CHAPTER - 2

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

The review of related studies is essential for several reasons. It helps in identifying the unanswered questions in the concerned field on the one hand and in locating the specific issues, which require immediate and pointed attack by the investigator on the other. This implies synthesizing and going into the works or researches that have already being done in the field over a period of time. This helps an investigator in knowing how to tackle his own problem and avoiding the risk involved in duplication of research. Besides, it gives an understanding of problems related to this field. Essentially, review of related literature economizes time and energy of the investigator. According to C.V. Good, the survey of related literature may provide guiding hypotheses, suggestive methods of investigation and comparative data for interpretive purposes. Sometimes textbooks and subjective critique of a problem area provide important insights and hypotheses that may have a place in the summary of the related literature. The present investigator is not the first to work in this field, but he is trying to add one grain in the vast field of educational research. It is presumed that the survey of related studies will make the present investigation more direct and to the point.

The review of related literature provides a clear picture of the study to be taken as a pre-requisite to the proper planning of the problem and conducting the research. The review of the past investigations in a particular field serves as a guide to the investigator as it helps her to avoid duplication of the work already done in that area. The knowledge that what has already been done in the area of researches regarding the methods used for data gathering and the results of their analysis, keeps the investigator systematic in his/her own endeavour. According to John W. Best (1977), “Practically all human knowledge can be found in books and libraries. Unlike other animals that must start a new with each generation, man builds upon the accumulated and recorded knowledge of the past. Her constant adding to the vast store of knowledge makes possible progress in all area of human endeavour.”

In the present research, the investigator has scanned most of the relevant and reported studies done in India and abroad in the field of Academic Cheating, Home Environment,
Emotional Maturity and Peer Pressure pertaining not only to the senior secondary students, but to the students of all educational levels. Therefore, in order to prepare a base for defining the problem precisely, for making interpretation of data meaningful and for making comparisons among similar studies, the investigator studied the related literature extensively. On the basis of the review collected from different sources, the investigator divided the whole review into four parts:

2.1 Studies related to Academic Cheating
2.2 Studies related to Home Environment
2.3 Studies related to Emotional Maturity
2.4 Studies related to Peer Pressure

2.1 STUDIES RELATED TO ACADEMIC CHEATING

Evans, Craig and Mietzel (1993) studied cheating perceptions of urban secondary school students in West Germany, the United States and Costa Rica. It was found that Germany students showed strong differences in cheating perceptions from both United States and Costa Rican students. The differences occurred in cheating problem perceptions, critical attributes of cheating, casual factors in cheating and beliefs about effective ways to control cheating, although there were some similarities across all three countries. The differences in results between countries were interpreted as due to differences in competitive and co-operation reward structure in the education systems. The German system played greater emphasis on co-operation to achieve rather than personal effort to achieve as in the United States system.

Innerst (1995) asserted that a small percentage of students will consistently try to cheat, and a small percentage of students would never think of cheating. This leaves a large group of students in the middle who could go either way; the culture of the campus can help sway their decisions. The majority of students will choose not to cheat because of the guilty feeling they would experience, not because of the fear of being caught. Studies on cheating show that, although cheating is on the rise overall, schools that have honor codes experience less cheating.
Diekhoff et al. (1996) surveyed 474 university students to (i) evaluate the extent of cheating; (ii) assess attitudes towards cheating; (iii) identify variables that discriminate between cheaters and non-cheaters; (iv) assess the relative effectiveness of various deterrents to cheating; and (5) examine changes in cheating attitudes and behaviors from 1984 to 1994. Cheating trend increased during these years of the study. Students who cheated were less likely to neutralize (rationalize) their cheating in later years than the students who reported cheating in early years of the study. As compared to non-cheaters, cheaters were (i) less mature; (ii) less reactive to observed cheating; (iii) less deterred by social stigma and guilt and more likely to neutralize cheating; (iv) less personally invested in their education; and (v) more likely to be receiving scholarships, but doing less well in school. Both cheaters and non-cheaters rated embarrassment and fear of punishment as the strongest deterrents to cheating; disapproval of one's friends was ranked as the least effective deterrent by both groups.

Godfrey and Waugh (1998) studied literature on academic dishonesty and found that cheating is practiced by most of the students at all levels of schooling. The incidence of cheating in school varied from 40% in the upper primary years of schooling to nearly 80% in the later years of secondary school. Students studying in religious also had knowledge about cheating and had involvement in less serious cheating practices. Secondary pupils had engaged themselves in most of the types of cheating behavior at least once in their schooling.

Pulvers and George (1999) examined the relationship between college classroom environment, Academic Cheating, and the neutralization of Academic Cheating. Three CUCEI scales were identified that discriminated significantly between admitted cheaters and non-cheaters. Cheaters described their classes as significantly less personalized, satisfying, and task oriented than did non-cheaters. Together, the seven scales of the CUCEI explained 4% of the variance in cheating behavior. Six CUCEI scales were found to be correlated significantly with a measure of cheating neturalization. Specifically, neutralization increased with decrease in perceived classroom personalization, involvement, student cohensiveness, satisfaction, task orientation, and individualization. Together, the seven scales of the CUCEI explained 14% of the variance in neutralization.
It is concluded that classroom environment is a significant situational variable in academic dishonesty, as both cheating behavior and attitudes toward cheating are related to perceptions of classroom environment.

**Lupton, Chapman and Weiss (2000)** discussed business students attitudes, perceptions, and tendencies toward academic dishonesty. The study explored that student cheating presents two obvious problems at the institutional level. Firstly, it threatens the equity and efficacy of instructional measurement, so that students relative abilities are not accurately evaluated; and secondly, students who cheat probably reduce their level of learning so they are less prepared for advanced study or application of the material presented in a course. At the broader, societal level, it is likely that students who do not respect academic integrity while at university will not respect integrity in their future professional and personal relationship.

**Taylor et al. (2002)** studied the cheating behavior of elite high school students through interview responses from students who were considered to be in the top 10% of their class. Students reported their involvement in academic dishonesty and tried to justify their dishonest behaviour giving reasons like pressure from competition for class rank, parental pressure. It was also examined that high aptitude students and the pressure to succeed are related to academic dishonesty. The pressure, high achievers experience in highly competitive environments, was a primary reason many of the students stated for engaging in dishonest academic behavior.

**Newberger (2003)** concluded that when learning is most highly valued, there is little incentive to cheat. When graders matter most, cheating rises. Grading pressure is generated by the culture and personified by many parents. Collaborative Academic Cheating is, in its way, an odd expression of altruism among adolescents at the same time it is a deceitful breaking of rules.

**Alam (2004)** studied whether plagiarism is more prevalent in some forms of assessment than others. The rank order shows majority of the students admitted to cheating in programming assignments, ahead of essay type assignments. Third rank goes to analysis and design assignments and final rank is given to group projects and laboratory work.
Conradson & Pedro (2004) studied computers, the internet, and cheating among secondary school students: Some implications for educators. This article investigates in greater depth one particular aspect of cheating within secondary education and some implications for measuring academic achievement. More specifically, it examines how secondary students exploit the Internet for plagiarizing schoolwork, and looks at how a traditional method of educational assessment, namely paper-based report and essay writing, has been impacted by the growth of Internet usage and the proliferation of computer skills among secondary school students. One of the conclusions is that students’ technology fluency is forcing educators to revisit conventional assessment methods. Different options for combating Internet plagiarism are presented, and some software tools as well as non-technology solutions are evaluated in light of the problems brought about by cyber plagiarism.

Brown (2005) investigated academic dishonesty among business students at public and private universities in U.S. and found that academic dishonesty occurs at alarmingly high rates on the nation’s campuses. Furthermore, there is evidence that rates have tended to increase over time. While the relationship between time and the reported level of dishonesty is not perfect, the general trend has been upward.

Passow et al. (2006) conducted a survey on 643 engineering students about their decision to cheat by type of assessment. In this study, socio-economic status as independent variable was found having negative correlation with frequency of cheating in exams as well as frequency of cheating in homework.

Harding et al. (2007) presented a report that cheating in both high school and college has been commonplace for decades and that cheating in a rational behavior that is under the complete control of the individual. The research found that moral obligation, attitude toward cheating and subjective norms are the three dominant factors that influence an individual’s intention to cheat.

Karim, Zamzuri and Nor (2009) studied the relationship between unethical internet variable (i.e. misuse, plagiarism, fraudulence, and falsification) and big five personality factors. The research revealed significant results that individuals with high levels of
agreeableness were less likely to engage in fraudulent behavior, plagiarism, and misuse. They also found that students who have higher scores of neuroticism were more likely to engage in plagiarism.

**Gallagher (2010)** examined academic integrity and personality on 210 participants from psychology classes at California State University. The study found that 86% of participants admitted to cheating at least once within the past year. This percentage is high keeping in view that cheating behaviours are often under-reported by students. Academic Dishonesty was found related to many of the personality variables. Those who reported higher levels of academic dishonesty also had high levels of neuroticism and openness. However, academic dishonesty and social desirability were significantly related to inverse relationship. Those who reported lower levels of cheating also reported a greater need for approval (social desirability). Higher levels of openness and lower levels of perception (that cheating is serious) and self-control predict greater academic dishonesty. Students who cheat frequently are more neurotic, open to experience, and depressed. Additionally, these students have more situational-based anxiety and have a greater need for approval (social desirability). Cheaters also have less self-control and more apt to report rationalizations about their behavior (seriousness of cheating). It is clear that a number of aspects can contribute to cheating behavior. Students initially perceive cheating as wrong, but justify the behavior in order to preserve their self-worth. They are attempting to release internal tension and increase self-perception in a maladaptive manner.

**Khan and Khan (2011)** investigated an association between socio-economic status of students and malpractices used in secondary school certificate examination. The investigator found significant relationship between student education level, and siblings and cheating in examination. However, other variables namely; students age, their father’s education and occupation, parents’ income level, their mother’s education and status, number of average self-study per day, and tuition facility at home showed no relationship with cheating in the examination.

