sugalis* are more civilised and clean and have higher level of aspiration as compared to traditional *Sugalis*. Other variables did not have any significant effect on child-rearing practices of either group.

Helplessness is a related variable, like anomie or powerlessness or dependency which develops among children due to differential child-rearing practices or what is essentially a mother-child interaction process. Das, J. (1990) examined the mother's child-rearing practice and socialisation emphasis on the development of children's learned helplessness. The author formulated hypotheses regarding the effect of mother's expectancies, autonomy for their children, achievement-oriented rearing practices, responsibility training, positive perception, etc., on children's helplessness behaviour using 120 rural and 120 urban children from Classes IX and X (CA 13-15). The mothers of 30 children from upper extreme and lower extreme scores on helplessness were selected from four sub-groups varying in urban-rural and sex for participation in phase II of the study. Children's Helplessness Questionnaire (Sahoo 1985), Behavioural Measure of Helplessness (Feather 1961), Socialisation Questionnaire (Sahoo 1986) (cf. author) were used. The study revealed

significant findings. There is a consistent pattern of higher expectancies of girl's mothers compared to mother's expectation of boys. With increasing helplessness of children, urban mothers lowered their acceptability of their children. Urban mothers are more tolerant of their children's deviations compared to mothers of helpless children. Mothers of mastery-oriented children are found to report greater assurance whereas mothers of helpless children are found to indicate greater self-realisation. The design and analysis validate the generalisations substantially.

Devgan, P. (1990) studied the child-rearing practices (CRP) of educated parents and prepared suitable guidelines of desirable CRP. Two hundred parents of average, high and low education groups were studied using child-rearing practices scale and the parent-child relationship test of Tiwari, (cf. Devgan, P. 1990). Contrary to expectation no significant differences in child-rearing practices and education of parents were found. The education level of parents was only related to the child's reading ability. It is believed that contrary findings are due to inappropriate use of X^2 in data analysis. The study needed a more robust analysis to reflect differences in interaction processes.

In summary, child-rearing practices in terms of setting achievement level, higher aspirations, and control are related to the education of mothers and urbanisation. Mothers in the transitional stage towards acculturation and modernisation also appear more concerned for better upbringing of children. The tendency in the limited studies indicates more of social leaning and socio-cultural developmental influence than earlier psychoanalytic orientations in spite of the methodological deficiencies in the studies reviewed.

Education, Social Change and Mobility

The school is a unique social institution having a social life of distinctive values and interests centering upon large and important social

concerns and associated with distinctive patterns of social interaction. It has a specific role besides scholastics—the role of shaping of behaviour in terms of social norms and roles (Parsons, T. 1959). The teacher-pupil relationship is a form of institutionalised dominance and subordination. Teachers and pupils confront each other in the school with an original conflict of desires and it remains in one form or other. These are modified and/or accentuated through intervening social processes between the two and the children by and large develop desirable habits and behaviours. The culture of the schools in any social system can be seen to have regulative, instrumental and directive roles (Dahlke, H.O. 1958) which produce both achievers and non-achievers.

The Indian Education Commission (1964-66) has emphasised education as an instrument of social change and any major change in society is likely to include education. Research has shown that education sometimes acts as an impediment to social change, and when education does cause change, its influence is often complex and very subtle. On the other hand, education is related to all facets of the social structure. Paradoxically, the educational system can concurrently function both to preserve and modify all aspects of social structure. It is, therefore, extremely difficult to analyse the precise relationship between the two.

Education as an agency of change, a means for development, modernisation, social mobility, and its several other aspects have been dealt with in the further survey of research in education (NCERT 1992). But in the present review, the section finds a separate identity because of the process which contributes to social change and change in the individual. The National Policy on Education (1986; 1992) has also laid great stress on the process of education.

Ghosh, B. (1990) reflected upon education and social change in India with reference to the

relevance of present-day education. Education brings about social transformation through various social processes and interactions. The two objectives entertained by the author were the relationship between education and society; and the changes taking place in education vs. the social system. The opinion of 100 primary teachers selected randomly from different institutions and using a questionnaire and personal interview formed the basis of generalisations. The author observed constraints in primary education in terms of facilities, irrelevance of curriculum, and colonial legacy. In short, he opined that the educational system did not correspond to the social demands but the study suffers from serious methodological deficiencies in terms of restricted sampling, questionnaire content and data analysis.