**Donse and Groep (2012)** studied academic dishonesty among college students: Predictors and interventions. Academic dishonesty among college students for the most
part manifests itself through several forms of cheating. This behavior poses a substantial threat to the academic integrity of institutions of higher learning, as well as to the proper development of students academic skills, because it undermines the learning process. Nevertheless, it is a common phenomenon. Three categories of predictors have been identified: demographic, individual and contextual variables. The strongest predictors seem to be peer influence and the way academic dishonesty is emphasized by universities, so interventions should mainly be aimed at these factors. Nevertheless, all predictors can in some way be used in interventions to change academic dishonesty. Concerning interventions, honor codes have generally been found to be the most effective method of preventing cheating behavior. However, an honor code should be implemented under the right conditions. Furthermore, detection measures for cheating are effective in motivating students not to cheat when students are not intrinsically motivated.

Donald, Kenneth and Linda (2013) conducted a study on cheating in college: Why students do it and what educators can do about it. The results of the study revealed that cheating in college is common. More than two-thirds of college students report that they engaged in some form of academic dishonesty in the previous year.

Anteneh and Asres (2014) studied cheating on examinations and its predictors among undergraduate students at Hawassa University College of Medicine and Health Science, Hawassa, Ethiopia. The prevalence of self-reported cheating was found to be 19.8% (95% CI = 17.4-21.9). About 12.1% (95% CI = 10.2-13.9) of students disclosed cheating on the entrance examination. The majority of students (80.1% (95% CI = 77.9-82.3) disclosed that they would not report cheating to invigilators even if they had witnessed cheating. Analysis by multiple regression models showed that students who cheated in high school were more likely to cheat (adjusted OR = 1.80, 95% CI = 1.01–3.19) and that cheating was less likely among students who didn’t cheat on entrance examinations (adjusted OR = 0.25, 95% CI = 0.14–0.45). Dining outside the university cafeteria and receiving pocket money of Birr 300 or more were strongly associated with cheating (adjusted OR = 3.08, 95% CI = 1.54-6.16 and adjusted OR = 1.69 (95% CI = 1.05-2.72), respectively. The odds of cheating among students were significantly higher for those who went to private high school, were substance users, and didn’t attend lectures than for
those who attended government schools, were not substance abusers, and attended lectures.

**Manar and Shameem (2014)** studied attitude of students towards cheating and plagiarism: university case study. In this study, the attitude towards cheating and plagiarism among female students in the College of Computer and Information Sciences (CCIS) at King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia was studied. We aim to highlight the most prevailing practices, the underlying reasons the popular sources of illegal information and the conception of students towards the ethicalness of exercising such practices. The results of the study indicate that both cheating and plagiarism are common among our students, despite the fact that most of them believe that they are unethical and against religious values.

**Antonio and Maria (2014)** studied effects of academic dishonesty on dimensions of spiritual well-being and satisfaction: a comparative study of secondary school and university students. Recent research has shown an increase in academic dishonesty in different educational systems and levels, and negative effects on the academic institution, society and the students themselves. In order to describe the differential perception of academic dishonesty by Spanish secondary school and university students, and to study its consequences on psychological well-being, comparisons between two groups of students from secondary education and university were carried out, using measures of the perception and execution by others of dishonest behaviour, as well as psychological well-being and satisfaction with life and learning. University students revealed greater laxity of conscience, considering dishonest behaviour to be less serious and more common than secondary school students, and indulging in more dishonest behaviour themselves. They also showed greater spiritual, personal, community and environmental well-being, and greater satisfaction with learning. However, transcendental spiritual well-being was greater in the group of secondary education students. Academic dishonesty was associated with satisfaction with learning in both groups, and with satisfaction with life in secondary education. Its link with measures of spiritual well-being was greater in the group of secondary education students, being linked to transcendental well-being only in the group of university students. No gender differences were observed in any of the variables.
Sarita and Dahiya (2015) conducted a study on Academic Cheating among students: pressure of parents and teachers. Academic Cheating has become a serious problem at schools and colleges. Academic Cheating is defined as representing someone else’s work as your own. It can take many forms, including sharing another’s work, purchase a term paper or test in advance, paying another to do the work for you. The main purpose of this study is to predict Academic Cheating, based on some factors (Home Environment, Peer Pressure, school environment, academic anxiety, learning style). Parents and teachers may also increase pressure on their kids when they compare them to their siblings. This study conveys the contribution of teacher, parents and academic integrity to fight against Academic Cheating.

Amanda, Amy and Brian (2015) conducted a study on social desirability bias in relation to Academic Cheating behaviors of nursing students. The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between Academic Cheating and a series of academic and demographic characteristics, as well as the relationship between the various characteristics and social desirability bias. The results of the study revealed that 53.8% of undergraduate students and 36.5% of graduate students self-reported having engaged in at least one of the 16 forms of Academic Cheating during the previous semester, primarily in acts classified as plagiarism. The current study further explored misconduct among students seeking a BSN and found that 35.2% of students participated in at least one act of professional misconduct in the clinical setting. There were statistically significant differences between the characteristics of age and prevalence of plagiarism-related Academic Cheating, planned cheating, spontaneous cheating, and professional misconduct, implying that older students cheat less frequently. Likewise, the more credits a student completed the less likely they were to plagiarize or engage in spontaneous cheating.

Susan (2015) studied the relationship between ethical regard and academic misconduct among college students. Findings indicate that students aged 22-23 were significantly more likely to cheat than students in other age ranges; Millennials were significantly more likely to cheat than non-Millennials. No significant difference existed between PTC compared by gender or academic classification. When given a response set of 11 behaviors commonly defined as academic misconduct, the majority of students indicated
agreement that the identified behavior is a cheating behavior. The behavior most commonly perceived as cheating was copying from a classmate’s exam or permitting copying by a classmate (99.3% agreement). The behavior least likely to be perceived as cheating was seeking exam content from a peer who had taken the exam (55.7% agreement); students cited this cheating behavior as the most commonly committed (46.5%). A correlational analysis was conducted for each of the 11 cheating behaviors; results indicate that in 8 of the 11 behaviors, students were less likely to engage in the specific behavior if they perceived the behavior as cheating. Overall, 77.3% of respondents reported cheating, and 30.8% reported 4 or more cheating behaviors.

2.2 STUDIES RELATED TO HOME ENVIRONMENT

Shah and Sharma (1984) conducted a study to investigate the effect of family climate on students’ academic achievement. Data was collected by administering family climate scale to the sample of 200 children consisting 118 boys and 82 girls of ninth class from the schools of Pury and Jehri districts of Kashmir. The results revealed that family environment was significantly and positively related with academic achievement of the students.

Nommay (1988) investigated the effect of family structure on intelligence and academic achievement. He analysed 45 studies for the last 15 years and summarised the results that parents’ encouragement directly and indirectly played a significant role in predicting academic achievement through cognitive development of their children. Parental education and encouragement were found to contribute to the cognitive development of the students. Family constellation was appeared to have greater impact on verbal than non-verbal intelligence.

Bank et al. (1990) studied the effect of peer, family and parental influence on students’ persistence. Data was collected through a longitudinal study from 1240 first year undergraduates of Midwestern state university of America. The results demonstrated that parents had strong influence upon the persistence and educational success of the students.

Samal (1990) conducted a study on relationship between planning and academic achievement of boys and girls: Effect of Home Environment variables. The author found
that: (1) The academic performance of high planner were better than that of low planners; (2) There was no significant difference between boys and girls with regard to academic achievement; (3) The children belonging to high planning ability enjoyed a more cognitively stimulating Home Environment than the children from low planning ability; (4) The children from high socio-economic status had a better planning ability than that of the children from low socio-economic status; (5) Planning ability had no relationship with family size.

Mehta (1995) studied the effects of family structure on intelligence of young children and found that children's perception about family environment were more strongly linked to self-control outcomes. Children sharing healthy and warm relationship with their parents were found to be more intelligent and get an advantage of getting parental suggestions, ideals and communication skills and critical sense of security during the development of symbolic thought which is an important cognitive ability of children.

Khare and Garewal (1996) conducted a study on Home Environment and academic achievement of elementary school children. The sample comprised of 212 students of middle schools of Bhopal. The results indicated that Home Environment had significant relationship with academic achievement of students.

Aggarwal (1997) conducted a comparative study on the effect of parental encouragement upon the educational development of students on the basis of gender. The sample consisted of 100 male and female students of Pauri district. Data were collected by administering intelligence test and personal data form. The findings indicated that the parents showed more encouragement to their daughters in comparison to their sons. Parental encouragement was also found to be positively related with educational development of the students.

Sangwan, Punia and Manocha (1998) studied the quality of Home Environment in rural and urban areas. Study was conducted on 120 children of 10+1 and 10+2 classes in Hisar District. The results revealed that rural people were still confirming to the decision of one elder person in the family than urban people. But moreover, in rural areas, a high level method of isolating the children for disciplining them was used whereas a reverse trend was found in urban areas.
Roychoudhary and Basu (1998) carried out a study on parent-child relationship, school achievement and adjustment of adolescent boys. The sample comprised of 105 boys of age 14 to 15 years. Data were collected by administering parent child relationship scale to the sample and achievement scores were taken from school records. The results indicated that both mothering and fathering styles were associated with academic success whereas rejection and neglect from the parents were found to be highly detrimental to academic achievement.

Anuradha and Bharti (2001) studied T.V. viewing and children’s academic achievement with reference to punishment pattern exercised by parents. It was concluded that significant difference was found in children’s amount of TV watching depending upon the type of punishment exercised by parents. The parental disciplinary practices significantly affected children’s academic achievement.

Poonam and Balda (2001) studied the effect of familial factors on children’s intelligence. Effect of family size, family income and family education status on children’s intelligence was examined. Sixty children from Hisar city were the elements of the sample. Results showed that family size was negatively correlated with IQ of children, while family income and family education status had positive correlated with the intelligence of children. It was conducted that as family size increases, the performance IQ decreases. As family income increases, verbal IQ of children also increases. Higher is the education status of family, higher is the verbal as well as full scale IQ.