Sinha, C.S.P. (1988) investigated the process of improving education and thereby bringing about development but no clear-cut contribution has been stated. Ruhela, S.P. (1990) in a review of studies on social change had attempted to bring out their implications on education. The author casts serious doubts on the exercises based on NPE and asserts that it is based on a banking model of education rather than on a realistic scenario for which a plea has been made in terms of future demands of Indian society. This has been an anchoring point for many but concrete and crystalised thinking are lacking in the study.

The perception of 125 teachers, 50 administrators and 125 guardians were analysed by Varandani, K. (1992) in a self-developed questionnaire about NPE, 1986; the analysis revealed positive perception on various dimensions of the policy but nothing unique has been found.

Education and modernisation are positively related and female college students are more modernised than males (Toshniwal, S.R. 1991) irrespective of the faculty to which they belong. Social and occupational mobility among 150 educated persons from Patna were analysed.

80% of educated persons have changed their caste professions and the shift is predominantly in the upward direction. This was attributed to educational attainment but the generalisation is difficult to accept because of poor sampling and analysis procedure.

Education contributes to social mobility. Mujoo, R.K. (1992) studied the socio-economic profile of the recipients of higher education in J & K, the inter-generational and intra-generational occupational mobility trends. The cases of 17% of higher secondary graduates in 1957 and 1967 were analysed using a social mobility questionnaire developed by the author. The outflow analysis of mobility tables and path analysis of background factors in educational attainment revealed that higher education was dominated by Hindu men of urban middle classes and less by women and the weaker section of the community. Families are shifting to government service from all other occupations. The path analysis did not reveal any predictable outcome with social mobility. Caste, religion, rural/urban residence, and family size affect completion of higher secondary education. Provision of free higher education need not lead to the social and economic mobility of the weaker sections. Though fairly descriptive, it is quite relevant.

Only six studies have been reported on this topic during the period under review and these have very little to contribute that can be said to be as original or new in spite of methodological shortfalls in sampling (Ghosh, B. 1990; Toshniwal, S.R. 1991) and poor content analysis (Sinha, C.S.P. 1988.; Ruhela, S.P. 1990).

Role Conflict, Role Perception and Communication Process

Role conflict, role perception and the communication process constitute another dimension of the social process. In the present-day society of stress and strain, role strain and the communication gap are the greatest impediments to effective social processing (Kahn,

R.L. 1973; Cohen, S. 1980). Conflict is one of the major dimensions of the social process, with high social cost. It arises only in ambiguous situations or where role perception and role expectations are incongruent thus raising problems of communication and feeling of burnout (Mishra, K.N. and Panda, K.C. 1992). The concept of social interaction and social process are implicit both in social life and in communication. Interactive situations are as variable as human behaviour itself. The educational setting provides wider scope for understanding the role perception, conflict and communication activities even though the studies reviewed in this section are limited to only two.

Role performance and role expectations of the teachers were perceived by people of different strata in society. Using a multistage random sampling technique, 1,055 respondents were selected in Tamilnadu State. Teacher perception was studied by means of a questionnaire developed by the author, Pazhaniswami, D. (1989). There was no difference between urban and rural people in their perception of teaching; professional groups perceived teachers differentially; and age difference failed to show clear-cut perceptual difference. Income, religion, community, did not influence perception of teacher's role performance. As regards role expectations, there was no rural-urban or religion, sex, community-decisions difference, but age, profession, and educational level did influence differential perception.

In general, society has a favourable perception of the teacher's role performance. Role expectation is always higher than role performance, as society expects more from teachers.