Rodriguez (2002) explored the relationship between family environment and academic achievement among three-generation Mexican-American high school students. This study examined generation differences in the perceptions of family environment and academic achievement of Mexican-American high school students. Analysis of covariance procedure revealed first and second generation students reported significantly higher grades and higher levels of family monitoring than third generation students. Regression analyses revealed that family involvement was a significant predictor of student grades across all three generations of students.
Devi and Mayuri (2003) conducted a study on effects of family and school on the achievement of residential school children. The objectives were: (i) to study the family factors contributing to the academic achievement of IX and X class residential school children; (ii) to study the school factors contributing to the academic achievement of IX and X private residential school children; (iii) to study the gender and age differences in family and school factors and (iv) to study the relationship between family and school factors with academic achievement. The major findings of the study were: Family factors were not found to be critically important for the achievement of residential school children. School factors like qualified teachers, good physical facilities, and classroom organization, checking up of curriculum and subject matter on time, impressive method of teaching and teacher-student interaction contributed significantly to academic achievement.

Jayashwal, Sinha, Kumari and Arora (2003) studied parental support and academic achievement in Tribal School students of Jharkhand. The objective of the study was to examine the role of parental support on academic achievement of tribal school students. Study was done to explore the impact of parental aspiration, interest behavior on academic achievement of tribal school students. It was concluded that parents of high achievers have greater work commitment concern with the quality of performance and inclination to learn lessons from others. On the other hand the parents of low achievers are more fatalistic lacking a role model and having self confidence and initiative. The parents of high achievers have higher aspiration for their children’s educational success and high prestigious occupation with attractive financial return.

Bose and Joshi (2004) conducted a study on effect of involvement of parents in education of children: An exploration. They found that children led a disciplined life at home and had better academic achievement at school. Involvement of parents also reflected in the activities that a child pursued in his leisure time. Difference was also observed in the possession of school bag and uniform, attendance of school and the manner in which a child pursued his/her leisure time and the programmes they watched on the television. It was found that parents could not reinforce the thing the children learnt at school and some children attended tutorials. However, tutorials did not help the
children in performing better, rather the children who attended school regularly and received proper care at home faired better. The study also found that Home Environment that indoctrinates children into a disciplined life and healthy life style ensures that they have better academic achievement.

**Pandey and Shashi (2005)** conducted a study on parental disciplining behaviour and academic achievement of the adolescents. The objective was to find out the effect of parental disciplining behaviour upon the academic achievement of the adolescents of different intellectual levels. Some of major findings of the study were: Urban adolescent, parental disciplining behaviour positively affected their academic achievement at different intellectual level. However, effect of father’s disciplining variable is significant among the boys of high intellectual level. Rural adolescents only mother’s disciplining behaviour significantly affected the academic achievement of the boys of average intellectual level. Father’s disciplining behaviour showed positive and significant impact upon the academic achievement of urban girls of high intellectual level. Parental disciplining behaviour favoured the academic achievement of rural girls of different intellectual levels.

**Mohanraj and Latha (2005)** conducted a study on the relationship between family environment, home adjustment and academic achievement of adolescents in the age group of 14,15 and 16 studying in classes IX, X and XI in private Schools situated in south of Chennai. Family environment appealed to influence home adjustment as well as academic performance. The majority of the sample perceived their family as cohesive, organized, achievement oriented and emphasizing on moral-religious issue with minimal conflict, cohesion and control. The intellectual-cultural orientation and independence in the family environment significantly influenced home adjustment of the adolescents. It was also found that academic performance was significantly related to independence and conflict domains of family environment. Boys and girls differed significantly in perception of the Home Environment.

**Vamadevappa (2005)** conducted a study on impact of parental involvement on academic achievement. He observed that: 1) There was positive and significant relationship between parental involvement and academic achievement; 2) There was a
significant difference in the achievement scores of boys and girls of high parental involvement group; 3) There was no significant difference in the achievement scores of boys and girls of low parental involvement group; 4) There was no significant difference between high achievers and low achievers with respect to parental involvement; 5) There was significant difference between boys and girls in their academic achievement.

**Bansal et al. (2006)** explored the relationship between quality of Home Environment, locus of control and achievement motivation among high achiever urban female adolescents. The data were collected from 100, eleventh class high achievers from 10 senior secondary schools of Ludhiana city, by using Rotter’s locus of control, Bhargava achievement motivation scale and Mishra’s Home Environment inventory scale. The results showed that good quality of Home Environment had significant positive relationship with high level of achievement motivation and high level academic achievement.

**Varte, Zokaitluangi and Lalhunlawma (2006)** studied intelligence and academic achievement in relation to parents child relationship in Mizo adolescents. Parental behaviour as perceived by the child have more importance and emerged to be explanatory than characterization of such behavior by independent observers. 140 Mizo adolescents from a school were sampled. The low and high score on parent child relationship respectively designated as restrictive and permissive parenting styles were screened out and their academic achievement scores were analyzed. Results indicated no gender difference on parent child relationship, intelligence and academic achievement. 2×2 ANOVA ‘indicated significant’ parenting effect whereas gender x parenting interaction resulted non-significant. F-ratio, mean comparisons in significant parenting effect revealed greater intelligence in permissive than restrictive.

**Codjoe (2007)** studied the importance of Home Environment and parental encouragement in the academic achievement of African-Canadian youth. The data was gathered by conducting individual and focus group interviews from a sample of 12 students drawn from a population of black students in Edmonton in Canada. The researcher confirmed that parental encouragement and supportive Home Environment laid positive influence on educational achievement of the black students.
Cano and Francisco (2008) studied the relationship between family environment, learning strategies and academic performance. This study on secondary school students examined the interrelationship between family environment variable as predictors of learning strategies and academic performance. It was found that the better family intellectual climate have a significant positive impact on the students’ beliefs about learning and academic achievement.

Siwach and Daulta (2008) studied the impact of Home Environment on the scholastic achievement of children. This study is based on a sample of one hundred and twenty students drawn from senior secondary school of Panipat. Mishra’s Home Environment Inventory Scale was used to assess the quality of Home Environment and scholastic achievement was ascertained with the help of report cards of students and other school records. The data revealed that boys of high Home Environment group achieved significantly greater mean score than the boy falling in the group of low Home Environment. The impact of Home Environment has also been observed in the mean values of scholastic achievement of girls belonging to high, medium and low Home Environment groups. Result also showed that good quality of Home Environment had significant positive correlation with high level of scholastic achievement in boys than among girls. It was found that as the quality of Home Environment gets deteriorated, the level of scholastic achievement also comparatively decline in boys.

Choudhary and Kang (2010) conducted a study family environment: Perception of urban adolescents (16-18 years). A sample of 200 adolescents (100 males and 100 females) were drawn purposively from senior secondary schools in Ludhiana city. Results indicated that none of the subject perceived high level of expressiveness, acceptance and caring, independence, active recreational orientation and control in their respective families. There was non-significant gender differences existed in all the dimensions of family environment.

Muola (2010) investigated the relationship between academic achievement motivation and Home Environment among standard eight pupils. The sample comprised of 235 Kenyan pupils between the age range 13 to 17 years from six urban and rural primary schools of Machakos district. Two questionnaires, the simple profile and Home
Environment questionnaire, were used to gather data. Results showed that among all the variables parental encouragement was the only factor that was not significantly ($r = 0.03$) related to academic achievement motivation.

**Bhat and Aminabhavi (2011)** conducted a study on Home Environment and psychosocial competence of adolescents. The research was an attempt to study the impact of Home Environment on the psychosocial competence of adolescents. Results revealed that adolescents with high control, social isolation, deprivation of privileges and rejection at home have shown significantly lower problem solving, decision making, coping with emotion, coping with stress and overall psychosocial competence. Children with high protectiveness, punishment, conformity, reward, nurturance and permissiveness have better empathy, critical thinking, empathy, self-awareness, coping with stress, interpersonal relations and effective communication as well as overall psychosocial competence. Findings of the study reveal the significance of Home Environment in the development of life skills.

**Yuping (2011)** studied the influence of Home Environment on children’s schooling: from teacher’s perspective. The study incorporate the teachers’ perspectives of the importance of the children’s family background into the examination of teachers’ evaluations of children’s learning capacity and their expectations for the children’s future school attainment, using a unique dataset from rural Gansu in northwest China. The analysis results reveal that teachers’ perceptions of the importance of children’s family background are closely associated with teachers’ evaluations and educational expectations of children, beyond children’s academic achievement and their family’s actual socioeconomic situations; and teachers’ expectations at early time point help to predict children’s later school persistence. The findings point to the importance of bringing teachers’ subjective perceptions into educational research, and the increasing importance of examining school-related factors to deepen our understanding of the different passageways through which family background leads to educational stratification.

**Mishra and Bamba (2012)** studied impact of family environment on academic achievement of secondary school students in science subject. The aim of the study was to
investigate the impact of family environment on academic achievement of a child. It has been found that school performance of secondary school students have significant and positive relationship with children’s perception of overall family environment.

**Adekola (2012)** examined home and school factors as determinants of students achievement in senior secondary school English comprehension in four south western states. The study examined the relative and combined contributions of the home and school factors as determinants of students’ achievement in Senior Secondary School English Comprehension, and carried in some Secondary Schools spread across four GeoPolitical States in South Western part of Nigeria. Two specially designed questionnaires (The Home Factor Scale (HFS), and School Factor Scale (SFS)) were used to collect data from One thousand and seven hundred students who were randomly sampled which were analyzed with stepwise multiple regression. The finding implied that the achievement of students in English language Comprehension could be predicted by the combination of students’ home and school factors. It was recommended that teachers should perform their supervisory roles of giving out exercises and marking at the expected time so that the students can get the feedback at the appropriate time while parents should also be favorably disposed to the academic work of their children.

**Hafiz, Rafiq, Tehsin, Malik, Muhammad and Khan (2013)** studied Parental Involvement and Academic Achievement; A Study on Secondary School Students of Lahore, Pakistan. The aims of the present research to explore the effect of parental involvement in the academic achievement of their children. The research was conducted in Allama Iqbal Town, Lahore city. A total of 150 students (boys and girls) of 9th class of secondary schools (public and private) were taken as respondents. Four schools were selected through simple random sampling which include one boy and one girl from each of the public and private schools categories for equal representation of both boy and girl students in the sample frame of present study. Survey questionnaire was used as a tool for data collection. After the analysis of data, it was found that parental involvement has significance effect in better academic performance of their children. The present research has proved that parental involvement enhanced the academic achievements of their children.
Bolu-steve and Sanni (2013) investigated the influence of family background on the academic performance of secondary school students in Nigeria. The study was carried out in the three senatorial districts of Kwara State. Three hundred respondents participated in this research. Descriptive statistics was used to analyze the data while t-test and Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were used to test the three generated null hypothesis at 0.05 alpha level of significance. The findings showed that there were no significant differences in the influence of family background on academic performance of secondary school students based on gender and age while a significant difference was noted based on family type. Based on the findings of the study, it was recommended that the government should establish guidance counselling programmes in every secondary school in Nigeria. Also parents should endeavor to create an enabling Home Environment for their children so as to encourage good academic performance.

Egunsola (2014) examined influence of Home Environment on academic performance of secondary school students in agricultural science in Adamawa State Nigeria. This study used ex-post facto and correlation survey to investigate the influence of Home Environment on academic performance of senior secondary students in Adamawa State. Inferential statistics z-test and Correlation analysis were used to analyse and interpret the data. The results showed that parental educational qualification (r = 0.73), occupation (r = 0.71) and home location (r = 0.73) were highly correlated with students’ academic performance while parental economic status (income and affluence) have moderate correlation (r = 0.60) but all the independent variables have significant influence on students’ performances in Agricultural Science at the secondary school. It was recommended that parents and other significant persons should make students’ homes conducive and stimulatory to learning not only the school subjects but education in general.

Parmar (2014) examined various dimensions of Home Environment among higher secondary school students in relation to gender. The main objective of the present research is to study and compare various dimensions such as control, protectiveness, punishment, conformity, social isolation, reward, deprivation of privilege, nurturance, rejection and permissiveness between male and female student of higher secondary
school. It was found that Male higher secondary school students differ significantly as compare to female higher secondary school students on control, punishment, social isolation, reward, deprivation of privilege, rejection and permissiveness dimensions of Home Environment. No significant difference was found in male higher secondary school students as compare to female higher secondary school students on protectiveness, conformity and nurturance dimensions of Home Environment.

Dhall (2014) studied academic achievement among adolescents in relation to achievement motivation and Home Environment. The present investigation was undertaken to reveal the relationship of academic achievement with achievement motivation and Home Environment of secondary school students. The sample of study comprised of 200 students of ninth standard drawn from government and government aided schools of Ludhiana city. The results of the study revealed positive and significant relationship between academic achievement and achievement motivation and Home Environment. It was further revealed that sex does not exert any influence on achievement motivation and Home Environment.

John, Tzipi, Alan, Tom and Scott (2015) conducted a study on home reading environment and brain activation in preschool children listening to stories. The aim of the study was to examine the relationship between home reading environment and brain activity during a story listening task in a sample of preschool-age children. Higher reading exposure (StimQ-P Reading subscale score) was positively correlated ($P < .05$, corrected) with neural activation in the left-sided parietal-temporal-occipital association cortex, a hub region supporting semantic language processing, controlling for household income.

Onesto and Kaselema (2015) examined the influence of Home Environment on students academic performance of the secondary schools in Arusha municipality. The areas of concentration were parents and students, social demographic factors, and other related factors. The findings revealed that there was no direct relationship between Home Environment and students’ academic performance in schools. The results shown the following percentages: tuition fee 71.9%, demographic factors 70.7%, and other factors including teaching and learning materials, infrastructure, home structures, electricity,
peer group, home mass media and location had an average of 64.7% thus making the tuition fee the leading factor. The researcher therefore recommended that the Ministry of Educational and Vocational Training should educate parents, teachers, and society (community) to analyze the influence of Home Environment on students’ academic performance and to find the ways to overcome those challenges for the betterment of students’ academic performance in secondary schools.

Singh, Pandey and Singh (2015) studied the Impact of home-environment on educational aspiration of intermediate school student. It was found that there is significant, insignificant and negative significant correlation found between Home Environment and educational aspiration of intermediate school students. The significant relationship shows that there is positive effect of home-environment on the educational aspiration and the insignificant relationship shows that there is no such relationship between the two. There exists significant relationship between home-environment and educational aspiration of intermediate school students.

Rao and Reddy (2016) investigated 600 high school students to find out the effect of school environment, Home Environment and mental health status on achievement motivation. School environment and Home Environment inventories by Manjuvani, Mental health inventory by Reddy and achievement motivation scale by Shah was used to assess the school environment, Home Environment, mental health and achievement motivation of the subjects. Results revealed that there is significant impact of the three variables on achievement motivation of the students.

Neeti (2016) studied Home Environment in relation to under-achievers of higher secondary level. A sample of 435 students was randomly selected from the Moradabad district. Results of the study revealed that over achievers and under achievers differ significantly on Home Environment. It was concluded that Home Environment makes significant difference between underachievers and overachievers.

2.3 STUDIES RELATED TO EMOTIONAL MATURITY

Dhami (1974) investigated the intelligence, Emotional Maturity and socio-economic status as factors indicative of success in scholastic achievement of IX and X class
students of age group 14+ and 15+ of different categories of students of Punjab and reported a high significant relationship between Emotional Maturity, intelligence and scholastic achievement of high schools students. The study also reported parent’s education, type of house in which family lives, family income and type of reading material has a positive effect on the Emotional Maturity of the children.

Arya (1984) conducted a study on Emotional Maturity and value of superior children in family. The objectives of the study were to found relationship between intelligence and Emotional Maturity of boys and girls separately. Second objective was to find out relationship between intelligence and values of boys and girls. The study find that superior boys and girls do well on the Emotional Maturity tests, superior intelligence showed high relationship with Emotional Maturity.

Sabapathy (1986) examined the relationship between the variables anxiety, emotional-social maturity, socio-economic status and academic achievement of students. He found Emotional Maturity was positively and significantly related to achievement in individual subjects and total academic achievement.

Gupta (1989) conducted a comparative study on male and female adolescent school going students on Emotional Maturity and Achievement in Curricular and Co-Curricular activities. The Objectives of the study were: 1. To compare male and female adolescent school going students on Emotional Maturity, co-curricular and curricular activities. 2. To compare behavior of boys and girls due to age level. The sample comprised 200 girls and 200 boys studying in high school and intermediate classes of Agra City who were selected on the basis of the random number table. The findings of the study were: (i) The girls were more sober and well behaved as compared to boys of this age. The characteristic behaviours of the girls were that they were shy, reserved and more sober as compared to boys. (ii) Boys behaved more openly and were more interested in bold activities. 3. Boys were more interested in cricket and hockey while girls preferred the activities like painting, reading magazines, singing and decoration.
Chaudhary et. al. (1993) compared the Emotional Maturity of adolescents studying at home and at orphanages. Adolescents staying at home with parents were found to have high level of Emotional Maturity as compared to their counterparts at orphanages.

Singh (1993) studied Emotional Maturity of male and female students of upper and lower socio-economic status. The sample consisted of 640 adolescent students of Aligarh. The findings of the study were: (i) The statistical analysis revealed that mean scores of male and female students of higher socio-economic status were lower than the corresponding mean scores of male and female students of lower socio-economic status in all the five areas of Emotional Maturity Scale. (ii) In the total area of the Emotional Maturity the mean scores of male and female students of higher socio-economic status were lower than the corresponding mean scores of male and female students of lower socio-economic status. (iii) The mean scores of female students were slightly lower than the corresponding mean scores of male students in social disintegration. (iv) In the total area the mean score of male students was significantly lower than the mean score of female students.

Kaur (1994) conducted a comparative study of Emotional Maturity, adjustment patterns and personality patterns of Physical Education teachers. She found that Physical Education teachers differ significantly from General Education teachers as far as their Emotional Maturity is concerned.

Kaur (1995) conducted a study on the impact of attitudes of violence and non-violence on the levels of Emotional Maturity and adjustment patterns of college going students. She found that most of the college going girls are more emotionally stable as compared to college going boy students. She also summarized that Emotional Maturity is the ability to govern disturbing emotions.

Chauhan and Sharma (1997) conducted a study to measure the feeling of insecurity, Emotional Maturity, creative thinking and vocational interests of the girl child laborers. The finding of the study revealed that there is no significant difference in the Emotional Maturity of girl child laborers and the normal ones.
Sharma and Singh (1997) indicated that male and female undergraduates of urban areas scored higher than their counterparts from rural areas in all areas on Emotional Maturity scale viz. emotional stress, emotional depression, social distance, personality disorder and lack of ascendancy.

Harleen (1998) conducted a comparative study on the Emotional Maturity of rural and urban adolescents. The analysis of the data revealed that most of the rural and urban respondents were found to be moderately mature. No significant difference was found in Emotional Maturity of rural and urban adolescents. Significant sex differences were found in Emotional Maturity. Males were found to score higher in their level of Emotional Maturity.

Adhikari (1998) studied the difference in Emotional Maturity between University students and University teachers in India. 200 male and 200 female University students and 150 male and 150 female University teachers were administered a Hindi version of the Swamulyanka Prashnawali by R.R. Tripathi and Rastogi (1982). The Emotional Maturity scores of male teachers and females teachers were higher than those of the students.

Anju (2000) found that there exists a positive and significant relationship between Emotional Maturity and intelligence of students which implies that more intelligent the person is, more emotionally mature he is. The relationship between Emotional Maturity and intelligence of girls came out to be non-significant.

Kaur (2000) found significant relationship between Emotional Maturity and school, home and psychological environment. However, no significant relationship was found between Emotional Maturity and physical environment. Girls and rural students were found to be more emotionally mature than boys and urban students.

Kaur (2001) conducted a study on Emotional Maturity of adolescents in relation to intelligence, academic achievement and environmental catalysts’ on a sample of 356 adolescents. The findings revealed; (a) Emotional Maturity and intelligence were found to be closely related (b) No significant relationship was found between Emotional Maturity and academic achievement; (c) No significant difference was found in
Emotional Maturity due to area, sex and type of school; (d) Students of government schools were found to be more emotionally mature than those of private schools.

Kaur (2001) found significant relationship between Emotional Maturity and parental encouragement. The relationship between various factors of Emotional Maturity i.e. emotional unstability, emotional regression, lack of independence and parental encouragement was found to be significant and negative in adolescents. Boys and girls did not differ in their Emotional Maturity.