Role conflict was examined among secondary school women teachers in relation to their age, marital status, morale, and modernity (Kumari, L.R. 1991). Role conflict was analysed in terms of personal role conflict, interpersonal role conflict, domestic role conflict, and occupational

role conflict. Two hundred women teachers, drawn equally from south and north Bangalore, served as the subjects. An occupational and domestic role conflict scale (Sudha et al. 1988) and a modernisation scale (Raghavendra et al. 1979) (cf. Kumari, L.R. 1991) were used in the study. The results were analysed using ANOVA for any two variables at a time and the findings were: age difference did not produce variation in any of the role conflict measures: married teachers had more of role conflicts at the personal, interpersonal and domestic fronts; low morale and less modernised teachers expressed role conflict at all levels. None of the interactions was significant on a very crucial dimension of the social process, i.e., role conflict and its antecedents. Restricting ANOVA to two variables at a stage is responsible for underanalysis of data. However, as only main effects are significant, the findings are to be interpreted with caution.

The perception of teachers' role performance was different among different professional groups. But no other significant variation occurred in either the role performance or the role expectation of teachers. Married teachers experienced role conflict at different levels: personal, interpersonal, domestic. This was also true with teachers having low morale and modernity. The studies are so limited in number that no firm generalisation can be made. Further research is necessary.

Extension Activities and Social Interactional Change

Extension activities and programmes are avenues through which social interactional changes have their genesis and development. In fact, extension education is an area of study, research, and development in any society, developed or underdeveloped, although in the case of the latter it has a wider significance. There is no definite operational limitation to which an extension programme can address itself. It ranges from rural development, mass

education, home science and management to any kind of social change process (Homans, G.C. 1974; McGinnies, E. 1970). As such, these studies come under the broad umbrella of social processes.

Kar, L.N. (1989) examined the socio-economic impact of extension service programmes which are considered as a breakthrough in the village life in Orissa using the benchmark survey, resource inventory and interview method. Action research and intervention had led people in the villages to change their major occupation of farming; had developed higher aspiration for better living; had established harmony between caste Hindus and SC; and had reduced class conflict. Lack of technological information in the villages is against development. These improvements make the extension education programme viable and effective.

The attitudes of youth towards the dowry system were examined from the point of view of gender, locality, and marital status. Using the Likert procedure, no difference was found between sex and marital status groups. Only urban youth had unfavourable attitudes (Nirmala, M. 1990). The sampling and analysis procedure in this study are well spelled out to warrant the finding.

Seth, I. (1990) conducted a feedback study, on the implementation of the community singing programme organised by the NCERT through teachers in schools. The findings, based on 52% of trained teachers revealed that 47% were working as music teachers; only one-third of the teachers gave time to community singing daily; nearly 45% teachers did not go to other schools to teach songs. Merely training teachers may not ensure the programme's implementation, although the scheme is quite viable for initiating social and emotional integration.

Music has been viewed as a process for cultural change and therefore a need was felt to select those music slots for *Vedic*, *post-Vedic*, *granths* and *Mahakavyas* for bringing about

cultural evolution in contemporary society to ensure a cultural education for better living and interaction. Content analysis indicated the relevance of music for cultural processing (Shree, R. 1992).

The linguistic, ethnic, cultural, and religious plurality of India is its strength as well as weakness. There is also a danger of social disintegration and conflicts. The nation demands an effective intervention before we reach the end of the precipice (Singh, A.K. 1985). Disappointingly there is no scientific planned social policy to guide and improve inter-group relations in the country. Accommodation is necessary and is part of social processes.

Accommodation refers to several sorts of working agreements between rival groups that permit at least limited cooperation between them even though the issues dividing them remain unsettled. It does not technically end the conflict but keeps it in abeyance. Such working agreements are truce, compromise, arbitration, super-ordination arrangements, and toleration. Assimilation is the process whereby group differences gradually disappear (Gordon, M.M. 1964).

The political participation of students was examined in the context of the SES and educational experience, political orientation and participation in communication of views on certain issues (Rao, S.K.P. 1987). Nearly 66% of the students (N=250 university-level) were active, those who belong to politically affiliated organisations. Students from rural poverty and agriculture backgrounds did not want political participation. The majority of the students went with the values of the general group than with their own values. The academic atmosphere of the university suppressed political participation of students. The conceptual background of the study is quite relevant but the tools used were quite weak.

The concept and practice of secularism among college students residing in hostels was examined in a study by Verma, S.L. (1988). Data

were collected using three open-ended questions and focused interviews. Students have a fair concept of secularism and they did not show consciousness of their caste, religion or income. Their attitudes towards minorities are favourable. Some of them did not have faith in worship except as a means for morality.