Gakhar (2003) conducted a study on Emotional Maturity of students at secondary stage: self-concept and academic achievement. Finding of the study revealed that: (i) there is significant difference in the Emotional Maturity of students of government and private schools; (ii) there is significant difference in the Emotional Maturity of students who are hostellers and day scholars; and (iii) there is significant difference in the Emotional Maturity of children of working and non-working mothers and the academic achievement on self-concept. A significant negative correlation was found between self-concept and Emotional Maturity. Negative correlation was found between academic achievement and Emotional Maturity. There was significant difference in the Emotional Maturity of boys and girls. It was revealed that there was significant difference in the Emotional Maturity of students belonging to urban and rural areas and Emotional Maturity of students of rural areas is more as their mean scores on Emotional Maturity inventory was less. There was significant difference in the Emotional Maturity of students who studied in government and private schools. Further, Emotional Maturity of students of private schools was more as compared to their counterparts due to low mean score on Emotional Maturity scale. It also showed that there was insignificant difference in the Emotional Maturity of students who lived in hostels and those who are day scholars. The study also revealed that there was insignificant difference in the Emotional Maturity of children of working and non-working mothers.

Muley Patnam and Vasekar (2003) studied the Emotional Maturity of school going children of slum and urban areas and the influencing factors. The slum children differ in their Emotional Maturity from the urban children, which was tested in this study. The sample consists of 120 children, of which 60 were from slum and 60 from urban areas.
Significant positive relationship was found between urban children's Emotional Maturity and their academic performance, chronological age, ordinal position abilities, size and type of family, parenting, general mental ability number of friends as well as their parental age, education and employment while no significant correlation was found between slum children’s Emotional Maturity and their background variables.

**Kaur (2003)** studied Emotional Maturity of senior secondary students in relation to intelligence and family climate’ obtained following results; i) Students studying in government and private schools differed significantly in different components of Emotional Maturity; ii) No significant difference was found in the Emotional Maturity of males and females. She found negative and significant correlation between intelligence and Emotional Maturity.

**Valluri (2003)** conducted a study on effect of parent–child relationship on Emotional Maturity of senior secondary students reported these findings; i) Gender differences do exist in Emotional Maturity of students; ii) There is significant effect of ‘protecting and loving’ behaviour of both father and mother on Emotional Maturity of adolescents.

**Chouhan and Bhatnager (2003)** studied i) The effect of stages of adolescence on Emotional Maturity and emotional expressions ii) To measure the effect of gender on Emotional Maturity and emotional expressions iii) To measure the emotional quotient of the stages of adolescence and type of gender. The study was based on a sample of 120 male and female adolescents. The major findings were; i) Post-adolescent males have higher Emotional Maturity than females and the stages of adolescence play a significant role upon Emotional Maturity ii) Females have higher skills for emotional expression than their male counterparts iii) Female have a higher degree of emotional quotient than their male counterparts iv) Post- adolescents have greater skill for emotional expression than the pre-adolescents.

**Upadhyay and Upadhyay (2003)** examined emotional stability and academic achievement of boys and girls at secondary level. It was found that emotions have both direct and indirect effect on personality. The direct effect came from physical and mental disturbances, while indirect came from reactions of members of the social group around
the person who was experiencing the emotion. If the emotions were unpleasant or uncontrolled, they were damaging to the personality pattern. If pleasant and controlled then they had vice versa effect on life. The main findings were: (i) Boys were significantly emotionally stable than girls. (ii) There was no significant difference between boys and girls in academic achievement. (iii) There was no significant relationship between emotional stability and academic achievement of the students.

Kaur (2004) found non-significant relationship between Emotional Maturity and self-confidence of adolescents. No significant difference was found in Emotional Maturity of boys and girls. However, study reported significant differences in the Emotional Maturity of adolescents of rural and urban areas.

Upadhyay and Upadgyay (2004) investigated emotional stability and academic achievement of boys and girls at secondary level at Ph.D. level. The main finding of the study were: (i) Boys are significantly emotionally stable than girls, (ii) There is no significant difference between boys and girls in academic achievement. (iii) There is no significant relationship between emotional stability and academic achievement of the students.

Lekhi (2005) found that there is no significant difference in the Emotional Maturity and emotional intelligence of boys and girls as t-ratio is found to be non-significant. However, on comparing their mean scores, it is observed that boys scored little low (hence more emotionally mature) as compared to girls. But significant differences were found between rural and urban adolescents in their Emotional Maturity. She also concluded that Emotional Maturity correlated negative and significantly with intelligence and academic achievement.

Darwin (2005) conducted a study on emotional intelligence and Emotional Maturity says that if we want our children to be emotionally mature, we must focus on their early childhood education; which affect certain level of social and Emotional Maturity.

Markham (2005) studied effects of positive emotional refocusing on emotional intelligence and autonomic recovery form stress in high school students. The Study investigated the effect of positive emotional refocusing on emotional intelligence (the
Intrapersonal, Stress Management, and Adaptability subscales of the EQ-i YV were used; heart rate variability, and trait anxiety in a sample of 99 grade nine students (62 trained, and 37 in the waiting group). No changes in EI or trait anxiety occurred due to training, though training did lead to significantly increased coherence during autonomic recovery from stress. Among students categorized as low anxiety, there was a positive correlation between EI and coherence and a negative relationship between trait anxiety, interpersonal intelligence and the stress management subscale.

Geeta and Vijaylaxmi (2006) conducted a study on impact of Emotional Maturity on stress and self confidence of adolescents and found that adolescents with high Emotional Maturity have significantly higher stress and self confidence than those with lower Emotional Maturity.

Hangel et. al. (2007) observed that children of employed mothers have high Emotional Maturity than the children of unemployed mothers and female children of employed mothers are highly achievement oriented. From the above studies it is clear that there exists a positive and significant correlation between Emotional Maturity and Academic achievement. However, there are a few studies which fail to show any significant relationship between these two variables and there are some others which showed even a negative correlation between the two. A few studies also showed significant relationship between Emotional Maturity and intelligence as well as significant differences between boys and girls on the basis of their Emotional Maturity and academic achievement. There is a dire need to explore it further so as to draw some new and meaningful inferences.

Ayodhya (2007) conducted a study on emotional problems in secondary school children and its relation to life events and scholastic achievement. The objectives of the study were; to find out the difference in mean life event scores in students who have and who do not have emotional problems; to identify emotional problems in secondary school children; to calculate mean life event scores; to compare the difference in the mean life event scores in respect of gender between students who have and those who do not have emotional problems; to find out the difference in the number of life events in respect of gender between students who have and those who do not have emotional problems; to compare the difference in mean life event scores in respect of socio-demographic factors
between students who have and who do not have emotional problems; to investigate scholastic achievement; to find out the difference between scholastic achievement in students with and without emotional problems; to find out the difference in mean life event scores in students with and without emotional problems in relation to scholastic achievement; to find out the difference in mean life event scores in students with and without emotional problems in relation to IQ; to compare the difference between levels of IQ and scholastic achievement; to find out the difference in emotional problems in respect of socio-demographic factors; to investigate the difference mean life event scores in respect of socio-demographic factors; to find out differences in scholastic achievement in relation to socio-demographic factors; and to find out differences in mean life event scores in respect of gender and scholastic achievement. Based on the results it was concluded that; secondary school students had significantly high rate of emotional problems; emotionally disturbed students had high life event scores and more number of events; boys had high life event scores and more no. of events; boys outnumbered girls in decreased scholastic achievement; the emotional problems found were of minor nature. Depression was the commonest emotional problem; emotional problems did not have influence on scholastic achievement in the present study; life events too did not have influence on scholastic achievement; no difference was found with regard to socio-demographic factors and emotional disorders, scholastic achievement and life events; no association was found between scholastic achievement and intelligence in the present study because the scholastic achievement stabilized at the lower level as the sample had low mean IQ at the beginning of the study.

Vyas (2008) conducted a comparative study on anxiety, Emotional Maturity, security-insecurity among adolescents of co-education and unisex education schools. The objectives of the study were: (i) To study the effect of nature of school on anxiety of adolescent girls and boys. (ii) To study the effect of nature of school on Emotional Maturity and security-insecurity of adolescent girls and adolescent boys. The findings of the study were: (i) No significant difference in anxiety, Emotional Maturity, emotional instability and emotional regression of adolescent boys and adolescent girls coming from co-education and uni-sex education school was observed. (ii) Significant difference in emotional instability, emotional regression and social maladjustment of adolescent girls
coming from co-education and uni-sex education school was reported. (iii) There was significant difference in lack of independence of boys coming from co-education and uni-sex education school. (iv) No significant difference in security-insecurity, family and school security of boys and girls coming from co-education and uni-sex education school was seen.

**Thukral and Singh (2011)** examined Emotional Maturity and academic achievement of high school students. The objectives of the study were: (i) To investigate the relationship of Emotional Maturity with academic Achievement of high school students; and (ii) To see the sex and regional difference on the basis of their Emotional Maturity. The sample comprised of 400 students of class X, out of them 200 were boys (100 rural and 100 urban) and 200 were girls (100 rural and 100 urban). The findings of the study were: (i) No significant relationship exists between Emotional Maturity and academic achievement. (ii) No significant differences were observed between boys and girls and rural and urban students on the basis of their Emotional Maturity.”

**Lakshmi and Krishnamurthy (2011)** studied Emotional Maturity of higher secondary school students. The study used a sample of 220 Higher Secondary Students who were selected from various schools in Coimbatore District. It was found that there exist significant difference between all the sub-samples except the age group of Higher Secondary Students. It also found that there was significant difference between male and female students, urban and rural students and the students who lived in joint family and nuclear family system in respect of their Emotional Maturity.

**Kumar and Tiwari (2012)** conducted a comparative study on Emotional Maturity among 8th to 12th class Students with the reference of internet surfing. In his study he carried out with incidental sampling at Hardwar district on 100 students. Among them 50 (25 boys, 25 girls) were using internet and 50 (25 boys, 25 girls) with no interest in internet surfing. Results indicated that those who were not using internet regularly were more emotionally mature than internet users. It was also found that boys students were better than girls with regard their Emotional Maturity.