In India, secularism has been accepted as a political necessity (Tyabju, B. 1965). Next to religion, caste and tribe are another important basis of social stratification in Indian society. But there is an increasing realisation that caste and ethnicity *per se* are less important than economic conditions.

Oommen, T.K. (1984) observes, "Although for most of the studies undertaken by sociologists, caste is still an important spiritual criterion for identifying and determining the stratification system the necessity of understanding agrarian change in terms of socioeconomic indices which is not limited only to an analysis of the caste system is increasingly recognised" (p.47).

Social class differences, indicating lower SES to be more aggressive, have been reported by researchers (Verma, M. 1979). Low SES children show more of aggression than high SES children. Evidence supportive of social learning of aggression comes from a study of Punetha, D. (1981). Lambert, W.W. (1981) studied six cultures and emphasised "the cross-cultural integrative theory of child's aggression".

In the Indian subcontinent, Khare, A. (1992) analysed caste prejudice and aggression among High Castes (HC) and Scheduled Castes (SC) students in Lucknow. In addition to the status quo, an attempt was made to reduce caste prejudice towards HC in the Scheduled Castes and consequent effects of reduction in prejudice on aggression were observed. The verbal conditioning technique was used to reduce caste prejudice and consequent aggression of SC on HC. The sampling was purposive. Higher secondary students in Lucknow city were chosen. 30 high prejudiced subjects were selected from a sample of 189 students using a

rating scale. An aggression apparatus similar to the Bush Aggression machine was developed. Standard verbal conditioning procedure was followed. The SC possessed moderate level of prejudice towards the HC—Brahmins, Kshatriyas, Vaishyas—the highest being towards Brahmins and Vaishyas. High prejudiced SC showed maximum aggression towards Brahmins but lowest aggression towards Kshatriyas. Aggression was reduced as a consequence of reduction in prejudices and maximum reduction in aggression was observed for Brahmins and minimum for Kshatriyas.

There are only a few studies on the development of ethnic identities and prejudices in India and elsewhere; these have revealed that ethnic identities and prejudices develop in early childhood. The minority status increases ethnic identities. Ethnic identities and prejudices are greatly influenced by parents through the style of child-rearing practices (Singh, A.K. 1988).

Research in India has demonstrated the early emergence of caste and religion's identities in this country as early as the age 4-5 years, or even earlier, and they crystallise and become full-blown by adolescence. This is not peculiar to India. Western research has also accepted this form of generalisation. These are not original findings. They are validations of earlier known facts. "They have indicted a social policy implication for interaction programme for developing national identity and secularisation which has to be done before anything is hardened" (Singh, A.K. 1988).

A PERSPECTIVE OF RESEARCH ON SOCIAL PROCESS

A review of earlier research in education (Buch, M.B. 1991) did not focus on social process research as a distinct area of concern. In this review an attempt was made to pick out and put together research relevant to the social process. While doing so a feeling emerged and which has been flown through the review that the

conceptual framework of "Social Process" has not been clear enough to researchers in education to enable them to focus their work on the central theme.

Social processes are to be considered as basic social psychological processes which mediate individual and social change. Most of the studies did not address this central theme although they did work on social, interactional and influence processes. There is very little concern in the present set of research studies with the ecological context.

The deviant social processes have not attracted the attention of Indian researchers much, particularly the conditions of their origin, development, and persistence. One knows very little even after searching the review of studies reported here. These raise, therefore, the question of the relevance and social accountability of social process research. It is true that, in the field of education, research on social process suffers from a deficient profile, conceptually and methodologically.

The need for evaluative research on the social change process as a consequence of the extension programme is felt more and more in terms of social policy and programmatic research rather than individual, piecemeal or slipshod attempts characteristic of doctoral or M.Phil. level works. Institutionalisation of research is necessary in this field, particularly when the society is in a developing stage.

Further, social process research should be culture-specific and there should be a blending of descriptive and experimental, qualitative and quantitative research data (and not one or the other only) so that the findings can be made applicable. Above all, an ecological perspective is necessary depending upon the type of social process to be investigated (Parkes, R.D. and Asher, B.R. 1983). Even that is not enough; a social policy for sponsoring research is necessary. Serpell, R. (1982) has suggested that psycho-educational research in the Third World countries should pay more attention than it has

in the past to studying the social process, and, for that matter, any social research. Practically all areas in social process research have gaps in information which need more concerted and systematic attempts.