**Rosa and Preethi (2012)** studied the academic stress and Emotional Maturity among higher secondary school students of working and non-working mothers. The findings of
the study revealed that Emotional Maturity of children of non-working mothers was lesser than that of children of working mothers. The study revealed that negligible relationship existed between Academic stress and Emotional Maturity of higher secondary school students. Children of working mothers were more emotionally matured than children of non-working mothers. Children of non-working mothers were lower stressed than children of working mothers. Children of working mothers possessed high Emotional Maturity and at the same time, they were more indisposed to stress and strain.

**Chetia, Soni and Dutta (2013)** conducted a comparative study on Emotional Maturity of secondary school students in Lakhimpur and Sonitpur Districts of Assam. The present study investigated the Emotional Maturity of secondary school students in Lakhimpur and Sonitpur districts of Assam. This study is conducted on a sample of 1000 Students, out of 1000 students 500 boys and 500 girls selected randomly from 32 Government and Private secondary schools of both districts of Assam. The descriptive survey method is used for data collection using Emotional Maturity Scale (M. Bhargava and Y. Singh (1990). The finding of the study reported that there was not any significant difference in various areas of Emotional Maturity of government and private school students; no significant difference was found in the Emotional Maturity level of boys and girls school students; and there is no significant difference between in the Emotional Maturity level of rural and urban secondary school students of both districts of Assam.

**Kaur (2013)** attempt a comparative study of Emotional Maturity of senior secondary school students. In his study he investigated the Emotional Maturity of adolescents of Chandigarh. He conducted on a group of 200 students, 100 boys and 100 girls from govt. and private senior secondary schools of Chandigarh. The findings of the study revealed that there was not any significant difference in various areas of Emotional Maturity of govt. and private school students; no significant difference was found in the Emotional Maturity level of boys and girls of senior secondary schools of Chandigarh.

**Malliick, Singh, Chaturvedi and Kumar (2014)** conducted a study on higher secondary students’ Emotional Maturity and achievement. It was found that (i) There is significant difference between male and female higher secondary students with respect to level of Emotional Maturity. (ii) There is no significant difference between rural and urban higher
secondary students with respect to level of Emotional Maturity. (iii) There is no significant difference between government and aided higher secondary students with respect to level of Emotional Maturity. (iv) There is significant difference between day scholar and hostel staying higher secondary students with respect to level of Emotional Maturity and (v) There is significant difference between male and female higher secondary students with respect to level of achievement in economics.

Chetia, Soni and Dutta (2014) conducted a comparative study on delinquency prone and non-delinquency prone adolescents with regards to Self-Concept, Emotional Maturity and Academic Achievement in Assam. This study is conducted on a sample of 500 adolescents comprised of 200 delinquencies prone and 300 non-delinquencies prone adolescents selected randomly from 12 secondary and higher secondary schools. The study reported that delinquency prone adolescents have low self-concept, low Emotional Maturity and poor academic achievement than that of non-delinquency prone adolescents. Further, the study showed the positive co-relation among self-concept, Emotional Maturity and academic achievement.

Mahanta and Kannan (2015) studied Emotional Maturity and adjustment in first year undergraduates of Delhi University: An Empirical Study. The primary purpose of the present study is to explore the relationship between adjustment and Emotional Maturity of first year undergraduate students. It also aimed at investigating if there exist any gender difference in Emotional Maturity and adjustment. The sample for the study consisted of 80 first year undergraduates from various colleges of Delhi University. The age ranged between 17-19 years. The sample was selected through incidental sampling technique. They were administered the Global Adjustment Scale(Student Form) by Sanjay Vohra and Emotional Maturity Scale by Singh and Bhargava to measure adjustment and Emotional Maturity, respectively. The results showed a significant positive correlation between Emotional Maturity and various dimensions of adjustment (namely, emotional, family, college and social adjustment) at .01 and 0.05 level of significance. Also the t-test showed no significant difference in Emotional Maturity between the two genders. The study further revealed that there was no significant difference in the adjustment dimensions between boys and girls except for only the
dimension of emotional adjustment, where females scored significantly higher than their male counterpart. Finally, few intervention techniques have been suggested along with implications to enable further research.

Wani and Masih (2015) studied Emotional Maturity across gender and level of education. The purpose of the present study is to identify the level of Emotional Maturity among university students and to find the significant differences in Emotional Maturity across gender and their level of education. To achieve the stipulated objectives descriptive method of research was followed. The data was then analyzed through Mean, sd and t-test for the comparison of mean scores between groups with the help of SPSS 21. The findings of the study revealed that majority of the post graduate students and research scholars of the university are emotionally unstable. The findings also showed that male students are emotionally immature than females on personality disintegration dimension of Emotional Maturity. Significant difference was also found between post graduates and research scholars on personality disintegration dimension of Emotional Maturity. On other dimensions of Emotional Maturity no difference was found between males and females and post graduates and research scholars University students must be taught to identify their level of Emotional Maturity, as they are at the highest seat of learning.

Bhut and Zalavadia (2016) examined Emotional Maturity and Home Environment among college student of Rajkot city. The purpose of present study was to find out correlation between the College Student Emotional Maturity and Home Environment among College Student of Rajkot City. The said sample was 210 both males and females in equal numbers was selected through random sampling. Emotional Maturity and Home Environment Inventory are tailor-made instruments, having sufficient reliability and validity. For the purpose of analysis, The Karl-Pearson ‘r’ technique was used. Present study reveals the result that there is significant positive correlation between the College Student Emotional Maturity and Home Environment.
2.4 STUDIES RELATED TO PEER PRESSURE

Brown (1982) examined the extent and effects of Peer Pressure among high school students. The current study examined that how much pressure peer exerted in numerous areas of high school life and how this pressure influenced teenagers’ attitudes and behaviors. The results revealed that Peer Pressure was strongest for females than males. The results showed that perception of Peer Pressure were in these areas as listed below dating attitudes, sexual activity, use of drugs, alcohol, but not with relationship.

Smith & Fowler (1984) conducted a research to examine that classroom peer can serve a powerful source of reinforcement in increasing or maintaining both the positive and negative behaviors of their classmates. They examined that the effectiveness of a peer – monitored token system as hypothesized by them it can reduce disruptive and non participation for behaviorally impaired child. Results revealed that both teachers and peers monitors systems was successful in decreasing disruptive behaviors. It was also concluded that peers are also successful in increasing participation.

Clasen & Brown (1985) conducted a study to asses’ perception of Peer Pressure in five areas of behaviors, involvement with peers, school involvement, family involvement conformity to peer norms and misconduct. It was perceived that pressure towards peer involvement were strong while Peer Pressure towards misconduct were comparatively ambivalent. The results of the study revealed that pressure towards misconduct increased across grade levels while pressure towards norms diminished. They further suggested that Peer Pressure towards school and family involvement were stronger that misconduct moreover it was shown by them that the peer the process of Peer Pressures in adolescence had a strong role in socialization and identity development

Brown, Lohr, and McClanahan (1986) conducted a study on the nature of Peer Pressure perceived by early adolescents. They showed that peers encouragement towards misconduct was less than other type of behaviors. Females Peer Pressure was strong towards conformity than males but no genders differences were formed in perception of misconduct. They also revealed that perceived pressure and personal attitudes and behaviors were significantly associated but modest and mediated by gender and grades.
Lau, Quadrel & Hartman (1990) explored the sources of stability and change in young adults’ health beliefs and behavior concerning drinking, diet, exercise, and wearing seat belts. Researcher showed that there were considerable changes in health behaviors during first years and peers have strong impact on that change. It was also suggested that parental influences were much more important than the peers on these beliefs and behaviors. The results revealed that influences from direct modeling of behaviors was most important for peers and parents.

Topping (1998) examined peer assessment between students in colleges and universities. Results revealed that peer assessment of writing and peer assessment using marks, grades, and tests are positively related with student achievements and attitudes. It was also concluded by research that the effects of peers are better than the effects of teachers.

Caldwell and Darling (1999) determined the importance of peer influences, personal characteristics, parental control and substance use on the leisure choices of adolescents in the United States. Using an ecological model, they found that adolescents who spent more time socialising are at heightened risk for substance use, but only if they reported themselves open to peer influence. Additionally, it was found that adolescents who spent more time socialising, who valued their friends more and who experienced low levels of parental monitoring had a greater chance of using substances.

Lashbrook (2000) reported on a national Gallup poll release that surveyed 13 to 17 years old. It was found that 40 percent of the sample cited peer influence when asked why they thought the Columbine High School shooting happened. The Gallup poll release shows that America's teenagers put the blame for tragedies such as Columbine directly on themselves rather than on parents, gun laws or media violence. The poll also reported that this country's youth suggest that one of the best ways to prevent future occurrences is to find ways to foster better communication among students, and to break down the barriers that apparently create hostility between groups in today's American high schools. It was also found that peer influence can be a scary phenomenon for both adolescents and adults in the school setting.
**Ryan (2000)** found that peer groups were influential regarding changes in students intrinsic value for school (i.e., liking and enjoying) as well as achievement (i.e., report card grades). The peer group was not, however, influential regarding changes in students utility value for school (i.e., importance and usefulness). It was found that associating with friends who have a positive affect toward school enhanced students own satisfaction with school, whereas associating with friends who have a negative affect toward school decreased it.

**Zeijl et al. (2000)** conducted a study to investigate the degree to which pre-adolescents as well as adolescents associate with parents and peers in their leisure time. The researchers found that fourteen and fifteen-year-old boys, especially those from higher social classes, strongly focused on peer groups, whereas girls of the same age had a stronger preference for dyadic friendships. Since boys generally have more freedom of movement in peer groups than do girls, they are more frequently found in public with their peer groups. Girls are more likely to hang out in their homes. It was also found that thirteen-year-old girls from higher and middle social classes are single/friendship kids. This means they spend as much time alone as with a steady friend. Interestingly enough, the researchers found that teenage girls from lower social classes encountered the most parental attention concerning peer contacts.

**Ungar (2000)** conducted a qualitative study to examine the construct of Peer Pressure in relation to mental health for 41 high-risk adolescents. The participants were ages thirteen to eighteen and they had all been in therapy within the last twelve months. Two groups participated. The first group included twenty-one white adolescents, twelve female and nine males, from several small urban centers in southwestern Ontario, Canada. The second group included four females and sixteen males from a long-term treatment program in a young offender, closed-custody facility in eastern Canada. Seventeen were white and three were Native Canadians. Participation in the study was voluntary. A small stipend was paid to all the participants to ensure the inclusion of less altruistic youth and to emphasize the distinction between this research and therapy. Each teen participated in interviews lasting one to one and a half hours. It was concluded that for many adults, the concept of Peer Pressure leads to the belief that the peer group demands conformity to its
norms, which may include delinquency. The notion that adolescents experience anxiety or frustration when unable to follow the dictums of their peers supports the idea that teens sacrifice personal agency. However, the high-risk youths in the present study provided a different perspective. The peer group was experienced as a forum in which to participate in the collective construction of both a group and individual identity.

**Biddle, Bank, and Marlin (2001)** conducted a study to examine parental and peer influence on adolescents. The data collected was part of a field study of expectations and reported behaviors conducted by interviews with American adolescents. Subjects for the study consisted of 149 adolescents, then enrolled in public high schools in a Midwestern state. The respondents constituted a quota-sample design that was approximately balanced for age, sex, social class, race, and community of residence. In comparison with the total population, the sample contained more blacks and disproportionately few who lived in rural areas; and the sample was obtained within a single, Midwestern state and consisted only of adolescents who were then enrolled within public schools. In other respects the sample was presumably representative. The researchers found that peer behaviors are more likely to affect the adolescent than parental behaviors, whereas parental norms are more likely to affect the adolescent than peer norms. Parents have had a longer time to influence adolescents and retain a responsibility to represent the standards of the adult world. Peers, in contrast, may be shunned if they attempt to impose standards on their adolescent friends but are likely to be omnipresent as behavioral models within schools.

**Landau (2002)** supported this conclusion by stating that students who care about learning are more likely to associate with peers who share this interest in academics than those who have less interest in learning. The personal value that an individual attaches to a characteristic also affects the individual’s response to change. High value results in resistance to change, and low value results in receptiveness to change.

**Bester (2004)** conducted a study to determine if peers and parents have a different impact on the personality development of the adolescent. An empirical investigation was carried out involving 98 learners from Grades 8 to 11 (53 boys and 55 girls). The respondents completed instruments measuring parent-child relationship, relationship with peers, self-
concept, and personality characteristics. The results indicated that the peer group, when compared with parents, had a stronger relationship with the personality development of the adolescent. Parents also play an important role in determining the Peer Pressure.

Charlotte and Geary (2005) examined the relationship between adolescent autonomy within the family and susceptibility to Peer Pressure. Autonomy was measured from the teen reports, parent reports, and observed family interaction of 88 adolescents when the teens were 16 years old. Then susceptibility to Peer Pressure was measured from teen reports when they were 18. The study examined three aspects of family relationships that affect teens’ behavioral or social cognitive autonomy: parental control, decision-making, and conflict resolution. Results indicated that high parental control and decision-making by parents or teens alone was related to high susceptibility to Peer Pressure. In addition, teens whose mothers undermined their autonomy during conflict resolution were also high in susceptibility to peer influence. However teens who participated in joint decision-making were lower in susceptibility to peer influence. Overall, it was found that autonomy at age 16 could predict low susceptibility to Peer Pressure at 18.

Alvarado and Turly (2007) studied the adolescent behavior is being affected significantly by Peer groups, which are considered the most influential social forces for bringing changes in the behavior – from ordinary decisions regarding clothing, hairstyle, music, and entertainment, to more significant decisions relating to short and long-term education plans. During the adolescent period, it is argued that peers are more important than parents, teachers, and counselors, and the influencing decisions of peers can have long-lasting consequences on youth. The importance of peer groups is recognized through their choice of neighborhoods, schools, and activities by Parents, that is an attempt for guidance, directions, shaping the destinies and future of their children’ friendship selections, which are more helpful in facing the lurking challenges in the adolescence stage of life. Despite, socio-economic status, it is the desire of parents to get the best possible social networks, mainly during adolescence, when youth are increasingly independent from parents. In the adolescent period a series of decisions are taken in the light of already established goals, that are very helpful in shaping their educational paths in future and peer groups have strong influence on these decision of the youth.
Bohnke (2008) examined the consequences of high Peer Pressure on academic performance in mathematics among 14 years old middle-school students in Germany, Canada, and Israel. 1,700 students were surveyed in the three cultures. Findings of the study make it obvious that concerning achievement in mathematics the primary victims of Peer Pressure in middle school are girls, boys more likely than girls being the perpetrators.

Holliday, Rothwell and Moore (2009) examined the relative importance of smoking behavior of best friends, boyfriends/girlfriends, the wider friendship group, and school year group smoking prevalence as correlates and predictors of smoking behavior (peer influence). The article also aimed to assess the relative extent to which smoking behavior was associated with changes in smoking among peers who were selected to be friends (selective association). Results indicated that the smoking behavior of best friend, boyfriend/girlfriend, the wider friendship group, and school year group prevalence were cross-sectionally associated with higher odds of weekly and occasional smoking. In longitudinal multivariate influence models, only the smoking behavior of boyfriend/girlfriend and the wider friendship group were associated with weekly smoking. Weekly smoking was associated with maintaining or changing to having smokers among best friends, boyfriends/girlfriends, and the wider friendship group. In models including all variables, only selective association effects were observed. It was concluded that although univariate analyses indicate an association of friends, peer group, and year group smoking with current and subsequent smoking behavior, multivariate longitudinal analyses indicate that simple peer influence models do not completely explain adolescent smoking and that a more complex interrelationship exists between smoking, peers smoking and peer socialization.

Haynie (2009) conducted a study on the relationship between parenting styles and Peer Pressure susceptibility among 60 drug rehabilitation patients. The parenting styles as perceived by the respondents are determined utilizing Buris (1991) Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ) which is founded on Baumrinds (1971) three parental authority prototypes: authoritarian, authoritative and permissive. To determine the dominant Peer Pressure susceptibility factor, that is between internal and external, a researcher-designed
questionnaire was used. Internal Peer Pressure susceptibility factor or self-predisposition proves to be most influential factor among the respondents when it comes to being offered by a friend to take drugs.

**Padilla-Walker and Bean (2009)** examined adolescents perceptions of negative and positive peer influence (i.e., indirect peer association and direct Peer Pressure) as they related to adolescent behavior. Regression analyses were conducted using a sample of African American, European American, and Hispanic adolescents (N=1659, M age =16.06, SD=1.10). The study found differences and similarities in relation to respondents’ ethnicity vis-a-vis indirect peer association and adolescent behavior. Although few ethnic-based differences occurred as a function of indirect negative peer association, indirect positive peer association was not as consistently or as strongly related to behaviors for minority youth as it was for European American youth.

**Adesoji and Oni (2010)** investigated peer group pressure as a determinant of adolescents' social adjustment in Nigerian schools, with a focus on the Ikeja Local Government Area of Lagos State. Two null hypotheses were tested using a random sample of one hundred and twenty adolescents from four secondary schools in the Ikeja Local Government Area. The instrument was a self-designed questionnaire. The collected data were analysed using an independent t-test and a Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient. The results of the analysis showed that peer group pressure among adolescents is related to their social adjustment and that the gender of the adolescents affects their social adjustment as well.

**Esen and Gundogdu (2010)** investigated the relationships between internet addiction, Peer Pressure and social support among adolescents. The sample of the study consisted of 558 adolescents (290 female 268 male) selected from high school 9th and 10th grade at Mersin. To examine the relationships between internet addiction, Peer Pressure and social support, gender X Peer Pressure (low-medium-high), gender X peer support (low-medium-high), gender X parental support (low-medium-high) and gender X teachers support (low-medium-high) design four different analyses of variance was applied to the Internet Addiction Questionnaire scores of the adolescents. The results showed that the lower the Peer Pressure, internet addiction decreases. Moreover, the more the parental
and teachers support increase, internet addiction scores of the adolescents decrease. Furthermore, it was observed that internet addiction scores of the adolescents differed according to gender, and the internet addiction scores of the girls were lower than that of boys.

**Kiuru, Burk, Laursen, Aro and Nurmi (2010)** examined the relative influence of selection and socialization on alcohol and tobacco use in adolescent peer networks and peer groups. The sample included 1419 Finnish secondary education students (690 males and 729 females, mean age 16 years at the outset) from nine schools. Participants identified three school friends and described their alcohol and tobacco use on two occasions one year apart. Actor-based models simultaneously examined changes in peer network Multi-level analyses examined changes in individual behaviors for adolescents entering new peer groups and adolescents in stable peer groups, both of which were embedded within the school-based peer networks. Similar results emerged from both analytic methods: Selection and socialization contributed to similarity of alcohol use, but only selection was a factor in tobacco use.

**Paluck (2010)** conducted a study and observed that to individuals often conform to the intergroup attitudes and behaviors modeled by their peers in a given situation. To what extent does peer influence on intergroup prejudice (1) diffuse across a social network of peers and (2) affect attitudes and behavior across time? Student leaders (Peer Trainers) were trained to confront expressions of intergroup prejudice in five randomly assigned high schools across a period of five months; students recruited to be peer trainers in five control schools waited to be trained. Independent surveys of peer trainers' social networks reveal that treatment peer trainers were significantly more likely than control trainers to be nominated by peers as students who confront prejudice. Treatment peer trainers tolerant behavior spread to close friends and to acquaintances in their social network; their attitudes spread inconsistently, and only to close friends. Studying peer influence within social networks can improve understanding of social influence, prejudice reduction, and social change.

**Yunus, Mushtaq and Qaiser (2010)** studied Peer Pressure and adaptive behavior learning: a study of adolescents in Gujrat city. The aim of the study was to discovered the influences of Peer Pressure on adaptive behavior learning in the adolescents. The Sample
of the study was purposive in nature and comprised of late adolescents (n=120) i.e. 60 males and 60 females, from Gujrat city. Cronbach alpha was calculated and found to be significant for Peer Pressure Scale (PPS) and its subscales i.e. Belongingness Subscale, Influential Learning Subscale and for Influential Consequences Subscale while Cronbach alpha was also found significant for Adaptive Behavior Scale(ABS) and its subscales i.e. Interpersonal skills Scale, Self Discipline scale. Factor analysis was applied for the reduction of items. The significant correlation was found between ABS total and its subscales scores, with PPS total scores and its subscales scores. Inter correlation between PPS and its subscales revealed that Peer Pressure scale scores were highly significantly correlated with its four subscales. Inter correlation of ABS and its sub scales showed that total ABS scale scores are highly correlated with its all subscale scores. The results shows that Peer Pressure has a positive influence as those who received high amount of Peer Pressure, have better adaptive abilities.