Methodologically, the status of research in quite discouraging. A large number of researches have focused largely on self-developed checklists, Likert-type ratings and interviews, without much rigour and sophistication regarding psychometric yardsticks. Even at the data-analysis stage of the Ph.D. works, analysis in most cases has not gone beyond percentage, t , X^2 , and consultation, or, at best, simple factorial analysis of variance when the data warrant multivariate analysis, thus leading to spurious and equivocal generalisations.

Further, analyses of the research designs used indicate a preponderance of descriptive studies with little effort to move to an explanatory level. Even in descriptive studies the crucial process and mediating variables are teased out. Future research should concentrate on improvement of design and analysis procedures as well as clearly explicating the variables studied operationally. Even in the present section, studies have interpreted the main effects very elaborately when interactions are not significant, which is not desirable in a multivariate study. All these add to the poor status of educational research in our country.

Further, educational research on the social process needs to concentrate on: development of cooperation vs. competition, the accommodation and assimilation process, conflict resolution and socialisation, socio-cultural influences, ecological variations influencing interactional processes and adjustment in school and family, engineering extension activities to bring about desirable individual and social change, manipulative social behaviour, person perception and, more so, development of healthy attitudes and resolution of social tension and ethnic prejudices, and contributing to social integration. An ecological

analysis is always imperative because of the developing nature of our society and the complexity of our culture and traditions.

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

The present review of research on social process is not only useful to researchers in terms of future research but the findings have application to classroom practices, organisational management in schools, behaviour change and educational policy oriented programmes.

The basic premise that is accepted here is that social processes are interactional and through interaction, characteristics of children, individually and in the group, develop and change. Hence, the findings have implications for parents, teachers and society at large.

There is a need for parents and teachers to promote social interaction in a permissive, healthy climate, with acceptance as well as authority, which will offset cultural disadvantage to a larger extent. This is more necessary for low SES and rural children.

Behaviour development can be engineered through social learning and socialisation practices, manipulation, cooperative behaviour among peer groups, developing self-concept, and reducing conflict and insecurity and ethnic prejudices. Effort on the part of teachers is necessary to promote group behaviours in the classroom.

One of the implications that emerges is that the family-life education curriculum can be integrated into the teacher education programme at the preschool level since preschool teachers' responsibilities are quite important and/or into extension activities. Extension programmes can be planned in a more systematic manner so that social change processes could be cultivated more effectively in the school and the family. In fact, education should not be treated in isolation.

Pupils have to accommodate and assimilate several behaviours and characteristics, and research tells the teacher that for proper

planning even leisure-time activities, cooperative play and their own classroom interactions should be more pupil oriented than teacher oriented as per the new thrust of the policy.

Extension programmes meant for teachers/parents need to emphasise more of environmental stimulation, mother's education, conflict resolution strategies, building cooperative attitudes, modernisation, and pro-social behaviour among children.

Teachers ought to perceive their role in the context of the process of education as envisaged in the policy and to perform according to expectations of the society. These implications are based on the researches reported in this section and on earlier researches in the area. There has been little research, however, of substantive aspects of teacher education that could be used in re-directing it (Promkasetrin, P. 1994). The will to change and the quality of teachers are crucial in any effort to reorient education (Vajrabhaya, C. 1994).

CONCLUSION

The chapter provides a critical review of social process research in education and allied disciplines. It is true that only 36 studies have been reported, covering as many as seven different areas or issues during the span of five years (1988-92). The state of art, therefore, is not quite promising. Yet in spite of the meagre number, conceptual vagueness, methodological shortfalls, these researches conducted at the doctoral and the M.Phil levels, including independent studies, did reveal the extensiveness of the areas covered and also certain salient generalisations relating to socio-cultural factors and behaviour development; ecology and behaviour; child-rearing processes; and various social issues related to social processes. There is a need for creative and indigenous research in the area as well as studies of relevance to the Indian subcultural groups, classrooms, family and society. A perspective of research has been suggested along

with educational implications.

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