**Akhtar and Aziz (2011)** studied the effect of peer and parent pressure on the academic achievement of university students. The study aims at exploring the effect of peer and parent pressure on the academic achievement of university students. The findings of the study were the parent pressure effect positively and Peer Pressure effects negatively the academic achievement of students and especially female university students. No effect of peer and parent pressure was found on the achievement male students. The parent’s pressure has positive effect on the academic achievement of Business Administration students.

**Beatrice, Olawumi and Ajidahun (2011)** examined poverty, divorce and peer-pressure as correlates of behavioral problems among adolescents in Adekunle Ajasin University. A total number of 100 students were randomly selected from various Departments in the Faculty of Education. The research instrument titled: Adolescent Psychological Questionnaire (APQ) consisting of 18 items was administered to the adolescents in the Faculty. Four research hypotheses were formulated. The data were analyses using frequency count and Chi-Square statistics. Results showed that all the hypotheses tested were significant. This implies that poverty, divorce and peer-pressure were correlates of behavioral problems among adolescents.
Daisy and Tung (2011) explored the patterns of adolescence and examined the parental and peer attachment patterns on three dimensions namely trust, communication and alienation among adolescent boys and girls. A sample of 100 boys and 100 girls of age group 13 to 15 years and 100 boys and 100 girls of age group 16 to 18 years were drawn from public schools and colleges. The gender and age differences were found out using t-ratios. The girls attachment to parents was found to be higher for parents at both age levels. Further, both boys and girls were found to be more attached with their parents during middle adolescence. No gender differences were found regarding adolescents maternal and parental attachments. However, peer attachment scores significantly go higher during late adolescence suggesting a rise in the importance of peers.

Harakeh and Vollebergh (2011) examined whether passive (imitation) and/or active (pressure) peer influence affects young adults smoking. An experiment was conducted among 68 daily-smoking students aged 16–24. The experiment consisted of a 2 (smoking condition: confederate smokes or not) by 2 (pressure condition: confederate offers the participant a cigarette or not) factorial design, resulting in four conditions: (1) no smoking and no pressure (N=15); (2) smoking but no pressure (N=16); (3) pressure but no smoking (N=20); and (4) smoking and pressure (N=17). Results revealed that Peer smoking significantly predicted the total number of cigarettes smoked by young adults while Peer Pressure did not. The interaction effect of Peer Pressure and peer smoking was not significant. Conclusions: Peer Pressure did not have a significant additional contribution, over and above smoking of the peer. Passive (imitation) peer influence affected young adult smoking rather than active (pressure) peer influence. Thus, smoking cessation efforts should aim at preventing interaction with smoking peers and raising awareness about its impact.

Ramirez et al. (2011) examined the roles the family environment and peer networks play in abstinence from alcohol and other substances over a year. In a survey of 419 adolescents between 13 – 18 years, they found that peer networks influenced substance use; and when fewer friends used substances, individuals were less likely to use substances. Using logistic regression, they examined the characteristics predicting one year abstinence and predicting having fewer than four substance using friends.
Adolescents with fewer substance using friends were more likely to abstain than those with four or more substance using friends. In other words, they established that less interaction with peers and having less than four friends using substances predicts abstinence for a year.

Tope (2011) investigated the influence of peer group on adolescents academic performance. The sample of the study was 150 randomly selected students from four secondary schools. The findings were the peer group could either positively or negatively influence the academic performance in school.

Gorrese and Ruggieri (2012) conducted a study on peer attachment: A meta-analytic review of gender and age differences and associations with parent attachment. The purpose of this study was to review, through a meta-analytic approach, studies on adolescent and youth peer relationships within the theoretical framework of attachment. Main findings highlighted that parent attachment is moderately correlated to peer attachment; that females were significantly more attached to their peers than males; and that the correlation between age and peer attachment was not significant. This set of findings was confirmed examining both overall peer attachment as well as specific dimensions of attachment, such as trust and communication. Furthermore, since a significant heterogeneity was found across studies, we tested the effects of various categorical (i.e., year and language of publication, country, attachment measure) and continuous (i.e., mean age and percentage of females of the sample, number of items of the peer attachment scale) moderators related to characteristics of the study samples and designs.

Joseph and Zacker (2012) examined Peer Pressure and tobacco smoking among undergraduate students of the University of Calabar, Nigeria. Result indicated that 46 percent of tobacco use among undergraduate students were accounted for by Peer Pressure, while the ANOVA result indicated that Peer Pressure had significant influence on undergraduate students tobacco use; the model further revealed that a unit increase in peer influence factor would result in 62\% unit rise in the percentage of undergraduates that make use of tobacco substance. Study revealed that the frequency of tobacco use among undergraduate student in Nigeria's university environment was in the increase.
Leonardo and Robert (2012) investigated how does Peer Pressure affect educational investments? When academic effort or investment is observable to peers, students may act to avoid social penalties or gain social favor (i.e. Peer Pressure) by conforming to prevailing norms. To test this hypothesis, we conducted an experiment in Los Angeles high schools in which 11th grade students were offered complimentary access to a commercial, online SAT preparatory course from a well-known test company. Sign up sheets differed randomly across students (within classrooms) only in the extent to which they emphasized that the decision to enroll would be kept private from their classmates. We find that whether choices are believed to be observable to others has dramatic effects on sign up rates. Further, the effects depend greatly on the setting or prevailing peer group norm. In non-honors classes, the sign up rate was 11 percentage points lower when decisions to enroll were to be public rather than private. But sign up in honors classes was unaffected. Since the differential response in the two types of classes could be driven by differences across students in honors and non-honors classes, to further test for the effects of Peer Pressure we examine students taking the same number of honors classes (e.g. the set of students taking exactly two honors classes). For these students, it is essentially random whether our team arrived and offered them the course during a period in which they were in class with their honors peers or their non-honors peers. When offered the course in their non-honors class, these students were 25 percentage points less likely to sign up if the decision was public. But if they were offered the course in one of their honors classes, they were 25 percentage points more likely to sign up when the decision was public. These results show that students are highly responsive to who their peers are and what the prevailing norm is when they make decisions. These results also allow us to isolate peer social concerns from other peer effect mechanisms, since we changed nothing about a students actual set of peers (or their teachers, classroom or school), only those peers actually present when decisions were made and thus to whom the choice would potentially be revealed.

Kiran-Esen (2013) executed his study in 2001-2002 academic year on 7182nd grade high school students (311 girls and 407 boys) between ages 15-17 who are impartially selected by cluster sampling and random sampling techniques. A Peer Pressure Scale, developed by the author, is used to determine the Peer Pressure.
frequency of students smoking is calculated according to the answers of students. The results showed that, there is a significant relation between Peer Pressure levels and smoking.

Lai et al. (2013) examined factors associated with substance use and delinquency among South African adolescents. Although an association exists between substance use and delinquency, they found that delinquent peers pressured one another into using methamphetamine and inhalants. They concluded that adolescents, who easily accepted delinquent peers, were more prone to using harder drugs. Although there are many reports that specify the relationship between peer-related matters and substance use among adolescents, there remains a paucity of research regarding other factors such as leisure boredom in South Africa.

Sajjad et. al. (2013) investigated the impact of peer groups on the academic achievement of secondary school students. All Government Secondary School of District Mardan constituted population of the study. Through a self-developed questionnaire, data were collected from three secondary school students and was analyzed on simple percentage, Co-relation and Linear Regression. The study demonstrated that educational decisions including school selection and subject selection were strongly affected by members of peer groups.

Daniel and Felix (2014) assessed school environment factors and peer influences in terms of the level of psychological impact they have on learners. The study used a correlation research design where school environment and peer influence constituted the independent variables whereas students’ academic performance was the dependent variable. Twenty-one public secondary schools in Sabatia District of Vihiga County were used in the study. The study subjects were selected using simple random sampling technique. Data were analyzed using multiple regression. The study established that school environment and peer influence made significant contribution to the students’ academic performance.

Bankole and Funmi (2015) investigated the influence of peer group on the academic performance of secondary school students in Ekiti State. The findings of the study showed that peers age (young and old) does not influence academic performance of

Adeniyi and Kolawole (2015) studied the influence of Peer Pressure on adolescent social behavior. A sample size of 100 participants was randomly selected from five secondary schools in Amuwo-Odofin Local Education District of Lagos State. A twenty item Peer Pressure on Adolescents Behaviour Questionnaire (PPABQ) was administered on the sample. It was hypothesized that there will be no significant influence of Peer Pressure on social behaviour, self-concept, gender and parental rearing pattern. This hypothesis was accepted. It was found out that Peer Pressure has no significant impact on the variables studied.

Irma (2015) studied the impact of peer relations in the academic process among adolescents. The purpose of this study is an attempt to give a personal contribution in the examination of the role between two different types of relationships between peers; frequent interactions and mutual membership in the group; and the decrease or the increase of the learning outcomes in terms of academic performance. Based on the data, reports and observations, it is shown that there is a need to understand the trend of the impact, to face research on social motivation as well as to conceptualize the impact of peer relations in an appropriate way. Empirical results show that peers create networks which lead to overestimation of the group effects on the traditional model and this causes them to change the objectives in the academic achievements. Furthermore, it is observed that adolescents have an increased social motivation which is followed by a decrease of
academic motivation; this consequence causes the demonstrations of the inability in academic areas in school. These results are understandable if the acceptance of the adolescent from the peer group is one of the measurement keys of positive and negative experiences at school.

**Eric and Benedict (2015)** examined the determinants of academic performance among senior high school (SHS) Students in the Ashanti Mampong Municipality of Ghana. The findings of the study revealed parental involvement, parents’ academic ambition for their children, peer influence, the child’s academic ambition and the child’s effort as the correlates of academic performance. The findings also established parental involvements, sex of the child, the child’s academic ambition and the child’s effort as the main determinants of academic performance. The findings however did not confirm the null hypothesis so it was rejected.